RELATIONSHIPS AT WORK:

INCIVILITY, INTERPERSONAL CITIZENSHIP, EMOTION, AND GENDER IN ORGANIZATIONS

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Psychology) in The University of Michigan 2012

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DEDICATION

To Jason, without whose support and good humor I could have never completed such an endeavor, and to my mom and dad, whose confidence in my abilities inspired me to set my goals high.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to acknowledge and thank my advisor, Lilia Cortina, for her endless support, feedback, and encouragement. I look forward to years of collaboration and friendship. I would also like to acknowledge the helpful guidance of my committee members, Abby Stewart, Robin Edelstein, and David Mayer, who provided invaluable suggestions and critique throughout my dissertation process. The current projects would not have been possible without the financial support of the University of Michigan Psychology Department, Rackham Graduate School, the Center for the Education of Women, and the Institute for Women and Gender; and The Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues.

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ABSTRACT

Social interactions in organizations have the potential to generate energy and flourishing; on the other side of the spectrum, they can be a source of anguish and dysfunction. My dissertation acknowledges relationships on both sides of the continuum by examining workplace experiences of incivility and interpersonal citizenship, from the recipient's perspective. We know from past research that incivility has a variety of negative consequences for the targeted individual; what is less clear is how incivility links to individual well-being. I test the mediating role of emotion in this process. My project also adds to the nascent literature on interpersonal citizenship in the workplace, identifying specific emotional pathways to outcomes. Additionally, I examine for whom incivility and citizenship matter the most, investigating both organizational commitment and gender as potential moderators of emotional response.

My dissertation proposes four comprehensive models through which incivility and citizenship experiences link to outcomes. Using structural equation and regression analysis, I find evidence of moderated mediation in two samples: working women in Michigan (N = 419) and working adults from across the U.S. (N = 479). My results make multiple unique contributions to the literature. First, all four studies reveal that emotion comes into play following subtle, often overlooked social experiences. These emotional reactions then have important linkages to both individual and organizational well-being. Second, consideration of the role and importance of discrete emotions is key in understanding how interpersonal experience relate to outcomes. Scholars and practitioners should continue to examine a range of discrete emotions in response to encountering incivility and interpersonal citizenship behavior, feelings of guilt in particular. Third, my results underscore the gravity of incivility, showing that the most

valued employees (those with high commitment) may experience the worst outcomes. However, it seems men and women respond with similar emotions to incivility or citizenship experiences. Lastly, I find receipt of interpersonal citizenship behavior to have very real consequences on the job. Whereas most research focuses on the enactment of citizenship, we should turn our eye to its recipients as a way to further understand how to promote employee well-being.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

No longer thought of as a rational, logical space, only recently has the workplace been recognized as a social context of relationships (Dutton, 2003; Mossholder, Richardson, & Settoon, 2011). With the recognition that organizations are social, relational settings, researchers have turned to examining social interactions at work. Scholarship has focused on hostile workplace interactions such as workplace aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1997), emotional abuse (Keashly, 1998), and workplace harassment (Brodsky, 1976). These behaviors can pose significant cost to the organization in terms of withdrawal behaviors, turnover, and decreased productivity, as well as to the target in terms of psychological and physical stress. Much of the research to date has addressed these more outwardly aggressive behaviors. More recently, attention has been paid to more subtle, non-physical manifestations of anti-social workplace behaviors, specifically incivility. Incivility is defined as "low intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" (Andersson & Pearson, p. 457, 1999). Examples of incivility include hostile looks, disrespectful remarks, or refusal to work with a colleague.

While incivility may be subtle, past research has found that it links with serious organizational and individual outcomes. Targets of incivility show greater job stress, psychological distress, lower job satisfaction, and ultimately higher turnover rates (Cortina et al., 2002; Cortina Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000; Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001). Recently, Cortina and Magley have examined patterns of individual response to incivility, focusing on appraisal and coping strategies (2009). However, little research has empirically examined *how* uncivil behaviors lead to outcomes.

In this project, I examine affective response as a mediator through which interpersonal experiences influence outcomes. In contrast to the majority of past work in the undermining and aggression literature, which does not address emotion, I place emotional response at the forefront of my investigation. Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and Job-Stress Theory (Spector, 1998) suggest that emotions play a major role in physical, psychological, and behavioral outcomes at work. Applying these various theories to social experiences in organizations, I test the possibility that incivility may affect outcomes through the experience of emotion.

While we know very little regarding the mechanisms through which incivility affects outcomes, we know even less about *which* employees incivility affects the most. It is likely that not all employees respond to mistreatment with the same level of emotional response. I examine the role of organizational commitment as one factor which may buffer (or alternatively exacerbate) emotional reactions to incivility.

Additionally, I unpack and complicate these relationships by situating my work in theories of the gendered organization and the larger gender stereotyping and socialization literatures. This involves consideration of the ways in which men and women negotiate gender stereotypes, stereotypical ideas of the ideal worker, and expectations of emotional response at work. No research to date has examined the role of gender in emotional reaction following incivility.

On the flip-side of the coin, scholars have recently pointed to the importance of positive, engaging, and respectful relationships in organizations. Indeed, the psychological literature notes that happiness in life is not merely the absence of the negative (Diener & Emmons, 1984; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Research in the positive organizational behavior literature has brought to light the benefits of positive connections at work. Specifically, I examine interpersonal citizenship behaviors, which are behaviors that are "affiliative, cooperative, and directed at other individuals" Mossholder, Richardson, & Settoon, 2011, p. 33). I investigate how receipt of interpersonal citizenship behavior is related to individual and organizational outcomes, theorizing that positive interpersonal experiences will increase outcomes related to

thriving and engagement (e.g., empowerment, self-esteem). To date the citizenship literature has focused on the *enactment* of citizenship. I shift the focus to the *recipient's experience* of interpersonal citizenship, drawing attention to the importance of the relational system at work and how positive experiences meaningfully connect people (Kahn, 2007).

I expand the nascent literature on interpersonal citizenship behaviors by investigating the role of emotional mechanisms. Broaden and Build Theory (Frederickson, 1998) suggests that positive emotions foster physical, cognitive, and social resources. My dissertation takes a closer look at the experiences that may trigger positive emotion and empirically tests this process. I also investigate whether men and women respond similarly to positive interpersonal experiences. Gendered theories of emotion suggest that women and men have disparate emotional lives, especially in organizations. However, there is little work that addresses gender differences with respect to positive emotional response. This project therefore forges into new territory.

To summarize, in contrast with much of the research (described below) on interactions in the workplace, this dissertation focuses on the *receipt* of incivility and interpersonal citizenship behaviors. This project takes into consideration both positive and negative interactions, as well as positive and negative emotional responses. I also examine the role of organizational commitment and gender in this process. My dissertation aims to answer the following questions:

- 1. What is the process through which incivility and interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt link to individual and organizational outcomes? In particular, what role does emotion play in this process?
- 2. For whom does incivility matter most? More specifically, how does the level of organizational commitment of employees affect emotional response?
- 3. How do men and women differ in their emotional response to incivility and interpersonal citizenship behaviors?

Why should we study social interactions at the workplace? By better understanding the relational side of the workplace, we will be able to realize the impact of deviant behaviors, both negative and positive. Many organizations put great effort into limiting the amount of negatively deviant behaviors, but recently scholars have pointed to the benefit of positive deviance, challenging the negative connotation of "deviance". Cameron (2003) has developed a deviance continuum, with negative deviance falling on the left side, normal behaviors in the middle, and positive deviance on the right side. Deviance refers to behaviors that fall outside of the norms: negative deviance being problematic behaviors and positive deviance being virtuous behavior that is extraordinary (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Seligman (2002a, 2002b) found that over the past fifty years, more than 99 percent of psychological research has focused on behavior that is negatively deviant or normal. The same can be said for research in medicine as well as organizational behavior (Cameron, 2003). I aim to consider the right side of the continuum, positively deviant behaviors, which are defined as intentional behaviors that violate the norms of a referent group in honorable ways (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). The workplace is built on relationships between supervisors, coworkers, subordinates, and customers. By considering the underlying processes involved in relational ties, we will better understand the individual processes by which social interactions affect individual and organizational outcomes.

The linkage between social interactions and outcomes is not likely to be the same for all employees. Organizations strive to fill their ranks with individuals who are invested and affectively attached to the organization. While the literature on organizational commitment often focuses on the benefits committed employees bestow on the organization, less research examines the benefits of commitment for the employees themselves. This dissertation seeks to address this gap by asking: Does a high level of attachment to the organization protect employees from the negative consequences of experiencing incivility on the job? Or alternatively, does commitment to the organization exacerbate the negative effects? I explore these competing

hypotheses in an effort to uncover the potential differential negative effects of incivility for committed employees.

I also add to the literature on the gendered workplace and consider that work relationships might not look the same for men and women employees. Workplace interactions might serve to preserve what Acker (2006) refers to as *inequality regimes* which are "loosely interrelated practices, processes, actions and meanings that results in and maintain class, gender, and racial inequalities" (p. 443) within organizations. Incivility is one type of informal and subtle interaction, often unspoken, making reporting and documentation difficult. Acker (2006) argues that, through these informal interactions, white men devalue and exclude white women and people of color. This results in systematic disparities in organizations, with people in power having control over goals, resources, and outcomes (Acker, 2006; Haslett, Geis, & Carter, 1992).

By taking a gendered lens, I seek to understand how the social system may perpetuate inequalities rooted in the gendered nature of organizational power. Feminist scholars have noted the power deficit that women face compared to men, revealing that many obstacles women encounter are invisible barriers (Haslett, Geis, & Porter, 1992). The disparity can be attributed to many causes, including stereotypes held about leaders, women workers, and what it means to be a "worker" (Williams, 2001). Stereotypes about women in the workforce include that they are communal and not competent, not agentic, and not suited to leadership positions (e.g., Sczesny, 2005). Prejudice in the workplace stems from the beliefs that women lack the qualities necessary for success (Eagly & Sczesny, 2009), further reifying the idea that work is a "masculine domain". Because of the gendered nature of the work context, the ways in which men and women respond emotionally to deviant social interactions may vary. The meaning behind any given social interaction might convey different messages based on the social status of one's gender within the organizational context, thereby eliciting different levels of emotions in response. I investigate this possibility by examining discrete emotional response to incivility (more specifically, feelings of anger and guilt) and to interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt (feelings of self-assurance).

This dissertation makes novel contributions to the literature, three of which are especially noteworthy. First, I test affect and emotion as possible mediating factors in the incivility-to-outcome process. Investigating emotions with respect to incivility is relatively uncharted territory, and this dissertation seeks to determine the role that emotional response plays. Second, I extend the interpersonal citizenship behavior literature to consider the receipt of this behavior. I propose a model through which interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt may function to benefit both individuals and organizations. Last, I test moderators in these processes, focusing on gender and organizational commitment as key to understanding the ways in which social interactions relate to emotions on the job. This project integrates both positive and negative work behavior into one research program, recognizing that one work context can have both positive and negative social dimensions.

Overview of Anti-social Workplace Behavior

Across the diverse literatures of psychology, sociology, business, and nursing, anti-social workplace behavior is conceptualized in different ways. To map out these constructs, Andersson and Pearson (1999) developed a model that positions incivility with respect to other forms of mistreatment in organizations (see Figure 1.1). This diagram is especially helpful to conceptualize how the constructs in the current literature fit together. This paper will use Andersson and Pearson's model as a starting point to guide the following review of anti-social workplace behavior.

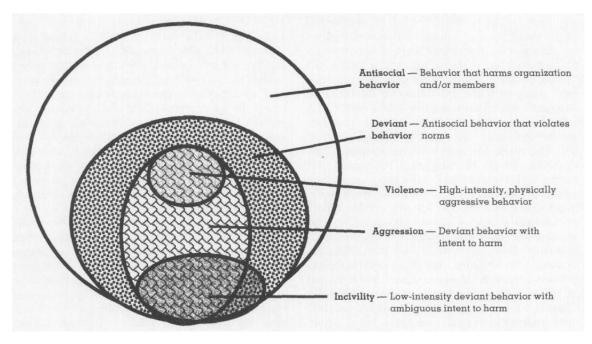


Figure 1.1. Incivility with respect to other forms of mistreatment in organizations (from Andersson and Pearson, 1999)

Incivility

Keashly and Jagatic (2003) noted that many studies have shown that the most prevalent hostile behavior in the workplace is verbal, indirect, and passive. These behaviors have multiple labels, such as "psychological aggression" (Barling, 1996), "emotional abuse" (Keashly, 1998), "generalised workplace abuse" (Richman et al., 1999), as well as "incivility" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Andersson and Pearson (1999) posit that incivility falls within the larger realms of anti-social and deviant behavior, and sometimes overlaps with aggression. Examples of incivility include hostile looks, disrespectful remarks, or refusal to work with coworkers. In distinguishing incivility from other types of anti-social workplace behaviors, it is important to note that incivility has no obvious gendered or racial discriminatory content (Cortina, 2008; Lim & Cortina, 2005). Moreover, incivility lacks clear intention to harm.

Past research has found incivility to be extremely prevalent in a variety of workplaces. Survey research by Cortina and colleagues has revealed that an overwhelming majority of employees report that they have experienced some form of

uncivil conduct on the job in recent years: 71% of a court employee sample (Cortina, et al., 2001), 75% of a university employee sample (Cortina & Magley, 2009), and 79% of a law enforcement sample (Cortina, Lonsway, & Magley, 2004).

Anti-social Behavior

Anti-social behavior is the overarching term used to broadly describe "any behavior that brings harm, or is intended to bring harm, to an organization, its employees, or stakeholders" (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997, p. vii). Some scholars refer to this as "aggressive work behavior" (O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996) or "organizational misbehavior" (Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Examples of anti-social behavior are arson, blackmail, bribery, lying, theft, and discrimination.

Deviant Behavior

More specific than anti-social behavior is *deviant behavior*. Robinson and Bennett (1995) define this as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in doing so threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (p. 556). The differentiation between anti-social behavior and deviant behavior is that deviant behavior must be voluntary and violate organizational norms. Examples of deviant behavior include gossip, unapproved breaks, theft, and verbal abuse. Robinson and Bennett (1995) divided this category into two sub-categories: interpersonal deviance (i.e., acts that inflict harm upon individuals – gossip, verbal harassment) and organizational deviance (i.e., acts directed against the company or its systems – sabotage, theft). The division of the larger category of deviant behavior helps to understand the underlying constructs and specificities of behavior types. Incivility therefore is a form of interpersonal deviance.

Aggression and Violence

More specific than deviant behavior is *aggression*. In psychology, aggression is defined by "injurious and destructive behavior that is socially defined as aggressive" (Bandura, 1973, p. 8). In organizational behavior, aggression refers to deviant behavior with the intent to harm (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Relatedly, *violence* is a high-intensity, physical form of aggression (VandenBos & Bulatao, 1996). Aggression and

violence can both be discrete events. Here it is important to note that only when incivility carries obvious intent to harm does it fall into the category of "aggression". A full review of the large literatures on aggression and violence is not within the scope of this paper; however differentiating these concepts and how they are used in the literatures is important.

Bullying

Referring to Figure 1.1, there are additional terms that can be positioned on the diagram. Similar to incivility, bullying falls within the category of anti-social behavior, and overlaps with the categories of deviant behavior and aggression. Bullying would also overlap with violence if the violent behavior was repeated. Bullying, also known as "mobbing" (Leymann, 1996) and "harassment" (Björkqvist, 1994), refers to "situations" where a worker or a supervisor is systematically mistreated and victimized by fellow workers or supervisors through repeated negative acts" (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996, p. 185). Examples of bullying include persistent attempts at social isolation and exclusion, devaluation of work and efforts, teasing, insults, and ridicule. Einersen and Skogstand (1996) also include in their definition that "one must feel inferiority in defending oneself" (p. 187). This specification is from past work on playground behavior that has been adopted for use in the workplace. Incivility is similar to bullying in that both involve mistreating fellow employees, but bullying is characterized by repeated mistreatment that intimidates the target. Because of the repetitive nature of bullying, it is likely that there is clear intent to harm (which is not the case for incivility). When viewed in isolation, some acts of bullying would be considered incivility; however, the behavior becomes bullying when there is a pattern of persistence over time.

Social Undermining

Social undermining is a concept that is more often used in close-relationship research; however, some researchers in the organizational literature are now using it to describe behaviors in the workplace (e.g., Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson & Pagon, 2006). Social undermining, according to Duffy, et al. (2002), is behavior intended to hinder a target's ability to have positive interpersonal

relationships, attain success at work, and enjoy a good reputation. Examples of undermining include: insults, rumors, hurt feelings, unhelpful criticism, incorrect or misleading information about your job, and competition for status and recognition.

Social undermining and incivility overlap considerably; however, there are important differences. One distinction lies in the intent of the perpetrator: social undermining is motivated by the goal of disrupting the target's success on the job. While incivility may sometimes have the same goal, it is not a requirement; moreover, that goal must be unclear to either the instigator, target, or observer(s). For example, excluding a colleague from professional camaraderie is considered incivility even when the exclusion was an oversight. However, the same behavior would be considered social undermining if the reason for exclusion was to limit the target's chances for professional networking and opportunities. Social undermining may also manifest in more blatant actions than incivility, with clear intent to damage the target's success or reputation. In contrast, in cases of incivility, the intent to harm must be ambiguous to at least one of the parties involved.

Interactional (In)Justice

Organizational justice research centers on how "individuals gauge the fairness of their working lives and how those judgments impact their attitudes and behaviors" (Colquitt, 2008, p. 73). Although not included in Andersson and Pearson's diagram, interactional (in)justice shares some conceptual overlap with incivility. Interactional injustice originated as a sub-dimension of procedural injustice and refers to unfairness or insensitivity displayed by leaders during the implementation of organizational procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt, 2001). There is now evidence of interactional justice as a separate construct from procedural justice (Bies, 2005). Still, the current "gold standard" measure of interactional justice limits it to the conduct of authority figures enacted in the context of implementing organizational procedures (Colquitt, 2001). Incivility is broader and pertains to behaviors committed by any persons in any context of the organization (Pearson, et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005). Still,

because of the conceptual overlap, I draw on organizational justice research to inform some of my hypotheses below.

In summary, workplace incivility does conceptually overlap with the constructs reviewed above; however, the difference lies in that incivility is milder in appearance, lacks clear intent to harm, is not tied to organizational procedures, and spans all members of an organizational context. Incivility is a unique construct, and therefore warrants additional attention as to how it unfolds and relates to outcomes.

Overview of Incivility and Outcome Research

This dissertation focuses on the mechanisms through which incivility links to health, psychological, and job outcomes, as well as boundary conditions for those links. First, I provide an overview of past research on incivility and outcomes relevant to my project.

Incivility and Individual Outcomes

Empowerment

Psychological empowerment refers to "a set of psychological states that are necessary for individuals to feel a sense of control in relation to their work" (Spreitzer, 2008, p. 56). Earlier, Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined empowerment as a "process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal" (p. 474). In both of these definitions, empowerment refers to how individuals perceive their role and capabilities in the organization. While empowerment is a set of states or feelings of self-efficacy, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) emphasized the importance of the work environment in creating one's sense of empowerment. They theorized that empowerment is an active-orientation, or state-like set of cognitions, regarding one's work role — which may change based on the work climate. This is important when considering how experiences at work, such as incivility, might influence one's sense of empowerment.

Spreitzer (1995, 1997, 2008) further refined the construct of empowerment by establishing four dimensions: meaning, self-confidence, determination, and impact.

Meaning refers to the congruence between one's beliefs, values, and behaviors and one's work role (Hackman & Oldman, 1980). Competence is one's feelings of self-efficacy regarding one's work or beliefs about one's ability to complete work activities with proficiency (Gist, 1987; Bandura, 1989). Self-determination refers to one's sense of choice over initiating and regulating one's actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Lastly, impact refers to the degree to which one can influence the system in which they are embedded (consistent with Bandura's 1989 concept of outcome expectancy). According to Spreitzer, all four dimensions are important in feelings of empowerment.

Incivility could affect all four of these dimensions, lowering one's sense of empowerment. Research demonstrates that incivility is related to feelings of anger or aggression¹ (Porath, Overbeck, & Pearson, 2008). Incivility and its resulting feelings may become associated with employees' work role and contradict their sense of self, thereby lessening one's sense of meaning at work. Additionally, being targeted with incivility may disrupt self-confidence, a core dimension of empowerment. Rude comments from coworkers and disrespect at meetings are likely to undermine confidence regarding efficacy on the job. Incivility may also weaken feelings of self-determination, as targets may feel powerless and unable to initiate behaviors of their choice in the presence of the perpetrator. Finally, sense of impact may diminish as targets experience less affective commitment to the organization.

Past research suggests that empowerment may be especially important in situations that are ambiguous, where the employee needs to make sense of the situation and choose a course of action (Spreitzer, 2008). Spreitzer and her colleagues examined organizations during periods of downsizing and found empowerment to be important for employees' attachment to the organization (Brockner, et al., 2004; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). I suggest that incivility provides a similar context of ambiguity in which targets need to make sense of the maltreatment and decide their course of

¹ This study found people with high status and men were more reactive to incivility incidents than low status individuals and women

action. Based on this theorizing and past research, I expect experiences of incivility to be negatively related to feelings of empowerment.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem has not been previously examined in relation to experiencing incivility in organizations. While it may seem implausible that low-level gestures of rudeness would have implications for employees' global sense of self-worth, I am hypothesizing that incivility will contribute to decrements in self-esteem. In this project, I will focus on trait self-esteem, or an enduring sense of one's self worth. While incivility may influence state self-esteem as well, Heatherton and Polivy (1991) found state and trait self-esteem to correlate at .80, suggesting that while these two constructs are conceptually distinct, they are strongly related empirically.

Past research has found social exclusion and decreased feelings of belongingness to diminish self-esteem. Harter found children and adolescents who have a history of real or perceived exclusion have worsened trait self-esteem (1993). Moreover, evidence from an experimental study suggests that when social exclusion is for personal reasons (rather than random), it can have significant negative effects on self-esteem (Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995). Additionally, incivility may also contribute to lowered feelings of belongingness, which corresponds to lowered self-esteem (e.g., Gailliott & Baumeister, 2007; Leary & Baumeister, 2000).

Incivility is one way in which employees may feel excluded on the job. The ambiguous nature of the offense may allow employees to question the reason for the maltreatment, raising the possibility of attributing the behavior to personal deficits. While incivility occurs in the context of work, I am proposing that the negative effects may expand to affect one's sense of esteem across contexts.

Incivility and Organizational Outcomes

Intention to the Leave the Organization and Work Withdrawal

Past research has found that incivility targets consider leaving their organizations

(Cortina, et al., 2002; Cortina, et al., 2001; Lim, et al., 2008), and actually do leave

(Pearson, et al., 2000; Pearson, et al., 2001) at greater rates than other employees.

Additionally, incivility is related to *work withdrawal*, referring to behaviors employees use to avoid or minimize time spent on tasks related to their work role, while continuing employment at their organization (Hanish & Hulin, 1991). Although not as severe as turnover, work withdrawal has very real consequences for an organization in terms of productivity and success. Cortina and colleagues (2001) found that court employees who reported incivility were more likely to withdraw from work. Likewise, in a study of university students, experiencing incivility was related to disengagement and lower performance (Barker-Caza & Cortina, 2007).

In sum, past research suggests that incivility predicts increased work withdrawal and turnover intentions. Based on related research and theory, I expect incivility to also lower feelings of empowerment. Building on outcome research, my dissertation seeks to investigate mediating and moderating variables in this process.

Unpacking the Process: The Role of Affect and Discrete Emotion

Industrial and organizational psychologists have recently begun incorporating emotions into their research. In fact, emotions have emerged so quickly in the organizational behavior literature that some have referred to an "Affective Revolution" (Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, 2003, p. 3). Incivility researchers have only just begun their investigation of emotion. Theoretical work posits that negative emotional reactions may follow experiences of incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson & Porath, 2005); however, little work has empirically examined this question. This dissertation makes a novel and major contribution to the literature by revealing whether and how two facets of emotion –negative affect and discrete emotional response – mediate individual and organizational outcomes.

Here some definitions are in order. Broadly speaking, emotions are responses to events that have "beneficial or harmful consequences for the individual's concerns" (Frijda, 1993, p. 387) and may interrupt thought processes (Frijda, 1993; George, 1996). Within the larger "emotion" realm, the distinction is made between affect and discrete emotions. Empirical research on self-reported affect has identified two broad factors, positive and negative affect, as the central dimensions of emotional experience.

Recognizing that these two factors encompass both valence (positive and negative) and discrete emotional states (e.g., Diener, Larsen, Levine, & Emmons, 1985; Russell, 1979, 1980; Watson, et al., 1988; Watson & Tellegen, 1985), Watson and Clark (1991, 1992, 1994, 1997; also Tellegen, Watson, & Clark, 1999) brought together the affect and discrete emotion literatures by theorizing these constructs in a hierarchical model of affect. The model conceptualizes positive affect and negative affect as higher-order factors under which discrete emotions (e.g., fear, joy) fall². Therefore, I use "negative affect" or "negative affective response" to refer to the general negative domain (which may encompass a variety of negative emotions), while I reserve "discrete emotions" to refer to specific types of negative feelings (i.e., anger and guilt).

Two theories in particular suggest that emotion is a central mediator between workplace events and outcomes: Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and the Control Theory of Job-Stress Process (Spector, 1998).

Affective Events Theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) focuses on the "structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work" (p. 11). AET proposes that people have emotional reactions to work events, and that these affective experiences then have a direct effect on behaviors and attitudes. Importantly, AET leaves room for affect as a multidimensional construct, which emphasizes the "importance of the structure of the psychological experience" (p. 11), such that different affective reactions lead to different behavioral outcomes. Researchers have developed an Affective Events Theory-Based Model of workplace aggression (Glomb, Steel, & Arvey, 2002) to directly apply AET to aggressive experiences in organizations. The AET literature more generally suggests that more attention should be paid to emotional reactions in the workplace.

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² I should note that positive and negative affect as two axes of affect has been subject to scrutiny (Barrett & Russell, 1999; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Other researchers have proposed that pleasure and activation dimensions might better represent the structure of affective experience (e.g., Barrett & Russell, 1999). While this issue continues to be debated, I will use Watson and Tellegen's model (1985) in this project.

The Control Theory of Job-Stress Process (Spector, 1998) also suggests that emotional responses to stressful events on the job are important. This theory proposes that individuals perceive *job stressors*, which lead to negative emotions, which are then followed by reactions to the stressors (Penny & Spector, 2005; Spector, 1998). These reactions are called *job strains* and may be psychological, behavioral, or physical (Jex & Beehr, 1991). Perceived job stressors can be powerful or may be more mild, leading to a cumulative effect over time (Spector, 1998). Spector, Dwyer, and Jex (1988) conceptualized interpersonal conflict as a job stressor in their investigation of affective, health, and performance outcomes. In this research, I will conceive of incivility as a job stressor, or an event that requires a response. The emotional reaction to the uncivil treatment will mediate, at least in part, the effect of incivility on job strains. Spector's job-stress model posits that emotional reactions often occur first and have the capability of leading to different behavioral and physical outcomes.

The job-stress model incorporates concepts from the larger emotion appraisal literature, postulating that job strains are influenced by the coping strategy used by the individual. Coping strategies can be classified as emotion-focused and problem-focused (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Emotion-focused coping reduces the emotional response in reaction to the strain (i.e., drinking alcohol), whereas problem-focused coping directly addresses the job stressor (i.e., engaging in conversation with rude coworker). Stress and emotion literatures are interdependent, for "when there is stress there are also emotions" (Lazarus, 1999, p. 35).

Indeed, in the emotion literature, emotion is also conceptualized as a mediating factor between "environmental input and behavioral output" (Scherer, 1994, p. 127). Emotions are conceived as an interface, mediating between what is important to the organism and its response at a particular moment (Scherer, 1994). These literatures all direct our attention to the importance of emotion in determining responses to stimuli. Applied to my dissertation, I examine emotional responses to incivility and their relationship to organizational and individual outcomes.

Negative Affect in Response to Incivility

Of the work that has examined negative affective responses to incivility, findings are mixed. Pearson, Andersson, and Wegner (2001), in a multi-method study of incivility, found in open-ended interviews that nearly all participants noted negative affect following uncivil treatment. Conversely, Porath and Erez (2007) found that an experimental manipulation of rudeness was *not* related to feelings of negative affect. Additionally, results suggested that negative affect was not a mediator between incivility and creativity and helpfulness behaviors. However, because this study took place in the lab, used a student sample, and did not examine discrete emotions, research should continue to investigate these relationships in the real-world context of a relational, interdependent workplace, using working-adult samples. This past research is mixed, leaving questions as to when and how negative affect plays a role in the incivility-to-outcome link.

In a related vein, studies have examined the role of emotion in reaction to organizational injustice. The justice literature delineates many different sub-types, and as noted earlier, research on *interactional justice* is most relevant to my project. The results of one experimental vignette study suggest that, following an experience of interpersonal injustice, negative affect fully mediated effects on destructive responses (neglect and exit) and partially mediated effects on aggressive voice (attempts to change the situation while only looking out for personal interest) (VanYperen, Hagedoorn, Zweers & Postma, 2000). This study points to the important role that emotion plays in relation to unfair organizational procedures. More work is needed to test these relationships in naturalistic, organizational settings with individuals embedded in the context of established working and personal relationships.

Past research suggests, then, that emotional response to unjust procedures and rude treatment is an important link to behaviors. I extend this work and investigate how rude interpersonal interactions influence negative affective response. Combining the literatures on workplace incivility and emotion, I have developed a theoretical

model to capture the affective process through which uncivil experiences influence important outcomes (see Figure 1.2).

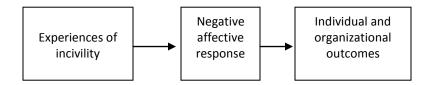


Figure 1.2. Hypothesized mediational path between incivility and outcomes

My core prediction is therefore that <u>greater experiences of incivility will be</u>

<u>associated with greater negative affective response, which in turn will be associated</u>

<u>with negative outcomes (Hypothesis 1).</u>

Taking a Closer Look: Discrete Emotional Response

In addition to investigating negative affect, in this dissertation I also examine discrete emotional response as a mediator through which interpersonal experiences lead to outcomes. Looking broadly across the maltreatment literatures, we can see evidence of maltreatment (e.g., workplace violence, abuse) leading to discrete emotional reactions such as anger, resentment, anxiety, and depressed mood (Barling, 1996; Brodsky, 1976; Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994). In this project I ask, are low-level subtle incivilities enough to foster impactful negative discrete emotional response? Acts of incivility are often inconspicuous and easily ignored by management. However, conceptualizing incivility as a workplace stressor, I hypothesize that incivility will increase discrete negative emotions, that will then be associated with increased negative outcomes. The study of discrete emotions (e.g., Ekman, 1992; Izard, 1977; Plutchik, 1994) allows me to target specific pathways through which incivility affects outcomes. In this project I focus on two discrete emotions: anger and guilt.

Anger in response to incivility would be consistent with theoretical writings on the "incivility spiral" (see Andersson & Pearson, 1999) and represents an outward-focused negative emotion. That is, anger is characterized as a discrete emotion with an external locus of control or a tendency to blame someone else for the unwanted

situation (Smith, Haynes, Lazarus, & Pope, 1993; Weiner, Russell, & Lerman, 1979). In the organizational literature there has been some focus on discrete emotions following mistreatment; however, much of this work examines reactions to overt, bold expressions of workplace mistreatment. For example, workplace aggression and violence have been linked to emotional responses such as anger and resentment (Barling, 1996; Bassman, 1992).

Folger, Cropanzano, and Goldman (2005) investigated the relationship of organizational injustice to moral emotions, focusing on "deontic anger". Deontic anger is a reaction to unfair conditions or treatment that violates moral social conduct (Folger, et al., 2005; Bies & Trip, 2001; Bies, Trip, & Kramer, 1997). Deontic anger can result in retaliatory behaviors by the victims, in an effort to curtail abuses of power (Folger & Skarlicki, 2005). Experiences of incivility, or behavior that violates workplace norms of respect, may also result in deontic anger by the target.

Little research has examined the role of anger following experiences of incivility. Porath, Overbeck, and Pearson (2008) examined responses to "status challenges" (operationalized as incivility experiences) and found targets to respond with retaliatory or confrontational behaviors. Such responses are likely to stem from feelings of anger; however this emotional mechanism was not directly tested. In Pearson and colleagues' (2001) qualitative study on incivility, a few participants described their response as "angry," but added the caveat that anger may be "too hot" an emotional descriptor. Given this limited evidence, the role of anger in the incivility process remains an important empirical question. Based on this past research and theorizing, <u>I hypothesize incivility to triager greater feelings of anger, will in turn influence negative outcomes</u> (Hypothesis 2).

Theoretical writings on the "incivility spiral" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) suggest that anger is a likely and important reaction; however, the ambiguous, subtle nature of incivility also leaves room for other emotional responses. Guilt is defined as a *self-conscious emotion* which requires complex self processes, self-awareness, and self-representations (Tracy & Robins, 2007) and is therefore thought to be more cognitively

complex than feelings of anger (Lewis, 2000). Feelings of guilt may arise from a focus on a "specific untoward act negatively affecting the self or another...which certain authors believe is aroused by attributions to causes of an internal and controllable nature" (Ferguson, Brugman, White, & Eyre, 2007, p. 332). Additionally, guilt focuses on feelings about actions that are in violation of internalized standards and is thereby classified as a "moral emotion" (Stuewig & Tangney, 2007). "Moral emotions" function to regulate behaviors and keep people from committing aggressive or delinquent behavior (Stuewig & Tangney, 2007).

In contrast to anger, *guilt* is an inward-focused emotion, which may play a particularly significant role following incivility. For example, the ambiguity surrounding the nature and cause of the rude treatment and the intent of the instigator, may trigger self-focused cognitions and emotions. That is, individuals may turn to themselves in an attempt to explain the negative treatment, wondering about their own role in eliciting the behavior: "Was that person rude because I did something wrong?", "Does my personality make my team not like me?", or simply, "What did I do to deserve this?" Thoughts like these could cascade into guilt. Importantly, in contrast to anger which may escalate into aggression, feelings of guilt are associated with taking responsibility for one's actions and making amends (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). To date, scholars have not attended to the possibility of such an emotional response to incivility. I extend our consideration of the relevant emotional responses to incivility to include the self-focused emotion of guilt, predicting that *incivility will foster greater feelings of guilt*, *linking to negative individual and organizational outcomes (Hypothesis 3)*.

The Role of Commitment

Although affective response may be an important mediating factor, other individual-level variables may *moderate* how a person feels after experiencing incivility. I investigate organizational commitment as one possible moderating factor (for a graphical depiction, see Figure 1.3). Organizational commitment is often conceptualized using a three-component model (Meyer & Allen, 1997) involving affective, normative, and continuance commitment. *Affective* organizational commitment refers to an

employee's attachment, identification, and involvement with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). *Normative* and *continuance* commitment refer to felt obligation to the organization and awareness of the costs related to leaving the organization, respectively (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). No research to date has examined the role of organizational commitment in the context of workplace incivility. Because past research finds affective commitment to be the most potent predictor of organization- and employee-relevant outcomes (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) and to be most strongly associated with well-being and negatively associated with strain (Meyer & Maltin, 2010), I focus on this sub-type of organizational commitment throughout this project. This is not to say that normative and continuance commitment do not play a role, or provide empirically interesting questions, however.

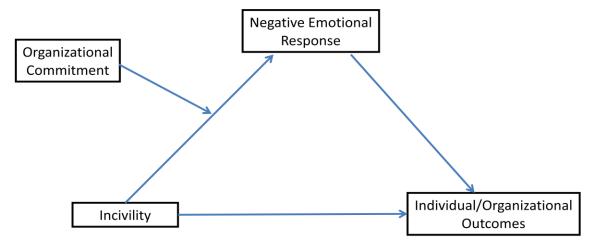


Figure 1.3. First stage moderation model: Organizational commitment moderating the effect of incivility on negative emotional response

Based on theories from the psychological and organizational behavior literatures, I offer competing hypotheses regarding the role of commitment following incivility. The first hypothesis proposes that organizational commitment may buffer individuals from the negative effects of incivility; put differently, commitment may attenuate the link between incivility and negative affect. In this case, highly committed employees are able to attach meaning to their work (Kobasa, 1982) and through

attachment garner a sense of stability and belonging (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Some empirical work supports this first hypothesis. For example, Schmidt (2007) found affective commitment to buffer municipal administration employees from feelings of burnout (i.e., exhaustion and depersonalization) following a possible staff reduction. Similarly, Lu and colleagues (Lu, Siu, & Lu, 2010) found commitment to protect Chinese employees from decrements in job satisfaction following interpersonal conflict at work. Hochwarter and colleagues found a similar pattern such that those employees higher in commitment were protected from the "dysfunctional consequences" of organizational politics (1999). Following this theorizing and past research, I suggest that a sense of belonging to the organization may protect employees from negative emotional reactions to incivility.

An alternative hypothesis predicts that employees high in commitment should experience worse outcomes following stress at work (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Their investment and identification with the organization leaves them vulnerable to psychological threat, as problems are seen as personal, leading to more negative outcomes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Past research has also found support for the exacerbating role of commitment. Irving and Coleman (2003) found commitment to increase the negative effect of role ambiguity on job tension. Likewise, in a sample of nurses, commitment intensified the relationship between work stressors (e.g., workload, criticisms) and burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) (Reilly, 1994). This leads me to propose the following competing hypothesis: high organizational commitment will exacerbate the negative emotional response to incivility.

In sum, I propose the following competing hypotheses for the moderating role of commitment in the incivility-to-affect link:

I hypothesize that organizational commitment will attenuate the negative effects of incivility on negative emotional response (i.e., negative affect (H4a); anger (H5a); and quilt (H6a)). Alternatively, organizational commitment will exacerbate the negative emotional effects of incivility, whether it is negative affect, anger, or quilt in response

(H4b, H5b, and H6b, respectively).

Incivility and Its Outcomes: The Role of Gender

Research to date has not found differential outcomes of incivility for men and women. That is, while women report experiences of incivility at a greater rate, once targeted, men and women report similar negative outcomes such as decreased job satisfaction, job withdrawal, career salience, and increased psychological distress and turnover intentions (Cortina, et al., 2001; Lim, et al., 2008). One might surmise, then, that the incivility-to-outcome process is a gender-neutral phenomenon. This conclusion, however, seems premature; it remains to be seen whether the underlying process is the same for men and women. Through differential experiences of discrete emotion, men and women may respond to incivility in different ways. The ultimate outcomes may look similar, but the intervening process could differ. This project forges into new territory to examine discrete emotional reactions to incivility, pinpointing specific mechanisms through which gender influences the experience (for a graphical representation of this relationship, see Figure 1.4).

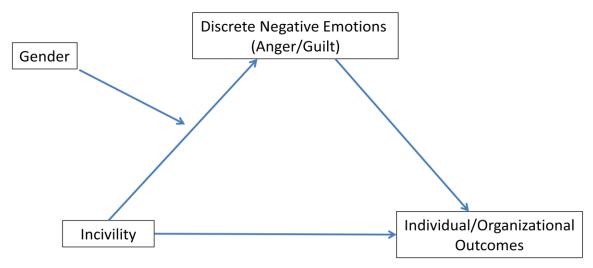


Figure 1.4. First stage moderation model: Gender moderating the effect of incivility on discrete emotional response

The Role of Gender and Discrete Emotional Response

Notably, past research that has considered incivility and the role of affect (and to a lesser extent, discrete emotions) has ignored gender. While the valence of affective emotional response may be the same for men and women (i.e., responding with negative feelings to incivility), I delve into possible gender differences in discrete emotional reactions. Building on research on perceptions of normative behavior, gender stereotypes, and socialization processes, I theorize that men and women will differ in their level of anger and guilt following incivility. I have chosen to study these two types of discrete emotions as they differ in their focus on the self (inward-focused) vs. other (outward-focused). Anger suggests an externalization of blame (attributing responsibility for an adverse situation to people or events beyond one's control); this can indicate dissatisfaction with treatment or an action (Tavris, 1982). Guilt is an emotion that individuals may feel when assuming responsibility for an adverse event, evaluating themselves negatively, or thinking that others are passing negative judgment on them (Fischer & Tangney, 1995). I argue that these two discrete emotions are particularly relevant in response to incivility and the question of gender difference.

Recent research has started to focus on when and how gender differences in emotion emerge (Brody & Hall, 2010). Differential discrete emotional responses to incivility may be an indication that norms for mutual respectful behavior are not shared amongst all members of an organization. Montgomery, Kane, and Vance investigated perceptions of appropriate behavior by U.S. Senators toward Anita Hill in the 1991 Senate Confirmation Committee hearings on Clarence Thomas (2004). Findings from this study revealed gender differences in perceptions of appropriate behavior, with female participants judging Senator behaviors toward Hill to be more offensive than did male participants (Montgomery, et al., 2004).

Having a shared sense of normative behavior in an organization is a precondition from which deviant behavior is assessed. If these norms are not mutually held by all members, individual reactions to mistreatment may vary considerably. I find differential responses based on gender particularly interesting, as perceptions of norm violations may occur at different thresholds for men and women (Montgomery, et al., 2004). Interpersonal relationships and expectations do not occur in a vacuum on the job; rather, employees' sense of behavioral norms are influenced by outside factors, including gender identification and socialization. Understanding how this occurs is crucial as we consider how targets respond emotionally and behaviorally to subtle interpersonal treatment in organizations.

Gender Stereotypes and Socialization

Gender stereotypes have an important role in influencing the reality of gender differences in emotion. One of the strongest gender stereotypes, also referred to as a "master stereotype" (Shields, 2003), assigns differences between men and women in a wide-range of positive and negative emotions (Briton & Hall, 1995; Grossman & Wood, 1993; Kelly & Hutson-Comeaux, 1999; Shields, 2003). Gender stereotypes can create expectancies of both same- and other-gender partners (Brody & Hall, 2010) as well as self-fulfilling prophecies that shape and generate specific behaviors and emotional reactions (Hall & Briton, 1993). Differences are thought to exist in both the level of emotionality (with women more emotional) as well as the types of discrete emotions experienced. Specific gender-emotion stereotypes include women experiencing more happiness, embarrassment, surprise, sadness, fear, shame, and guilt. Men are stereotypically thought to experience more anger, contempt, disgust, and pride (e.g., Algoe, Buswell, & DeLamater, 2000; Hess et al., 2000; Parmley & Cunningham, 2008; Plant et al., 2000).

In fact, ample evidence suggests that women and men *do* experience disparate emotional lives. These differences feed off of the aforementioned stereotypes and are reinforced through disparate socialization experiences in childhood (Brody, 1999; Saarni, 1984). For example, boys are taught to "externalize" their distress (i.e., turn it outward through anger and rage), whereas girls learn to "internalize" feelings (e.g., via sadness). This internalization may be part of a larger expectation that women should "master" anger and aggression in order to "be nice" (Hochschild, 1983; Porath & Erez, 2007).

Socialization may therefore affect both expectations of appropriate behavior as well as perceptions of social transgressions. Schumann and Ross (2010) found women more likely to judge day-to-day offenses as requiring an apology. Women may be more sensitive to interpersonal relations (Briton & Hall, 1995; McClure, 2000) and may focus more on maintaining harmony in relationships and therefore have a lower threshold when judging the offensiveness of a behavior compared to men. This is consistent with research suggesting that aggression is more common and accepted among men than women (Eagly & Steffen, 1986).

However, in terms of individuals who are *personally* targeted with rude behaviors, men respond with greater resistance to these injunctions, possibly due to a perceived threat to their status (Porath, et al., 2008). This is an important consideration as the workplace social context is a highly gendered space, in which men more often have formal specific status (e.g., formal job titles ascribed to an individual by an institution or group structure) as well as informal status (i.e., inferred based on characteristics such as gender, wealth, and age). Previous research has found that, in contexts in which gender is salient, emotional reactions will be the most divergent (Kelly & Hutson-Comeaux, 1999; LaFrance & Banaji, 1992).

Moreover, there appear to be rewards for men who are angry. Professional men who display anger are judged to be more competent, given more independence, and are more likely to be hired (Tiedens, 2001). On the other hand, women experience backlash should they exhibit counter-stereotypical displays of emotion (i.e., anger) (Rudman & Fairchild, 2004). I would additionally argue that the ambiguity that comes with acts of incivility leaves additional room for onlookers to respond negatively to angry women. Negative backlash can manifest in terms of lower status conferral by colleagues and internal attributions related to the displayed emotions (e.g., "she is irrational") (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). Through this differential policing involving rewards for angry men and penalties for angry women, men and women manage and learn expected emotional responses.

Based on the above theories and findings, I expect men to respond to incivility with more "hot", external-focused emotions such as anger compared to women. This leads me to hypothesize that *gender will moderate the effect of uncivil experiences on negative discrete emotional response; specifically, men will respond to incivility with more anger than women (Hypothesis 7).*

Compared to research on anger, the literature on guilt is much smaller, but interesting gender findings have emerged. For example, women report more feelings of guilt in response to reciprocal aggression (Eagly & Steffen, 1986). Girls may be more willing to deflect interpersonal conflict instead of retaliating (Tannen, 1998). Likewise, Lindeman and colleagues found late adolescent girls more likely to withdraw following interpersonal conflict, whereas late adolescent boys were more likely to aggress (1997). This is consistent with the idea that women may "disappear" themselves, rather than respond in a confrontational manner (see Fletcher, 2001).

As mentioned previously, guilt is a self-conscious emotion, which necessarily involves reflecting on one's self. Theorists have suggested that experiencing selfconscious emotions is contingent on the assessment of the self against some standard (e.g., Lewis, 1997). Falling short of an internalized standard might then lead to negative self-conscious emotions (Roberts & Goldenberg, 2007). Such a standard arises from the contextualized norms of the workplace, which is still a location of male power (e.g., Acker, 1990). Through the practice of valuing masculine-typed behavior and communication styles, gender becomes congruous with status (Ridgeway & Bourg, 2004). That is to say, gender becomes an organizing category through which hierarchies are created and maintained in organizations (Porath, et al., 2008). Against this gendered backdrop, women are likely to be more self-aware of not only their gender identity, but also their lower status. Research on groups who are traditionally low status in societies (e.g., women, racial minorities) finds that these groups acquiesce to their lower position (Overbeck, Jost, Mosso, & Flizik, 2004; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Applying this to the case of targets of incivility, women may be more likely to respond to such transgressions by explaining away the cause as due to their own behaviors (Porath, et al., 2008). This may place women in a position to be more likely to feel guilty following incivility than male targets. This leads me to hypothesize that <u>gender will</u> <u>moderate the effect of uncivil experiences on feelings of guilt, such that women will report more feelings of guilt than men (Hypothesis 8).</u>

Below is a summary of my hypotheses for incivility.

Hypotheses for Incivility

EMOTION AS A MEDIATOR:

<u>Hypothesis 1:</u> Greater experiences of incivility will be associated with greater negative affective response, which in turn will be associated with negative outcomes. In other words, negative affective response will mediate the effect of incivility on outcomes (i.e., empowerment, work withdrawal, and turnover intent).

<u>Hypothesis 2:</u> Greater experiences of incivility will be associated with greater anger, which in turn will be associated with negative outcomes. In other words, anger will mediate the effect of incivility on outcomes (i.e., empowerment, self-esteem, and turnover intent).

<u>Hypothesis 3:</u> Greater experiences of incivility will be associated with greater guilt, which in turn will be associated with negative outcomes. In other words, guilt will mediate the effect of incivility on outcomes (i.e., empowerment, self-esteem, and turnover intent).

COMMITMENT AS A MODERATOR:

<u>Hypothesis 4a:</u> Incivility and organizational commitment will interact in influencing negative affect, such that highly committed employees will respond with lower levels of negative affect than will their less committed counterparts (buffering effect).

<u>Hypothesis 4b:</u> Incivility and organizational commitment will interact in influencing negative affect, such that highly committed employees will respond with higher levels of negative affect than will their less committed counterparts (exacerbating effect).

For a graphical representation of these hypotheses see Figure 1.5.

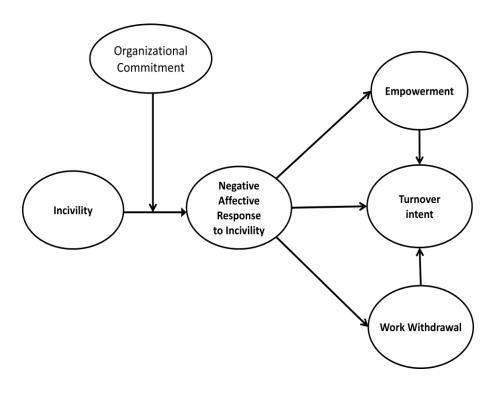


Figure 1.5. Detailed incivility and negative affect model: Role of organizational commitment

<u>Hypothesis 5a:</u> Incivility and organizational commitment will interact in influencing negative discrete emotional responses, such that highly committed employees will respond with lower levels of anger than will their less-committed counterparts (buffering effect).

<u>Hypothesis 5b:</u> Incivility and organizational commitment will interact in influencing negative discrete emotional responses, such that highly committed employees will respond with higher levels of anger than will their less-committed counterparts (exacerbating effect).

<u>Hypothesis 6a:</u> Incivility and organizational commitment will interact in influencing negative discrete emotional responses, such that highly committed employees will respond with lower levels of guilt than will their less-committed counterparts (buffering effect).

Hypothesis 6b: Incivility and organizational commitment will interact in influencing

negative discrete emotional responses, such that highly committed employees will respond with higher levels of guilt than will their less-committed counterparts (exacerbating effect).

For a graphical representation of these hypotheses see Figure 1.6.

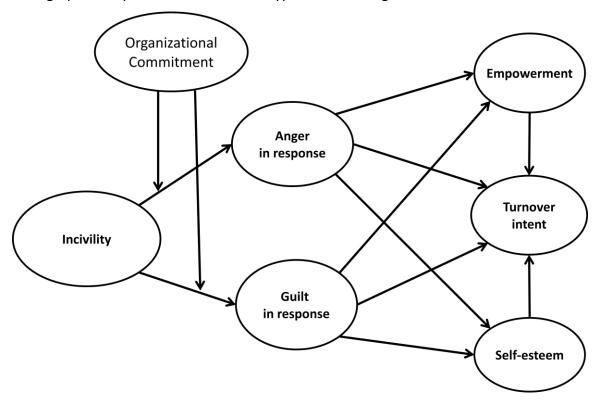


Figure 1.6. Detailed incivility and discrete emotion model: Role of organizational commitment

<u>Hypothesis 7:</u> Incivility and gender will interact in influencing negative discrete emotional responses, such that men will respond with higher levels of anger than will women.

<u>Hypothesis 8:</u> Incivility and gender will interact in influencing negative discrete emotional responses, such that women will respond with higher levels of guilt than will men.

For a graphical representation of these hypotheses see Figure 1.7.

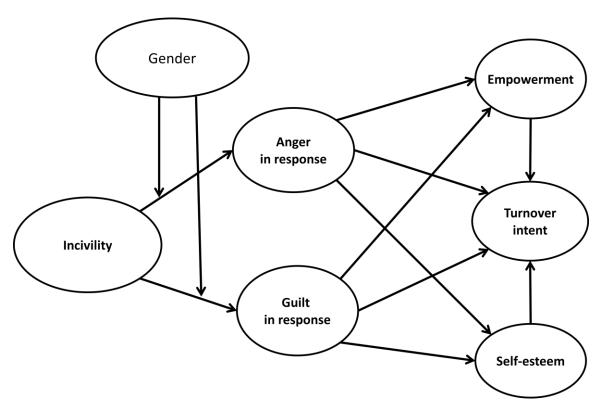


Figure 1.7. Detailed incivility and discrete emotion model: The role of gender

The Other Side of the Coin: Positive Organizational Behavior

Researchers have called attention to social and human-based strengths in processes relevant to organizations (Dutton & Glynn, 2008). These strengths originate in the generative dynamics in human systems (Cameron, Dutton & Quinn, 2003). Positive workplace dynamics benefit not only organizations, but also relational aspects of the workplace (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003). High quality relationships can give individuals resources that are valuable, create meaning for employees, and contribute to health, well-being, and learning on the job (Dutton, 2003; Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Graen & Scandura, 1987).

Recently, theorists have put forth a new framework to breach the disciplines that currently study relational aspects of work. This literature focuses on the "generative process, relational mechanisms, and positive outcomes associated with positive relationships between people at work" (Dutton & Ragins, 2007, p. 3) and seeks to draw together work from theories of social capital (Coleman, 1988), social support

(Uchino, Cacioppo, & Kiecolt-Glaser, 1996), and psychological growth (Miller & Stiver, 1997), among others. Although there have been theoretical writings on these topics (e.g. Dutton & Ragins, 2007), less empirical research has addressed positive relationships in organizations. My dissertation seeks to address this gap.

Positive Psychology and Positive Organizational Behavior

Positive psychology was first mentioned by Maslow (1954) in his book titled Motivation and Personality. However, following WWII, psychologists were mainly motivated by employment opportunities, focusing on treatment of the mentally ill, as well as funding provided by the National Institute of Mental Health which drove experimental psychologists to focus on biases, deficiencies, and dysfunctions of human behavior (Luthans, 2002). Recently, positive psychology has been brought back to the forefront of psychological research by scholars such as Seligman, Diener, Peterson, and Snyder (Luthans, 2002). The goal of positive psychology is to focus on what is right with people, emphasizing "the good life", individuals' strengths, wellness, and resilience. Positive psychology is about positive subjective experiences, such as well-being, satisfaction, and optimism. At the individual level, positive psychology examines individual-level traits and qualities such as courage, forgiveness, and resilience. At a macro-level, positive psychology examines civic virtues and organizations that foster responsibility, citizenship, and work ethic (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This dissertation seeks to integrate the positive organizational behavior and positive psychology literatures by examining workplace relations at an individual level, and investigate the process by which positive interactions influence outcomes for individuals.

Overview of Positive Behavior in the Workplace

Although not a large literature, there has been theoretical and some preliminary empirical research on positive workplace interactions. Much of the research focuses on engagement in behaviors directed toward the organization (e.g., prosocial organizational behavior, Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; and organizational citizenship

behavior, Organ, 1988). Less is known about the process through which positive behaviors *benefit the recipients* of these behaviors.

Although a complete review of the positive behavior literature is beyond the scope of this dissertation, I will summarize research on interpersonal citizenship and related constructs, making important conceptual distinctions.

Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior

Research has turned to examining positive interactions, in which individuals experience mutual, trusting, and respectful connections at work (Dutton & Ragins, 2007). Theory suggests that people engaged in these positive relational connections may experience some form of mutual benefit by facilitating another's success and conveying respect and trust within the organization. Recipients are theorized to then be more engaged and creative, and to feel more competent (Dutton, 2003). The burgeoning study of interpersonal citizenship behaviors addresses these specific interactions.

Building on the established organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) literature, Settoon and Mossholder (2002) noted that most OCB research centers on organization-focused conduct, overlooking actions that might take more interpersonal forms. To address this, Settoon and colleagues developed the construct of *interpersonal citizenship behavior*, referring to acts directed toward coworkers and immediate others, providing cooperative assistance for those in need (2002, 2005). Interpersonal citizenship can be person- or task-focused in nature. *Person-focused* interpersonal citizenship provides for self-esteem maintenance and involves topics that are more personal (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Examples of person-focused actions include listening, being accessible, and demonstrating a concern for the other by being supportive and friendly. On the other hand, *task-focused* interpersonal citizenship conduct revolves around work-related problems and is often instrumental, stemming from one's work-role. Examples include offering advice on work problems, providing direct assistance on work tasks, and sharing one's factual knowledge (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002).

Importantly, interpersonal citizenship behaviors are broader than the traditional "helping" subdomain of organizational citizenship, in that they encompass not only helping actions, but also actions that convey caring attitudes, respect, and cooperation. Interpersonal citizenship behaviors benefit coworkers and "indicate the depth of feeling for and connection with others in an organization" (Mossholder, et al., 2005, p. 610). Interpersonal citizenship behaviors are concerned with actions between coworkers, and are not limited to interactions between superiors and subordinates. This is in distinct contrast to literature on interpersonal justice, which focuses on the interactions with authorities during the implementation of organizational procedures (Colquitt, 2001).

Research has primarily focused on the perspective of the interpersonal citizenship behavior *actor*, or the person who is performing these deeds. This is also true with the related literature on helping behaviors. Past research has looked extensively at the antecedents of enacting such behaviors, including individual characteristics (e.g., disposition and demographic variables), task characteristics, organizational characteristics, and leadership behaviors (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, for a review).

Extending this research domain, I instead focus on the *target's* perspective and use the term *interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt* to emphasize the directionality of the behavior. Recently, organizational researchers have coined the term "relational climate" to refer to socio-cognitive environments which support different forms of interpersonal relationships (Mossholder, et al., 2011). I argue that consideration of interpersonal citizenship behaviors from the recipient's perspective is necessary to understand fully how these interpersonal relationships affect not only individual employees, but also the larger relational climate. This dissertation addresses a dearth in the literature by focusing on the perspective of individuals in direct receipt of these behaviors.

Theory suggests that being targeted with positive interpersonal treatment increases positive individual and organizational outcomes (Fredrickson, 1998).

Interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt might promote positive outcomes by

increasing positive affect. These positive emotions may then facilitate positive relationships, flourishing, and positive organizational outcomes (Fredrickson, 1998). However, to date this question has not been tested empirically.

Positive Deviance

Related to interpersonal citizenship behaviors, Spreitzer and colleagues have theorized about workplace behaviors that intentionally depart from norms in honorable ways (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003, 2004). Termed "positive deviance," these behaviors may or may not improve organizational functioning and can exist at either an individual or organizational level (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003, 2004). For a behavior to be considered positively deviant, it must have an "honorable" motivation (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003, 2004). This is different from interpersonal citizenship behaviors which may violate the norm of workplace behaviors, but need not have "honorable" intent.

Although scholars have theorized personality and psychological states that might lead to engagement in positive deviance, we have little empirical data as to the benefits of receiving positively deviant behaviors (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2003) have posited that the recipient of positive deviance will likely appreciate the action, and develop a strengthened relationship with a coworker or other individual. Likewise, I expect that individuals targeted with interpersonal citizenship behaviors will appreciate the interaction and experience an increase in positive outcomes.

Civility

Civility is a construct that appears mostly in the sociological literature, but has recently emerged in organizational science. Andersson and Pearson (1999) in their foundational work on incivility in the workplace, conceptualized civility and its role in society, culture, and business as a manner of conveying respect, cooperation, and moral standard. Many social scientists and historians note the importance of civility generally, and recently Byron and colleagues have articulated civility in the workplace to be "behaviors at work that demonstrate and uphold norms of respect for others,

sometimes despite inclinations to do otherwise" (Byron, 2009). Other scholars define civil behavior as treating others with dignity, respecting others' feelings, and upholding social norms for mutual respect (Carter, 1998; Elias, 1982; Johnson, 1988). Importantly, workplace civility includes behaviors that do not necessarily warrant public documentation or notice (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995).

Individuals who engage in civil behaviors do so because it is "the right thing to do" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), and may or may not do so with intent to benefit the target or organization (Pearson, et al., 2001). As such, it is unclear whether civility is a behavior that would be classified as "positive" or "neutral", in the sense that it maintains norms for respect but does not necessarily positively deviate from norms. Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to employees' perception of how much the organization "values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986, p. 501). This is distinct from interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt, as POS refers solely to beliefs regarding the organization, not individual members and coworkers. POS is a global feeling regarding the organization and does not consider individual exchanges, as does interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt. Measurement of this construct taps into employees' broad attitudes toward the organization and the probability that the organization would treat them in a beneficial or harmful manner across a range of situations (Eisenberger, et al., 1986).

Perceived organizational support is often used to understand employee dedication and attachment to the organization. Positive perceptions of organizational support are associated with a variety of organizational outcomes, including job satisfaction, innovation, performance, commitment, and intention to leave (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Riggle, Edmonson, & Hansen, 2009). POS has also been linked to organizational identification, which is important in influencing organizational involvement and turnover (Edwards & Peccei, 2010). Although both interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and POS may be related to employee

involvement and attachment to an organization, the two constructs are distinct and warrant separate investigation.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

As mentioned above, one of the most heavily researched areas of positive organizational behavior is *organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)*, defined as intentional employee behavior that ultimately improves the functioning of the organization (Organ, 1997; see Podsakoff, et al., 2000 for a review). Citizenship behaviors may or may not be rewarded by the organization. The vast literature on organizational citizenship behaviors suggests that this specific extra-role behavior can have an impact on an organization's success and performance, including enhancement of coworker and managerial productivity, attraction of quality employees, and adaption to environmental changes (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

There has been considerable theoretical and conceptual interest surrounding citizenship behaviors, resulting in empirical evidence of its multi-dimensionality, including *helping behaviors, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue*, and *self-development* (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). The most relevant dimension to my research interests is that of *helping behaviors*, which include helping a coworker use a tool or covering a job assignment when a coworker is ill (Organ, 1988). However, helping of coworkers in this sense serves to benefit the organization, in contrast to interpersonal citizenship behaviors which need not benefit the functioning of the organization (although they could do so, it is not a requirement).

Past research on the helping dimension of OCB focused on factors leading to performance of these behaviors, including contextual and individual predictors. For example, hours spent on the job affects performance of helping, with part-time restaurant workers performing significantly less helping behaviors than full-time counterparts (Stamper & VanDyne, 2001). In an effort to understand how psychological contracts affect employee behavior, Coyle-Shapiro (2002) found that an employee's perceived obligations to the employer (in return for wages, benefits, etc.) significantly

predicted helping behaviors toward coworkers. Individual factors such as personality have also been examined in relation to helping behaviors. In a sample of manufacturing and government employees, perceptions of coworker support significantly predicted employee helping behaviors (Ladd & Henry, 2000). King, George, and Hebl (2005) found that conscientiousness related to helping, but only when the individual was also high in agreeableness, extraversion, or emotional stability. The authors emphasized the importance of examining the interactions between personality traits, as single traits alone may not predict behaviors with complex motives. Although the literature speaks to various antecedents of OCBs and helping behaviors, it is virtually silent on how receipt of OCB and helping affects the individual and organization.

Overview of Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt and Outcome Research

Because there is no research to date on receipt of interpersonal citizenship behavior, I have drawn from similar literatures to support my hypothesized relationships between positive interpersonal relations and outcomes. Similar to my model of incivility, I am proposing that affective response mediates the influence of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt on outcomes. Next, I will review relevant literature on positive workplace interactions and outcomes.

Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt and Individual Outcomes

Empowerment

Although the relationship between interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and feelings of empowerment has not been explored empirically, theory suggests that everyday interactions of trust and respect might lead individuals to feel valued and worthy members of the organization (Dutton, 2003). Encouragement and verbal feedback from group members and coworkers may help foster feelings of empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Additionally, based on my theorizing that interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt might increase positive affect, emotion researchers have found that positive affect leads individuals to think that they have higher chances of success (Brown, 1984).

In the empowerment literature, research has found that relationships and support on the job link with empowerment. For example, employees who have better relationships with leaders, team members, and customers report more feelings of empowerment (e.g., Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Corsun & Enz, 1999). Supervisor and peer support also predicts feelings of empowerment (Wallach & Mueller, 2006). Social connections (such as having someone to talk to about your problems) likely convey feelings of support and closeness, which may foster greater feelings of empowerment at work.

Self-esteem

Brown argued that self-esteem is rooted in affective processes, or one's positive and negative feelings about the self (1993). Argyle also stated that "social relationships are a major source of happiness, relief from distress, and health" (1987, p. 31). Socially involved individuals are happier, healthier, and live longer than socially isolated individuals (see Berscheid & Reis, 1998, for a review).

Theorists have long been drawing the connection between perceived social approval and acceptance and the basis of self-esteem (e.g., Coopersmith, 1967; Mead, 1934). Leary and colleagues found empirical support for the link between social acceptance and self-esteem—suggesting that self-esteem is a "sociometer" which gauges social acceptance/rejection (1995). Experiences of interpersonal citizenship are likely to be indicators of social acceptance for employees, and so it follows that these positive connections will boost self-esteem. I expect to demonstrate empirically this effect of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt in this dissertation.

Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt and Organizational Outcomes

Intention to the Leave the Organization and Work Withdrawal
Kahn (1998) articulated how relationships are important for functional and
dysfunctional organizations. Within a relational systems framework, he acknowledged
that connections on the job are complicated, with attachments made (and lost) for
cognitive and affective reasons (Kahn, 1998). He suggests that warmth, respect, and
personal regard are essential parts of high-quality relationships and attachment. Other

scholars have referred this as "embedding", arguing that a high-quality relational system in organizations protects against shocks that would otherwise cause people to consider leaving (e.g., Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). Without these, people become detached and more likely to withdraw from work and their job.

Maertz and Griffeth (2004) also described relational forces as factors that can drive "voluntary turnover" (departure from an organization despite having the opportunity to remain). Noting the relative lack of attention to relationships in organizations in the turnover literature, Maertz and colleagues identified what they called "constituent forces" or attachments to others in an organization, as important, independent predictors of turnover (Maertz & Campion, 2004). Indeed, Mossholder and colleagues found support for this. Over a five-year time frame, an individual's network centrality and interpersonal citizenship behaviors were related to decreased turnover from the organization (Mossholder, et al., 2005).

The Role of Positive Emotions Following Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt

Although most of the literature addresses positive emotions leading to interactions (e.g., Fredrickson, 1998; George & Brief, 1992; Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994), there is evidence of positive interactions leading to positive emotions. Isen and Baron (1991) noted that minor, everyday events can induce mild, positive affect states, which then have significant effects on social and cognitive processes including helping behaviors, memory, and satisfaction. Reis and colleagues found that individuals who had high feelings of "relatedness" (i.e., meaningful conversations, being understood and appreciated) during the day experienced more positive emotions and greater vitality (Reis, Sheldon, Gabel, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000).

Similar relationships between positive events and positive emotions are found in organizational contexts. Miner, Glomb, and Hulin (2005) examined the impact of positive and negative work events on mood in an experience sampling study. Results suggested that following positive events with coworkers, participants had increased pleasant mood (compared to individuals who did not experience a positive coworker event). Likewise, when hotel employees were asked to describe organizational

situations that caused them to feel specific emotions, they reported that colleague interactions (e.g., sharing goals, being asked for help, meeting new people) led them to feel positive emotions such as pleasure, happiness and affection (Basch & Fisher, 2000). Theory has touched on this issue as well, noting that positive emotions "stem from... meaningful interpersonal encounters" (Fredrickson, 2003, p. 174). For example, after a person receives help on the job, they are likely to feel the positive emotion of gratitude (Fredrickson, 2003).

Based on past research finding that positive emotions lead to positive outcomes, I theorize that <u>greater experiences of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt will be</u> <u>associated with greater positive affective response, which in turn will be associated with positive outcomes (i.e., increased feelings of empowerment and self-esteem, decreased turnover intent and work withdrawal) (Hypothesis 9). Unpacking this process will be an important empirical contribution to positive scholarship and the study of well-being and performance at work.</u>

Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt and Discrete Emotional Response

While understanding the role of positive affect in response to interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt is important, there is a clear need to consider how discrete emotions might function in this process. By focusing on specific emotional responses, scholars and practitioners alike will be able to understand the functional mechanisms of positive relational processes in organizations.

There are many possible positive discrete emotions likely to be influenced by interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt. In this dissertation I focus on *self-assurance*, as this emotion in particular may play a pivotal role. Self-assurance is a feeling of being bold and strong, but also proud, daring, fearless. It is considered a "basic positive emotion" (Watson & Clark, 1994), indicating that it is a strong and consistent marker of the higher-order Positive Affect dimension. Little empirical research has examined self-assurance as a distinctive discrete emotion. However, a related construct which has received much more scholarly attention is self-confidence, which is defined as a judgment of whether or not one is able to do something (Hollenbeck & Hall, 2004). Self-

assurance can be conceptualized as an emotional state, whereas self-confidence is more often framed as a judgment based on perceptions of personal capabilities and requirements of the task (Hollenbeck & Hall, 2004). Self-assurance and self-confidence are not conceptually identical, but there are sufficient similarities that I will use past work on self-confidence to guide my hypotheses regarding self-assurance.

There is a common conception that self-confidence is born and not made (Hollenbeck & Hall, 2004). However, the recent surge of interest in positive organizational scholarship points to the developmental and learned aspects of positive qualities. One way that self-confidence may be fostered is through embeddedness in a supportive and kind interpersonal context. A quote from a qualitative study of academic faculty exemplifies this possibility:

"Sometimes you lose confidence. And then you get with this group. And—you're rejuvenated! You're excited again! They value what you do! They think what you do is interesting! They ask you the right questions! They—they're sort of everything!" *Junior women of her professional association* (Gersick, Dutton, & Bartunek, 2000, p. 1026)

Through this example we see how interpersonal relationships and the relational context influence this faculty member's confidence and energy for her work. Similarly, I am proposing that experiences of interpersonal citizenship behavior will foster self-assurance in employees.

In this study, I examine how self-assurance may influence empowerment. Recall the four subscales of empowerment: meaning, self-confidence, determination, and impact. Feelings of self-assurance will likely positively affect all of these dimensions, in particular determination. *Self-determination* refers to one's sense of choice over initiating and regulating one's actions (Deci, et al., 1989). Self-assurance related to experiences of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt may prompt employees to initiate both in-role and extra-role behaviors. In this way, self-assurance benefits both the individual employee (increased empowerment), the work-group (subsequent extra-role behaviors), and the organization (increased productivity and creativity stemming from feelings of confidence and self-assurance).

I also expect that feelings of self-assurance will benefit self-esteem. Having an enhanced sense of one's ability to complete a task as well as the capacity to try new things is likely to positively affect one's sense of self-worth. Additionally, self-esteem is an affective evaluation of one's self (e.g., Betz & Klein, 1996; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001) and relies on feelings. On account of this, it is possible that feelings of self-assurance are directly related to increases in self-esteem.

Self-confidence (also known as self-efficacy) is a proximal predictor of proactive behavior (e.g. Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Self-assurance, however, is more than self-confidence. Self-confidence pertains to cognitions regarding the capacity to complete a task, whereas self-assurance, I argue, are feelings which allow people to extend themselves and be proactive. Self-assurance then should be linked with taking initiative and motivation to complete works tasks. Thus, I predict that experiences of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and related self-assurance will be associated with decreased turnover intentions. Therefore, I hypothesize that interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt will be associated with greater feelings of self-assurance, which will trigger positive outcomes (i.e., increased self-esteem and empowerment, and decreased turnover intent) (Hypothesis 10).

Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt and Gender

We know very little about gender differences in response to positive organizational behavior. Similar to incivility, I do not expect men and women to vary in their levels of positive affect in response to interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt. However, I am curious to see if there are gender differences (or, conversely, gender similarities) in terms of discrete emotional response. In this case, I examine self-assurance as a possible emotional response on which to compare men and women. There is almost no empirical work on self-assurance, nor on gender-related differences in response to positive organizational behavior, but I review the scant relevant literature to provide a brief basis for my research question.

Based on past research, men and women may receive different types of supporting, helping behaviors. In an in-depth study of academics, Gersick, Dutton, and

Bartunek (2000) found men to report experiencing more career-advancing helping behaviors, while women were more likely to tell stories of helping behaviors around social "acceptance". While I do not explore types of helping in this project, based on this past research it seem plausible that discrete emotional reactions to helping may vary by gender. Men compared to women may report higher levels of self-assurance, as acts of interpersonal citizenship behavior directed toward them may have more relevance for men's task performance and work-related self-efficacy. These possibility is highly speculative, though, so I pose an exploratory research question rather than a directional hypothesis: <u>Do interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and gender interact in influencing positive discrete emotional response (i.e., feelings of self-assurance)?</u>

Below is a summary of my hypotheses regarding interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt.

Hypotheses for Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt

<u>Hypothesis 9:</u> Greater experiences of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt will be associated with greater positive affective response, which in turn will be associated with positive outcomes. In other words, positive affective response will mediate the effect of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt on outcomes (i.e., empowerment, work withdrawal, and turnover intentions).

Please refer to Figure 1.8 for a graphical representation of these predictions.

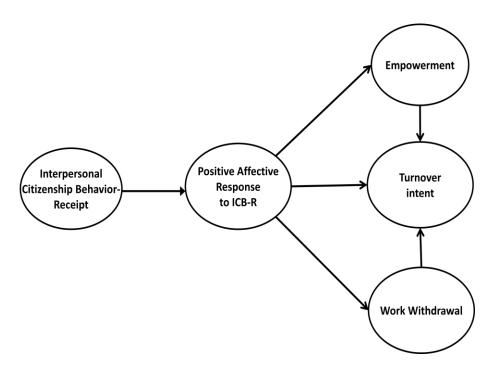


Figure 1.8. Detailed interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and affective response model

<u>Hypothesis 10:</u> Greater experiences of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt will be associated with greater positive discrete emotions (i.e., self-assurance), which in turn will be associated with positive outcomes. In other words, self-assurance will mediate the effect of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt on outcomes (i.e., empowerment, self-esteem, and turnover intentions).

See Figure 1.9 for a graphical representation of these predictions.

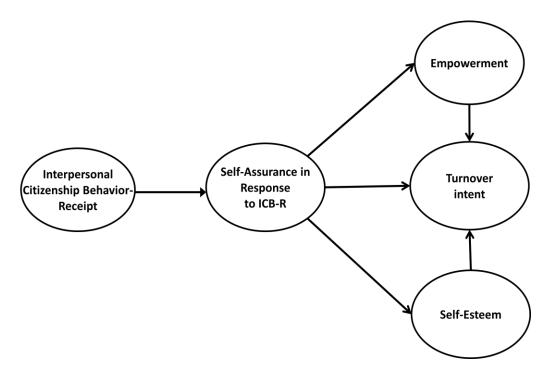


Figure 1.9. Detailed interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and discrete emotion model

<u>Research Question:</u> Do interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and gender interact in influencing self-assurance?

Please refer to Figure 1.10 for a graphical representation of this research question.

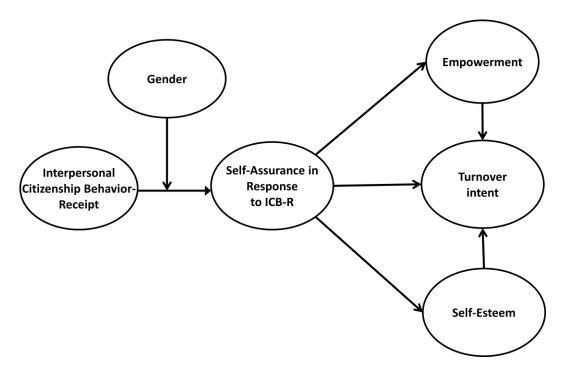


Figure 1.10. The role of gender in the interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt to discrete emotion link

The Present Studies

To test all of my hypotheses (on both incivility and citizenship experiences), I collected survey data from two samples of working adults: women in Michigan, and women and men across the nation. I utilize the Michigan data to test my hypotheses regarding general negative or positive affective response to interpersonal treatment, and I draw on the nationwide working adult data to hypotheses regarding discrete emotional response. My competing hypotheses regarding the role of organizational commitment following incivility use both samples. While analyses utilizing the Michigan women's data hold gender constant and examine the overall process, the nationwide adult data includes both men and women, allowing me to investigate the moderating role of gender in predicting discrete emotional responses to interpersonal treatment. First I present findings from Study 1 and Study 2 regarding incivility, followed by results on interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt from Studies 3 and 4. Table 1.1 summarizes my studies.

Table 1.1. Summary of Studies

Study 4: Positive Discrete Emotional Response

Gender as a Moderator (Research Question)

Discrete emotion as a Mediator: Self-assurance (H10)

INCIVILITY			
Study(Hypotheses tested)	Sample		
Study 1: Negative Affective Response	Michigan Working Women		
Negative Affect as a Mediator (H1)			
Commitment as a Moderator (H4)			
Study 2: Negative Discrete Emotional Response	Nationwide Working Adults		
Discrete emotion as a Mediator: Anger/Guilt (H2, H3)			
Commitment as a Moderator (H5, H6)			
Gender as a Moderator (H7, H8)			
INTERPERSONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR-RECEIPT			
Study (Hypotheses tested)	Sample		
Study 3: Positive Affective Response	Michigan Working Women		
Positive Affect as a Mediator (H9)			

Nationwide Working Adults

CHAPTER 2

Method

This dissertation draws on survey data from two samples to yield two studies of incivility (Study 1 and Study 2) and two studies of interpersonal citizenship (Study 3 and Study 4). Participants in one survey were women working in Michigan, and participants in the second survey were women and men working across the United States. The measures used in this dissertation are a subset of those included in the overall surveys. For all studies, I designed the surveys to minimize response bias and utilized established reliable and valid measures. To overcome possible biases from common method variance or response set, I separated items assessing interpersonal experiences at work from items measuring outcomes. This was recommended by Podsakoff and colleagues (2003) as a strategy to create "psychological separation" of the variables, and it decreases the chances that respondents' recollection of interpersonal experiences could influence their reports of outcomes. Surveys did not contain any identifying information, and participants were reminded of the anonymity of their responses and informed that results will only be presented in the aggregate; procedures such as these are also recommended to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Participants were permitted to skip any questions they felt uncomfortable answering. Items were scored such that higher values represent greater levels of the underlying construct. Most relevant to the current study were measures of interpersonal experiences on the job, outcomes, affective response, and the intervening and control variables of organizational commitment, gender, and pessimism. Measurement across both surveys was kept as consistent as possible. Tables 2.1 and 2.2 summarize the constructs measured in the studies (incivility followed by citizenship), including the particular scale used.

Table 2.1. Construct Measurement for Incivility Studies: Study 1 and Study 2

Construct	Michigan Working Women	Nationwide Working Adults
Incivility	Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS)	WIS and Cyber Incivility Scale
Negative Affective Response to Incivility	Negative Subscale of PANAS	
Anger in Response to Incivility		Hostility Scale from PANAS-X
Guilt in Response to Incivility		Guilt Scale from PANAS-X
Psychological Empowerment	Empowerment Scale	
Work Withdrawal	Work Withdrawal Scale	Work Withdrawal Scale
Turnover Intentions	Turnover Intentions Scale	Turnover Intentions Scale
Self-esteem		Self-esteem Scale
Organizational Commitment	Affective Organizational Commitment Scale	Affective Organizational Commitment Scale
Negative Disposition (Pessimism)	Life Orientation Test	Life Orientation Test

Table 2.2. Construct Measurement for Citizenship Studies: Study 3 and Study 4

		Nationwide Working
Construct	Michigan Working Women	Adults
Interpersonal Citizenship	Interpersonal Citizenship	Interpersonal Citizenship
Behavior-Receipt	Behavior Scale (modified)	Behavior Scale (modified)
Positive Affective Response to Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt	Positive Subscale of PANAS	
Self-assurance in Response to Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt		Self-assurance Scale from PANAS-X
Psychological Empowerment	Empowerment Scale	
Work Withdrawal	Work Withdrawal Scale	Work Withdrawal Scale
Turnover Intentions	Turnover Intentions Scale	Turnover Intentions Scale
Self-esteem		Self-esteem Scale
Organizational Commitment	Affective Organizational Commitment Scale	Affective Organizational Commitment Scale
Negative Disposition (Pessimism)	Life Orientation Test	Life Orientation Test

Michigan Working Women Survey

Participants

As part of a larger team effort, I surveyed women working in Southeast Michigan across different social and organizational sectors. Women in the area were invited to participate in a short online "snapshot survey", which was used to prescreen and determine eligibility for the primary survey. I advertised the snapshot through a variety of outlets including local women's organizations (e.g., Women's Exchange of Washtenaw, Women Business Owners of Southeast Michigan), posters displayed in businesses and cafes, Facebook posts, as well as through an e-mail sent to women working for the University of Michigan and University of Michigan Health System in Ann Arbor, Dearborn, and Flint. The snapshot was well received, with 4,954 women completing the snapshot survey, 3,595 of whom left addresses indicating interest in a longer survey.

Procedure

From the 3,595 snapshot participants who left addresses, I sent paper surveys to a subsample of 500 women. I oversampled women of color, who are underrepresented in organizational research. I followed Dillman and colleagues' recommendations (2008) to maximize survey response rates (e.g., reminder postcards, replacement surveys, \$2 token incentives, ink signatures, professional design of all materials). Within two weeks of completing the snapshot survey, participants were sent the primary survey by U.S. mail, accompanied by an introduction letter explaining the purpose and procedure of the study as well as their role and rights as participants. The survey packet also contained a 2-dollar bill, a postcard (to be returned to us for purposes of tracking), and a pre-stamped return envelope. Two weeks after the survey was mailed, I sent a reminder postcard to individuals who had not yet completed the survey (tracked via postcards returned separately from surveys). Two weeks after the reminder postcard was mailed, I sent all nonrespondents a replacement survey packet which included a reminder letter, a survey, completion postcard, and pre-stamped return envelope. I compensated participants \$10 for completion of the primary survey and mailed brief

survey summary reports to participants in Fall 2010. See Appendices A through H for the recruitment email text, snapshot survey and consent form, introduction/consent letter for the primary survey, reminder postcard text, replacement letter, completion postcard text, and primary survey measures. With these procedures, I obtained an 84% response rate.

The sample (N = 419) had an average age of 42.26 years (SD = 10.34) and was racially diverse (54% White, 19% Black or African American, 15% Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander/Hawaiian Native, 6% Spanish/Hispanic/Latina, 3% American Indian/Alaskan Native, 1% Middle Eastern/Arab/Arab American, 1% "other"). Approximately 50% of the sample had a graduate or professional degree, 39% had a college degree or some graduate school, and 11% had less than a college degree. The average tenure in their current organization was 9.23 years (SD = 8.21), and they worked an average of 43.71 hours per week (SD = 9.39). Respondents worked in a range of industries, from dentistry to transportation to law.

Measures

Demographic variables. Participants indicated their age, their highest degree of education (from less than high school degree to graduate or professional degree) and their race/ethnicity by selecting one or more of the following: American Indian/Alaska Native; Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander/Native Hawaiian; Black/African American; Middle Eastern/Arab/Arab American; Spanish/Hispanic/Latina; White; or "Other", with the option to specify how they identify. Basic information regarding the participants' work was also collected, including the general field of occupation (open-ended), time employed in their current field and organization, leadership positions held (i.e., owner, executive, director, manager, supervisor, other, or none of the above), and hours worked per week (see Appendix H for a complete list of constructs and scales).

Incivility. To measure incivility, I used the six highest-loading items from Cortina and colleagues' (2001) Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS). This scale measures the amount of disrespectful, rude, or condescending behaviors experienced from supervisors, coworkers, clients/customers, or collaborators at other companies in the past year. It

should be noted that these behaviors do not have clear intention to harm the target or the organization. The items of the original WIS were developed from focus groups of employees from all levels of the organization surveyed in Cortina, et al.'s (2001) study. Sample items read "paid little attention to your statements or showed little interest in your opinion" and "addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately". Participants reported on a 5-point response scale from *never* to *very often*.

Interpersonal citizenship behavior—receipt. To assess receipt of interpersonal citizenship behaviors, I adapted items from Settoon and Mossholder's (2002) measure of interpersonal citizenship behavior. Items for the original measure were created based on an extensive review of the organizational citizenship literature and consultation with organizational behavior scholars. The original 14-item scale assessed an employee's engagement in citizenship behavior (as reported by coworkers and supervisors); I modified these items to measure personal receipt of these behaviors. For example, an original item of "Takes time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries" now reads "During the past year, has anyone associated with your work (e.g., supervisors, coworkers, clients/customer, collaborators at other companies) taken time to listen to your problems and worries." Additional modified items read "...shown genuine concern and courtesy toward you, even under the most trying business or personal situations" and "...made an extra effort to understand the problems you faced." Participants responded on a five-point scale ranging from 1 = never to 5 = very often.

Emotional response to specific incident. Participants who reported at least one incident of incivility were immediately asked a series of questions about their emotional responses to the most recent uncivil event; an identical set of questions followed the interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt scale, asking about emotional responses to the most recent event. Emotional response was assessed using the Positive and Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS) (Watson, et al., 1988). Participants indicated the extent to which they felt each emotion or feeling following their reported experience, using a 5-point scale ranging from very slightly or not at all to extremely.

Ten items assessed positive affectivity in response to interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt (e.g., excited, strong, enthusiastic), and ten items assessed negative affectivity in response to incivility (e.g., distressed, upset, irritable).

Empowerment. To assess the psychological experience of empowerment at work, I used Spreitzer's scale (1995). The scale taps the four facets of psychological empowerment: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. The scale was validated with two initial samples and had acceptable internal consistency estimates of .62 and .72. Sample items include "The work I do is meaningful to me" (meaning), "I am confident about my ability to do my job" (competence), "I have significant autonomy is determining how I do my job" (self-determination), and "My impact on what happens in my department is large" (impact). Participants rated their orientation to each of the 12 items on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*).

**Turnover intentions. I used two items to measure turnover intentions (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976), which are thoughts about or intentions to quit the organization. The items are "I often think about quitting this job" and "I will probably look for a new job in the next year." Participants responded on a 7-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Work withdrawal. A 5-item scale (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990; 1991) assessed work withdrawal. Participants responded to such items as "completed work assignments late" and "made excuses to get out of the office", using a 5-point scale (1 = never, 2 = once or twice...5 = many times). Participants were reminded that their answers are completely anonymous.

Organizational affective commitment. Organizational affective commitment was measured using Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) six-item scale, which assesses emotional attachment to the organization stemming from feelings of loyalty toward the employer (Mohamed, Taylor, & Hassan, 2006). The scale was developed with two samples, student nurses and registered nurses, showing high internal consistency (.85 and .87), assessed at two time points one year apart. Sample items include "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization"

and "I do not feel a strong sense of 'belonging' to my organization" (reverse coded).

Pessimism. I also included a measure of trait negative disposition, to be used as a control in my analyses. Trait disposition has been found to influence the way in which individuals affectively respond to events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). I will also use the measure of disposition to rule out the alternative explanation that negative disposition drives the effects I find between interpersonal experiences and outcomes, particularly between incivility and negative outcomes. The common argument is that "whiny" individuals experience negative events and then report "inflated" outcomes through skewed survey responses. For example, negative trait disposition may cause some individuals to be sensitive to every behavior that might be considered rude. Likewise, a negative disposition may cause negative reactions on the job (e.g., withdrawing from work tasks). Therefore, the incivility may be the primary cause, but the employee's response (work withdrawal) may be amplified by their overall negative disposition (Munson, Hulin, & Drasgow, 2000). If, after controlling for negative disposition, I find significant relationships, I can be more confident of the effect of experiences of incivility or interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt, regardless of dispositional tendencies.

To assess dispositional pessimism, I used the Life Orientation Test- Revised (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). This instrument measures expectancies of the future, with items such as "In uncertain times, I usually expect the best" (reverse coded), "If something can go wrong for me, it will", and "I'm always optimistic about my future" (reverse coded). The six-item scale was tested and validated with an undergraduate sample and had acceptable internal consistency, $\alpha = .78$.

Nationwide Working Adult Survey

Participants

For this project, I surveyed men and women from a nationwide sample of working adults. To contact participants I used an online social science resource, StudyResponse, which connects researchers with study participants who are diverse in terms of age, race, education, and employment. StudyResponse is conducted by

Syracuse University and uses a database of over 50,000 individuals to sample relevant potential participants for research. Through this service I was able to sample a large number of working adults, a population that can be difficult to reach.

Procedure

StudyResponse contacted potential participants based on prescreening demographics (at least 18 years old, lives in the U.S., works at least 30 hours/week). I also ensured that the sample was gender diverse to permit comparisons between women and men. StudyResponse invited potential participants via email, which included a link to the online survey. The survey contained an introduction letter explaining the purpose and procedure of the study as well as their rights and role as participants. One week after initial invitation, participants were sent a reminder email. Upon completion of the survey, StudyResponse allocated compensation of \$10. See Appendix I for the introduction/consent letter. I took great care to ensure that the data from participants was clean, in an effort to alleviate concerns of false data via online surveys. Throughout the survey I included multiple items to measure attention (e.g., "Please answer strongly disagree"); and excluded any participant who incorrectly answered. I also examined the short answer description items (e.g., "Please briefly describe the experience you reported on above") to detect any potential issues with language barriers that may be severe enough to impede comprehension. Any participant whose data indicated "response setting" (e.g., answering "strongly agree" to both positively and negatively valenced items of the same scale) was also excluded from analyses. Following these procedures, I obtained usable data from 54% of invited participants.

The sample (*N* = 479) was 60% female, had an average age of 41.91 years (*SD* = 11.43), and was somewhat racially diverse (82% White, 6% Black or African American, 9% Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander/Hawaiian Native, 5% Spanish/Hispanic/Latino, 2% American Indian/Alaskan Native, 1% Middle Eastern/Arab/Arab American, 1% "other") (participants were allowed to identify more than one race/ethnicity).

Respondents worked in various parts of the U.S., with 441 different zip codes

represented in the sample. Participants had a range of educational levels, with 23% holding a graduate or professional degree, 47% holding a college degree or some graduate school, and 30% with less than a college degree. Participants worked in a range of industries such as information technology, real estate, and retail. The average tenure in their current organization was 9.80 years (SD = 7.30); 48% of the sample worked 40 hours/week, 16% worked between 30 and 39 hours/week, and 36% worked more than 40 hours/week.

Measures

This survey included identical measures as in the Michigan Working Women Survey, with the additional measures of discrete emotional response, cyber-incivility, and self-esteem. All measures have established reliability and validity (see Appendix J for constructs and scales unique to this survey).

The survey did not contain identifying information beyond the unique identifier assigned by StudyResponse. I collected IP addresses in a separate database for the purposes of verifying that respondents were unique individuals (e.g., the same individual was not repeatedly completing the survey). At no time were IP addresses connected to actual survey responses. Participants were reminded of their anonymity and assured that results will only be in the aggregate. Participants were permitted to skip any questions they wished; however, were required to complete at least 90% of the questions presented to them to be compensated (a technique used in online survey research to assure complete data). No participants were excluded on account of large portions of missing data. Questions pertaining to incivility and interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt were counter-balanced to minimize order effects.

Demographic variables. Demographic measures paralleled those of the Michigan survey, with participants reporting their age, race, education, and basic information about their job.

Incivility. To measure incivility, I used six items of Cortina and colleagues' (2001) Workplace Incivility Scale and three items from the Cyber-Incivility Scale (Lim & Teo, 2009). This scale measures the amount of disrespectful, rude, or condescending

behaviors from supervisors, coworkers, clients/customers, or collaborators at other companies in the past year, either in person or via email. Sample cyber items read "sent you emails using a rude and discourteous tone" and "used ALL CAPS to shout at you through email". Participants reported on a 5-point response scale from *never* to *very often*.

Interpersonal-citizenship behavior-receipt. As with the Michigan Working Women Survey, I used a modified version of Settoon and Mossholder's (2002) measure of interpersonal citizenship behavior.

Discrete emotional response to specific incident. Mirroring the design of the Michigan Working Women Survey, participants who reported at least one incident of incivility or interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt were immediately asked questions about their emotional response to the most recent event. Discrete emotional response was measured using three subscales of the Positive and Negative Affect Scale-Extended Form (PANAS-X; Watson & Clark, 1994). Anger was measured using the sixitem hostility subscale, with sample items including "hostile", "angry", and "irritable". While some scholars have made the distinction between anger and hostility, their conceptual overlap makes it hard to maintain sharp distinctions between the two (Smith, Glazer, Ruiz, & Gallo, 2004). In terms of measurement, past research has linked anger and hostility in both measurement of state- (e.g., Profile of Mood States (POMS), McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1971) and trait- (e.g., Beaver, Nedelec, Wilde, Lippoff, & Jackson, 2011) characteristics. For these reasons, I operationalized anger in response to incivility using the PANAS hostility subscale.

Both the guilt (in response to incivility) and self-assurance (in response to citizenship receipt) subscales contain six items. The guilt subscale includes items such as "guilty" and "dissatisfied with self". Self-assurance was measured with items such as "confident" and "bold". Participants indicated the extent to which they felt each emotion or feeling following their reported experience, using a 5-point scale ranging from *very slightly or not at all* to *extremely*.

Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). Participants indicated their feelings about their self-worth responding to items such as "At times, I think I am no good at all" and "I feel that I'm a person of worth" (reverse coded), using a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Work withdrawal and turnover intentions. Measurement of both of these constructs was identical to that in the Michigan Survey.

Gender. Participants self-reported their gender in an open response format. For analytical purposes, responses were coded such that 1 = female, 2 = male, 3 = other. Only one participant was included in the "other" category, and was removed from gender moderation analyses.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was assessed using the same scale as in the Michigan Survey.

Pessimism. Similar to the Michigan Survey, I used the Life Orientation Test-Revised (Scheier, et al., 1994) to measure the negative disposition of employees.

CHAPTER 3

Incivility Results

Study 1: Incivility and Negative Affective Response

Descriptive Statistics

Table 3.1 summarizes descriptive statistics for variables in the Study 1 using data from the Michigan Working Women sample. I began by inspecting the psychometric properties of the variables. Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan (1999) define severe deviations from normality as skewness values exceeding |2| or kurtosis values exceeding |7|. All variables satisfy the requirements for normality. Incivility was significantly correlated with negative affective response (r = .41, p < .01). Experiences of incivility were also significantly negatively correlated with empowerment (r = -.18, p < .001) and positively correlated with both work withdrawal and turnover intentions (r = .13, p < .05) and (r = .33, p < .01), respectively).

The internal consistency reliabilities (Chronbach's alpha) were acceptable for all of the scales (ranging from .88 for incivility to .72 for pessimism), with the exception of work withdrawal (α = .69). I retained the work withdrawal scale to be able to compare my results with those of other studies. The average internal reliabilities for the scales was .80.

Table 3.1. Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations Among Study 1 Variables (Michigan Working Women)

	М	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Incivility	1.89	.78	(.88)						
2. Negative Affect-Incivility	1.93	.71	.41**	(.86)					
3. Empowerment	5.48	.87	18**	25**	(.85)				
4. Work Withdrawal	1.90	.61	.13*	.15**	11*	(.69)			
5. Turnover	3.26	1.82	.33**	.22**	40**	.25**	(.79)		
6. Organizational Commitment	4.64	1.32	24**	12*	.54**	11	63**	(.84)	
7. Pessimism	2.18	.67	.14**	.16**	34**	.03	.20**	23**	(.72)

Note. Scale reliabilities (alpha) are along the diagonal; *p < .05, **p < .01.

Negative Affective Response as a Mediator

To address my first research question regarding the role emotional response plays following experiences of incivility, I conducted structural equation modeling, testing this process using general negative affect as a mediator. I will first present the modeling results using the sample of Michigan working women. After list-wise deletion, I had an effective sample size of 336. This excludes participants who reported no recent incivility experience (and therefore no emotional response to incivility).

I used structural equation modeling with latent variables. For constructs with more than three items, I created three multi-item indicators. For constructs with three items or fewer, each item represented a single indicator of the construct. I computed correlation matrices using SPSS 19.0, and analyzed the matrices using maximum likelihood estimation as implemented by LISREL 8.80.

Following recommendations by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), I conducted a two-stage approach to modeling. First, I estimated the measurement model for the latent variables to evaluate the extent to which the manifest indicators adequately measure their corresponding latent constructs. To support model identification, the first factor loading of each indicator was set to 1.0. I assessed the overall fit of this model as well as the individual parameter estimates to test the psychometric properties of the measures included in each survey. Next, I estimated the structural models. By assessing the fit of the structural model, I am able to determine how well the model as a whole explains the data as well as assess if my theoretical model matches the pattern of relationships found in the data.

I followed recommendations from the psychology methodological literature to determine the fit of both the measurement and structural models. First, I assessed the chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio. While this is one indicator of fit, it is sensitive to sample size (Bentler, 1990), so I also used other fit indices including the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the non-normed fit index (NNFI). Taking into consideration these multiple fit indices is consistent with suggestions by Hu and Bentler (1999). Following global indices of fit

guidelines set forth by McDonald and Ho (2002), I took RMSEA values of less than .08 to indicate "acceptable" data-model fit, and RMSEA values of less than .05 to suggest "good" fit. Values of the CFI and NNFI that exceed .95 will indicate an "acceptable" fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; McDonald & Ho, 2002).

Measurement model. I began by estimating the parameters of the measurement model in the Michigan Working Women sample. The goodness of fit indices appear in Table 3.2, and indicate a good fit to the data ($\chi^2/df = 1.99$, RMSEA = .05, NNFI = .96, CFI = .97).

Table 3.2. Goodness of Fit Indices for the Incivility Measurement and Structural Models (Michigan Working Women)

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	NNFI	CFI
Measurement	206.73	104	1.99	.05	.96	.97
Structural	267.83	111	2.41	.065	.95	.96

To assess whether the indicators were strongly related to their corresponding latent factors, I examined the standardized loadings for the factors (see Table 3.3). Loadings ranged from .54 - .96, with a mean of .78, indicating a strong relationship between the indicators and their factors. Standardized residuals suggested that the indicators belonged to the hypothesized factors, with most residuals having small absolute values; fewer than 6% (8 out of 136) of residuals had an absolute value greater than 3.0. The measurement model showed a good fit to the data, allowing me to move on to testing the structural model.

Table 3.3. Measurement Model Factor Loadings: Study 1 Incivility Analysis (Michigan Working Women)

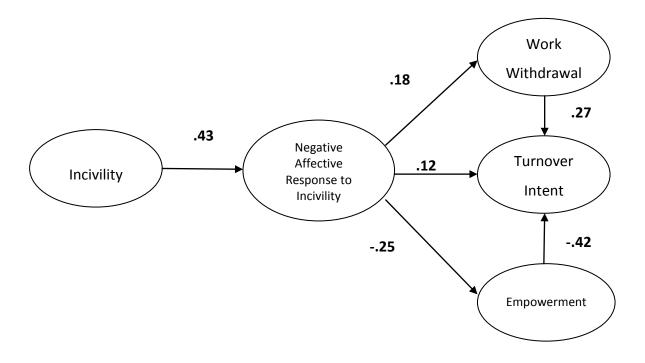
	Loadings of Indicators					
Construct	1	2	3			
Incivility	.89	.78	.68			
Negative Affective Response to Incivility	.78	.78	.91			
Empowerment	.67	.82	.96			
Work Withdrawal	.78	.62	.54			
Turnover Intentions	.78	.82	^a			
Pessimism	.75	.87	.78			

^a This construct contained only two indicators.

Structural Model. Next, I tested the structural model. In line with literature suggesting that empowered employees have less propensity to turnover (Sparrowe, 1994; Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999), I included a path between psychological empowerment and turnover intentions. Past research has also found work withdrawal behaviors to be related to thoughts of leaving the organization (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). For this reason I also included a path between work withdrawal and turnover intentions.

The fit indices revealed an overall good fit of the model to the data ($\chi^2/df = 2.41$, RMSEA = .065, NNFI = .95, CFI = .96). Figure 3.1 depicts the standardized path coefficients for the structural model; all coefficients are significant and in the expected direction. Consistent with the mediation predicted in Hypothesis 1, these modeling results suggest that incivility triggers significant negative affect, which is significantly related to increased work withdrawal and turnover intentions, as well as decreased empowerment. I found evidence that negative affect has an indirect effect on thoughts to leave the organization, through both work withdrawal and empowerment.

Figure 3.1. Structural Model Results for Negative Affective Response to Incivility: Study 1 (Michigan Working Women)



Control: Pessimism

Note. Paths with solid arrows are significant, p < .05. Not shown is the path from pessimism to negative affective response ($\theta = .14$, p < .05).

As Table 3.4 shows, the exogenous variables accounted for considerable variance in the endogenous variables. Incivility and negative affect did not have an overwhelming effect on empowerment and work withdrawal³; however, I do find it meaningful to explain 3% of the variance in work withdrawal and 6% of the variance in psychological empowerment. We know that there are many of reasons employees may withdraw from work tasks or feel empowered regarding their work role, so the fact that a stressor as inconspicuous and ambiguous as incivility has an effect is significant and

³ This finding should be interpreted with caution due to the low reliability of the work withdrawal measure.

worthy of attention. Moreover, methodologists have argued that very small effects can at times be very meaningful (e.g., J. M. Cortina & Landis, 2011; Prentice & Miller, 1992).

Table 3.4. Proportion of Variance Accounted for in each Endogenous Variable: Study 1 Incivility Analysis (Michigan Working Women)

	Structural Model	Revised Partial
	Structural Model	Mediation Model
Negative Affective Response to	.22	.21
Incivility		
Empowerment	.06	.07
Work Withdrawal	.03	.04
Turnover Intentions	.32	.37

My model represents a fully mediated model such that the effects of incivility are fully transmitted through emotion. A plausible alternative is partial mediation with indirect effects through emotions and direct effects between incivility and outcomes. I tested this partially mediated model as well, by adding the relevant direct paths. I compared this alternative model against the original model, finding the alternative model to have significantly better overall fit: $\Delta \chi^2$ (3) = 28.44, p < .001. Although this model fit the data well (χ^2/df = 2.22, RMSEA = .06, NNFI = .95, CFI = .96), the new paths were non-significant with the exception of the link between incivility and turnover intentions (θ = .26, p < .05). A comparison of the proportion of variance accounted for in each endogenous variable across the two models (see Table 3.4) reveals similar percentages. Moreover, the addition of the three direct paths detracted from the parsimony of my original model, which had shown good fit. Taking all of this into consideration, I concluded that my original hypothesized model provides a more meaningful and parsimonious explanation for these relationships.

The Role of Commitment in the Incivility-to-Negative Affect Link

To test the possibility that commitment might moderate the relationship between incivility and negative affective response, I tested a moderated regression model. Negative affective response to incivility serves as the dependent variable. Step 1 entered incivility and commitment as predictors of emotional response. Step 2 added the interaction between incivility and commitment. It is this interaction term that I am most interested in. A significant interaction indicates moderation (i.e., the relationship between the independent variables and the outcome varies at different levels of the moderator) (Holmbeck, 2002). Applied to the present analysis, I am testing whether the effect of incivility on emotional response is conditional on commitment. To reduce problems of multicollinearity, continuous variables were centered in both their main effect and interaction terms (Aiken & West, 1991).

Recall that I proposed competing hypotheses in H4a and H4b regarding the potential buffering *or*, alternatively, exacerbating role of organizational commitment in the incivility to negative affect relationship.

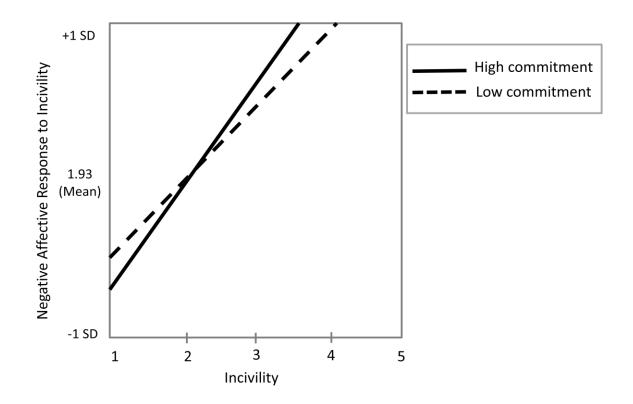
When predicting negative affect, incivility and commitment explained a significant 17% of the variance in this model (F (2, 328) = 34.39, p < .001) (see Table 3.5). The interaction term significantly improved the model's predictive ability by 1% (change F (1, 327) = 4.37, p < .05). To illustrate this effect, I graphed the significant interaction by those high in commitment versus those low in commitment (as determined by a median split) (see Figure 3.2). Figure 3.2 demonstrates that, when experiencing high levels of incivility, employees high in commitment report greater feelings of negative affect in response compared to their less committed counterparts. This result suggests that organizational commitment *exacerbates* the negative emotional impact of incivility.

Table 3.5. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Negative Affect, Predicted by Incivility, Commitment, and Incivility X Commitment Interaction (Michigan Working Women)

Variable	Negative Affect in Response to Incivility							
		Step 1			Step 2			
	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE		
Step 1	.17**							
Incivility		.39(.41)**	.04		.40(.43)**	.05		
Commitment		02(04)	.03		03(06)	.03		
Step 2				.01*				
Incivility X Commitment					.08(.11)*	.04		
Total R ²				.18**				

^{*} *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01

Figure 3.2. Moderating Role of Organizational Commitment on Negative Affective Response to Incivility: Study 1 (Michigan Working Women)



Study 2: Incivility and Discrete Emotional Response

Descriptive Statistics

Table 3.6 summarizes descriptive statistics for variables in the Nationwide Working Adults study. I began by inspecting the psychometric properties of the variables. Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan (1999) define severe deviations from normality as skewness values exceeding |2| or kurtosis values exceeding |7|. All variables satisfy the requirements for normality, with the exception of guilt. Guilt in response to incivility had a skewness value of 2.13. However, a correlation table using transformed values revealed no significant differences and thus I proceeded with analyses using raw scores.

Incivility was significantly positively correlated with both anger (r = .43, p < .01) and guilt (r = .37, p < .01). Interestingly, anger in response to incivility was significantly correlated with feelings of guilt in response to incivility (r = .37, p < .01). Both types of discrete emotional response to incivility were significantly correlated with the outcomes (i.e., empowerment, turnover intentions, and self-esteem) in the expected directions, with the exception of a non-significant correlation between guilt and empowerment (r = .03, n.s.).

The internal consistency reliabilities were acceptable for all scales in this study (ranging from .85 for turnover intentions and .92 incivility and organizational commitment). The average internal reliabilities for the scales was .90.

A series of t-tests revealed only one significant gender difference on the incivility, emotion, and outcome variables. That is, men described significantly more guilt in response to incivility compared to women (t = -2.03, p < .05, M = 1.56 for men and M = 1.38 for women). There were no significant gender differences, however, on reported levels of incivility, anger, and outcomes (all p's > .05).

Table 3.6. Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations Among Study 2 Variables: Incivility (Nationwide Working Adults)

	М	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Incivility	1.64	.75	(.92)								
2. Anger in response to incivility	2.30	1.05	.43**	(.90)							
Guilt in response to incivility	1.45	.74	.37**	.37**	(.90)						
4. Empowerment	5.66	.88	27**	15**	03	(.90)					
5. Self-esteem	3.23	.53	29**	17**	23**	.46**	(.90)				
6. Turnover intent	3.10	1.90	.42**	.24**	.14*	42**	35**	(.85)			
7. Org commitment	4.23	.62	37**	16**	.04	.58**	.38**	70**	(.92)		
8. Gender ^a	.19	.98	04	01	12*	03	.02	03	.01	-	
9. Pessimism	2.42	.83	.28**	.24**	.13	42**	71**	.36**	45**	.00	(.89)

Note. Scale reliabilities (alpha) are along the diagonal; *p < .05, **p < .01.

^aGender was coded such that 1 = female, -1 = male.

Negative Discrete Emotional Response as a Mediator

The aforementioned results of Study 1 suggest that negative affective response is a key mediator in the link between incivility and outcomes. I will now present analyses to test my second hypothesis pertaining to the role of discrete emotions following incivility. Past research finds that negative discrete emotions can and do cooccur (Ganem, 2010). To allow for this possibility, I included both anger and guilt in the same structural model and allowed the element of the psi matrix corresponding to these two variables to be freely estimated (allowing a correlation between the error terms of the latent constructs of anger and guilt). The model includes both empowerment and self-esteem, which represents a methodological concern as I have no theoretical precedent to expect either of the variables to logically antecede the other. Since I do not have a directional prediction between these two endogenous variables, I allowed their error terms to correlate by freeing the appropriate element of the psi matrix.

Measurement model. Drawing on data from the Nationwide Working Adult sample, I first computed a correlation matrix based on the 347 participants who reported recent incivility experiences. I then submitted those correlations to maximum likelihood structural equation modeling, starting by estimating the parameters of the measurement model. The goodness of fit indices appear in Table 3.7, and indicate a sound fit to the data ($\chi^2/df = 1.93$, RMSEA = .05, NNFI = .98, CFI = .98).

Table 3.7. Goodness of Fit Indices for the Incivility Measurement and Structural Models: Study 2 (Nationwide Working Adults)

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Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	NNFI	CFI			
Measurement	287.6	149	1.93	.05	.98	.98			
Structural	485.90	155	3.13	.08	.94	.95			

To assess whether the indicators were strongly related to their corresponding latent factors, I examined the standardized loadings for the factors (see Table 3.8).

Loadings ranged from .69 - .95, with a mean of .86, indicating a strong relationship between the indicators and related factors. Standardized residuals suggested the indicators belonged to the hypothesized factors, with most residuals having small absolute values; only 5% of residuals (9 out of 180) had an absolute value greater than 3.0. The measurement model showed a good fit to the data, allowing me to move to testing the structural model.

Table 3.8. Measurement Model Factor Loadings: Study 2 (Nationwide Working Adults)

	LO	Loadings of indicators					
Construct	1	2	3				
Incivility	.89	.91	.87				
Anger in Response to Incivility	.85	.89	.87				
Guilt in Response to Incivility	.93	.86	.88				
Empowerment	.79	.83	.95				
Self-esteem	.88	.89	.69				
Turnover Intentions	.95	.76	a				
Pessimism	.93	.89	.78				

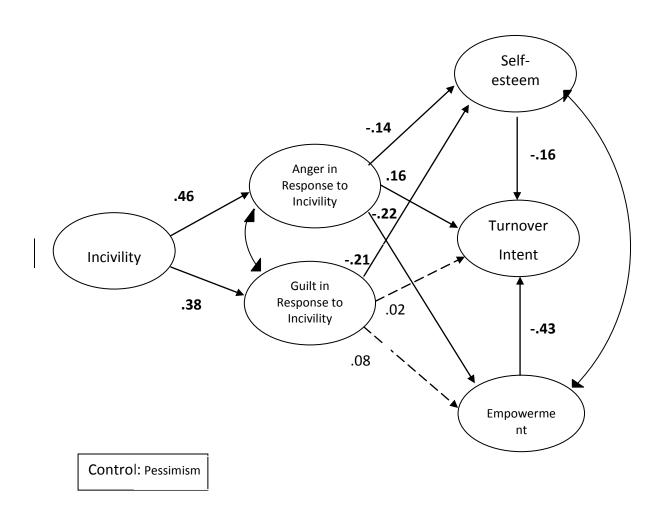
^a This construct contained only two indicators.

Structural Model. Next, I tested the structural model shown in Figure 3.4. The fit indices revealed an overall satisfactory fit of the model to the data ($\chi^2/df = 3.13$, RMSEA = .08, NNFI = .94, CFI = .95). Figure 3.4 depicts the standardized path coefficients, with significant coefficients in bold and dashed lines indicating nonsignificant paths.

My hypotheses two and three predicted that greater incivility will be associated with both increased in feelings of anger and guilt regarding the uncivil experience. I further hypothesized that anger and guilt will be associated with negative outcomes (i.e., decreased empowerment and self-esteem, and increased turnover intentions). Consistent with my second hypothesis and theoretical notions of an "incivility spiral" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), the structural model (see Figure 3.3) suggests that anger is an important response to incivility, one which translates into both detrimental individual (i.e., decreased empowerment and self esteem) and organizational (i.e.,

increased turnover intentions) outcomes. Interestingly, I also found support for my third hypothesis, such that individuals reported increased negative "self-focused" emotion of guilt in response to incivility, which was associated with decrements in self-esteem. Notably, I did not find evidence of guilt as a mediator between experiences of incivility and psychological empowerment or thoughts to leave the organization. One reason for this may be that guilt associated with incivility influences cognitions about one's self worth; however, it may not translate into negative views about self-efficacy regarding one's work role (i.e., empowerment) or relate to one's potential career trajectory (i.e., intention of leaving the organization).

Figure 3.3. Structural Model Results for Discrete Emotional Response to Incivility: Study 2 (Nationwide Working Adults)



Note. Paths with solid arrows are significant, p < .05. Not shown are the paths from pessimism to anger ($\theta = .16$, p < .05) and guilt (ns).

The exogenous variables in my model accounted for a large amount of variance in the endogenous variables (see Table 3.9). Note, in particular, that this collection of variables explained 34% of the variance in turnover intentions.

Table 3.9. Proportion of Variance Accounted for in each Endogenous Variable: Study 2 Incivility Analysis (Nationwide Working Adults)

		Revised Partial
	Structural Model	Mediation Model
Anger in Response to Incivility	.27	.26
Guilt in Response to Incivility	.16	.16
Empowerment	.04	.07
Self-esteem	.09	.14
Turnover Intentions	.34	.40

My model represents a fully mediated model such that the effects of incivility are fully transmitted through emotion. A plausible alternative is partial mediation with indirect effects through emotions and direct effects between incivility and outcomes. I tested this partially mediated model as well, by adding the relevant direct paths. I compared this alternative model against the original model, finding the alternative model to have significantly better overall fit: $\Delta \chi^2$ (3) = 31.61, p < .001. The alternative model fit the data well (χ^2/df = 2.99, RMSEA = .08, NNFI = .95, CFI = .96) and the relationships between incivility and outcomes were significant (θ = -.22 for empowerment, θ = .29 for turnover intentions, and θ = -.27 for work withdrawal, all p's < .05). However, a comparison of the proportion of variance accounted for in each endogenous variable across the two models (see Table 3.9) reveals similar percentages, with the exception of self-esteem. Taking all of this into consideration, I concluded that my original hypothesized model provides a more meaningful and parsimonious explanation for these relationships.

Moderating Role of Commitment in the Incivility-to-Discrete Emotion Link

Anger. To assess the moderating role of organizational commitment in the incivility-to-anger link, I completed a parallel analyses as to that described above, using anger as the dependent variable in the model.

In the regression predicting anger, incivility and commitment accounted for a significant 19% of the variance (F(2,340) = 40.14, p < .001) (see Table 3.10). However, adding the interaction term of incivility x commitment did not significantly improve the predictive ability of the model (change F(1,339) = 1.21, p < .28). These results do not support either of my competing hypotheses (H6a and H6b) that organizational commitment would have a significant moderating role in the incivility to anger process.

Table 3.10. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Anger, Predicted by Incivility, Commitment, and Incivility X Commitment Interaction (Nationwide Working Adults)

Variable	Anger in Response to Incivility						
		Step 1 Step 2					
	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE	
Step 1	.19**						
Incivility		.60(.43)**	.07		.57(.41)**	.08	
Commitment		02(03)	.03		01(01)	.04	
Step 2				.00			
Incivility X Commitment					05(06)	.05	
Total R ²				.19**			

^{**} *p* < .01

Guilt. I conducted a third moderated regression analysis to test my hypotheses regarding the interactive effect of commitment and incivility on feelings of guilt.

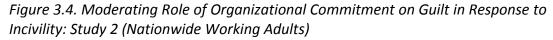
The first block, including incivility and commitment as predictors, explained a significant amount of the variance in guilt (F (2, 335) = 33.95, p < .001) (see Table 3.11). Adding the interaction term to the model led to a significant improvement in the amount of variance explained, by a magnitude of 2% (change F (1, 334) = 6.05, p < .05). The results from this analysis are consistent with those regarding negative affective response to incivility, and provide evidence of the exacerbating effect of organizational commitment (in support of H6b). Figure 3.4 heuristically displays this significant interactive effect.

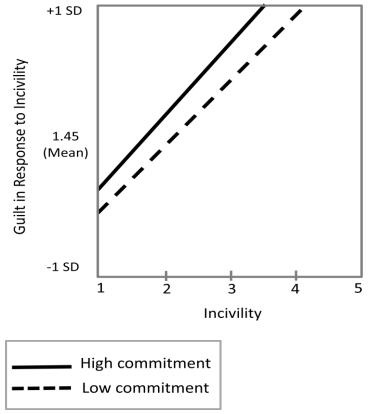
Table 3.11. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Guilt, Predicted by Incivility, Commitment, and Incivility X Commitment Interaction (Nationwide Working Adults)

Variable	Guilt in Response to Incivility					
		Step 1 Step				
	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE
Step 1	.17**					
Incivility		.44(.43)**	.05		.49(.48)**	.06
Commitment		.08(.17)**	.03		.06(.13)*	.03
Step 2				.02*		
Incivility X Commitment					.08(.14)*	.03
_Total R ²				.18**		

^{*} p < .05, ** p < .01

 $⁺R^2$ values do not sum to total R^2 because of rounding





The Role of Gender in the Incivility-to-Discrete Emotion Link

Anger

In Hypothesis 7, I predicted that incivility and gender would interact, resulting in men reporting higher levels of anger than women. Similar to the moderated regression analyses investigating the role of commitment, I first centered incivility, and regressed anger onto incivility and gender. I then added the two-way interaction between incivility and gender to the model in a second block.

In the regression predicting anger, incivility and gender accounted for a significant 19% of the variance (F (2, 342) = 38.86, p < .001) (see Table 3.12). However, adding the interaction term of incivility X gender did not significantly improve the predictive ability of the model (change F (1, 341) = .26, p < .62). These results do not

support my hypothesis that gender would interact with incivility in influencing feelings of anger.

Table 3.12. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Anger, Predicted by Incivility, Gender, and Incivility X Gender Interaction (Nationwide Working Adults)

Variable	Anger in Response to Incivility							
		Step 1 Step 2						
	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE		
Step 1	.19**							
Incivility		.60(.43)**	.07		.60(.43)**	.07		
Gender		.04(.04)	.05		.03(.03)	.06		
Step 2				.00				
Incivility X Gender					.04(.03)	.07		
Total R ²				.19**				

^{*} p < .05, ** p < .01

Note. Gender was coded such that 1 = Female, -1 = Male.

Guilt

Recall that in Hypothesis 8, I predicted that incivility and gender would interact, resulting in women reporting higher levels of guilt than men. To assess the moderating role of gender in the incivility-to-guilt link, I completed a parallel analyses as to that described above, using guilt as the dependent variable in the model.

The first block, including incivility and gender as predictors, explained a significant 14% of the variance in guilt (F (2, 337) = 28.19, p < .001) (see Table 3.13). However, adding the interaction term to the model did not lead to a significant improvement in the amount of variance explained, (change F (1, 336) = 2.95, p < .09). The results from this analysis do not support my hypothesis that women would report higher levels of guilt following incivility, compared to their male counterparts.

Table 3.13. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Guilt, Predicted by Incivility, Gender, and Incivility X Gender Interaction (Nationwide Working Adults)

Variable	Guilt in Response to Incivility						
		Step 1		Step 2			
	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE	
Step 1	.14**						
Incivility		.36(.36)**	.05		.37(.37)**	.05	
Gender		05(07)	.04		03(04)	.04	
Step 2				.01			
Incivility X Gender					09(09)	.05	
Total R ²				.15**			

^{*} *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01

Note. Gender was coded such that 1 = Female, -1 = Male.

Results Summary: The Role of Gender in the Incivility-to-Discrete Emotion Link

Hypotheses 7 and 8 predicted that gender would play a moderating role in the relationship between incivility and feelings of anger and guilt. Counter to my hypotheses, I did not find evidence of a moderating gender effect with regards to either discrete emotional response. This suggests that, while there may be gender differences in some experiences of emotions, men and women may in fact exhibit similarities in their emotional response to maltreatment. An additional possible explanation for these findings pertains to the self-reported nature of the emotion measure as well as the distinction between experienced and enacted emotions in the workplace, a point to which I will return in the discussion.

Incivility Results Summary

Studies 1 and 2 provide empirical evidence of the central mediating role of emotional response. Results from Study 1 indicate that incivility instills a significant negative affective response, which is related to decreased empowerment and increased work withdrawal and thoughts of leaving the organization. Taking a closer look at emotional reactions, Study 2 finds incivility to trigger both feelings of anger and guilt. Anger is associated with decrements in empowerment and self-esteem, as well as increased turnover intentions. Feelings of guilt, on the other hand, are significantly

related to lower self-esteem. While incivility links to both feelings of anger and guilt, their differential paths to outcomes suggest that the *type* of discrete emotional response is important in predicting which negative outcomes may surface at both the individual and organizational levels.

Taken together, a series of moderated regression models suggests that organizational commitment plays a role in the relationship between experiences of incivility and emotional responses to the maltreatment. In Study 1, I find evidence that those employees who have higher levels of organizational commitment report greater levels of negative affect in response to incivility, compared to employees lower in commitment. In Study 2, I find the same pattern for feelings of guilt following uncivil treatment, underscoring the exacerbating effect of organizational commitment. This finding is consistent with the theoretical notion that employees who are committed to the organization are particularly vulnerable to psychological threat when it comes to stressful experiences in that context (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Interestingly, I did not find the same interactive effect for feelings of anger in response to incivility.

Organizational commitment did not play a significant role in the relationship between incivility and anger; rather, it seems that employees respond with anger at similar levels, regardless of attachment to the organization.

In Study 2, I did not find evidence that gender plays a role in influencing the type of emotional response targets have following incivility. This study suggests that, despite gender stereotypes, men and women seem to have more similarities in their reactions of anger and guilt than differences.

CHAPTER 4

Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt Results

Study 3: Receipt of Citizenship and Positive Affective Response Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1 summarizes descriptive statistics for variables in the Michigan Women Work study. I inspected the psychometric properties of all variables and found them to normally distributed. Interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt was significantly correlated with positive affective response (r = .36, p < .01). Interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt was also significantly related to the two of the outcomes, empowerment (r = .26, p < .01) and turnover intentions (r = -.22, p < .01). However, receipt of citizenship was not significantly correlated with work withdrawal (r = -.10, ns).

The internal consistency reliabilities (Chronbach's alpha) were acceptable for all of the scales (ranging from .94 for interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt to .72 for pessimism), with the exception of work withdrawal (α = .69). I retained the work withdrawal scale to be able to compare my results with those of other studies. The average internal reliabilities for the scales was .82.

Table 4.1. Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations Among Study 3 Variables: Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt (Michigan Working Women)

	М	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt	3.02	.84	(.94)					
2. Positive affect- Interpersonal citizenship behavior- receipt	2.82	.95	.36**	(.92)				
3. Empowerment	5.48	.87	.33**	.26**	(.85)			
4. Work withdrawal	1.90	.61	01	10	11*	(.69)		
5. Turnover	3.26	1.82	30**	22**	40**	.25**	(.79)	
6. Pessimism	2.18	.67	08	17**	34**	.03	.20**	(.72)

Note. Scale reliabilities (alpha) are along the diagonal; ** p < .01.

Positive Affective Response as a Mediator

I will now present results regarding emotional response to interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and the possible role gender might play in this relationship. To test my Hypothesis 9 concerning the role of positive affective response, I submitted data from the Michigan Working Women sample to structural equation modeling.

Measurement model. First, I computed a correlation matrix of participants who had reported experiences of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt, yielding a sample size of 380. I then estimated the parameters of the measurement model. The goodness of fit indices appear in Table 4.2, and indicate a good fit to the data ($\chi^2/df = 1.75$, RMSEA = .05, NNFI = .98, CFI = .98).

Table 4.2. Goodness of Fit Indices for the Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt Measurement and Structural Models (Michigan Working Women)

Model	χ²	df	χ²/df	RMSEA	NNFI	CFI
Measurement	182.51	104	1.75	.05	.98	.98
Structural	243.49	111	2.19	.06	.96	.97

To assess whether the indicators were strongly related to their corresponding latent factors, I examined the standardized loadings for the factors (see Table 4.3). Loadings ranged from .53 - .95, with a mean of .81, indicating a strong relationship between the indicators and related factors. Standardized residuals suggested the indicators belonged to the hypothesized factors, with most residuals having small absolute values; only 2% of residuals (3 out of 136) had an absolute value greater than 3.0. The measurement model showed a good fit to the data and allowed me to move to test the structural model.

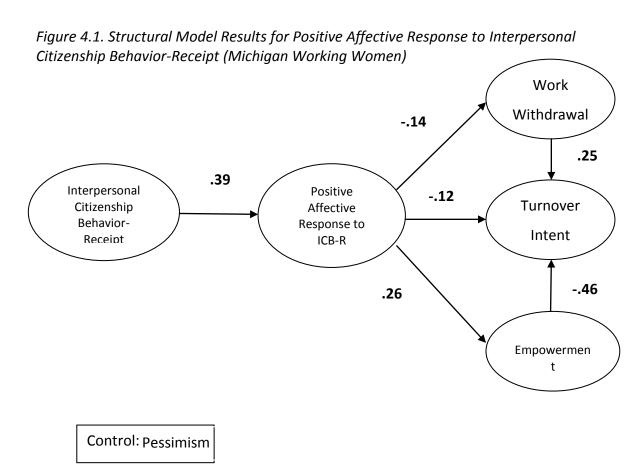
Table 4.3. Measurement Model Factor Loadings: Study 3 Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt Analysis (Michigan Working Women)

	Loadings of Indicators				
Construct	1	2	3		
ICB-R	.90	.92	.94		
Positive Affect in Response to	.93	.86	.86		
Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-					
Receipt					
Empowerment	.68	.81	.95		
Work Withdrawal	.81	.64	.53		
Turnover Intentions	.82	.81	a		
Pessimism	.72	.82	.77		

^a This construct contained only two indicators.

Structural Model. Next, I tested the structural model (see Figure 4.1). The fit indices reveal an overall good fit of the model to the data (χ^2/df = 2.19, RMSEA = .06, NNFI = .96, CFI = .97). Figure 4.1 displays the standardized path coefficients for the

structural model, all of which were significant. I predicted that experiences of citizenship would be associated with greater positive affect, linking to positive outcomes (i.e., increased empowerment, decreased work withdrawal and decreased turnover intentions) (H9). In support of my hypothesis, results from modeling indicate that positive affect is a key mediating factor between interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and positive outcomes. Importantly, these results provide empirical evidence that experiencing positive affect following interpersonal interactions has clear benefits for both the individual and organization.



Note. Paths with solid arrows are significant, p < .05. Not shown is the path from pessimism to positive affective response ($\theta = -.16$, p < .05).

The exogenous variables in my model accounted for considerable variance in the endogenous variables (see Table 4.4). Most notably, this collection of variables explained 33% of the variance in turnover intent.

Table 4.4. Proportion of Variance Accounted for in Each Endogenous Variable: Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt Analyses (Michigan Working Women)

	Structural Model	Revised Partial Mediation Model
Positive Affect in Response to	.19	.18
Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-		
Receipt		
Empowerment	.07	.13
Work Withdrawal	.02	.02
Turnover Intentions	.33	.35

My model represents a fully mediated model such that the effects of citizenship are fully transmitted through emotion. A plausible alternative is partial mediation with indirect effects through emotions and direct effects between citizenship and outcomes. I tested this partially mediated model as well, by adding the relevant direct paths. I compared this alternative model against the original model, finding the alternative model to have significantly better overall fit: $\Delta \chi^2$ (3) = 27.68, p < .001. The alternative model fit the data well (χ^2/df = 2.00, RMSEA = .05, NNFI = .97, CFI = .98) and the relationships between citizenship and outcomes were significant for empowerment and turnover intentions (θ = .28 and θ = -.16, respectively). The link between citizenship and work withdrawal was not significant (θ = -.02). A comparison of the proportion of variance accounted for in each endogenous variable across the two models (see Table 4.4) reveals similar percentages, with the exception of empowerment. It seems as though partial mediation may help better explain the relationship between incivility and empowerment.

Study 4: Receipt of Citizenship and Discrete Emotional Response

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.5 summarizes descriptive statistics for the variables in the U.S. Working Adults study. I inspected the psychometric properties of all variables and found them to normally distributed. Interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt was significantly positively correlated with self-assurance (r = .37, p < .01). Self-assurance in response to receipt of citizenship was significantly related to the outcomes (i.e., empowerment, turnover intention, and self-esteem) in the expected directions.

The internal consistency reliabilities were acceptable for all scales in this study (ranging from .96 for interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt to .85 for turnover intentions). The average internal reliabilities for the scales was .90.

A series of t-tests revealed only one significant difference between men and women on the interpersonal experience, emotion, and outcome variables. Women reported significantly more experiences of citizenship than did men (t = 2.56, p < .05, M = 3.00 for men and M = 3.24 for women).

Table 4.5. Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations Among Study 4 Variables: Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt (Nationwide Working Adults)

	М	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt	3.14	.87	(.95)						
2. Self- assurance in response to interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt	2.43	1.00	.38**	(.89)					
3. Empowerment	5.65	.87	.41**	.39**	(.89)				
4. Self-esteem	3.25	.53	.36**	.40**	.51**	(.90)			
5. Turnover intent	3.01	1.87	24**	14**	43**	36**	(.86)		
6. Gender ^a	.15	.99	.13*	03	01	.04	01	-	
7. Pessimism	2.38	.85	34**	39**	46**	72**	.36**	01	(.90)

Note. Scale reliabilities (alpha) are along the diagonal; ** p < .01.

Self-Assurance as a Mediator

I tested Hypothesis 10 regarding self-assurance in response to interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt using data from the U.S. Working Adults sample.

Measurement model. Inspection of narrative data revealed that a number of participants incorrectly responded to the interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt portion of the survey (i.e., reporting on incivility incidents instead of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt). I selected only those participants with the "cleanest" cases of interpersonal citizenship behavior, excluding 120 participants. This provides a very strict test of the relationships in my models. This resulted in a sample size of 352. I

^aGender coded such that 1 = female, -1 = male.

then submitted correlations from this sample to maximum likelihood structural equation analysis, beginning with a measurement model. The goodness of fit indices appear in Table 4.6, and indicate a strong fit to the data ($\chi^2/df = 1.93$, RMSEA = .05, NNFI = .99, CFI = .99).

Table 4.6. Goodness of Fit Indices for the Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt Measurement and Structural Models (Nationwide Working Adults)

Model	χ^2	df	χ²/df	RMSEA	NNFI	CFI
Measurement	200.98	104	1.93	.05	.99	.99
Structural	386.70	110	3.52	.085	.95	.96

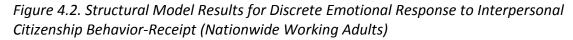
To assess whether the indicators were strongly related to their corresponding latent factors, I examined the standardized loadings for the factors (see Table 4.7). Loadings ranged from .68 - .95, with a mean of .87, indicating a strong relationship between the indicators and related factors. Standardized residuals suggested that the indicators belonged to the hypothesized factors, with most residuals having small absolute values; only 3% of residuals (4 out of 136) had an absolute value greater than 3.0. Satisfied with this measurement model, I then proceeded to test the structural model.

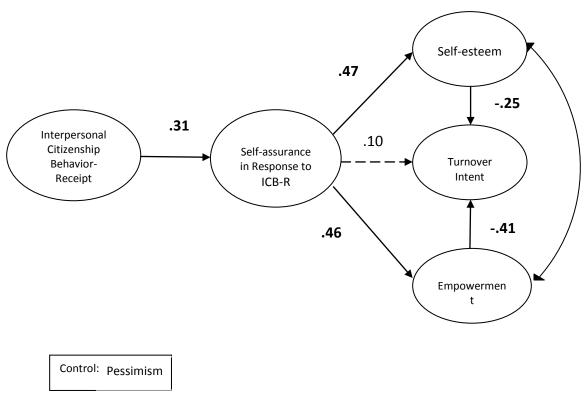
Table 4.7. Measurement Model Factor Loadings: Study 4 Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt Analysis (Nationwide Working Adults)

_	Loadings of Indicators					
Construct	1	2	3			
Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt	.92	.94	.94			
Self-assurance in Response to Interpersonal	.92	.83	.86			
Citizenship Behavior-Receipt						
Empowerment	.82	.84	.95			
Self-esteem	.86	.93	.68			
Turnover Intentions	.95	.79	a			
Pessimism	.91	.90	.83			

^a Dashes indicate that this particular statistic is not applicable.

Structural Model. Next, I tested the structural model shown in Figure 4.2. The fit indices revealed an overall satisfactory fit of the model to the data ($\chi^2/df = 3.52$, RMSEA = .085, NNFI = .95, CFI = .96). Figure 4.2 displays the coefficients for the structural model, with significant coefficients in bold (dashed lines indicate nonsignificance). Recall that in Hypothesis 10, I hypothesized that one key emotional reaction to interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt should be self-assurance. I also predicted that feelings of self-assurance would be linked to positive individual (i.e., increased empowerment and self-esteem) and organizational (i.e., turnover intentions) outcomes. Results indicate that, in support of my hypotheses, experiences of interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt trigger feelings of self-assurance, which in turn link to positive outcomes. Establishing empirical evidence of this pathway is important in our understanding of factors that foster well-being and empowerment on the job.





Note. Paths with solid arrows are significant, p < .05. Not shown is the path from pessimism to self-assurance ($\theta = -.32$, p < .05).

The exogenous variables in my model accounted for significant variance in the endogenous variables (see Table 4.8). Most notably, this collection of constructs explained over 20% of the variance in empowerment and self-esteem, and nearly 30% of the variance in turnover intent.

Table 4.8. Proportion of Variance Accounted for in each Endogenous Variable: Study 4 Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt Analyses (Nationwide Working Adults)

	Structural Model	Revised Partial Mediation Model
Self-Assurance in Response to Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-	.27	.25
Receipt		
Empowerment	.22	.29
Self-esteem	.22	.27
Turnover Intentions	.29	.29

My model represents a fully mediated model such that the effects of citizenship are fully transmitted through emotion. A plausible alternative is partial mediation with indirect effects through emotions and direct effects between citizenship and outcomes. I tested this partially mediated model as well, by adding the relevant direct paths. I compared this alternative model against the original model, finding the alternative model to have significantly better overall fit: $\Delta \chi^2$ (3) = 29.41, p < .001. The alternative model fit the data $(\chi^2/df = 3.34, RMSEA = .08, NNFI = .96, CFI = .97)$ and the relationships between citizenship and outcomes were significant for empowerment and self-esteem $(\theta = .32 \text{ and } \theta = .27, \text{ respectively})$. The link between citizenship and turnover intentions was not significant ($\theta = -.05$). A comparison of the proportion of variance accounted for in each endogenous variable across the two models (see Table 4.8) reveals improved percentages, with the exception of turnover intentions. Therefore, it seems as though partial mediation may help better explain the relationship between incivility and empowerment and self-esteem, leading me to conclude the alternative model superior. This is interesting as I found a similar partial mediated effect for the link between citizenship and empowerment in Study 3.

The Role of Gender in the Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt-to-Discrete Emotion Link

Self-Assurance

To test my research question regarding the potential moderating effect of gender on feelings of self-assurance following interpersonal citizenship behavior-

receipt, I conducted a moderated regression analysis. In this analysis, citizenship receipt was centered in both its main effect and interaction terms.

The first block, including interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and gender as predictors, explained a significant amount of the variance in self-assurance (F (2, 346) = 31.74, p < .001) (see Table 4.9). However, adding the interaction term to the model did not lead to a significant improvement in the amount of variance explained, (change F (1, 345) = .05, p < .83). These results suggest that gender does not have a significant moderating effect, with women and men reporting similar levels of self-assurance in response to interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt.

Table 4.9. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Self-Assurance, Predicted by Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt, Gender, and Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt X Gender Interaction (Nationwide Working Adults)

Variable	Self-Assurance in Response to								
		Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt							
		Step 1 Step 2							
	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE	ΔR^2	В (<i>6</i>)	SE			
Step 1	.16**								
Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt		.46(.40)**	.06		.46(.40)**	.06			
Gender		09(09)	.05		09(09)	.05			
Step 2				.00					
Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt X Gender					01(01)	.06			
Total R ²				.16					

^{**} p < .01

Note: Gender was coded such that 1 = Female, -1 = Male.

Citizenship Results Summary

Studies 3 and 4 provide empirical evidence of the pivotal mediating role of positive emotion in the interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt-to-outcome link.

Study 3 found general positive affective response to be related to increased empowerment and decreased work withdrawal and thoughts of leaving the organization. Study 4 focused on self-assurance as a key emotional response following

citizenship, revealing significant relationships with empowerment and self-esteem. I also found self-assurance to be indirectly linked to turnover intentions, through employee empowerment and self-esteem. Study 4 also investigated gender differences in discrete emotional responses to citizenship experiences. Interestingly, moderated regression analyses revealed no significant moderating role of gender in the citizenship-to-self-assurance linkage.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

Overarching dissertation discussion:

Whereas past research examining social experiences in organizations has tended to focus on either negative or positive organizational life, in this dissertation, I bring together two disparate literatures. Acknowledging the diversity of experiences, on both sides of the interpersonal spectrum, is a pivotal step in fully understanding how social experiences affect employee well-being, performance, and organizational functioning.

Across these four studies, results provide evidence of the importance of the social experience at work, as both incivility and interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt have significant and meaningful consequences for employees. Importantly, emotional response to these seemingly inconsequential social experiences surfaced as a key mediating factor, illuminating the ways in which subtle interpersonal treatment results in positive or negative results for individuals and organizations. First, I discuss the results from the incivility analyses, followed by those regarding interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt.

Incivility Discussion

Past research has documented negative effects of incivility, including increased psychological distress, cognitive distraction, and thoughts of leaving the organization (e.g., Cortina et al., 2011; Lim & Cortina, 2005). But to date, scholars have identified few mechanisms through which incivility produces harm. In this dissertation, I found support for Hypothesis 1, such that negative affect was a key mediating factor in the link between incivility and negative outcomes. Incivility, although subtle, triggered impactful emotional response, which related to decreased empowerment and increased work withdrawal and turnover intentions. This finding is consistent with the theoretical

notions proposed by both Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and the Control Theory of Job-Stress Process (Spector, 1998), underscoring the relevance of emotions in the workplace.

In a closer examination of emotional response, analyses revealed both anger and guilt to be relevant and significant discrete emotional responses. This project breaks new ground by considering the ways in which incivility may influence negative outcomes through specific discrete emotions. In support of Hypothesis 2, I found incivility to produce feelings of anger, which in turn link to decreased empowerment and selfesteem, and increased thoughts of leaving the organization. The idea that incivility fosters outward-focused anger is consistent with the theoretical writings of Pearson and colleagues regarding the "incivility spiral" (1999).

However, in addition to hostile feelings following incivility, my results also shed light on the importance on the inward-focused negative emotion of guilt. To date, scholars have not explored the possibility that incivility may incur such an emotional response. In partial support of Hypothesis 3, I found guilt to mediate the effect of incivility on decreased self-esteem. I did not find guilt to mediate between experiences of incivility and psychological empowerment or turnover intent; however, I find the relationship between guilt and decreased self-esteem compelling and worthy of continued investigation.

While we know little about *how* incivility results in negative outcomes, we know even less about *for whom* uncivil experiences matter the most. There may be many individual-level variables that could influence emotional response, and I focused on employee organizational commitment. I tested the competing possibilities that organizational commitment might attenuate, or alternatively, exacerbate the level of negative emotional response to incivility. Across both Study 1 and Study 2, I found evidence that employee organizational commitment *exacerbated* negative affective response (in support of H4b) and feelings of guilt (in support of H6b). In other words, the employees organizations value the most, those most committed to the organization, face worse emotional responses. So it seems that employees who are highly committed

to the organization may take subtle interpersonal transgressions more seriously than their less committed counterparts.

The exacerbating effect of commitment on feelings of guilt following incivility is particularly interesting. Due to the ambiguous nature of incivility, highly committed employees may be vulnerable to attributing the cause of the maltreatment to personal misgivings. For example, employees who are emotionally attached to their organization and make efforts to be good citizens may be less likely to brush off rude behavior. Instead, highly committed employees may look inward in an attempt to make sense of the mistreatment, attributing it to their own performance. This finding has striking implications for organizations that value their committed employees, since it is these very employees which incivility, if left unaddressed, affects the most.

Feelings of anger in response to incivility did not vary with the level of organizational commitment (i.e., neither H5a nor H5b were supported). Rather, it seems anger increases as the severity of incivility increases, regardless of commitment level. Feelings of anger can fuel aggressive, retaliatory behavior (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005), acting as a mechanism through which incivility proliferates throughout an organization. Indeed, anger has been labeled as part of the "attack-emotion family", which are emotions used to attack another person to achieve a better outcome (Fisher & Roseman, 2007).

My tests of Hypotheses 1-3 focus on mediation (investigating the mediating relationship between incivility, related emotional response, and outcomes), whereas my tests of Hypotheses 4-6 address moderation (testing gender as a moderator of the incivility-emotion link). Taken together, my results yield evidence of *moderated mediation*. Moderated mediation is present when "an interaction between an independent and moderator variable affects a mediator variable that in turn affects an outcome variable" (Edwards & Lambert, 2007, p. 7). In other words, incivility (the independent variable) interacts with organizational commitment (the moderator variable) in influencing negative affect (the mediator); negative affect in turn influences outcomes. This model would also be consistent with what Preacher, Rucker and Hayes

(2007, p. 195) refer to as a *conditional indirect effect*, when an indirect effect "[varies] in strength conditional on the value of at least one moderator variable." I also found evidence of moderated mediation, such that incivility interacts with organizational commitment to influence feelings of guilt; guilt then links to decrements in self-esteem. Evidence of moderated mediation provides a more complete picture of the ways in which incivility influences emotional response and related outcomes, at different levels of organizational commitment.

While incivility may not trigger different outcomes for male and female targets (Cortina et al., 2001), I hypothesized that gender would interact with incivility to influence the type and level of discrete emotional response, with men responding with higher levels of anger and women with higher levels of guilt. I did not find support for this, as gender was not a significant moderator in the relationship between incivility and either anger or guilt. Interestingly, examining base rates of these emotional responses to incivility, we see men reporting significantly more guilt than women, but not more anger. This is in contrast to what we might expect based on gender stereotypes (e.g., Algoe, Buswell, & DeLamater, 2000; Hess et al., 2000; Parmley & Cunningham, 2008; Plant et al., 2000).

One reason for these findings may be a difference between experienced and expressed emotion. In my surveys, I asked participants to report "the extent to which you felt each feeling or emotion **following** the experience you described above". This pertains to *experienced* emotion. Expressed emotions are those that are visible to outside observers, whereas experienced emotions are feelings that may or may not be displayed to others. It may be that gender stereotypes regarding emotion draw more closely from expressed emotions, while my results pertain to experiences or personal feelings of emotions. The lack of support for my gender hypotheses may also be an artifact of the measure of emotion I included in both studies. Participants were recalling past experiences of incivility (or interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt). However, it is possible that participants were not isolating their distinct, immediate emotional response, but rather were reporting feelings that included complex contextual

considerations. For example, participants may have reported their holistic feelings regarding their relationship or interaction with the instigator. Such cognitive processing might have blurred the gender differences I expected to see with respect to discrete emotional response.

A second explanation for the lack of gender effects may be the diverse contexts in which the incivility (or interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt) may have taken place. Emotion researchers have noted the context-sensitive nature of gender differences in emotion (Brody & Hall, 2010; Fischer & Roseman, 2007). Across organizational contexts, power differences between employees shift and influence types of emotional response (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003; Domagalski & Steelman, 2007). Theoretical literature on power and emotions proposes that individuals higher in power experience more anger, but also more guilt (Brody & Hall, 2010). Because of this, gender differences may not emerge across the many contexts and statuses held by the participants in my surveys. Future research should explore potential contextual determinants such as supervisory status of the instigator and the extent to which the two parties are interdependent in their work tasks.

Emotional response is complicated, moreover, when organizations discourage expression of negative emotions. This can lead to "emotional labor" (employees suppressing true feelings and instead displaying emotions that are acceptable) (Grandey, 2000), which alleviates the conflict between negative affect and the expectations and requirements of the job. In a sample of human resource professionals, Simpson and Stroh (2004) found gender differences in the disconnect between experienced and expressed emotion. Men reported having to display negative emotions, suppressing positive emotions. Women reported the opposite, that they felt compelled to display positive emotions (e.g., contentment, calmness) while suppressing negative emotions they may experience (e.g., anger). This emotion regulation process can lower behavioral responses and trigger adverse physiological activity (e.g., high blood pressure; Pennebaker, 1985), which can in turn weaken the immune system and contribute to chronic disease (e.g., Gross, 1989; King & Emmons, 1990; Smith, 1992). In

other words, emotional labor in response to incivility may undermine employee health and well-being.

Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior-Receipt Discussion

In Studies 3 and 4, I examined the affective process through which receipt of interpersonal citizenship behaviors might result in positive outcomes for both employees and organizations. In Study 3, (consistent with H9) I found empirical evidence that gestures of support and helping were significantly associated with increased positive affect, which in turn linked to increased empowerment and decreased work withdrawal and turnover intentions. Building on past research examining positive relational experiences in organizations, my results suggest that small acts of support and kindness trigger positive emotional responses, linking to meaningful benefits.

In Study 4, I examined how feelings of self-assurance in response to interpersonal citizenship behavior receipt might influence outcomes. To date, discrete emotions have been largely neglected by positive organizational scholars. Again, I found emotion playing a key mediating link, such that self-assurance was associated with both empowerment and self-esteem (in partial support of H10). Although past research has suggested that positive relational work interactions result in improved employee well-being and function, the findings from Studies 3 and 4 shed light on the intervening process. Establishing that emotion is a key mediator in the link between interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and outcomes is an important step in determining ways to maximize these positive outcomes.

Results from Study 4 did not indicate a significant direct path between self-assurance and turnover intentions. One reason for this may be that positive emotions regarding coworker interactions are not enough to mitigate turnover cognitions directly. However, there was an *indirect* effect of self-assurance on turnover intentions, through increased empowerment and self-esteem. Future research should continue to examine self-assurance, as well as include other positive discrete emotions; only with this level of analysis can we target specific pathways to optimal employee functioning.

Recall that I posed a research question pertaining to the role gender may play in the relationship between interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt and related feelings of self-assurance. Results did not reveal a significant difference between men and women on levels of self-assurance. This is interesting in light of common conceptions of men and women's disparate emotional and social lives. This finding, coupled with the null interaction results of the incivility study, paint a picture of gender similarity rather than difference. On the other hand, on account of the limitations with the emotion measure used in both of these studies, future research should seek to investigate these relationships further.

Across both Studies 3 and 4, I would underscore the strong linkages between interpersonal citizenship behavior receipt and emotional response. On the surface, many of the citizenship behaviors may seem trivial or unlikely to foster a meaningful response; however, I found empirical evidence to the contrary. Recent research on vigor in the workplace has noted the importance of "warm interactions" with coworkers (Shraga & Shiram, 2009). Additionally, Fritz and colleagues (2011) found employees who "do something to make a coworker happy" report greater vitality. This research takes the perspective of those initiating positive social interactions. My dissertation builds on this by considering the target's perspective.

Discussion across Incivility and Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior Studies

I will now look across the four studies to address some interesting points. While I did not incorporate experiences of *both* positive and negative social interactions in any given analysis, it is worthwhile to consider how emotional responses and outcomes compare across studies. Notably, both incivility and interpersonal citizenship significantly and meaningfully linked to emotional reactions. Moreover, experiences of incivility and interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt were significantly negatively correlated in both my Michigan women's data (r = -.16, p < .01) and nationwide working adult data (r = -.17, p < .01). This suggests that employees who experience higher levels of incivility are also more likely to receive lower levels of interpersonal citizenship behavior (and vice-versa). This is noteworthy when considering how these disparate

experiences may combine or interact to produce general affect on the job, and subsequent outcomes. My future research (outlined below) will incorporate positive and negative experiences within-person to investigate "profiles" of interpersonal experience.

It is also interesting to note that the amount of variance explained by negative and positive discrete emotions varied considerably from Study 2 (incivility-related anger and guilt) and Study 4 (citizenship-related self-assurance). While anger and guilt explained 4% of the variance in empowerment, 9% in self-esteem, and 34% in turnover intentions (see Table 3.8), self-assurance packed a bigger collective punch, accounting for 22%, 22%, and 29% of the variance in these outcomes, respectively (see Table 4.8). This discrepancy suggests that self-assurance plays a larger role in influencing empowerment and self-esteem than do anger and guilt. The predictive power of selfassurance in these relationships implies that this may be an important discrete emotional response to consider in future research. In contrast, there was not such a major discrepancy between the variance accounted for in the models using global indicators of negative and positive affect (see Tables 3.5 and 4.5, respectively). In fact, the percent of variance explained was quite similar. This is noteworthy because so much of the psychological and organizational literature focuses on negative constructs, including negative emotions. The similarity in predictive strength suggests that positive emotion has implications that are just as strong (if not stronger) for individual and organizational outcomes.

Limitations and future directions:

This project, as with all research, has some limitations. All of the data are self-reported and cross-sectional in nature. While this can present concerns regarding common method bias, I sought to address this in a number of ways. First, following the recommendations of Podsakoff et al. (2003), I designed the surveys in order to create "psychological separation" between the predictor and criterion variables. All measures of hypothesized outcomes were asked prior to and independently of any measure of incivility or interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt. Second, I included pessimism as

a control variable in the modeling analyses, in order to rule out the alternative explanation that negative dispositions could be driving my significant relationships (Podsakoff et al., 2003). For example, an employee with a generally negative view of life might report many experiences of incivility at work, strong negative emotional responses, and also poor psychological and job outcomes; removing effects of pessimism accounts for this possibility. Controlling for pessimism is a common convention in anti-social workplace behavior research; however, because of its high correlation with self-esteem (r = -.71 and -.72 when serving as a dependent variable in Studies 2 and 4, respectively) a few points should be made. First, both pessimism and self-esteem, as I have measured them, tap "trait-like" qualities of the underlying constructs. My future research will include a measure of state self-esteem, which may help alleviate concerns of the viability of interpersonal experience influencing trait global self-worth. Second, examining the face validity of the two scales reveals similarity with respect to a focus on the self. For example, one item of the pessimism scale includes "I'm always optimistic about my future" (recoded) which is similar to an item of the self-esteem scale, "I am able to do things as well as most other people". However, the pessimism items consistently refer to a general state of things, without evaluating self-worth. Regardless, their high correlation and similarity of trait-like qualities suggest refined measurement in the future.

To further address concerns of common method bias, I also collected coworker ratings of the job performance of 159 participants in the Nationwide Working Adult survey. 4 Bivariate correlations between coworker-rated performance and participants' self-reported data support my general conclusion that interpersonal experiences and related emotion have implications for professional functioning. Of particular interest is a strong negative correlation (r = -.42) between self-reported guilt and coworker-rated job performance. This suggests that both organizations and scholars should pay more

⁴ Comprehensive analyses of these coworker-rated data are beyond the scope of this dissertation; I limit my discussion to preliminary findings.

attention to employees' sense of guilt, as this feeling links to decrements in on-the-job performance. Also of interest is a strong correlation (r = .44) between self-reported self-esteem and coworker-rated performance, indicating that there may be real organizational benefits to fostering a strong sense of self-worth among employees.

With respect to experiences of citizenship, a number of interesting patterns emerge when comparing the Nationwide Working Adult self-reported data with coworker-rated data. Based on literature regarding relational psychological contracts, I expect that individuals benefiting from interpersonal citizenship might feel obligated to "give back" to the organization in terms of performing, or enacting, organizational citizenship (i.e., good deeds corresponding to one's work role, necessarily benefiting organizational function). This is consistent with ideas of reciprocity in which people respond to positive actions with positive actions (Gouldner, 1960). Bateman and Organ (1983) also found that employees who received help were helpful in return. Recent research finds that positive relationships with others predict helping behaviors among a sample of office employees (Ho, 2008). To test this possibility, I conducted bivariate correlations with the coworker-rated data. There is a strong correlation between receipt of interpersonal citizenship behavior and coworker-rated organizational citizenship behavior (performed by the target employee) (r = .39). Feelings of selfassurance following interpersonal citizenship are also linked to coworker-rated organizational citizenship behavior (r = .36). In the future, additional multisource data to test these relationships will benefit our understanding of how interpersonal experience relate to professional performance and function.

In both samples, I used a measure of turnover intentions, rather than actual turnover rates. However, we know from past research that turnover intentions are one of the strongest predictors of actual turnover behaviors (e.g., Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). In future research, it will be advantageous to collect actual turnover rates to show relationships between interpersonal experience and exit behaviors. Along these lines, it would be interesting

to include questions regarding incivility and interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt experiences in exit interviews.

While there is some debate in the literature as to the validity of self-reported emotion, I argue that individuals are able to recall emotional reactions to memorable interpersonal experiences. A related limitation is that I did not measure emotions physiologically or manipulate interpersonal experiences in a lab setting. However, since the data came from the field, all interpersonal experiences reported had personal meaning and took place in an organizational context with actual relational ties, adding external validity to this study. In my future work, I plan to continue this line of research with experience sampling methods to capture "real-time" data on emotional reactions.

My hypotheses imply a causal relationship between interpersonal experience, emotional response, and subsequent individual and organizational outcomes. Due to the cross-sectional nature of the data, however, any conclusions of causality would be premature. That said, Porath and Erez (2007) have demonstrated in one experiment a causal link between incivility and emotion. Longitudinal analysis regarding the link between incivility and individual and organizational outcomes also suggests a causal relationship (Lim, Kabat-Farr, Cortina, & Magley, in preparation). To address this issue further, I am currently conducting an experimental study to test the causal connection between incivility, emotions, and outcomes.

Past research has started to establish a causal link between positive interpersonal experience (e.g., daily events in the lives of college students) and subsequent positive emotional response (Langston, 1994). However, given the relative lack of empirical work on interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt, evidence of causality will need to be addressed by future studies.

The current project makes inroads into the study of interpersonal interactions in organizations by considering both sides of the deviant behavior spectrum. With this approach I acknowledge the diversity of social experiences at work. I plan to further bridge these disparate experiences by incorporating both incivility and interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt in the same analysis. I aim to identify (e.g., through k-

means cluster analysis) employees who have similar profiles of social experiences. By taking a profile approach, I will test the possibility that diverse social experiences may interact (or counteract) to result in different individual and organizational outcomes. Previous work has found evidence of a positive-negative asymmetry effect (see Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Fickenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Taylor, 1991), which would suggest that positive interpersonal interactions (such as interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt) pack less of an empirical "punch" compared to negative social interactions. On the other hand, Mitchell and colleagues (2001) found that interpersonal links within an organization function to embed employees in a relational system, protecting them from "shocks" that may result in employees withdrawing from work tasks. So is it the case that employees who experience incivility report negative outcomes, regardless of level of interpersonal citizenship receipt? Or do intense citizenship experiences wash-out the negative effects of incivility? I will test these possibilities with one of the first projects to bridge the divide between anti-social and pro-social work experiences.

Implications for organizations

Taken together, the findings from my dissertation suggest that interpersonal experiences on the job, often subtle enough to fly under the radar of organizational attention, trigger impactful emotional response, which links to important outcomes for both the employee as well as the bottom line. Interpersonal interactions, such as incivility and interpersonal citizenship, are typically not a priority in organizational policies, procedures, and discussions. These results underscore the benefits of managing the interpersonal spheres of the workplace. Incivility research, in particular, is a burgeoning field, and we know much about the negative results. However, there appears to be a disconnect between knowledge in the academic and in the practical realms. Indeed, scholars have recently noted that the human resource development community is not aware of the negative individual and organizational outcomes of workplace incivility (Estes & Wang, 2008).

The goal of organizations should be to shift the norms of organizational behavior to the positive side of the deviant behavior spectrum. By eliminating or reducing

incivility, organizations will reap the benefits of employees who are engaged, have feelings of empowerment with regard to their work role, and are less likely to leave the organization. Although the absence of negative behaviors will benefit organizational functioning, efforts should be made to foster and encourage a positive workplace (Cameron, Dutton, Quinn, & Bernstein, 2003). Results from my studies suggest that interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt, while seemingly minor, translates into significant positive emotional response and related benefits in functioning.

How can organizations reduce incivility and encourage interpersonal citizenship? Both goals can be accomplished in one program. A comprehensive summary of practical interventions is beyond the scope of this dissertation, but a few examples are worth noting.

The Civility, Respect, and Engagement at Work (CREW) program started as a Veteran's Affairs (VA) initiative to improve culture. The CREW program functions as a series of weekly workgroup-level meetings and puts employees at the center of organizational change by participating in activities, having direct conversations, and driving the intervention (Leiter, Laschinger, Day, & Oore, 2011; Osatuke, Moore, Ward, Dyrenforth, & Belton, 2009). The program has now been implemented by over 1,200 VA workgroups, with extremely promising findings. VA hospitals who undergo six month CREW intervention programs have documented substantial post-program benefits including increased coworker and supervisor civility, fewer sick leave hours, and higher employee job satisfaction and intent to remain with the VA (Leiter, et al., 2011).

Cisco Systems Inc. is one of the first corporations to introduce an employee training program to promote civility (Pearson & Porath, 2009). Through workshops, case studies, coaching, and video presentations, employees and managers learn to both recognize and address incivility. A formal "playbook" serves as a resource, detailing ways to detect and reduce escalating incivility. Cisco's organizational culture of mutual respect complements these formal training activities to encourage a positive work environment. Cisco has found this program key to maintaining a productive workplace and has been rated in the top 20 ranks of the "100 Best Companies to Work For" for five

years (2007-2011) by Fortune (2011). By bridging scholarly research with applied programming, scholars and practitioners can develop and refine programs such as these to help foster healthy and productive working environments.

Conclusion

The set of studies conducted for this dissertation makes multiple unique contributions to the literature. First, results across all four studies reveal that emotion comes into play following subtle, often overlooked social experiences. These emotional reactions then have important linkages to both individual and organizational outcomes. Second, consideration of the role and importance of discrete emotions is key in understanding how interpersonal experience results in these outcomes. Notably, scholars and practitioners should continue to examine a range of discrete emotions in response to incivility and interpersonal citizenship behavior-receipt, feelings of guilt in particular. Third, my results underscore the gravity of incivility, showing that the most valued employees (those with high commitment) may experience the worst outcomes. Lastly, in this dissertation I find *receipt* of interpersonal citizenship behavior to have very real consequences on the job. Whereas most research focuses on the *enactment* of citizenship, we should turn our eye to its recipients as a way to further understand how to promote employee well-being.

The relational context at work can either promote or hinder employee well-being, performance, and career trajectories. The findings from these studies strongly suggest that social interactions – even when subtle and inconspicuous – are an important part of organizational life and are worthy of future research.

Appendices

Appendix A

Michigan Working Women Recruitment Texts

Posting on social networking sites and local community organization homepages:

Working Women—We Want Your Opinion

Please take 2-3 minutes to fill out this brief survey and tell us about yourself. A team of researchers at the University of Michigan has developed a short snapshot survey of working women in the region. Your input will allow us to create a base of knowledge about working women. The results will also be published for your review.

<k to Snapshot Survey>>

Thank you for your time and input!

Lilia Cortina

Email to UM faculty and staff and UM Health Service employees Dear Fellow Faculty and Staff,

Your experiences matter. The Gender and Respect in Organizations research group here at UM is launching a new study of women's work lives in Michigan. The goal of this Michigan Women Work (MWW) project is to understand the successes, stories, and struggles of women from diverse backgrounds and fields of employment.

We invite all female faculty and staff at the University of Michigan to take 2-3 minutes to fill out a brief "snapshot" survey, available at

www.michiganwomenwork.org. Interested participants will then have the opportunity to complete a longer paper-based survey via mail (in return for \$10 compensation and a summary report of our findings).*

Your responses are very important to the success of this research, which may benefit residents of Southeast Michigan. You will be able to view findings from this study on our website starting Fall 2010.

Go to: MichiganWomenWork.org

Please feel free to contact me with any questions regarding the study, at mww2010@umich.edu.

Thank you for your time and input.

Lilia Cortina, PhD

Associate Professor

University of Michigan

*HUM00032454, approved March 25, 2010 by Univ. of Michigan Health and Behavioral Sciences IRB

Appendix B Michigan Working Women Snapshot Survey: Web Survey Text

2010 Michigan Women Work Snapshot Survey

- 1. Please indicate your gender (open-end)
- 2. How many hours do you work per week? (open-end)

 Not currently employed (thank and terminate)
- 3. Where are you employed?

Ingham County
Jackson County
Lenawee County
Livingston County
Macomb County
Monroe County
Oakland County
Washtenaw County
Wayne County
Other

4. How long have you worked at your present organization?

Less than 1 year 1 year or more

5. Approximately how many people are employed at your organization?

1 2-10 11-50 More than 50

6. What industry do you work in?

Accounting
Banking
Biotechnology
Construction
Education
Engineering
Healthcare

Human Resources Legal Marketing Manufacturing Restaurant/Food Service Retail Software Development Technology (Web Development) Other Business to Business Services Other 7. What do you see as the biggest challenge facing working women? (open-end) <u>Demographics</u> 8. How would you describe your ethnicity? Please note that these categories are U.S. Census Bureau breakdowns. (check all that apply) American Indian and Alaskan Native Asian Black or African American Caucasian Hispanic/Latina Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander Other _____ 9. Do you hold any of the following leadership positions at your job? (check all that apply) Owner (you personally own over 50% of controlling interest in your company) Senior Executive Executive Manager Supervisor Other None of the above For Women Business Owners Only 10. How many years have you owned your business? (open-end) 11. What is your company's annual revenue? under \$100,000

\$100,000-\$250,000

\$250,001-\$500,000 \$500,001 or more Don't know

12. What do you anticipate will be the biggest business challenge this year? (open-end)

For Everyone

Thank you for completing our survey. Your information is important for understanding the status of working women in Michigan.

We're conducting an additional study of the unique rewards and challenges Michigan women face at work.

As part of the larger Michigan Women Work initiative, would you be interested in completing a survey by mail?

Yes

No

Please provide a name and mailing address where you would like to receive the survey: This information will be kept completely confidential. Your name and address will not be attached to your survey responses. We will not sell or use your address for any other purposes.

Thank you.

Appendix C Michigan Working Women Snapshot Survey: Online Introduction/Consent Form

MICHIGAN WOMEN WORK (MWW) SNAPSHOT SURVEY

Dear Participant,

Your opinions matter! A team of researchers from the University of Michigan is gathering information about women working in Southeastern Michigan. We have developed a snapshot survey and look forward to your participation. Your input is very important to us.

The survey will take no more than 5 MINUTES to complete. If you agree to be part of the survey, you will be asked to provide basic information about your work. Your responses are very important to the success of this initiative, which will benefit residents of Southeastern Michigan.

Your answers will remain CONFIDENTIAL. No one at your organization or in the community will see your responses. There are occasional and infrequent reasons why people other than the researchers may need to see information you provide as part of the study. This includes organizations responsible for making sure the research is done safely and properly, including the University of Michigan or government offices. However, only combined data in the form of averages will be used in analyses, interpretation, reports, publications, or presentations. You will NEVER be identified in any report. The data you provide will be stored on password-protected computers that can only be accessed by members of the research team. The researchers will retain an electronic database of survey responses indefinitely for use in future research studies conducted by members of our lab. However, this database will not contain information that could identify you.

There are no known risks associated with this survey because its questions are not of a sensitive nature. Participating in this study is completely voluntary, and you may skip any question. Also, you may withdraw from the study by not completing it without any consequences. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the University of Michigan Health Sciences and Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board (IRB) at irbhsbs@umich.edu, (734) 936-0933, or 540 East Liberty, Suite 202, Ann Arbor, MI 48104. By answering the survey questions, you indicate your voluntary agreement to participate in this research and have your answers included (anonymously) in the results.

If you have any questions about this survey research, please contact the Michigan Women Work research team at mww2010@umich.edu or (734) 647-8014.

By taking a few minutes to share your experiences as a woman working in Michigan, you will be helping us a great deal.

Many Thanks,

Lilia Cortina, PhD University of Michigan Department of Psychology

Appendix D Michigan Working Women Primary Survey: Introduction Letter Text

Dear Participant,

Thank you for volunteering to take part in the continuation of the Michigan Women Work Project. We appreciate your recent responses to the online snapshot survey. The enclosed survey is the next step of this research initiative. We hope that this survey experience is interesting for you!

As researchers from the University of Michigan Department of Psychology, we are assessing the experiences of women working in Southeast Michigan. If you agree to be part of the study, you will be asked about topics such as your organization's climate, your feelings about working there, and rewards you may have received and negative experiences you may have had at work. The survey also contains questions about more sensitive topics, such as your general attitudes and emotional states.

Your responses are very important to the success of this initiative. Your answers to this survey are completely ANONYMOUS, meaning they cannot be tied to you or your contact information in any way. To indicate your completion of this survey, please fill out the enclosed pre-stamped postcard and *mail it separately* from your survey. That way, we will know you have participated, but your name will not appear anywhere on the survey itself. There are occasional and infrequent reasons why people other than the researchers may need to see information you provide as part of the study. This includes organizations responsible for making sure the research is done safely and properly, including the University of Michigan or government offices. Remember though that your responses to the enclosed survey are anonymous. We plan to publish the results of this study, but no information will identify you.

We recognize that some of the questions in this survey are personal, and we want you to be confident that <u>your privacy will be protected</u> in multiple ways. The researchers will retain an electronic database of survey responses indefinitely for use in future research studies conducted by members of our lab. However, this database will not contain information that could identify you. This paper version of your survey will be destroyed through shredding upon entry in the electronic database.

A risk of discomfort may exist in answering some of the more sensitive questions in this survey (e.g., recalling negative experiences). However, participating in this study is completely voluntary, and you may skip any question. Also, you may withdraw from the study by not returning it without any consequences. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the University of Michigan Health Sciences and Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board (IRB) at 540 East Liberty,

Suite 202, Ann Arbor, MI 48104, (734) 936-0933 [or toll-free, (866)936-0933], irbhsbs@umich.edu. We hope that you will complete the survey with your most thoughtful and honest answers, whatever these may be.

This survey may help identify aspects of women's work life that need greater attention, <u>ultimately influencing positive change.</u> To thank you for completing this survey, we will mail you \$10. By completing your survey, you can make a difference.

In order to indicate that you completed the survey (and to receive your \$10), please remember to fill out the enclosed pre-stamped postcard and *mail it separately* from your survey. Please note that this postcard confirming your participation will not be linked to your survey responses.

This survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. By returning it to the researchers, you indicate your voluntary agreement to participate in this research and have your answers included (anonymously) in the dataset. When you are finished completing the survey, please mail it to the researchers using the enclosed prepaid envelope. We would appreciate receiving your responses within 2 weeks.

If you have any questions about this survey now or at a later time, please contact the Michigan Women Work research team at mww2010@umich.edu or (734) 647-8014.

By taking a few minutes to share your experiences as a woman working in Michigan, you will be helping us a great deal.

Many Thanks,

Lilia Cortina, PhD Dana Kabat, MA Emily Leskinen, MA, MSW Lisa Marchiondo, MS

P.S. - We have enclosed a small token of appreciation - please enjoy a cup of coffee on us while you complete this survey.

Appendix E Michigan Working Women Primary Survey: Reminder Postcard Text

MICHIGAN WOMEN WORK REMINDER

Dear Michigan Working Woman:

Recently, we sent you an invitation to complete the **Michigan Women Work Survey** 2010. If you have completed it already, we thank you. If not, we urge you to do so. The survey is part of an important initiative to understand the current work climate in Michigan from the perspectives of all women in the community.

As a further motivation to complete the survey, we will mail you \$10 upon receiving your survey. You will also have the option of receiving a Michigan Women Work summary report. If you complete the survey, you will not receive any further mailings about it.

If you did not receive a questionnaire, or if it was misplaced, please call us at 734-647-8014 and we will mail another one to you today. If you have questions about the survey, please contact us by phone or by email at mww2010@umich.edu.

Sincerely,

Lilia Cortina, PhD Dana Kabat, MA Emily Leskinen, MA, MSW Lisa Marchiondo, MS The University of Michigan, Department of Psychology

Appendix F Michigan Working Women Primary Survey: Replacement Letter Text

Dear Participant,

Thank you for volunteering to take part in the continuation of the Michigan Women Work Project. We appreciate your recent responses to the online snapshot survey. About a month ago, we sent a survey that is a continuation of this research initiative. We are writing again because your perspective is important to this research. This will be our last attempt to contact you. We hope that this survey experience is interesting for you!

As researchers from the University of Michigan Department of Psychology, we are assessing the experiences of women working in Southeast Michigan. If you agree to be part of the study, you will be asked about topics such as your organization's climate, your feelings about working there, and rewards you may have received and negative experiences you may have had at work. The survey also contains questions about more sensitive topics, such as your general attitudes and emotional states.

Your responses are very important to the success of this initiative. Your answers to this survey are completely ANONYMOUS, meaning they cannot be tied to you or your contact information in any way. There are occasional and infrequent reasons why people other than the researchers may need to see information you provide as part of the study. This includes organizations responsible for making sure the research is done safely and properly, including the University of Michigan or government offices. Remember though that your responses to the enclosed survey are anonymous. We plan to publish the results of this study, but no information will identify you.

We recognize that some of the questions in this survey are personal, and we want you to be confident that <u>your privacy will be protected</u> in multiple ways. The researchers will retain an electronic database of survey responses indefinitely for use in future research studies conducted by members of our lab. However, this database will not contain information that could identify you. This paper version of your survey will be destroyed through shredding upon entry in the electronic database.

A risk of discomfort may exist in answering some of the more sensitive questions in this survey (e.g., recalling negative experiences). However, participating in this study is completely voluntary, and you may skip any question. Also, you may withdraw from the study by not returning it without any consequences. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the University of Michigan Health Sciences and Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board (IRB) at 540 East Liberty, Suite 202, Ann Arbor, MI 48104, (734) 936-0933 [or toll-free, (866)936-0933],

irbhsbs@umich.edu. We hope that you will complete the survey with your most thoughtful and honest answers, whatever these may be.

This survey may help identify aspects of women's work life that need greater attention, <u>ultimately influencing positive change.</u> To thank you for completing this survey, we will mail you \$10. By completing your survey, you can make a difference.

This survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. By returning it to the researchers, you indicate your voluntary agreement to participate in this research and have your answers included (anonymously) in the dataset. When you are finished completing the survey, please mail it to the researchers using the enclosed prepaid envelope. We would appreciate receiving your responses within 2 weeks.

If you have any questions about this survey now or at a later time, please contact the Michigan Women Work research team at mww2010@umich.edu or (734) 647-8014.

By taking a few minutes to share your experiences as a woman working in Michigan, you will be helping us a great deal.

Many Thanks,

Lilia Cortina, PhD Dana Kabat, MA Emily Leskinen, MA, MSW Lisa Marchiondo, MS

Appendix G Michigan Working Women Primary Survey: Postcard for Indicating Completion

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING!

In order to indicate that you completed the survey (and to avoid receiving reminder letters), please mail this postcard separately from your survey. Please note that this postcard confirming your participation will not be linked to your survey responses.

Name (as it appears on the survey envelope):

In return for your completed survey, we will mail you \$10.

Results will be available on the Michigan Women Work website, beginning Fall 2010!

Check here if you would like to receive a summary report of these results in the mail.

Appendix H Michigan Working Women Primary Survey Measures

Demographic questions

1.	What is your gender?			
2.	In what general field do you currently work?			
3.	How long have you been employed in your <u>current field</u> (regardless of company			
	or position)?			
	years OR months			
4.	How long have you been employed at your current organization?			
	years OR months			
5. Approximately how many hours do you work during a typical week?				
	hours			
6.	What is the gender make-up of the workgroup of people with whom you most			
	often work?			
	☐ All men			
	☐ Almost entirely men			
	☐ More men than women			
	☐ About equal numbers of men and women			
	☐ More women than men			
	☐ Almost entirely women			
	☐ All women			
	□ N/A (e.g., I work alone)			
7.	What is the highest level of education you have COMPLETED?			

		Less than high school degree
		High school degree or GED
		Some college (without degree)
		College degree
		Graduate education (without degree)
		Graduate or professional degree
1.	What is yo	our ethnicity/race? (select <u>ALL</u> that apply)
		American Indian/Alaska Native
		Asian/Asian American/ Pacific Islander/Native Hawaiian
		Black/African American
		Middle Eastern, Arab, or Arab American
		Spanish/Hispanic/Latino
		White
		Other (please specify):
•	Pessimisn	n scale (Optimism scale recoded)
	0	Scheier, M. F., & Carver, C. S. (1985). Optimism, coping, and health:
		Assessment and implications of generalized outcome expectancies.
		Health Psychology, 4(3), 219-247.
	(5-point r	esponse options range from strongly disagree to strongly agree)
	Plea	se indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree

with the following statements:

a. In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.

b. If something can go wrong for me, it will.

d. I hardly ever expect things to go my way.

e. I rarely count on good things happening to me.

h. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.

c. I'm always optimistic about my future.

♦ Empowerment

Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace:
 Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5), 1142-1465.

(7-point response options range from very strongly disagree to very strongly agree)

Listed below are a number of self-orientations that people may have with regard to their work role. Using the following scale, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each one describes your self-orientation.

- a. The work I do is very important to me.
- b. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.
- c. The work I do is meaningful to me.
- d. I am confident about my ability to do my job.
- e. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.
- f. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.
- g. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
- h. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
- i. I have considerable opportunity for freedom and independence in how I do my job.
- j. My impact on what happens in my department is large.
- k. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.
- I. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.

◆ Turnover Intent (TI)

- Adapted from: Balfour, D. L., & Wechsler, B. (1996). Organizational commitment: Antecedents and Outcomes in Public Organizations. *Public Productivity & Management Review*, 19(3), 256-277.
- Porter, L., Crampon, W., & Smith, F. (1976). Organizational commitment and managerial turnover: A longitudinal study. *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, *15*(1), 87-98. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(76)90030-1.

♦ Organizational Commitment (OC)

 Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 538-551.

(7-point response options range from strongly disagree to strongly agree)

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your job.

- a. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (OC)
- b. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. **(OC)**
- c. I often think about quitting this job (TI)
- d. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. (OC)
- e. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (OC)
- f. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (OC)
- g. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. (OC)
- h. I will probably look for a new job during the next year. (TI)

♦ Work Withdrawal

- Adapted from: Hanisch, K. A., & Hulin, C. L. (1990). Job attitudes and organizational withdrawal: An examination of retirement and other voluntary withdrawal behaviors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 37, 60-78.
- Hanisch, K. A., & Hulin, C. L. (1991). General attitudes and organizational withdrawal: An evaluation of a causal model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 39, 110-128.

(5-point response options range from *never* to *many times*)

In the **PAST YEAR**, how frequently have you done any of the following things at work?

REMEMBER: ALL OF YOUR ANSWERS ARE COMPLETELY ANONYMOUS.

- a. Completed work assignments late
- b. Took frequent or long coffee or lunch breaks
- c. Made excuses to get out of the office
- d. Been late for work
- e. Neglected tasks that wouldn't affect your evaluation/pay raise

♦ (Receipt of) Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior Scale

 Adapted from: Settoon & Mossholder (2002). Relationship quality and relationship context as antecedents of person- and task-focused interpersonal citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 255-267.

(5-point response options range from *never* to *very often*)

During the <u>PAST YEAR</u>, has anyone associated with your work (e.g., supervisors, coworkers, clients/customers, collaborators at other companies):

- a. Taken time to listen to your problems and worries
- b. Taken a personal interest in you
- c. Gone out of their way to make you feel welcome in the workgroup
- d. Shown genuine concern and courtesy toward you, even under the most trying business or personal situations
- e. Complimented you when you succeed at work
- f. Tried to cheer you up when you are having a bad day
- g. Made an extra effort to understand the problems you faced
- h. Listened to you when you have to get something off your chest
- i. Helped you with work when you had been absent
- j. Helped you with difficult assignments, even when assistance is not directly requested
- k. Assisted you with heavy workloads, even though it is not part of his/her job
- I. Gone out of his/her way to help you with work related problems
- m. Taken on extra responsibilities in order to help you when things were demanding at work
- n. Helped you when you were running behind in your work activities.

♦ Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)

 Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS Scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063-1070.

(5-point response options range from very slightly or not at all to extremely)

	Indicate the extent to which you felt each feeling or emotion following the experience you described above.		
a.	Interested		
b.	Distressed		
C.	Excited		
d.	Upset		
e.	Strong		
f.	Guilty		
g.	Scared		
h.	Hostile		
i.	Enthusiastic		
j.	Proud		
k.	Irritable		
I.	Alert		
m.	Ashamed		
n.	Inspired		
0.	Nervous		
p.	Determined		
q.	Attentive		
r.	Jittery		
S.	Active		
t.	Afraid		

♦ Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS)

Cortina, L.M., Magley, V.J., Williams, J.H., & Langhout, R.D.(2001).
 Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6, 64-80.

(5-point response options range from *never* to *very often*)

During the **PAST YEAR**, has anyone associated with your **WORK** (e.g., supervisors, coworkers, clients/customers, collaborators at other companies) done any of the following behaviors, **either in person or electronically (e.g., email)?**

- a. Put you down or been condescending to you
- b. Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion
- c. Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you
- d. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately
- e. Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie
- f. Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility

Appendix I Nationwide Working Adult Recruitment/Invitation Email

Study ID: HUM00044611 IRB: Health Sciences and Behavioral Sciences

Date Approved: 8/15/2011

eResearch ID number: HUM00044611

Dear Participant,

Thank you for taking part in this project on the experiences of employees. We hope that this survey experience is interesting for you!

As researchers from the University of Michigan Department of Psychology, we are assessing the experiences of employees working full-time in the United States. If you agree to be part of the research study, you will be asked about topics such as your organization's climate, your feelings about working there, support you may have received, as well as any negative experiences you may have had at work. The survey also contains questions about more sensitive topics, such as your general attitudes and emotional states.

Your responses are very important to the success of this initiative. Your answers to this survey are ANONYMOUS, meaning they cannot be tied to your contact information. At the beginning of this survey, you will be asked to provide the unique ID assigned to you by StudyResponse (which can be found in the invitation email they sent you). Please enter your unique ID in order to indicate your participation and to receive compensation from StudyResponse. No identifying information about you will be provided to us by StudyResponse.

We recognize that some of the questions in this survey are personal, and we want you to be confident that your privacy is protected in multiple ways. We collect IP addresses to prevent fraudulent use of StudyResponse and our survey, but they will not be tied to your survey responses, nor used for any other purpose. IP addresses will be discarded when data collection is complete and will not be included in final databases. We will retain an electronic database of survey responses indefinitely for use in future research conducted by members of our lab. However, this database will not contain information that could identify you. We plan to publish the results of this study, but no information will identify you.

A risk of discomfort may exist in answering some of the more sensitive questions in this survey (e.g., recalling negative experiences). However, participating in this study is completely voluntary. Refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled, and you may discontinue participation at any time.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the University of Michigan Health Sciences and Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board (IRB) at 540 East Liberty, Suite 202, Ann Arbor, MI 48104, (734) 936-0933 [or toll-free, (866)936-0933], irbhsbs@umich.edu. We hope that you will complete the survey with your most thoughtful and honest answers, whatever these may be.

We hope that this survey experience is rewarding for you. One benefit of this project is that it may identify aspects of work life that need greater attention, ultimately influencing positive change. We are also offering a monetary bonus for surveys that are both valid and complete. That is, StudyResponse will send you \$10 if: (a) you respond to 90% of the questions presented to you, and (b) you read each question carefully and provide honest and thoughtful answers. To assess the second criterion, objective validation questions are included in the survey (e.g., "please answer response X for this question"). Please read all questions carefully.

In order to indicate that you participated in the survey (and to receive \$10), please remember to enter your unique ID from StudyResponse on the first page of this survey. This survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. By completing it, you indicate your voluntary agreement to participate in this research and have your answers included (anonymously) in the dataset.

If you have any questions about this survey now or at a later time, please contact the research team at worksurvey@umich.edu or (734) 647-8014.

By taking a few minutes to share your work experiences, you will be helping us a great deal.

Many Thanks,

Lilia Cortina, PhD Dana Kabat, MA Lisa Marchiondo, MS

Appendix J Measures Unique to Nationwide Working Adult Sample

♦ Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS)

Cortina, L.M., Magley, V.J., Williams, J.H., & Langhout, R.D.(2001).
 Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6, 64-80.

♦ Cyber-Incivility (CI)

Lim, V.K.G., & Teo, T.S.H (2009). Mind your E-manners: Impact of cyber incivility on employees' work attitude and behavior. *Information and Management*, 46, 419-425.

(5-point response options range from *never* to *very often*)

During the **PAST YEAR**, has anyone associated with your **WORK** (e.g., supervisors, coworkers, clients/customers, collaborators at other companies) done any of the following behaviors, **either in person or electronically (e.g., email)?**

- a. Put you down or been condescending to you (WIS)
- Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion (WIS)
- c. Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you (WIS)
- d. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately (WIS)
- e. Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie (WIS)
- f. Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility (WIS)
- g. Sent you emails using a rude and discourteous tone (CI)
- h. Used ALL CAPS to shout at you through email (CI)
- i. Not replied to your email at all (CI)

♦ Self-esteem Measure

Rosenberg, M. (1965). Society and the adolescent self-image. Princeton,
 NJ: Princeton University Press.

(5-point response options range from strongly disagree to strongly agree)

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

- 1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
- 2. At times, I think I am no good at all.
- 3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
- 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
- 5 I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
- 6. I certainly feel useless at times.
- 7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
- 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
- 9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
- 10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

♦ Positive and Negative Affect Schedule- Extended

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1994). Manual for the Positive and Negative
 Affect Schedule (Expanded form). Unpublished manuscript, University of
 lowa, lowa City.

(5-point response options range from *very slightly or not at all* to *extremely*)

	Indicate the extent to which you felt each feeling or emotion following the negative/positive experience you just described.
a.	Strong (SA1)
b.	Guilty (G1)
C.	Hostile (H1)
d.	Proud (SA2)
e.	Irritable (H2)
f.	Ashamed (G2)
g.	Angry (H3)
h.	Scornful (H4)
i.	Confident (SA3)
j.	Disgusted (H5)
k.	Bold (SA4)
l.	Daring (SA5)
m.	Disgusted with self (G3)
n.	Fearless (SA6)
0.	Loathing (H6)
p.	Blameworthy (G4)
q.	Angry at self (G5)
r.	Dissatisfied with self (G6)

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