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MORE THAN A FEELING: THE ROLE OF SELF-COMPASSION ON THE AFFECTIVE RESPONSE TO NEGATIVE EVENTS IN THE WORKPLACE

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
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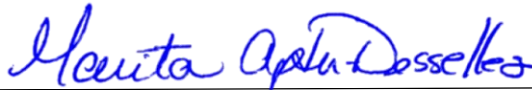

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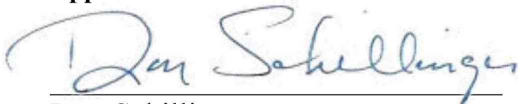

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ABSTRACT

Affective reactions and employee emotions have been studied since the days of the Hawthorne studies (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). According to Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), people react affectively to events in the workplace, and these reactions have consequences for the individual, the team, and the organization. For instance, negative events may lead to negative affect, which may mean decreased job attitudes for the individual (Judge & Larsen, 2001). These reactions may also be moderated by dispositional characteristics such as personality (Weiss & Kurek, 2003) and self-esteem (Ilies, De Pater, & Judge, 2007). The following dissertation focused on how one moderating dispositional characteristic, self-compassion, influenced the affective reactions to negative events in the workplace by people with visual impairments or blindness.

Self-compassion is made up of three sub-facets: self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness (Neff, 2003a). Self-compassion is often referred to as compassion turned inward (Neff, 2003a). It has been widely studied in the counseling and clinical realm (e.g., Neff, 2012), with virtually no research in the industrial-organizational psychology literature.

The results indicate that self-compassion did not act as a moderator in this case, nor did any of its subcomponents predict negative affect, except for mindfulness. The

subcomponents of self-compassion also did not predict organizational outcomes such as affective commitment and turnover intentions.

However, the results do indicate that affective commitment partially mediates the relationship between affective reactions and turnover intentions for people with significant visual impairment. This is important because people with disabilities, and more specifically people with significant visual impairments, are already exposed to many challenges in the workplace, such as discrimination and lack of basic resources (Wolffe & Candela, 2002). Being widely understudied in both the industrial-organizational psychology literature and the self-compassion literature, there is a gap in the research when it comes to their unique experiences. This dissertation adds to the literature by providing insight into how people with visual impairments or blindness cope with some of these challenges in the workplace, specifically negative events.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The emotional implications of work have been studied for the better part of a century (see Brief & Weiss, 2002; Hersey, 1932). The kinds of work events that generate affective responses, which consist of moods and emotions (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008), in employees are varied. The actions of coworkers, supervisors, the organization, clients, and external stakeholders may give rise to an emotional response. Leaders who set high expectations for performance may trigger various feelings from the employees who work for them. The decision by an organization to award bonuses may also trigger the responses, as mentioned earlier as well. Organizational downsizing and lay-offs may trigger certain emotions within the workforce. When a coworker leaves, the remaining team members may react emotionally. Employees who deal with demanding clients or those who work under significant time pressure may experience various emotions that other employees do not.

Work events that trigger negative (i.e., unpleasant) emotions are of particular interest in industrial-organizational psychology because of the individual and organizational costs associated with them. The outcomes of negative affect on individuals and organizations have garnered increased attention in the last few decades (see Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009). For the individual, negative emotions

At work may lead to lower self-efficacy (Saavedra & Earley, 1991) and less favorable attitudes toward the job (Brief, Butcher, & Roberson, 1995). These feelings may also impair an individual's ability to process information (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008) and solve problems creatively (Estrada, Isen, & Young, 1997). The impact may also go beyond those who directly experience the negative event, as merely witnessing someone else experiencing a negative event may elicit negative affect (Kelly & Barsade, 2001). Negative affect in employees may act as a contagion, spreading through the workforce (Johnson, 2008; Totterdell, 2000).

The consequences of negative affect are not only harmful to the individual, but to the organization as well (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008; Saavedra & Earley, 1991). For example, employees who experience negative affect in the workplace are less likely to trust the organization (Kiefer, 2005), less likely to be engaged and committed to their work, and more likely to leave (Glasø & Notelaers, 2012). Negative affect at work may also manifest itself in poorer climate and lowered performance within work teams (Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002).

According to Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), individual dispositional characteristics moderate the relationship between events and the negative affect experienced. They propose that dispositional factors may influence the magnitude of the negative affect response to a work event. Dispositional characteristics vary by the individual and may include personality, social support, self-esteem, coping styles, and other factors (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Brown & Dutton, 1995; Weiss & Beal, 2005; Weiss & Kurek, 2003;). Weiss and Cropanzano also propose that dispositions influence

the impact that negative affect will have on individual and organizational consequences, such as employee job attitudes, organizational climate, turnover, or performance.

A relatively new construct, self-compassion (Neff, 2003a), falls into the category of dispositional characteristics and may have a strong influence on an individual's affective reactions following a negative event. Primarily, this construct has been defined as compassion turned inward (Neff & Vonk, 2011) and consists of three components: self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness (Neff, 2003a). To date, only a few studies have examined self-compassion within the context of work.

A population of interest that may benefit significantly from the study of how self-compassion influences affective reaction from negative work events are people with disabilities. People with disabilities have an unemployment rate twice as large as people without disabilities (U.S. Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2016), and those with disabilities who are employed face many challenges at work. Challenges such as lack of access to technology (Crudden, Sansing, & Butler, 2005) and negative employer attitudes (Lynch, 2013) may lead to work events that trigger negative affect. Many people with disabilities who are employed full-time report feeling underemployed or underutilized (Hagemoser, 1996).

Given the dramatic rate of unemployment for people with disabilities, coupled with their negative feelings regarding their employment, a better understanding of how self-compassion may act as a buffer against the harmful affective outcomes of negative work events is needed. Insights may foster the development of theories and research that ultimately lead to a workforce of people with disabilities who are more productive, successful, and organizationally valuable.

Affect at Work

In the 1930s, the study of affect in the workplace first emerged, with early research such as *The Dissatisfied Worker (*Fisher & Hanna, 1931), *Worker's Emotions in Shop and Home: A Study of Individual Workers from the Psychological and Physiological Standpoint* (Hersey, 1932) and *Job Satisfaction* (Hoppock, 1935). The famous Hawthorne Studies touched on emotion at work, providing evidence that an individual's satisfaction at work was not determined solely by pay, but also by how they were treated by the organization (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). These studies contributed to the literature by providing evidence that emotion and affect may influence job satisfaction (Fisher & Hanna, 1931; Hoppock, 1935) and performance (Hersey, 1932).

The research of the 1930s would also help ignite the use of employment assessments aimed at identifying people who were likely to cause disturbances at work or who early researchers called "emotionally maladjusted" (Gibby & Zickar, 2008). Some corporations hired psychiatrists during this time in an attempt to help employees deal with emotional problems (Collins, 1960).

The interest for this type of research declined after 1930 and was partly caused by the introduction of structured, methodologically rigorous questionnaires and the decline in the use of clinical methods, which were utilized in many of the earlier studies (Brief & Weiss, 2002). The focus on more observable phenomena (Brief & Weiss, 2002), along with the rise of behavioral and cognitive psychology, could have also contributed to the decline of emotion research. Interest in emotions and affect would not be picked up at the

same level as the 1930s until the late 1980s and the 1990s due to research on topics such as emotional labor, dispositional affect, and emotional intelligence (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

The prevailing definition of *mood* during this time was as Thayer (1989) or Clark and Isen (1982) would operationalize it: generalized feeling states that are not typically identified with a particular stimulus and not sufficiently intense to interrupt ongoing thought processes. *Emotions* were operationalized under Frijda's (1993) definition: feelings that are associated with specific events or occurrences and are intense enough to disrupt thought processes. In the 1990s, a theory emerged that synthesized a model that aimed to understand how affect influences job attitudes and behavior at work (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Job attitudes are defined as an individual's relatively stable evaluations, or opinions about work and also tend to drive behavioral responses to work (Albarracín, Johnson, Zanna, & Kumkale, 2005; Fishbein, 1967)

A distinction should be made between affect and job satisfaction. Contrary to Locke's (1976) influential definition of job satisfaction, which emphasized a positive emotional state, job satisfaction is more evaluative and cognitive (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Affect, on the other hand, is concerned more with emotions and moods. However, affective experiences help determine job attitudes like overall job satisfaction (Weiss & Beal, 2005), which will be discussed in further detail in the following section. The definition of job satisfaction has shifted to more of an evaluative definition, as mentioned previously, due in part to the fact it was defined as affective but measured mostly with cognitive measures (Brief & Roberson, 1989). Due to the evaluative and cognitive nature of job satisfaction, affect, and job satisfaction are distinct from one another, and should

not be used interchangeably (Weiss, 2002). The two constructs may be intertwined, with job satisfaction influencing the affect the employee feels at home and in the office, and trait affectivity in turn influencing job satisfaction (Judge & Ilies, 2004).

Affective Events Theory

Affective events theory (AET) explores how humans react cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively, focusing mainly on the idea of how a person's mood or emotions are affected by events experienced in the workplace (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). One of the central assumptions of AET is that events trigger emotions and feelings in humans. "Things happen to people at work, and often their reactions are emotional in nature" (Weiss & Beal, 2005, p. 3). Events may be experienced within a work context and will vary within and between individuals (Ilies, De Pater, & Judge, 2007; Liu, Prati, Perrewé, & Brymer, 2010). Events do not necessarily have to be experienced directly by the individual employee; merely witnessing an event happening to a colleague at work may elicit emotional and affective responses. For example, Wiesenfeld, Brockner, and Martin (1999) examined how employees respond to witnessing a lay-off of another person. The self-conscious emotions of the employee witnessing the lay-off were the most affected (i.e., shame, guilt, negative affect). This demonstrates that negative events are not always experienced solely by one individual but can be witnessed as well.

Figure 1 shows the macrostructure of AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Overall, the events experienced in the workplace, the workplace environment, and the dispositional characteristics of the individual influence the affective reaction of the

individual. The affective reactions of the individual, in turn, influence their work attitudes and behavior.

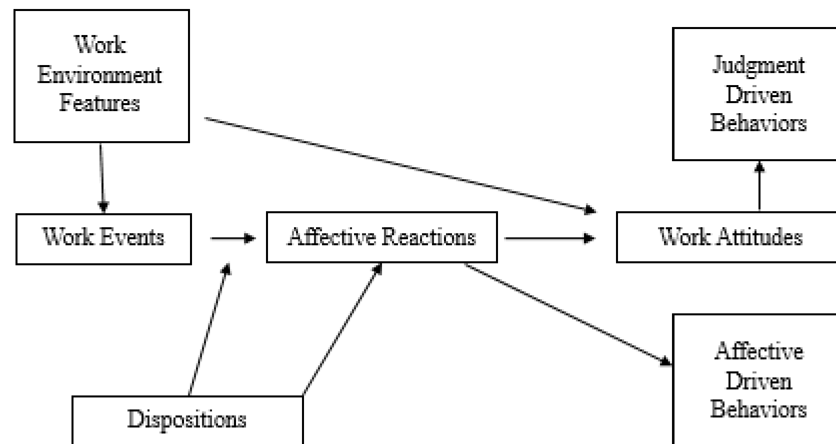

Figure 1. Affective Events Theory: Macro Structure

More specifically, the work environment will influence both the events experienced and the attitudes of the employees. A manufacturing plant will have a very different work environment than a day-care, and the events experienced in both will significantly vary, which will influence the experiences of the employees there. The environment shapes the events the employee's experience, and those experiences are interpreted and felt based on the individual employee's dispositional characteristics. The events experienced, in conjunction with the dispositional characteristics of the employee, drive the affective reactions felt by the employee. These reactions then help drive behavior and attitudes.

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) theorized that employees developed their job attitudes from the affective consequences of work events. AET proposes that an employee who has positive affective experiences will have positive job attitudes, and an

employee who experiences negative affect events will have negative job attitudes. For example, in one study conducted with employees of a European human resources firm, negative emotions led employees to trust the organization less and to engage in specific withdrawal behaviors such as turnover intentions and neglect (Kiefer, 2005).

The research was designed to use AET to describe how negative events influence an employee's level of affect, and how that reaction is moderated by the dispositional characteristic, self-compassion (Neff, 2003a). AET will also be used to describe how this process influences organizational outcomes, such as commitment and turnover intentions. Job satisfaction will be delineated from affect, and affective events will also be described in more detail. Finally, the outcomes associated with the experience of positive and negative affect will be discussed. Affective driven behaviors will not be measured in the proposed research.

Nomological Network of Affect at Work

The experience of negative affect at work is innately complex. Negative work events can be comprised of a variety of factors that serve as the antecedents to negative emotions, which are then experienced differently based on various dispositional characteristics. The variety of possible affective reactions can be experienced uniquely by individuals (Ucbasaran, Shepherd, Lockett, & Lyon, 2013) and is based on various individual factors such as self-esteem (Brown & Dutton, 1995). While there has been ample study on how some dispositional characteristics influence an individual's level of affect, there are some unique traits that may influence an individual's level of affect that have not been as thoroughly explored yet. Finally, negative emotions may lead to

unfortunate outcomes for the individual (Kiefer, 2005; Shepherd & Cardon, 2009; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Antecedents of affect.

There are many predictors and antecedents of affect. In a review of research on affect in the workplace, Brief and Weiss (2002) organized the events that trigger moods and affect into several categories: exogenous factors, stressful events or conditions at work, physical settings, leaders, workgroup characteristics, and organizational rewards and punishments.

Exogenous factors are those situations outside of work that have carryover effects into the workplace (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Examples of these can be marital issues, family health issues, or some other non-work related situation. For instance, Williams and Alliger (1994) found spillover effects for unpleasant moods from family to work. Sonnentag, Binnewies, and Mojza (2008) found that if sleep at home is interrupted for some reason, it influences the employee's affect at work.

Stressful working conditions and physical settings may also influence an employee's affect at work (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Daniels, Harris, & Briner, 2004). For instance, time pressure and situational constraints were positively related to an employee's negative affect in the morning and the afternoon (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009). There is also evidence that during a time of ongoing organizational change, employees tended to have higher levels of negative affect (Kiefer, 2005). In one study, negative feedback increased negative affect more than it decreased positive affect (Ilies et al., 2007). Another study used psychological contract breach as the affective event and found affective reactions mediated the relationship between psychological contract

breach and all organizational outcomes studied except for actual turnover (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). In other words, the worse the psychological contract breach, the worse the outcomes, if negative affect was present. In regards to physical settings, there is evidence that playing music improves the mood of employees performing simple tasks (Oldham, Cummings, Mischel, Schmidtke, & Zhou, 1995).

Leadership has been suggested as a possible driver of affective reactions in the literature (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Not only can leadership drive follower affect and emotion, but there is also evidence that leader mood may be contagious for followers (Johnson, 2008). Leadership behavior may influence follower affective reactions, as well. In one experience sampling study, Bono, Foldes, Vinson, and Muros (2007) found leaders who were high on transformational leadership behaviors tended to have employees with more positive emotions during the workday. They also found that employees of the transformational leaders were more likely to have higher job satisfaction. Another study found that employees under an autocratic style of leadership tended to have higher levels of negative affect than those who were not (De Cremer, 2007). While there is strong evidence leadership drives follower affect, there is still much work to be done. For instance, negative affect has been under-researched in this area (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010).

The characteristics of the team or the climate of the workgroup may also influence the individual employee's affect (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Totterdell (2000) studied cricket teams and found statistically significant relationships between the team’s mood and the player’s mood, indicating the overall group may influence the individual.

In a study of Malaysian organizations, Idris and Dollard (2011) found that psychological safety was negatively related to levels of anger and depression.

Moderators of affect.

Dispositional influences (see Figure 1) are those personality traits that influence affect, often referred to as temperaments (Watson, 2000).

Personality. Personality may influence how people react emotionally to the events in the workplace (Weiss & Kurek, 2003). Similarly, personality can vary within an individual (Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015). The most common personality traits linked to affective reactions are based on the five-factor model (McCrae & Costa, 1987), specifically neuroticism and extroversion (Brief & Weiss, 2002). For instance, Panaccio and Vandenberghe (2012) found that extroversion and agreeableness drove increased organizational commitment through positive affect. The authors also found that negative affect mediated the relationship between neuroticism and organizational commitment such that higher levels of neuroticism led to lower levels of organizational commitment (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2012).

Other Constructs. Constructs other than personality may influence affective reactions to events in the workplace. For instance, levels of trait anger may influence the feeling of anger after experiencing workplace incivility (Domagalski & Steelman, 2005). Another construct shown to influence affective reactions is self-esteem (Ilies et al., 2007). Those who are lower in self-esteem will typically exhibit more pronounced affective reactions than those higher in self-esteem (Ilies et al., 2007). Brown and Dutton (1995) found self-esteem moderated the negative reaction to failure so that people who were higher in self-esteem exhibited less negative reactions to failure.

One dispositional characteristic that has not been explored within the context of affective events theory is self-compassion. Self-compassion is one's ability to be kind to one's self (Neff, 2003a). It is closely related to self-esteem but with less of the negative side effects reported with high self-esteem, such as narcissism (Neff & Vonk, 2009). People who are more kind to themselves during times of adversity may cope better than those who are not.

Self-Regulation. Brockner and Higgins (2001) theorized that an employee's self-regulatory process (i.e., how people align themselves with their intentions, standards, and goals) could influence the level of affect experienced in various work-related situations such as negative feedback in a performance review or not getting a promotion. While their paper was theoretical, self-compassion could provide specific insight into how a dispositional characteristic related to self-regulation may influence experience at work. Liu and colleagues (2010) found that when employees reappraise an event instead of suppressing their emotions, employees experience more positive benefits. Self-compassion integrates well into this process, which will be discussed in a later section.

Outcomes of affect.

Affect at work is related to many salient outcomes not only for the individual (Brief et al., 1995; Saavedra & Earley, 1991), but for the team (Kelly & Barsade, 2001; Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002; Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005), and the bottom-line of the business, through behaviors like turnover (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008; George, 1990; Isen & Baron, 1991; Kiefer, 2005).

Consistent with the AET proposition that affect drives the formation of job attitudes, a study of call center employees in the United Kingdom found that affect not

only predicted job satisfaction, but predicted organizational commitment as well (Wegge, Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006). Glasø and Notelaers (2012) used workplace bullying as an affective event and found negative affect led to decreased organizational commitment and increased turnover intentions. Chi and Yang (2015) found high self-monitors who experienced negative affect perceived more workgroup conflict, which led to increased turnover intentions. Another study found negative emotions positively predicted employee withdrawal behaviors and lack of trust, and these effects were seen one month later as well (Kiefer, 2005). Regarding self-efficacy, some research found evidence that positive affect related to increased self-efficacy while negative affective related to decreased self-efficacy (Saavedra & Earley, 1991).

Much research has explored the premise that job satisfaction is, in part, driven by affect (Judge & Larsen, 2001). There is evidence that those who experience positive affect also experience higher job satisfaction (Brief et al., 1995). This finding was supported in another study, where positive emotions were positively related to job satisfaction, and negative emotions were negatively related to job satisfaction (Liu et al., 2010).

Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2008) presented a model arguing that affect shapes managers' strategic decision-making in organizations. The authors argued that the process works by influences perceptions of organizational issues, formulation of strategy, and implementation (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008). There is evidence that their assertions are correct, as research has indicated that those who are higher in positive affect tend to be more likely to support organizational change initiatives by counteracting

some of the negativity or cynicism often associated with these endeavors (Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008).

Cognition and behavior are also influenced by affect. There is evidence from various researchers that creative problem solving may be increased by positive affect (Estrada et al., 1997; Madjar, Oldham, & Pratt, 2002), as well as more efficient cognitive processing (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008). A positive mood state also positively relates to organizational citizenship behaviors and lowered aggression (Isen & Baron, 1991). Negative affect may also be related to a decrease in prosocial behaviors (George, 1990). Liu and colleagues (2010) found that negative affect related negatively to job performance. Along these lines, Kaplan and colleagues' (2009) meta-analysis of 57 studies, found that positive affect related to task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors, while negative affect was related to increased withdrawal behaviors, counterproductive work behavior, and occupational injury.

The organizational outcomes of negative affect may also be seen at the team level (Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002). In this study on leadership, negative events in R&D teams can lead to a poor affective team climate, in which good leadership helps the team overcome the poor climate (Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002). Other team researchers have also found that negative affect tone mediated the relationship between dysfunctional team behavior and team performance, such that the more negative affect team members felt, the lower the performance (Cole, Walter, & Bruch, 2008).

The Episodic Nature of Emotions and The Passing of Time

What might typically be defined as a single event can be conceptualized as a series of emotional events organized under an emotional theme (Frijda, 1993). For

instance, one may experience both negative and positive affect throughout a performance appraisal session, but one emotion may be dominant. Then, depending on the dominant emotion, the individual may characterize the performance appraisal meeting as a whole as "good" or "bad."

Additionally, the more time that passes from the triggering event in question, the more the memories become susceptible to bias; the affect tends to solidify and is remembered more as a general mood (Weiss & Beal, 2005). Robinson and Clore (2002) suggested that individuals may input general semantic memory information to fill in gaps when lacking the immediacy of an event. There is also evidence that the detrimental effects of negative or stressful events can build up over time (Fuller et al., 2003). These are essential considerations when designing a study of negative events, as allowing too much time between the negative event and the measurement of affective response may contaminate the results.

As an example of how time and the episodic nature of events influence affective reactions, one study examined how a major organizational event influenced employees' affect. Specifically, they examined how downsizing within an organization influenced affect (Paterson & Cary, 2002). The downsizing was not merely a single moment in time, but a collection of emotional experiences. The emotions experienced were not confined to the moment the event transpired but were complex and experienced over some time. Smollan (2006) argued a similar point concerning organizational change initiatives. Usually, these broad categories of change initiatives take months or years to deploy in organizations fully. During this time, employees' affective and cognitive appraisals of the change can vary greatly. Therefore, events may be made up of a

collection of affective reactions, and affective reactions may vary due to the simple passage of time. Considering all of the evidence on affect and time, when measuring the affect driven by an adverse event, proper research must take into account the passage of time; otherwise, an error can be introduced into the equation.

Research Design and Measurement

Measurement of affect.

Several scales have been developed to measure affect in the workplace, including the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), the Questionnaire on the Evaluation and Experience of Work (Van Veldhoven & Meijman, 1994), and the Job Affect Scale (Burke, Brief, George, Roberson, & Webster, 1989). Some studies have used the Multidimensional Personality Index (Watson & Tellegen, 1985), the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (Tellegen, 1985), or measures of trait anxiety in place of negative affect, such as the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, Gorusch, & Lushene, 1970). The most widely used scale to study affect in the workplace has been the PANAS (Kaplan et al., 2009; Watson & Clark, 1999).

The PANAS asks the respondent to endorse the level they have experienced a feeling on a 5-point Likert scale from either "very slightly or not at all" to "extremely." One of the reasons most studies present either positive or negative affect instead of specific feeling words is because the PANAS, and affect in general, typically condenses down to two factors (Crawford & Henry, 2004). Due to the robust psychometrics, and its widespread use (Crawford & Henry), it is considered a robust psychological scale of measurement.

Research of affective events.

In the literature on affective reactions to negative events, researchers have utilized various research designs to measure affective events, including cross-sectional designs (Ilies et al., 2007; Sy et al., 2005) and experience sampling methodology (ESM; Fisher, 2002; Johnson, 2008). For example, in one ESM study, Fisher asked participants to wear alarm wristbands for two weeks. When the alarms went off, they were asked to fill out a one-page survey. Trougakos, Beal, Green, and Weiss (2008) examined work events over the period of a summer cheer camp where the authors surveyed counselors using an electronic handheld device. In a cross-sectional design, Pirola-Merlo and colleagues administered surveys to their participants twice over five months. They measured the magnitude of the negative events (obstacles) with one item scored from 0, no obstacles, to 4, very significant obstacles (Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002). In a study treating leader affect as a work event (i.e., emotional contagion), the author surveyed their participants only once (Johnson). While the time frame varies from study to study, the two-week time frame used in this research is reasonable because it fits within those timeframes.

Measurement of affective events.

Researchers have measured affective events at work in different ways, including the frequency and the type of event. For instance, Wegge and colleagues (2006) used autonomy, opportunities for participation, and supervisory support as proxies for affective events. In other words, they assumed the more these constructs were present, the higher the likelihood that employees would experience positive affect. Glasø and Notelaers (2012) studied a specific negative event, workplace bullying, to measure affective reactions. Some, such as Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008), did not measure the

event itself, only affect, predictors, and outcomes. Ilies and colleagues (2007) examined how positive or negative feedback influenced affect. In one study, the authors looked at what is usually considered a dependent variable, absenteeism, and examined it as an affective event, arguing it could recharge the employee (Martocchio & Jimeno, 2003). Shepherd and Cardon (2009) proposed failure could lead to negative emotions, which in turn could lead to disengagement from work and maladaptive coping mechanisms. In a meta-analysis of 51 studies on psychological contract breach, the authors examined how affective reactions mediate the relationship between psychological contract breach and organizational outcomes (Zhao et al., 2007).

Some researchers have tried to develop scales to measure events (Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004). Using work from previous literature (Donovan, 1999; Suh, Diener, & Fujita, 1996), the authors created a scale measuring 18 different types of work events, with nine positive events and nine negative events. The respondents are then asked to endorse the degree to which they were affected by these events. This scale has not been widely used by researchers, possibly because this list is not a comprehensive list of work-related events. However, this has not stopped other researchers from attempting the same feat. More recently, Ohly and Schmitt (2015) developed what they termed a "comprehensive taxonomy of affective work events" (Ohly & Schmitt, p. 19). The authors took 559 positive events and 383 negative events and placed them in four positive clusters and seven negative clusters (Ohly & Schmitt). However, this was done through concept-mapping, during which the researchers performed a cluster analysis on event sorting performed by psychology students. The authors argue this allows the researchers' bias to be removed; however, they do not address the bias of the psychology students or

the error involved in the gathering of the approximately 900 initial workplace events. To the authors' admission, the sample is very biased to Western, white-collar workers (Ohly & Schmitt). These attempts do not take into account that extra-organizational events may affect an employee's emotions at work, such as economic or political events, industry downturns, and negotiations between other organizations (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008). While attempts have been made, no one has developed an effective way to measure these affective events.

There is not a precise categorization of events in the workplace, and work events are examined very specifically, broadly, or not at all. It is possible that reversal theory, which will be explained in the next section, could provide an individual-level categorization of events in the workplace.

Reversal Theory and Negative Events

Reversal theory provides a unique opportunity to categorize various types of negative workplace events. When viewing negative events solely in the workplace, one can see substantial variation due to individual differences and within-person motivational variation. Reversal theory acknowledges the phenomenological experience of humanity and argues that within a person, the motivation behind behavior varies greatly (Apter, 2001). To better understand how this works, one must understand how reversal theory seeks to explain the human experience.

Reversal theory is a metamotivational theory of state personality that explains human behavior by what a person wants *in the moment* (Apter, 2001, 2005, 2007). Sometimes a person's motivation is driven by a desire to fit in, sometimes a desire to rebel, or sometimes to fulfill some other desire. Reversal theory contains four domains

and eight total states, two for each domain. Each pair of states inside the four domains will be discussed in further detail below, but first, several rules must be described.

A person can be within a combination of multiple states at one time unless the states are within the same domain (Apter, 2005). For instance, the domain of the rule contains the rebellious and conforming states. The rebellious state is characterized by a desire to go against norms, while the conforming state is characterized by a desire to fit in (Apter, 1982). One can't desire to fit in and desire to rebel at the same time. One can, however, switch between states at the moment. For example, one can quickly switch back and forth from a desire to fit in, to a desire to rebel.

It is important to note that people do not always get what they desire. This is where the reversal theory helps describe negative workplace events. It is the idea of state satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Apter, 2007). When someone is in a state, and their motivational desire is not fulfilled, they are left dissatisfied. The way motivational states help characterize negative workplace events is that different tasks in the workplace may have different motivations behind them. Perhaps the individual wants to fit in, or perhaps they want to master their environment. Either way, if these desires are not achieved to a certain extent, then they are dissatisfied.

The rules domain contains the rebellious state and the conforming state (Apter, 1982). The rebellious state is characterized by a desire to break out of norms or challenge the status quo. The conforming state is characterized by the desire to fit in and be part of something larger than oneself. A person in the workplace may desire to complete a project using a conventional method within the organization to feel like part of the organization. Perhaps they are unable to, which would leave them dissatisfied in

the conforming state. Perhaps the individual wants to complete the project their way and is forced to follow a particular procedure. That individual would also be dissatisfied but in the rebellious state.

The means-end domain contains the telic state and the paratelic state (Apter, 1982). The telic state is characterized by a desire for goal accomplishment or achievement and is future-oriented. The paratelic state concerns the journey and living in the moment; thus, it is more present-focused. A person in the telic state may want to accomplish a goal or get a certain amount of work done. Dissatisfaction with someone in the telic state might look like not achieving their goals. Someone in the paratelic state might be more focused on the task at hand, and possibly doing the part of their job they loved the most. Dissatisfaction with those in the paratelic state might be not getting the enjoyment or even ability to partake in such a task.

The transaction domain contains the mastery state and the sympathy state (Apter, 1982). The mastery state is characterized by a desire to gain power or control over one's environment. The sympathy state is characterized by a desire to gain affiliation or social connection. An individual in the mastery state might desire to gain a promotion, and be dissatisfied when they do not get it. An individual in the sympathy state might experience dissatisfaction by reaching out to people for help and receive rejection in return.

The orientation domain contains the other state and the self-state (Apter, 1982). The other state is characterized by a focus on the needs of others, while the self-state is characterized by a focus on the self. An individual might want to help others in one form or another but doesn't have access to a particular program and thus cannot. They would

be other-state dissatisfied. An individual might want to focus on their work and not have to consider the team's need at the time but must reach out for consultation. They would be self-state dissatisfied.

As previously mentioned, an individual can be in multiple states at once as long as they are between domains (Apter, 2001). For instance, a common combination state one might see in the workplace is the self-mastery state. These people would be individuals who are focused on mastering their projects. Another example would be the other-mastery state, where an individual would perhaps want to see his or her subordinates or team succeed at their jobs and master their tasks. Characterizing negative work events in terms of reversal theory states one would expect to see in the workplace commonly would allow different types of negative work events to be explored. This approach would also recognize the phenomenological differences between people.

Self-Compassion

Self-compassion, a multi-faceted self-concept construct proposed by Kristin Neff (2003a), is a relatively new construct. As previously stated, self-compassion involves the way one treats the self (Neff, 2003a). Whenever Neff has written about the construct, she almost always starts with a definition of compassion (Neff, 2003a; Neff, 2009; Neff, 2012). According to Neff, one elegantly simple way to think of self-compassion is simply compassion turned inward (Neff, 2012). Following her simple definition, a more detailed definition and structure of the construct are usually then explored (Neff, 2003b; Neff, 2009; Neff, 2012).

Self-compassion is a combination of three factors: self-kindness versus self-judgment, common humanity versus isolation, and mindfulness versus overidentification

(Neff, 2003a). There is evidence that self-compassion has a three-factor structure based on the dimensions as mentioned earlier (Neff, 2003b). Each of these facets will be discussed in more detail below. It is important to note that the research on self-compassion is in its early stages, and therefore has been explored lightly in the industrial-organizational psychology literature.

Self-Kindness, Common Humanity, and Mindfulness

Self-kindness concerns were exercising gentleness and warmth to the self when faced with unpleasant events or suffering, as opposed to expressing criticism or judgment towards the self (Neff, 2012). It is mainly conceptualized as the opposite of self-judgment (Neff, 2003b). Self-kindness is not about devaluing the negative experience or dismissing the negative event. It is about not judging the self too harshly and not having low self-worth (Neff, 2003a; Shepherd & Cardon, 2009).

Common humanity concerns one’s recognition that all humans are flawed, face suffering, and fall short of perfection (Neff, 2003a; Neff, 2012). The concept of common humanity is opposed to the idea of isolation, which concerns believing one’s experience is unique, and therefore, isolated from everyone else (Neff, 2012). An individual who is high in isolation might say something like, "no one knows what I'm going through, and no one understands me."

Mindfulness concerns not judging one's thoughts and feelings as “good” or “bad” but merely as they are, without ignoring them or pretending they do not exist (Neff, 2012). The sub-facet of mindfulness is opposed to the idea of overidentification, where one’s thoughts and feelings are dwelled on and wallowed in, and usually attached with a

value judgment. Mindfulness is about holding thoughts and feelings in a balanced awareness.

Mindfulness has mostly been ignored in the classical industrial-organizational psychology literature but is gaining momentum (Hyland, Lee, & Mills, 2015). Mindfulness has demonstrated positive psychological benefits such as a reduction in anxiety across job types and stress levels (see Hyland et al., 2015, for a review). It was initially adapted from Buddhist teachings into a treatment for chronic pain by Jon Kabat-Zinn in the early 1980s (Kabat-Zinn, 1982). Langer (1989) proposed an alternative definition of mindfulness not typical of the literature and cautioned against its use alongside ones developed from Buddhist principles (Hyland et al., 2015). This is important to note because self-compassion found its inception in the counseling side of psychology, a fusion of Eastern and Buddhist ideas aimed at how one treats the self. Buddhists have significantly higher levels of self-compassion than undergraduate samples in the United States (Neff, 2003b). Mindfulness is an essential part of the Buddhist elements of self-compassion.

What Self-Compassion is Not

Self-compassion is a unique construct that shares similarity with other self-concept constructs, and could easily be outright confused with others by a layperson. Self-compassion is not about glossing over one’s faults or mistakes but accepting them. Barnard and Curry (2011) assert “Self-compassion is about understanding one’s faults, not colluding with them.”

I will delineate self-compassion from those constructs below. Such constructs include imposter phenomena (Neff, 2004) such as self-pity, self-indulgence, and self-esteem.

Self-compassion is not an “imposter phenomenon” (Neff, 2004). Imposter phenomena are constructs that distort reality. Common imposter phenomena self-compassion is compared against are self-pity and self-indulgence. Self-pity involves an egocentric wallowing in one’s suffering (Neff, 2003a; Neff, 2012). This egocentric wallowing goes against the idea of common humanity, which is central to self-compassion. Self-pity assumes the person is unique in their suffering and is more theoretically similar to isolation in this regard.

Self-indulgence involves allowing the self to do whatever feels good, which is hedonistic. Self-compassion is different because one is exercising compassion towards the self and, therefore, by definition, cares about the self (Neff, 2003a; Neff, 2012). One wants what is best for the self to be healthy and grow. Therefore, a person high in self-compassion would not sit on the couch all day, and they would want to get out of bed and accomplish their goals. Self-compassionate people are more likely to adopt mastery goals (Neff, Hseih, & Dejitthirat, 2005). There is also evidence that a negative relationship exists between self-compassion and procrastination (Sirois, 2014; Williams, Stark, & Foster, 2008). Neff (2009, 2010, 2011) argues that it is because self-compassionate people care about themselves, and therefore, want to improve themselves. They want to engage in behaviors that help them become healthier human beings. For instance, there is evidence that women high in self-compassion had more intrinsic

motivations for exercise, and less ego-centric motivations (Magnus, 2007). People higher in self-compassion have a stronger motivation to improve (Breines & Chen, 2012).

Self-Compassion Versus Self-Esteem

One of the more significant and more common themes in the self-compassion literature is the distinction made between self-compassion and self-esteem (Barnard & Curry, 2011; Neff, 2003a; Neff, 2009; Neff, 2011; Neff & Vonk, 2009). Almost any review on self-compassion will address the related, but distinct aspects of these two constructs. Neff (2011) argues that the field of psychology has been in a love affair with self-esteem for over a century since William James' early work on self-esteem in the late 1800s. She argues self-esteem allows for a tendency for humans to compare themselves to each other and balk at being labeled as average (Neff, 2011). Neff (2003a, 2011) argues that self-compassion shares many of the same relationships with positive outcomes like self-esteem, but less of the downsides.

Speaking to more of the differences between self-compassion and self-esteem, self-esteem is more dependent on positive views of the self, and therefore, to protect this self-image, cognitive distortions might come into play (Swann, 1996). This is in contrast to self-compassion, which, as mentioned earlier, views negative events as they are, with a sense of equanimity. Self-compassion is also associated with more stable levels of self-worth than global self-esteem and is less likely to be influenced by extraneous events (Neff & Vonk, 2009). It may also buffer against some of the deleterious effects of low self-esteem (Marshall et al., 2015). While both constructs predict positive affect, happiness, and optimism, self-compassion explains variance above and beyond that of self-esteem (Neff & Vonk, 2009).

Self-Compassion, Correlates, and Existing Research

Despite being a relatively young construct in terms of research, there is a substantial body of literature tying self-compassion to many positive aspects of well-being. The majority of this literature has stayed within the clinical and counseling realm, with little research edging into the industrial-organizational psychology or management literature. This section will lay a foundation for the research around self-compassion.

There is evidence men, and women typically have different levels of self-compassion (Neff, 2003b; Reilly, Rochlen, & Awad, 2014; Yarnell et al., 2015). Typically, women will experience lower levels of self-compassion than men (Neff et al., 2005).

A large portion of the literature on self-compassion ties to other constructs in mainly the clinical and counseling realms of psychology (Barnard & Curry, 2011). A brief review of some of these relationships will be explored, followed by a more in-depth exploration of how self-compassion relates affect, workplace centric variables, and the experience of negative workplace events.

Much of the literature on self-compassion shows a moderate to strong, positive relationship to psychological well-being and mental health (Zessin, Dickhäuser, & Garbade, 2015; Allen, Goldwasser, & Leary, 2012; Galante, Galante, Bekkers, & Gallacher, 2014; MacBeth & Gumley, 2012; Neff, 2004, 2011). For instance, there are many studies on the relationship between depression and self-compassion, with strong evidence suggesting that those higher in self-compassion experience lower levels of depressive symptoms (Friis, Consedine, & Johnson, 2015; Pauley & McPherson, 2010; Podina, Jucan, & David, 2015; Raes, 2011; Shapira & Mongrain, 2010; Watson, Chen, &

Sisemore, 2011; Yamaguchi, Kim, & Akutsu, 2014). Körner et al. (2015) argue that self-compassion serves as a buffer from depressive symptoms. Krieger, Altenstein, Baettig, Doerig, and Holtforth (2013) also found that depressive symptoms such as rumination and avoidance were lower in those with high self-compassion.

Self-compassion also seems to relate to lower levels of stress (Allen et al., 2012; Chiesa & Serretti, 2009; Galhardo, Cunha, Pinto-Gouveia, & Matos, 2013; Neely, Schallert, Mohammed, Roberts, & Chen, 2009). There also exists evidence self-compassion moderates both the relationship between rumination and stress and the relationship between self-reflection and stress (Samaie & Farahani, 2011). Self-compassion weakened the rumination to stress relationships and strengthened the self-reflection to stress relationships (Samaie & Farahani, 2011).

Self-compassion has been tied to other psychological issues besides depression and stress. There is evidence that self-compassion helps reduce the symptoms of various anxiety disorders such as generalized anxiety disorder (Hoge et al., 2013; Pauley & McPherson, 2010) and post-traumatic stress disorder. In a study of Iraq war veterans, post-traumatic stress disorder symptomology was negatively related to self-compassion (Dahm et al., 2015). Symptoms such as worry (Mantzios, 2014), paranoid beliefs (Mills, Gilbert, Bellew, McEwan, & Gale, 2007), perfectionism, and stress (James, Verplanken, & Rimes, 2015) are all negatively related to self-compassion. Hofmann, Grossman, and Hinton (2011) have stated there is intervention potential regarding self-compassion and mental health issues.

Self-compassion also positively relates to many constructs, not only organizations value, but people value as well, such as creativity (Zabelina & Robinson, 2010) and

proactivity (Akin, 2014). Regarding goal-setting, those high in self-compassion have a stronger motivation to improve (Breines & Chen, 2012) and stronger goal pursuit (Hope, Koestner, & Milyavskaya, 2014). Self-compassion also has a negative relationship with procrastination (Sirois, 2014; Williams et al., 2008). Those who are higher in self-compassion have higher self-efficacy (Iskender, 2009), have an internal focus of controls regarding learning, can cope in more adaptive ways (Karanika & Hogg, 2015), and even have better romantic relationships (Neff & Beretvas, 2013).

Self-Compassion and Work

Another area of self-compassion research is regarding the role of self-compassion in the workplace. Since the construct of self-compassion was developed in the clinical and counseling realms of psychology, most of the research has been conducted in therapeutic settings. A substantial lacking body of research exists on self-compassion in the workplace. Where it does exist, it is usually wrought with a lack of methodological rigor, design, and generalizability.

Most of the literature concerning self-compassion focuses on its relationship with burnout (Abenavoli, Jennings, Greenberg, Harris, & Katz, 2013; Barnard & Curry, 2012; Olson, Kemper, & Mahan, 2015; Reb & Atkins, 2015). Other research addresses job satisfaction (Abaci & Arda, 2013), and leadership (Lewis & Ebbeck, 2014; Waldron & Ebbeck, 2015).

In regards to burnout, much of the literature on this topic involves a more in-depth exploration of the mindfulness subcomponent of self-compassion (Abenavoli et al., 2013; Barnard & Curry, 2012; Olson et al., 2015). For instance, self-compassion and mindfulness were significantly negatively related to burnout and positively related to

resilience, but the authors simply used a correlational design (Olson et al., 2015). In a study of the positive aspects of mindfulness on burnout in a sample of educators, mindfulness was related to lower levels of burnout and its subfacets. It moderated the relationship between stress and emotional exhaustion, such that mindfulness was more protective at high levels of stress. The authors argued that mindfulness benefits the most those in high-risk, high-stress environments (Abenavoli et al., 2013). Researchers also examined burnout in the clergy (Barnard & Curry, 2012). They defined burnout as high emotional exhaustion and low satisfaction in ministry. The authors wanted to see how the desire to please others, guilt or shame proneness (measured by the test of self-conscious affect), differentiation of self from a role, and self-compassion related to burnout. Self-compassion was the only significant predictor in both the satisfaction model and the emotional exhaustion model (Barnard & Curry, 2012). Self-compassion was strongly and negatively related to shame (Barnard & Curry, 2012). Perhaps emotional exhaustion is brought on by high negative affect, and self-compassion could help buffer against this process.

The relationship between job satisfaction and self-compassion has also been explored (Abaci & Arda, 2013). A study done in Turkey found that self-compassion is moderated and positively correlated with job satisfaction (Abaci & Arda, 2013). Other research suggests that the sub-facet of self-compassion, mindfulness, promotes job satisfaction and buffers against emotional exhaustion and burnout (Hülsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013).

Leadership development is another topic that has only started to be explored in the self-compassion literature, and only regarding wildland firefighters (Lewis & Ebbeck,

2014; Waldron & Ebbeck, 2015). Lewis and Ebbeck (2014) used qualitative interviews to determine if mindfulness and self-compassion influenced leadership outcomes in wildland firefighters. They argued firefighters higher in self-compassion and mindfulness are better equipped to deal with the emotional aspects of the job, and thus their performance would be higher. Unfortunately, they only used qualitative data with zero quantitative reasoning to back it up. Waldron and Ebbeck (2015) added quantitative backing to this line of research. Using path analysis, they linked subordinate ratings of firefighter's leadership capabilities to the leader's self-ratings of self-compassion and mindfulness. Mindfulness and the self-kindness aspect of self-compassion were significant predictors of perceived supervisor leadership.

While some of the findings on self-compassion are interesting, some lack methodological rigor. For instance, in a study about educating and challenging students, self-compassion was significantly and positively correlated with emotional support (Jennings, 2014). However, the author used a minimal sample size of 35 participants and only looked at correlational data (Jennings, 2014).

Self-Compassion and Affect

Another topic regarding self-compassion that predominantly rests in the clinical and counseling realms of psychology is on the relationship between self-compassion and affect. None of the literature on self-compassion and affect concerns a workplace environment. Self-compassion is positively related to positive affect and many related constructs. For instance, self-compassion is positively associated with happiness, optimism, and positive affect (Neff, Kirkpatrick, & Rude, 2007).

Self-compassion is also negatively related to negative affect, shame, and rumination (Johnson & O'Brien, 2013). Johnson and O'Brien (2013) asked participants to write about a shameful event that occurred in the last five years and then were assigned to a writing condition: self-compassion, expressive writing (i.e., descriptions of deep feelings) and no writing condition. The participants were then given some dependent measures utilizing feeling words to assess emotions such as shame and guilt. The authors found that self-compassion had lower negative affect than expressive writing but not the control; however, in a two-week follow-up, those in the self-compassion condition were less prone to shame than those who were not in the self-compassion condition. Another study examined how shame and male masculine norm adherence were influenced by self-compassion (Reilly et al., 2014). Higher levels of self-compassion were related to lower levels of shame and lower levels of masculine norm adherence. The authors argued that individuals who have higher masculine norms might have trouble being self-compassionate, and therefore, be more susceptible to feelings of shame.

As mentioned earlier, Neff (2003a, 2003b, 2011) argued that self-compassion would result in a higher level of equanimity. Choi and colleagues (2014) found evidence of this when making social comparisons. Those high in self-compassion had significantly less negative affect but were not significantly different on positive affect when making upward and downward social comparisons (Choi, Lee, & Lee, 2014).

The mindfulness aspect of self-compassion seems to contribute a significant amount to this increased level of equanimity. For instance, a mindfulness-based meditation program increased happiness and mood for employees in a high-stress job (Davidson et al., 2003).

Self-Compassion and Negative Events

One of the earlier studies to examine the effect of self-compassion in the context of negative events, specifically failure, was done shortly after its inception (Neff et al., 2005). Despite providing very relevant and encouraging findings, this study consisted of undergraduates facing academic failure and was therefore specific to that setting. Self-compassionate individuals had less fear of failure and more mastery of goal orientation. The authors theorized that self-compassionate people look at failure as an opportunity for growth and learning. Their research showed evidence that people high in self-compassion are more likely to engage in adaptive, emotion-focused coping strategies of positive reinterpretation or growth and acceptance (Neff et al., 2005).

A few years later, the literature leaped forward with a five-study article on self-compassion and reactions to "unpleasant self-relevant events." (Leary, Tate, Adams, Allen, & Hancock, 2007). A multi-study design was used to control for their experience and reactions to scenarios. While this study added a large amount of insight into the self-compassion literature, it was not without its flaws.

Leary and colleagues (2007) argued that Neff's (2003a) idea of self-compassion allows it to serve as a buffer for negative events where the individual is at fault, or others are responsible. In other words, they suggest self-compassion acts as a moderator between the experience of an event and the affect felt in proximity or targeted at the aforementioned event. Leary and Neff are not the only researchers to posit self-compassion's positive effect on reactions and outcomes of negative work events.

In an article regarding project failure in business, Shepherd and Cardon (2009) proposed a good argument for why self-compassion could alleviate feelings after the fact.

The authors proposed that project failure, an event most would consider negative, is common in the business world and likely to produce a negative affective reaction. "Project failure is the termination of a project due to the realization of unacceptably low performance as operationally defined by the project's key resource providers (Shepherd & Cardon, 2009) and may be viewed as a trigger that prompts new behaviors and thoughts and stirs emotions in both employees and managers (Kiefer, 2005), particularly negative emotions (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000; Huy, 2002; Kiefer, 2005)." Their model theorized the emotional response to this type of negative event through a Self-Determination Theory lens (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000). When people fail, they are losing autonomy, competence, and relatedness a project is giving them. Ultimately, the authors believed self-compassion would directly relate to the emotional response and provide a better opportunity for learning. They theorized that self-compassion keeps an individual from linking the failure event to their self-worth (Shepherd & Cardon, 2009).

Choi and colleagues (2014) examined the emotional responses to upward and downward comparisons regarding academic performance. Korean undergraduate students were asked to compare themselves to someone who scored better on an intelligence exam and someone who scored lower. The comparison to someone who scored better was considered a negative event by the authors, who had psychology graduate students rate the scenarios provided. There were no significant differences in positive affect between those who were high in self-compassion and those who were low in self-compassion for both downward and upward comparison (Choi et al., 2014). There were, however, significant differences between those high and low in self-compassion on negative affect in both upward and downward comparisons. Those higher in self-

compassion experienced significantly less negative affect across the board. The authors argue self-compassion may serve as a potential buffer against negative feelings.

People who are higher in self-compassion may be better equipped to deal with negative events, and, therefore, have a lower negative affective reaction to it. For instance, individuals who are high in self-compassion are less likely to use harmful coping strategies like substance abuse or denial (Allen & Leary, 2010). They will be less harsh to themselves after going through a negative event at work, which demonstrates self-kindness. They will be more likely to put things into perspective and understand they are not alone in their experience, which demonstrates common humanity. Finally, they will not be as affected by their emotions produced by the negative event by not placing value judgments on them, which demonstrates mindfulness.

Review of the Leary Studies

As previously mentioned, the Leary studies (Leary et al., 2007) were a series of studies examining how self-compassion comes into play regarding reactions to unpleasant events. The first study examined "unpleasant events" within the last twenty days (Leary et al., 2007). Participants were asked four times about the worst thing that happened to them over twenty days. The authors argued many of these events were mundane and inconsequential, so they were able to examine how self-compassion influences these daily occurrences. Participants were then given the self-compassion scale. When they provided an unpleasant event, they rated it on a 6-point Likert scale for various feeling words such as sad, nervous, mad, ashamed, etc. They also rated various cognitions, reactions, and how well they think they responded to the event on a 6-point scale. In regards to the unpleasant event, they were asked to rate three 6-point items.

One dealt with importance of the unpleasant event to the participant. The second dealt with how adverse the unpleasant event was in terms of whom else was affected. The third item had participants rate their responsibility for the unpleasant event. Leary and colleagues (2007) found that self-compassion predicted cognitive and emotional reactions to these unpleasant events.

The second study examined reactions to various scenarios (Leary et al., 2007). Participants reacted to hypothetical scenarios describing various situations, none of which were in a strict workplace environment. In this study, the authors also compared the effects of self-compassion to those of self-esteem. Participants were given measures assessing self-compassion, self-esteem, and narcissism. Later, the authors provided three scenarios participants were asked to respond to getting a poor grade, costing the team a game, and forgetting one's lines on stage during a play. Again, no work-related scenarios were given. The same emotion scale used in Study 1 was used again. The authors found that self-compassion was negatively related to the negative affect, catastrophizing, and personalizing. It was positively related to equanimity and humor and accounted for unique variance in affect and reaction above and beyond that of self-esteem (Leary et al., 2007).

The third study examined how participants responded to in-person feedback. Participants received unpleasant feedback (Leary et al., 2007). Undergraduate students were assessed on self-compassion and self-esteem. Weeks later, they were asked to introduce themselves on camera that they believed was being played in an adjacent room to an observer. The researcher then provided them with feedback from the supposed observer, which was negative, neutral, or positive. The video introduction was not work-

related. People who were high in self-compassion were buffered against negative affective reactions, especially when self-esteem was low or neutral. People high in self-esteem were more likely to fall into the fundamental attribution error regarding positive and negative feedback (Leary et al., 2007). Self-compassion related to how the person took the feedback, thought of the observer, and attributed the feedback.

In the fourth study, participants rated their performance on an embarrassing videotaped task and also rated other's performance (Leary et al., 2007). Undergraduates were given the self-compassion scale and completed an embarrassing task (make up a children's story) while being videotaped. They were then asked to rate someone else's performance or their own. They rated nine adjectives on a 7-point scale, such as nervous, foolish, creative, likable, etc. They also rated how they felt while watching the video. Eight emotions were rated on a 7-point scale, such as relaxed, embarrassed, irritable, etc. Those lower in self-compassion were much harsher on themselves and felt worse than those who were high (Leary et al., 2007).

In the fifth and final study, participants reflected on unpleasant experiences from their lives (Leary et al., 2007). There was a self-esteem induction and self-compassion induction. Again, undergraduates all below the age of 25 participated in the study. They first completed the self-esteem inventory and the self-compassion scale. They then wrote about a negative event that had previously occurred in their life. The event had to have taken place either in high school or college and involve "failure, humiliation, or rejection." Participants were then asked to respond to questions that induced self-compassion, induced self-esteem, or simply respond to the outcome measures. Those in

the self-compassion condition had lower negative affect than both of the other conditions (Leary et al., 2007).

Criticisms of the Leary Studies

While the Leary studies added substantial depth to the self-compassion literature, they were not perfect and had their fair share of gaps. Its broad scope and operationalization of negative events are methodological weaknesses and should be addressed. For instance, undergraduate psychology students were used in Leary et al. (2007), as opposed to real working individuals.

Negative events in the workplace will be specifically examined as opposed to various aspects of life. It was never explicitly addressed in any of the studies. In the first study of Leary and colleagues' (2007) work, 38.6% of the negative situations provided by participants were from work or school. However, the participants were undergraduate students aged 18-21. Thus it is unclear how many of these negative situations occurred strictly in the workplace. It is unlikely that many, if any at all, were full-time employees with adequate experience.

In Study 1 of Leary and colleagues' (2007) research, the authors used no psychometrically validated scale to measure affective reaction, cognitive reaction, and coping. Mostly, they had 6-point Likert scale items for feelings words such as anger, anxiety, embarrassment, guilt, etc. Study 2 used no psychometrically validated scale for reactions, just seven different options such as "have no emotional reaction" and "replay the situation in my mind for a long time afterward" that participants rated. They ran a factor analysis of the emotion scale, and one factor emerged, which they used as justification for condensing the scale into a single negative affect scale. The

methodology the studies used to measure emotion, affective reaction, attribution, and cognitions were suspect. More psychometrically sound and tested instruments would have also added rigor to the study.

Self-Compassion and People with Disabilities in the Workplace

One area of research regarding self-compassion involves populations of various disabilities. Overall, there is a shortage of literature on this topic. However, there exist studies on HIV (Brion, Leary, & Drabkin, 2014), chronic pain (Costa & Pinto-Gouveia, 2011), diabetes (Friis et al., 2015), spina bifida (Hayter & Dorstyn, 2014), infertility (Galhardo et al., 2013; Raque-Bogdan & Hoffman, 2015), and others. Some argue self-compassion could foster self-advocacy in people with disabilities (Stuntzner & Hartley, 2015).

Brion and colleagues (2014) examined how self-compassion influences reactions to HIV. The authors found that people high in self-compassion had more adaptive reactions to an HIV diagnosis, were more likely to disclose the disease, and were more likely to practice safe sex (Brion et al., 2014). Those high in self-compassion also adjusted better emotionally (i.e., less shame, anxiety, depression, etc.).

Chronic pain is an area where self-compassion has seen more attention. One survey study using Portuguese participants found those low in self-compassion had lower levels of pain acceptance (Costa & Pinto-Gouveia, 2011). Another study found self-compassion related to more adaptive coping skills and less maladaptive skills when it comes to coping with stress in people with chronic illness (e.g., Crohn’s disease, arthritis, etc.) (Sirois, Molnar, & Hirsch, 2015). In a study of chronic musculoskeletal pain, participants high in self-compassion had lower levels of negative affect, pain

catastrophizing, and higher levels of positive affect and pain self-efficacy (Wren et al., 2012). The authors of the study argued this increase in positive affect was important because it backed up other evidence that self-compassion may buffer against emotional issues associated with chronic pain (Fredrickson, 2000).

An exciting review of evidence regarding diabetics, chronic pain, depression, and self-compassion was recently published (Friis et al., 2015). In this review, the authors theorized that higher self-compassion could be useful for people with diabetes and chronic illness. More specifically, they would have lower levels of depression and negative affect, and therefore glycemic control could be improved.

Infertility is another area where self-compassion's role has been explored (Galhardo et al., 2013; Raque-Bogdan & Hoffman, 2015). In a study of both men and women with infertility issues, self-compassionate people experienced less infertility-related stress, although the specific processes of self-compassion differed between men and women (Galhardo et al., 2013). Men could be buffered against external and internal shame through lowered self-judgment, but women were only buffered through internal shame by overall self-compassion (Galhardo et al., 2013). In another study, self-compassion mediated the relationship between social concern and subjective well-being for women suffering from both primary and secondary infertility (Raque-Bogdan & Hoffman, 2015).

Disabilities such as diabetes, chronic pain, HIV, and infertility are classified as invisible disabilities and thus are not apparent to the naked eye (Santuzzi, Waltz, Finkelstein, & Rupp, 2014). Self-compassion does just hold positive implications with invisible but visible disabilities as well. In a study of people with spina bifida, self-

compassion had relationships with several positive outcomes (Hayter & Dorstyn, 2014). Self-compassion predicted resilience and was negatively related to stress, depression, and anxiety in a sample of adults with spina bifida (Hayter & Dorstyn, 2014). In this study, in particular, self-compassion and self-esteem were highly related. The authors suggest self-compassion and self-esteem could be the same thing, or they could be working in conjunction with one another (Hayter & Dorstyn, 2014). As previously mentioned, while self-compassion and self-esteem share criterion space and parts of a nomological network, they are theoretically and empirically distinct (Neff & Vonk, 2009).

Thus far, I am aware of no research addressing self-compassion in the visual-impairment or blind literature; much less any disability is strictly a workplace context. Also, none of the above studies specifically address negative workplace events in strictly a workplace setting. Reaction to negative workplace events in people with visual impairments or blindness will add to the literature on both self-compassion and disability. Again, while there are interesting findings from self-compassion research, the methodological rigor is lacking. For example, one such study of day hospice patients claimed self-compassion increased happiness and self-soothing (Imrie & Troop, 2012). Unfortunately, this study was conducted with only 13 participants (Imrie & Troop, 2012).

Overview of Employment Situation

There are many struggles and obstacles people with disabilities must overcome in today's workplace. People with disabilities and people with visual impairments or blindness face unemployment (Bell & Mino, 2013), discrimination (McMahon, Jaet, & Shaw, 1995), negative attitudes (Dickson & Taylor, 2012; Ren, Paetzold, & Colella, 2008), stereotypes and myths, lack of access to technology, and other barriers to work

(Braddock & Bachelder, 1994). According to recent Bureau of Labor and Statistics (BLS) numbers, the unemployment rate for people with disabilities sits at 12.5% (U.S. Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2016). This is over twice the national employment rate of people *without* disabilities, which is 4.9% (U.S. Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2016). The unemployment rates increase when examined by ethnicity. People with disabilities who identify as Black or African-American are unemployed at a rate of 21.6%, and Hispanics at a rate of 16.1% (U.S. Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2016). The unemployment rates for those groups without a disability are 11% and 7.2%, respectively.

Unfortunately, the BLS does not drill down unemployment numbers to specific disabilities. This job rests with researchers who study the population. One study found that approximately 60% of working-age individuals from the years 2009-2012 who were visually impaired were not employed (Kelly, 2013). Even of those employed, one study reported 35% felt underemployed (Hagemoser, 1996). People with visual impairments or blindness are not just underemployed in the United States, but other parts of the world as well, such as New Zealand (La Grow, 2004, 2003). Recent numbers are consistent with past numbers. This research suggested that only 37% of the visually impaired population was employed (Bell & Mino, 2013).

Discrimination

One piece of evidence suggesting people with visual impairments or blindness face discrimination is the number of ADA cases pursued. People with visual impairments or blindness have a strong share of ADA complaints among people with disabilities. Regarding hiring and selection, people with visual impairments or blindness

had a 17% share of ADA complaints from 1993-2002, which was the second-highest proportion of complaints behind those with physical disfigurements at 17.6% (McMahon et al., 1995). People with visual impairments or blindness had 28% of the unlawful termination cases, 17% of the failure to provide reasonable accommodation cases, and 17% of the career development issue cases (McMahon et al., 1995).

From 1993-2002 the majority of cases were dismissed by the EEOC (51.85%). The authors of research into these cases suggest that people with visual impairments or blindness don't have access to knowledge of the ADA and the technology to file complaints. This, in turn, contributes to the lack of successful ADA cases.

People with disabilities and people with visual impairments or blindness all over the world feel as though discrimination and negative attitudes are significant barriers to employment (Wolffe & Spungin, 2002). This is not merely a perception issue; it is a reality as well. For instance, in one study, people with disabilities were rated as less likely to be promoted from within an organization (Krefting & Brief, 1976). These negative and discriminatory attitudes manifest from people's judgments, a lack of knowledge of what people with visual impairments or blindness are truly capable of, and what technology exists to help them do their jobs (McDonnall, O'Mally, & Crudden, 2014).

People have a hierarchy of disability judgments. They tend to judge different disabilities differently (Fuqua, Rathburn, & Eldon, 1984). For instance, people with physical disabilities are often seen in a much more positive and accepting light than those with mental issues or invisible disabilities (Santuzzi et al., 2014). This pertains to people

with visual impairments or blindness because sometimes a visual impairment may not be apparent to the observer.

Most employers do not know what people with visual impairments are truly capable of and what accommodations exist to assist them (McDonnall et al., 2014). Employers are concerned with the amount of time, effort, and resources it will take to hire appropriately, onboard, and accommodate people with visual impairments (Wolffe & Candela, 2002). Often these beliefs stem from a poor understanding of what exactly people with visual impairments can do and what technology exists to assist them with their jobs (Lynch, 2013; McDonnall et al., 2014). People with visual impairments or blindness echo this concern of employers, and their lack of knowledge as barriers to employment (Wolffe & Spungin, 2002).

People with disabilities and people with visual impairments or blindness face challenges in today's workplace. Their experience is unique, and because of this, it begs further exploration. More research is needed into this primarily overlooked population and better understand ways to alleviate some of these obstacles.

Propositions and Purpose of the Present Study

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine how self-compassion influences the affective response to negative events at work in a sample of employees who are visually impaired or blind. This dissertation contributed to the literature by bridging research on visual impairment and blindness, clinical psychology, and industrial-organizational psychology. While the literature on self-compassion has examined negative events and affect, it has not examined these topics in a workplace context or explored them through a robust theoretical lens such as this dissertation study. The

relationships between self-compassion and organizational outcomes, such as organizational commitment and turnover intentions, were examined. This study utilized linear regression methods to test the proposed model. See Figure 2 for a depiction of the proposed model.

Proposition 1

Proposition 1: Self-compassion will influence the affective response to negative work events.

Self-compassion is a construct tied to higher levels of general well-being (Neff & Vonk, 2009) and overall higher equanimity (Neff, 2003a). Choi and colleagues (2014) found that those higher in self-compassion had greater patience, and thus experienced more balanced affect than those with lower self-compassion when comparing themselves to others. As a result, self-compassion may buffer the negative affective reaction to negative work events. Shepherd and Cardon (2009) theorized that individuals with lower levels of self-compassion would have more negative affective reactions following project failure (one type of negative work event) than individuals with higher levels of self-compassion. To date, their hypothesis remains untested, but their line of thinking is represented in the hypotheses below.

Hypothesis 1: Self-compassion will moderate the relationship between the importance of the negative event and the negative affective response to that event. Specifically, higher self-compassion is expected to weaken the relationship.

Hypothesis 1a: Self-kindness will be negatively related to the level of negative affect experienced as a result of negative work events.

Hypothesis 1b: Common humanity will be negatively related to the level of negative affect experienced as a result of negative work events.

Hypothesis 1c: Mindfulness will be negatively related to the level of negative affect experienced as a result of negative work events.

Proposition 2

Proposition 2: Affective reactions will relate to organizational outcomes.

According to Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), events experienced at work drive the formation of job attitudes. Affective reactions are expected to tie directly to organizational commitment and, through that relationship, tie to turnover intentions. Organizational commitment, and its subcomponent of affective commitment, has previously been associated with lower turnover intentions and actual turnover (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008).

Hypothesis 2: Affective commitment will partially mediate the relationship between affective reactions and turnover intentions.

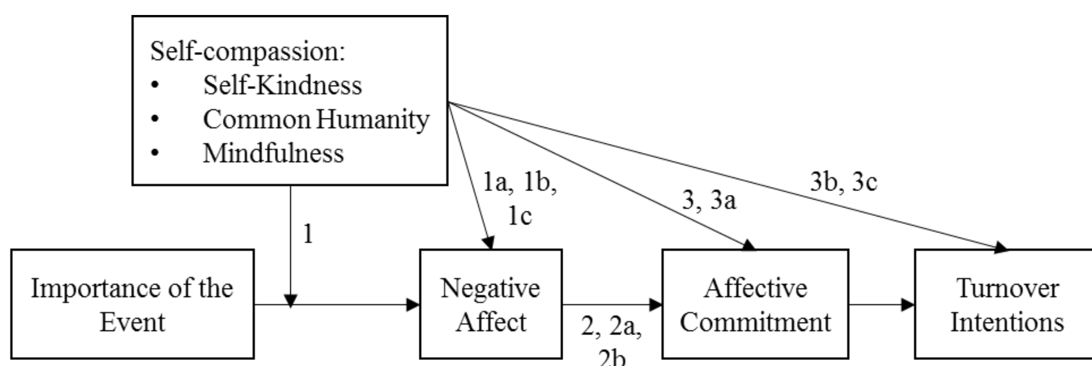

Figure 2. Proposed Relationships Influenced by Self-Compassion.

Proposition 3

Proposition 3: Self-compassion and its sub-facets will relate to organizational outcomes.

Within self-compassion, there are three sub-facets, and separate hypotheses on the relationship of each sub-facet to organizational outcomes were proposed. For instance, mindfulness has been linked to lower turnover intentions (Dane & Brummel, 2014). It is possible that common humanity contributes to a sense of community within the organization and therefore fosters more substantial affective commitment and lower turnover intentions. In other words, it is possible people high in common humanity are more likely to see themselves as part of the larger collective represented by the organization.

Hypothesis 3: Each of the three sub-facets of self-compassion (self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness) will be positively related to affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3a: Of the three sub-facets of self-compassion, common humanity will have the strongest relationship to affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3b: Each of the three sub-facets of self-compassion (self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness) will be positively related to turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 3c: Of the three sub-facets of self-compassion, common humanity will have the strongest relationship to turnover intentions.

Proposition 4

Proposition 4: Reversal theory will be explored as a coding taxonomy for negative work events in the context of retroactive motivation.

Reversal theory may address the phenomenological aspects of events for individuals. It may be help classify events. Depending on what an individual is trying to get out of a particular situation, it may influence the meaning or outcomes of the event. For instance, if a person in the self-mastery state has an unpleasant interpersonal interaction, they may react less strongly than a person in the self-sympathy state.

Research Question: How will the events distribute across the various states?

For instance, people could go through very similar events, or perhaps the same event, yet interpret it differently based on the motivational state they are each in at the time (Apter, 2001). If, for example, a team is reprimanded by a superior, some on the team may have negative reactions but for different reasons. Those in the self-mastery state might be upset because they did not perform well, while those in the self-sympathy state might be upset because their superior is disappointed in them. Further still, those in the rebellious state may not be upset, as they were trying to challenge their superior's beliefs.

Why People with Visual Impairments and Blindness?

The population of people with disabilities is vast. People with physical disabilities, such as the use of a wheelchair, require very different accommodations than someone with a mental illness. As previously mentioned, they also face differing attitudes in the workplace, depending on their disability (Fuqua et al., 1984). The differences in experience are vast between those people with visible disabilities, which

are apparent to the observer, and those with invisible disabilities, which are not apparent to the observer (Santuzzi et al., 2014). Therefore, narrowing a study's sample to a sub-population of the larger people with disabilities population may reduce extraneous variance and noise. Furthermore, it is also common for some cognitive and developmental disabilities to be accompanied by some sort of visual impairment, which may also add error to the sample, as their experience is much different than someone with a visual impairment or blindness alone (Henriksen & Degenhardt, 2009). One study found that people without another health or physical issue were 8.5 times more likely to be actively looking for work (Leonard, 2002).

There are still particular challenges in studying people with visual impairments or blindness. As mentioned earlier, visual impairment can be visible or invisible to the observer. While there is still variance, the impairment can be quantified more easily than merely with disabilities in general (i.e., using a cane versus partial blindness, or diabetes versus the use of a wheelchair). Using a sample of the visually impaired also fits well within the taxonomy, the Bureau of Labor and Statistics uses (http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsdisability_faq.htm). They ask six questions to assess disability. These questions tap emotional or mental disorders, deafness, visual impairment or blindness, mobility, dressing and bathing, and general activity impairment such as visiting the doctor or shopping. They started asking these questions in 2007. Unfortunately, at this time, they do not publish this data online.

There is a lack of statistical rigor to the literature on the visually impaired, as it has been criticized for lack of adequate statistical reporting (Kim, 2015). For instance, from 2012-2013, only 12.5% of articles performed a power analysis to determine

adequate statistical power, and only 25% of articles addressed effect size when discussing practical significance (Kim, 2015).

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

The dissertation research was conducted in two studies. First, a pilot study was conducted to assess the psychometric properties of the two instruments developed specifically for this research. Results from the pilot study were used to determine whether and how the new instruments would be used in the main study. For example, if the pilot study indicated revisions to the instruments were needed, then adaptations would have been explored. However, empirical support for the use of the instruments was obtained, the main study to test the hypotheses proceeded.

Pilot Study

Participants

Individuals who were between the ages of 18 and 70, employed (full-time or part-time) and residents of the United States were recruited for the pilot study. The two newly-created instruments evaluated in the pilot study, which will be discussed in more detail below, consisted of 16 and 24 items, respectively. Best practice suggests that a ratio of at least 20 participants for each item is advisable (DeVellis, 2012; Nunnally, 1978). Nunnally (1978) also suggests a minimum sample size of 300 in the early stages of scale development (i.e., when assessing internal consistency or conducting

Exploratory factor analysis). The sample for the pilot study consisted of 769 individuals (yielding a ratio of almost 20 subjects per item).

The pilot sample was not restricted to the visually impaired but represented the broader general population of working adults in the United States. One reason the sample for the pilot sample was not limited to the visually impaired was due to the difficulty of obtaining a sufficiently large sample of employed people with visual impairments or blindness for both the pilot and main study. More importantly, there is no evidence to suggest the general population would respond differently than the visually impaired or blind population on items relating to the importance of a particular work event or the motivations operating at the time of the event.

A total of 769 participants who were employed full-time or part-time and over the age of 18 were recruited via online survey panels for this study. Of the total number of participants, 136 were recruited from mTurk, and the other 634 were recruited from ResearchNow, a commercial supplier of research participants. The data cleaning process involved an examination of missing data, veracity check responses, and outliers. After data collection, 154 participants (20%) were screened from participation for failing to describe a negative event at work. An additional 73 participants (9.4%) were screened from participation because they failed one of the three veracity items that were embedded in the scales to identify careless responses. For example, they did not respond correctly to the item "Please select 'Strongly Agree.'" Another 30 participants (3.9%) were screened from participation for missing data. One case was a duplicate between the two-panel sources and was identified through examination of the IP addresses captured in the data and was dropped.

Finally, all items were loaded into a regression with RESPONSE_ID as the dependent variable. Mahalanobis distance variables were calculated from this regression, and 24 outliers (3.1%) were removed because they had a Mahalanobis distance greater than 73.04 (Field, 2018). Ultimately, data cleaning yielded a usable sample of 488 participants to assess the psychometric properties of the INWE and the MNWE scales.

The average age of the sample was 45.31 years old. The number of males (n = 158) in the sample accounted for 32.6% of the sample, and 67% were female (n = 327). The mean hours worked per week was 36.8 hours. A majority of the sample were individual contributors (70.9%, n = 344) while 29.5% were managers (n = 143).

The largest portion of the sample indicated the highest education level achieved was a four-year degree (34.2%, n = 166). While 13.7% of the sample indicated they had a two-year degree (n = 67), and 18.6% of the sample indicated they had some college experience (n = 91). Additionally, 19.5% held a graduate degree (n = 95), 2.7% held a doctorate (n = 13), and 0.6% were all but dissertation (n = 3). Only 10.4% of the sample indicated they had a high school degree or less (n = 52). These results are roughly in line with the level of educational attainment of the US population, with some deviation from the percentages of those with graduate degrees and those with a high school degree or less (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). Specifically, 20.6% held a four-year degree, 9.7% held a two-year degree, 18.5% had some college experience, 8.5% held a graduate degree, 3.1% held a doctorate, and 39.2% had a high school degree or less (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018).

Concerning the ethnic composition of the sample, the majority of participants identified as white (81.8%, n = 399). The remaining participants identified as black or

African American (5.5%, n = 27), Hispanic or Latino (5.3%, n = 26), Asian (5.3%, n = 26), and American Indian or Alaskan Native (0.6%, n = 3). Finally, 1.0% of the population identified their ethnicity as other (n = 5).

Procedure

An online survey was constructed for the pilot study. Participants were recruited via Amazon.com's mTurk, a marketplace tool used to recruit online participants for various tasks, such as completing surveys or user-acceptance-testing, and ResearchNow, a research panel vendor who provides respondents for academic and market research. Samples recruited through mTurk have been shown to often be more representative of the general U.S. population than other convenience samples (Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz, 2012). With regard to industrial-organizational psychology research, researchers have argued mTurk is no better or worse than other convenience samples (Landers & Behrend, 2015) and may provide high-quality data, mainly when workers are compensated fairly on tasks less than 30 minutes long (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011).

All participants were provided with a link that directed them to the online survey. First, participants were asked to provide a summary of a negative workplace event. Next, they were asked to rate the importance of that event by responding to a 16-item measure. After the important items, participants were asked to respond to the MNWE scale, measuring the respondent's motivations behind the negative event. Finally, participants responded to the demographic items of the survey.

The mTurk platform allowed potential respondents to browse studies and select those in which they were interested. The description in the posting informed participants that the survey was about a recent negative event they had experienced at work. The

survey was described as no longer than 15 minutes in length. Participants were also told beforehand that payment would be dependent on the quality of their responses. Participants were told that quality control mechanisms would be employed and that only those who meet the criteria would be compensated. Three veracity check items were embedded in the survey to detect careless responding. An example of a veracity check item is “Please select ‘Strongly Agree.” Other items were written similarly in that they asked respondents to endorse a particular response to reduce the chance of careless responding. To qualify for the study and receive payment, a participant had to pass all veracity check items. Data from uncompensated mTurk workers were not included in the data analyses.

MTurk workers indicated their interest in participating by selecting the study, known as a HIT to them. At that point, they were directed to a webpage with informed consent information. Once consent was provided, they were emailed a link to the survey. The data collection interface and responses from each participant resided on a survey software platform. After completing the survey, they were compensated via Amazon.com’s mTurk payment process. MTurk protects the identity of its workers, such that participants are anonymous to the researcher. For instance, the researcher cannot see personally identifying information of the worker unless the worker provides it in a response or correspondence outside of the study. The identity of the respondents is also protected by the ResearchNow, which is described below.

ResearchNow solicited participation from people with visual impairments. Participants who qualified for the study were emailed a link to the study and invited to participate in the survey.

Measures

The pilot survey consisted of four sections: description of a negative event at work, the theory-based reversal categorization of participant's motivations operating at the time of the event (MNWE), the importance of the work event (INWE), and demographic questions. The pilot survey instruments are included in Appendix A. Participants first described their negative event, then responded to the MNWE, followed by the INWE. The order of items within each scale was randomized to reduce potential error. Participants always responded to the demographic questions last. The total number of items for the survey was 48.

Description of negative work event.

Participants were asked to think of and briefly describe the worst thing that has happened to them at work in the last two weeks. Their description was collected via an open-ended question. Participants were then instructed to respond to the subsequent items on the pilot survey with that specific event in mind. Participants were asked to respond to subsequent sets of questions with that specific event in mind.

The time frame for the negative work event was within the past two weeks to reduce bias and misinformation. As the amount of time increases from the occurrence of an event, individuals may recall increased amounts of counterfactual information (Baron, 2004). Also, Shepherd, Patzelt, and Wolfe (2011) found that negative reactions to affective events decrease over time. Therefore, it was necessary to survey participants as close to the affective event as possible while providing an adequate window of time for a negative event to have occurred.

Importance of the negative work events (INWE).

A 16-item scale was adapted from the study conducted by Leary and colleagues (2007). For instance, participants in the prior research were asked how "bad," "important," or "distressing" the event was. In the pilot study, these questions were rephrased into statements such as, "The consequences of the event were bad." Other items included, "This event was important to me" and "Most people in this situation would find it distressing." Each item was rated on a seven-point Likert scale of "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The 16 items were summed to obtain an overall event importance score, as is common in unidimensional psychological scales of measurement (Nunnally, 1978).

Motivations during negative work events (MNWE).

Participants were asked to respond to a series of items designed to capture the motivations operating at the time of the negative work event. The items on this scale were based on the reversal theory model of motivation (Apter, 2001) and were framed in such a way as to provide information regarding the state the person was in at the time of the negative event. For instance, items asked participants if they wanted to accomplish something significant (i.e., telic) at the time of the event. Items were adapted from the Reversal Theory State Measure (Desselles, Murphy, & Theys, 2014) after reframing the instructions to measure a retroactive motivational state. The items were preceded by the following prompt, "Try to think of the event as if it had just happened, and rate how concerned you were with each of the following statements." The respondent then rated the response that best described their motivation at the time, on a six-point Likert scale of

"not concerned" to "very concerned." The instrument consisted of 24 items. The full text of the items is included in Appendix A.

Demographic questions.

Several demographic characteristics were assessed in the survey. These included gender, age, ethnicity, managerial versus non-managerial work role, number of hours worked per week, and education level. These items are also found in Appendix A.

Main Study

Participants

A power analysis was conducted to determine an adequate sample size for a hierarchical regression with three predictor variables at $p < 0.05$ and a power of .80. As a result, a minimum of 159 participants would be needed to observe a small to moderate effect size. According to research on sample sizes required for testing mediation, the average sample size used in published studies was 187 subjects (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007). After data cleaning, the sample in the main study consisted of 252 individuals with visual impairments or blindness. Thus, an appropriate level of power was achieved.

The final sample of 252 was the usable data that resulted from the data screening process. Initially, a convenience sample of 823 respondents was recruited from electronic mailing lists of two research organizations, The National Federation of the Blind (NFB) and the Professional Development and Research Institute on Blindness (PDRIB), and a commercial supplier research firm. Of the total sample, 7.7% (n = 64) were recruited from the NFB, 42.8% (n = 352) from the PDRIB, and 49.5% (n = 407) from the panel. The following describes the steps to screen the data before the analyses were conducted.

The first step involved removing those respondents who did not meet the requirement for the 20/100 or worse visual acuity (Khairallah et al., 2015) or did not provide a visual acuity. A total of 475 respondents were dropped, leaving a sample of 347. The next step in the screening process removed those who were not employed. A total of 31 respondents were removed, leaving 316 left in the sample. To reduce error from careless responding, respondents who failed one of the three veracity items were removed. An example of a veracity item is “Please select ‘Almost Always.’” A total of 44 respondents were screened out in this step, leaving a total of 272. The next step in the screening process involved reading each of the open-ended descriptions of negative events and removing those that were blank or were the equivalent of “nothing negative had happened.” A total of 19 respondents were removed, resulting in a preliminary sample of 253.

All eight predictors were loaded into a regression with END DATE as the dependent variable. Mahalanobis distance and Cook’s distance variables were calculated from this regression. Any case with a Mahalanobis distance of over 26.14 and a Cook’s distance over two was considered to be an outlier (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Based on these criteria, one case was removed. The removal of the outlier brought the final sample to 252.

The average age of the sample was 42.9 years old, with one participant not responding. The sample consisted of 68.7% (n = 173) females and 31.3% (n = 79) males. In regard to ethnicity, 81.7% (n = 206) identified as White, 5.2% (n = 13) as Black or African-American, 7.1% (n = 18) as Hispanic or Latino, 3.6% (n = 9) as Asian, 2.0% (n

= 5) as American Indian or Alaska Native, and 0.4% (*n* = 1) as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

In terms of prior education, 4.0% (*n* = 10) indicated they held a doctorate, 1.2% (*n* = 3) indicated they had not yet finished their dissertation, and 25.8% (*n* = 65) indicated they held a professional degree such as a masters. Additionally, 32.1% (*n* = 81) indicated they held a four-year degree, 8.7% (*n* = 22) indicated they held a two-year degree, 17.1% (*n* = 43) indicated they had completed some college, and 10.3% (*n* = 26) indicated they held a high school diploma. Only 0.8% (*n* = 2) of participants had completed less than a high school degree.

Of the total sample, 26.9% (*n* = 68) indicated they had employees reporting directly to them, while 73.0% (*n* = 184) indicated they did not. Most participants in the sample had a visual acuity of 20/100 or worse, or their field of vision was restricted enough to be legally blind. An exception was made for three participants who described themselves as having a significant visual impairment, such as being blind in one eye and having a restricted field of vision. The final distribution of self-reported visual acuity was as follows: 31.0% (*n* = 78) had a visual acuity between 20/100 and 20/400, 20.6% (*n* = 52) had a visual acuity between 20/400 and 20/800, 6.7% (*n* = 17) had a visual acuity of 20/800 or worse, but could count their fingers, 5.2% (*n* = 13) could only see hand motion, 13.5% (*n* = 34) had light perception, but no detail perception, and 21.8% (*n* = 55) of the sample was totally blind.

Procedure

The sampling technique for the main study was designed to recruit visually impaired or blind participants. The professional staff of the PDRIB provided access to national, regional, state, and local organizations that support blind and visually impaired populations. Participants were recruited through an email distributed through electronic mailing lists operated by blind and visually impaired advocacy groups (e.g., National Federation of the Blind). The email included a statement indicating that participation was limited to visually impaired or blind participants. The email also provided a brief description of the study and options to complete the survey online, in document format, or by telephone interview. A link to the online survey was included in the email. Several steps helped to ensure appropriate accommodations were made. Participants interested in the other survey formats were asked to contact the primary researcher via email, text, or telephone. The accessibility of the online survey was enhanced by features compatible with screen readers. At least two members of the PDRIB staff served as subject matter experts to assess the accessibility of all surveys prior to data collection. Areas of concern they identified were addressed prior to data collection.

The panel vendor recruited participants who were visually impaired or blind. The invitation and description of the study to prospective participants contacted via the commercial panel was identical to the invitation sent via electronic mailing lists. The vendor pre-screened participants based on the requirements of the proposed research (i.e., employed full or part-time, significantly visually impaired, or blind). As in the pilot, three veracity checks were used to filter for careless responding.

Measures

The primary survey consisted of five sections in the following order: 1) the description of the negative work event and the scales associated with it, 2) a measure of affect, 3) the self-compassion scale, an affective organizational commitment scale and intention to leave the organization scale, and finally, demographic items. The survey instruments used in the main study are shown in Appendix B. After the description of the event, the items of the remaining scales were randomized, and the demographic items always appeared last. The description of the event, the scales associated with it, and the measure of affect appeared first for the participant to recall the event and to minimize potential influence arising from the self-compassion measure. The demographic items appeared last as to minimize reactivity and the injection of bias into responses from participants.

Positive and negative affect scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

The Positive and Negative Affective Scale (PANAS) is a 20-item scale measuring level of affect. Ten items are measuring positive affect and ten items measuring negative affect. Participants are asked to respond to a series of feeling words associated with different levels of positive or negative affect. They rate the extent to which they experienced each feeling word on a Likert scale of one "very slightly or not at all" to five "extremely." Participants in the main study were asked to rate the emotion words to the extent to which they apply to the negative event at work that is the focus of the study. Scores on individual items were summed to achieve a score for positive affect and a score for negative affect. The summed negative affect scores were used in the subsequent analyses.

The PANAS has demonstrated good convergent and discriminant validity against scales of anxiety and depression (Watson et al., 1988). Specifically, the negative affect scale was positively correlated with the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, & Erbaugh, 1961), at $r = .58$, the Hopkins Symptom Checklist (Derogatis, Lipman, Rickels, Uhlenhuth, & Covi, 1974), at $r = .74$, and the Spielberger Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, Gorusch, & Lushene, 1970), at $r = .51$ (Watson et al., 1988). All relationships described above were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. After one week, the PANAS demonstrated high test-retest reliability for both the negative (.81) and the positive (.79) scales (Watson et al., 1988). The scale has internal consistency estimates ranging from the mid .80s to lower .90s (Crawford & Henry, 2004; Watson et al., 1988).

Prior factor analytic analyses supported a two-factor solution as hypothesized, one for positive affect and one for negative affect (Watson et al., 1988). Items on each factor loaded .50 or above to their theoretically-assigned factor (Tuccitto, Giacobbi, & Leite, 2010; Watson et al., 1988). The correlation between positive and negative affect scores in a study ranged between $r = -.12$, $p < .05$, and $r = -.23$, $p < .05$ (Watson et al., 1988). While some correlations are significant, they are small enough to support the orthogonality of the scales (Tuccitto et al., 2010). Watson and colleagues (1988) argue that the scales only share 1-5% of their variance. Confirmatory factor analysis also concluded a two-factor solution was the most appropriate model, with CFI = .99, and RMSEA =.05 (Tuccitto et al., 2010).

Self-compassion scale (SCS) (Neff, 2003b).

The Self-Compassion Scale consists of 26 items measuring the dimensions of self-compassion, including self-kindness (five items) versus self-judgment (five items), common humanity (four items) versus isolation (four items), and mindfulness (four items) versus over-identification (four items). Sample items include, "I'm tolerant of my flaws and inadequacies" (self-kindness), "When I'm down and out, I remind myself that there are lots of other people in the world feeling like I am" (common humanity), and "When something upsets me I try to keep my emotions in balance" (mindfulness). Participants responded on a five-point Likert scale of "Almost Never" to "Almost Always," and all scores were summed for a total self-compassion score. Several items measuring the maladaptive side of each dimension of self-compassion were reverse scored. Items from each subscale were summed for each of the dimensions of self-compassion. The factor structure of the self-compassion scale supports the theoretical conceptualization of a six-factor scale (Neff, 2003b, 2016). CFI coefficients for all the subscales were .91 or higher (Neff, 2003b).

The test-retest reliability of the scale has been reported as .93 after three weeks (Neff, 2003b). Each of the subscales also demonstrated strong internal consistency reliability coefficients: .78 for self-kindness, .77 for self-judgment, .80 for common humanity, .79 for isolation, .75 for mindfulness, and .81 for overidentification (Neff, 2003b).

The evidence regarding the validity of the scale has been strong. Theoretically-congruent relationships with other scales have been reported, such as a statistically significant negative relationship of $r = -.65$, $p < .01$, with the self-criticism subscale of

Blatt, D'Afflitti and Quinlan's (1976) Depressive Experiences Questionnaire (Neff, 2003b). Neff (2003b) also found statistically significant negative relationships with the Beck Depression Inventory (r = -.51, $p < .01$; Beck et al., 1961) and the STAI (r = -.65, $p < .01$; Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970) while having a statistically significant positive relationship of r = .45, $p < .01$, with the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985).

The validity of the SCS has also been examined in other languages and cultures, including Spanish (Garcia-Campayo et al., 2014), Turkish (Deniz, Kesici, & Sumer, 2008), Japanese (Arimitsu, 2014), Iranian (Azizi, Mohammadkhani, Lotfi, & Bahramkhani, 2013), Portuguese (Castilho & Pinto-Gouveia, 2011), Italian (Petrocchi, Ottaviani, & Couyoumdjian, 2013), and Greek (Mantzios, Wilson, & Giannou, 2013). This research demonstrated empirical support that the SCS might be used internationally**.**

A short-form of the instrument has been developed, and its validity examined (Raes, Pommier, Neff, & Van Gucht, 2011). While the scale correlates well with the long-form (r = .98, $p < .01$), there were some issues. Unsatisfactory Cronbach alphas on the self-kindness (.55), common humanity (.60), mindfulness (.64), and over-identification (.69) subscales have been reported (Raes et al., 2011). As a result, the shorter version was rejected in favor of the full-length version in the main study of this dissertation.

Affective commitment subscale of the three-component model of employee commitment survey (Meyer et al., 1993).

The Three-Component Model of Employee Commitment Survey is an 18-item scale used to measure affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer et al., 1993). Affective commitment was used in the main study because of its affective nature;

it should be more closely related to an affective reaction than continuance or normative commitment. Also, Solinger and colleagues (2008) argue affective commitment is the only true theoretical form of commitment. Due to these theoretical considerations, and to reduce survey fatigue, the main study in this dissertation only examined affective commitment, not continuance or normative commitment.

The full 18-item instrument has demonstrated strong internal consistency reliability. Cronbach alpha coefficients have rarely fallen below 0.70 for the total scale and average 0.85 for the affective commitment scale (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Powell & Meyer, 2004). Test-retest reliabilities have been inconsistent for the affective commitment scale, ranging from 0.38 to 0.94 (Allen & Meyer, 1996). A possible explanation for the low test-retest reliability may be that the data was collected from newcomers to the organization, and some level of temporal instability would be expected (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Also, the test-retest reliability numbers are similar to those reported on other widely-used measures of commitment, such as the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

With respect to validity, confirmatory factor analysis results indicate that all three subscales load appropriately onto three factors (Meyer et al., 1993). The scales also demonstrate theoretically-justified relationships with similar constructs such as the affective scale having statistically significant relationships with job satisfaction ranging from $r = .50$ to $r = .64$, $p < .05$, job involvement ranging from $r = .33$ to $r =. 55$, $p < .05$, and positive affect in the low .30s, $p < .05$ (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The affective scale

was also found to have a significant negative relationship with negative affect (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

There are six items on the affective commitment scale. Example items include, "I would be delighted to spend the rest of my career with this organization" and "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me." The affective commitment scale has also shown good convergent validity with other commitment scales, such as the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer et al., 1993), with correlations ranging from r =0.71 to 0.89, $p < .05$ (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Turnover intentions (Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith, 2013).

Turnover intentions were assessed using a four-item scale based on work by Tett and Meyer (1993). Tett and Meyer conducted a meta-analysis of turnover intention scales and concluded that multi-item measures account for more variance in the dependent variable than single-item measures of turnover intentions. Other studies have used one item or two, but those studies have reported lower internal consistency (e.g., Begley & Czajka, 1993). Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith (2013) reported a Cronbach alpha of .89. Responses to their scale are on a seven-point Likert scale of "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." The items are: "I often think of quitting this job," "I am always on the lookout for a better job," "I will likely look for another job during the next year," and "There isn't much to be gained by staying in this job." Items are averaged for an overall score.

Demographic questions.

All of the demographic characteristics surveyed in the pilot were used again in the main study. These included gender, age, ethnicity, managerial versus non-managerial

work role, number of hours worked per week, and education level. Also, the severity of visual impairment was assessed using items from research on adult rehabilitation and employment conducted by the PDRIB (Bell & Mino, 2013). The individual's self-identification as visually impaired, blind, or sighted was captured via the following item: "How do you self-identify?" Age of impairment or blindness were assessed via the following item: "At what age (in years) did you first become legally blind or severely visually impaired?"

Participants also rated the severity of their impairment by responding to two items: "What was your visual acuity in your better eye, with correction, when you first became legally blind or visually impaired?" and "What is your visual acuity today in your better eye, with correction?" Participants were able to select options increasing in severity from "20/200 or better" to "Totally blind."

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CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Pilot Study

To assess the psychometric properties of the MNWE scale, and the INWE scale, several confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) were conducted. For both scales, CFA provided a more robust assessment of the scales than exploratory approaches, as the error parameters can be estimated in CFA. Since previous research had been conducted on the MNWE scale, CFA was thought to be the most rigorous test to employ. Regarding the INWE scale, CFA was proposed as the appropriate assessment of the psychometric properties of the scale, since a simple, one-factor solution was hypothesized. The single proposed factor, "importance," was not considered a highly complex, multifaceted construct, and therefore no exploratory factor analysis was conducted.

While no fixed standard values of "good fit" measures exist, some argue that robust measures of fit include χ^2 goodness of fit, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (Brown, 2015). To be more specific, an insignificant-value for the χ^2, an RMSEA of less than .08, SRMR of less than .1, a TLI approaching 1, and a CFI of .9 or higher indicate good fit (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Also, the Aikake Information Criterion (AIC) was used as an indicator of a good fit (Van de Schoot, Lugtig, & Hox, 2012).

CFA was used to examine the extent of the proposed measurement model of each scale that fits the data. The hypothesized models were examined using the maximum likelihood method. The model fit for the INWE will be discussed first, followed by the MWNE.

Importance of Negative Work Events

A composite scale consisting of all 16-items on the INWE was created, and its internal consistency examined. The Cronbach alpha for the 16-item scale was 0.92. However, an examination of the descriptive statistics of the items comprising the INWE indicated some nonnormality in the data. Seven of the 16 items had either a skewness or kurtosis value of greater than one or less than minus one. With the seven items removed, the internal consistency of the 9-item scale was virtually unchanged (a = 0.923). As a result, subsequent analyses examined the model fit of both the original 16-item and the shorter 9-item version of the INWE scale.

One-factor models for the INWE scale were tested via CFA. These measurement models consisted of one latent factor, importance, but the number of observed indicators varied. The first model included all 16-items loading onto one factor. The fit indices for the full, 16-item model were $x^2 = 1168.91$, $df = 104$, $SRMR = 0.084$, $TLI = .773$, $CFI = 0.803$, $AIC = 1232.912$, and $RMSEA = 0.145$. The 16-item, one-factor scale did not demonstrate adequate fit, as the TLI and CFI, and the RMSEA did not meet their respective criteria (Cangur & Ercan, 2015; Kline, 2015). In addition, there was evidence of multivariate outliers in the data (i.e., Mahalanobis distance values greater than chi-squared = 39.25, $df = 16$, $p < 0.001$). Data from 15 individuals were removed, resulting in a sample size of 473 for subsequent analyses.

The second model was the 9-item, one-factor version of the INWE (i.e., removing the seven items showing strong evidence of skewness or kurtosis as described above). The fit statistics for the 9-item model were x^2 = 205.450, *df* = 27, *SRMR* = 0.060, *TLI* = 0.897, *CFI* = 0.922, AIC = 295.450 and *RMSEA* = 0.135. While some indices indicated improved fit improved over the 16-item model, the second model did not reach a level of adequate fit in regards to the TLI and RMSEA.

The third model was a slight respecification of the 9-item, one-factor model in which five error terms were allowed to covary. These changes were based on modification indices and an examination of the items' content (Kline, 2015; Brown, 2015). Five error terms were allowed to covary which improved the fit indices to x^2 = 110.492, *df* = 22, *SRMR* = 0.040, *TLI* = 0.952, *CFI* = 0.97, *AIC* = 156.492 and *RMSEA* = 0.092. While the fit indices were improved, the SRMR and RMSEA were still inadequate. The fit statistics for both versions of the 9-item model are shown in Table 1.

Given the failure of the items to exhibit a clear one-factor model, the researcher re-examined the content of the nine items. Upon closer inspection, the researcher hypothesized that more than one factor might be operating. Some items appeared to be measuring the importance of the work event (i.e., "The event was important to me personally," "The event mattered a lot to me," "The event was a big deal to me personally, and "The event was significant to me personally"). Other items appeared to measure the consequences of the event (i.e., "The consequences of this event were negative" and "The event was serious"). Additionally, one item appeared ambiguous ("I thought a lot about the event"), while another referenced the views of others ("Most people would think this event was important"). Therefore, the researcher hypothesized

that a two-factor model (importance and consequences) would be a better fit for the data from the items (excluding the ambiguous and other-referencing items).

A model testing a two-factor solution with seven items was tested with CFA, and, as hypothesized, the fit indices were much better than any of the one-factor models: x^2 = 65.330, *df* = 13, *SRMR* = 0.034, *TLI* =0.963 *CFI* = 0.977, *AIC* = 95.330 and *RMSEA* = 0.092. Based on modification indices and examination of item content, the 7-item, the two-factor model was slightly respecified. Item 14 ("The event mattered a lot to me") was allowed to crossload on both factors. This minor change improved the fit indices to x^2 = 39.099, *df* = 12, *SRMR* = 0.027, *TLI* = 0.979, *CFI* = 0.988, *AIC* = 71.099 and *RMSEA* = 0.069, which are much more acceptable values for fit indices (Cangur & Ercan, 2015; Kline, 2015). Table 1 shows the fit indices for the one- and two-factor models tested via CFA. In comparing the various models tested, the fifth and final model, the 7-item model that allowed one item to cross-load, demonstrated the best fit.

The standardized regression loadings and correlations between factors in the final 7-item, two-factor model are shown in Figure 3. The first factor represents the importance of the negative workplace event, as indicated by four items. The second factor represents the consequences of the event and is indicated via four items. These findings are interpretable and support the construction of an importance scale with good psychometric properties such as normality and reliability. Specifically, for the 4-item importance scale (*M* = 20.36, *SD* = 6.34), it demonstrated adequate normality with both skewness and kurtosis of below one and above minus one.

Table 1

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of Five INWE Models

Fit Indices	16-Item, 1 Factor	9-Item, 1 Factor **	9-Item, 1 Factor, Revised**	7-Item, 2 Factors**	7-Item, 2 Factors Revised**
x^2	1168.912*	259.450*	110.492*	65.330*	39.099*
df	104	27	22	13	12
SRMR	0.084	0.060	0.040	0.034	0.027
TLI	0.773	0.897	0.952	0.963	0.979
CFI	0.803	0.922	0.970	0.977	0.988
RMSEA	0.145	0.135	0.092	0.092	0.069
AIC	1232.912	295.450	156.492	85.330	71.099

Note. N = 488. x^2 = Chi Square; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Residual; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Confirmatory Fit Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; AIC = Aikake Information Criterion.
$*p <0 .000$.
**$n = 473$.

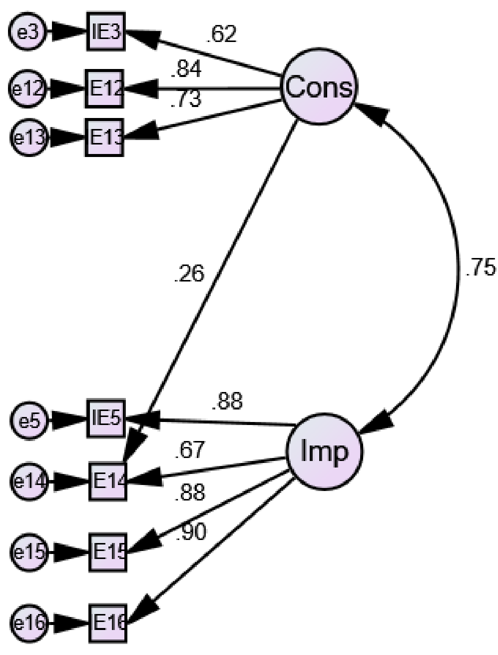

*Figure 3***.** Final 7-item, Two-Factor Model: Importance and Consequences Factors

A visual inspection of the histogram also indicated adequate normality. The reliability was also satisfactory with a Cronbach alpha of a =0.923. In remaining analyses, the latent construct of the importance of negative events experienced at work will be measured using the 4-item importance factor described in the final model.

Motivation of the Negative Work Event

According to Desselles and colleagues (2014), the reversal theory state scale measured eight latent factors, each containing three observed variables. However, the MNWE scale was developed using exploratory factor analysis. Also, the original use for the MNWE scale was intended for more temporally proximate situations than the situations used in this study (Desselles et al., 2014). The state measure was initially designed for use during the event in question or immediately after. Thus, it was prudent to assess the fit of the 8-factor solution using a confirmatory approach (CFA) when the time gap between the event and the ratings was increased from immediately after the event to two weeks after the event.

Examination of the descriptive statistics of the MNWE item-level data revealed all items had adequate normality, with skewness and kurtosis values within the acceptable ranges (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Reliabilities of the eight proposed subscales ranged from a Cronbach's alpha of $a = 0.687$ to $a = 0.925$. The subscale with the lowest internal consistency was the rebellious subscale. The other seven subscales had reliability estimates of at least 0.74 and were above the recommended 0.70 minimum (Nunnally, 1978). While the reliability of the rebellious scale was a concern, the CFA proceeded with the model as initially specified.

The first model tested was originally proposed by Desselles and colleagues (2014), and consisted of eight factors with four indicator variables each. The model showed adequate fit with the following fit indices: x^2 = 632.139, *df* = 224, *CFI =0.*938, *RMSEA* = 0.062, *SRMR* = 0.055, *AIC* = 784.139 and *TLI* = 0.924 (Kline, 2015; Brown, 2015). No modifications were made to the scale because it had been previously established, and the fit indices were adequate. The results for the analyses on the MNWE scale are summarized in Table 2, and the final model is shown in Figure 4.

These findings provide evidence that the scale may be adapted to measure the state of mind someone was in when an event occurred two weeks ago. The factor structure of the scale is consistent with that predicted by the theory, and the scale was converted to a force-choice format for the main study. The choice of a forced-choice format is driven by the motivational dynamics described in reversal theory (e.g., Apter, 2001), and the approach is consistent with that taken in the development of the reversal theory state measure (Desselles et al., 2014).

Table 2

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of the MWNE Scale

Fit Indices	8-Factor Model with Three Observed Variables
x^2	632.139*
df	224
SRMR	0.055
TLI	0.924
CFI	0.938
RMSEA	0.062
AIC	784.139

Note*:* *n* = 488. x^2 = Chi Square; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Residual; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Confirmatory Fit Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. AIC = Aikake Information Criterion
**p < 0.000.*

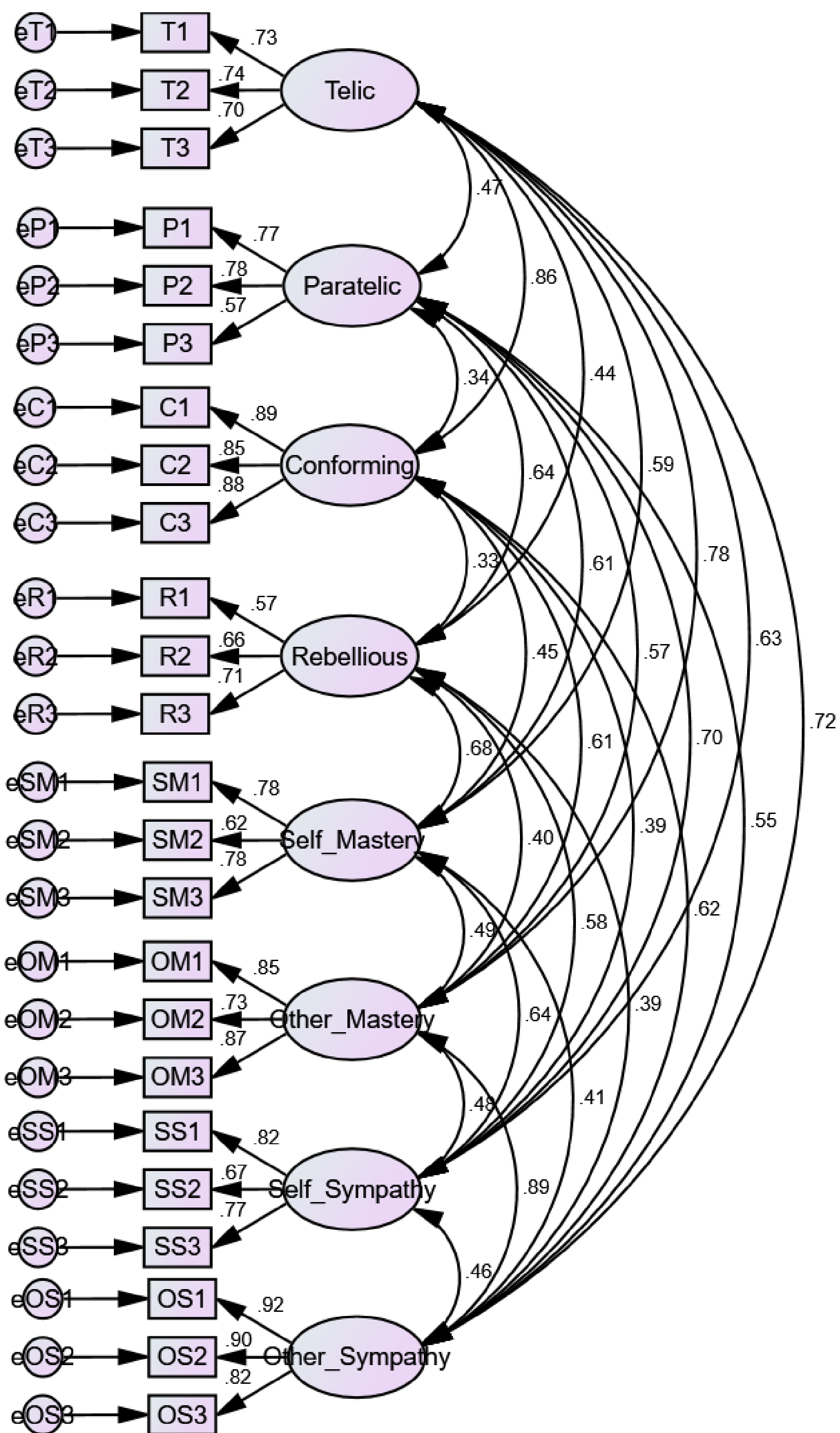

Figure 4. 8-Factor Model with Three Observed Variables Each

Main Study

The means and standard deviations of the eight scales used to test the hypotheses are shown in Table 3. Correlations and Cronbach alphas of the scales may be found in Table 4.

Table 3

Variable Descriptive Statistics: Means and Standard Deviations

Variable	*M*	*SD*
Self-Compassion	3.16	0.64
Negative Affect	22.56	8.74
INWE	22.27	5.54
Self- Kindness	3.12	0.82
Common Humanity	3.21	0.80
Mindfulness	3.49	0.78
Affective Commitment	4.47	1.51
Turnover Intention	3.45	1.84

n = 252

Table 4

Variable Descriptive Statistics: Correlations and Cronbach Alphas

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Self-Compassion	(0.71)							
2. Negative Affect	-0.39**	(0.87)						
3. INWE	-0.08	0.37**	(0.89)					
4. Self-Kindness	0.80**	-0.16*	-0.01	(0.84)				
5. Common Humanity	0.60**	-0.02	0.09	0.57**	(0.75)			
6. Mindfulness	0.76**	-0.18**	0.10	0.64**	0.65**	(0.78)		
7. Affective Com	0.09	-0.17**	0.01	0.11	0.07	0.09	(0.85)	
8. Turnover Intention	-0.08	0.27**	0.11	0.02	0.05	0.03	-0.56**	(0.86)

Note: *n* = 252, INWE = Importance of Negative Work Event, Affective Com = Affective Commitment

$*p < 0.05$ $**p < 0.01$

Hypothesis 1 stated that self-compassion would moderate the relationship between the importance of the negative event and the negative affective response to that event. Specifically, higher self-compassion was expected to weaken the relationship. Hierarchical linear regression was used to test this hypothesis. Before conducting the regression analysis, assumptions around normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity were tested. A visual examination of the distribution of the predictor and outcome variables demonstrated they were reasonably normally distributed in the shape of a bell curve. The turnover intention had a slight kurtosis of -1.15. However, it still falls within the acceptable range of ±2 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The assumption of linear relationships between the dependent variable and both the predictor and moderator variables was supported by examination of the respective scatterplots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The examination of the scatterplot of standardized residuals suggested the dispersion of scores met the assumption of homoscedasticity. Multicollinearity did not appear to be an issue, as the highest variance inflation factor (VIF) value was 1.03, and none of the tolerance levels were below 0.1 (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990). The predictor, importance of the negative work event (INWE), and the moderator, self-compassion, were standardized to compare the regression coefficients across terms in the model (Field, 2018). After standardization, the coefficients would represent the change in the outcome variable associated with a one standard deviation change in the predictor.

The first step in the hierarchical linear regression to test Hypothesis 1, INWE, and self-compassion variables were entered. Together, INWE and self-compassion accounted for 27% of the variance in negative affect (F (2, 249) = 45.65; p <0.001). In the second

step, the interaction term was entered to test the moderation effect. In the second term, the interaction term accounted for very little additional variance in negative affect (0.001%), and the change in the R^2 value was not significant ($\Delta R^2 = 0.000$; ΔF (1, 248) = 0.13, $p = 0.72$). The results (see Table 5) suggest self-compassion does not moderate the relationship between INWE and negative affect.

Hypothesis 1a, 1b, and 1c stated that the three subcomponents of self-compassion, self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness, would predict negative affect. The hypothesized direction of the relationships was negative, such that the higher each of these subcomponents, the lower the negative affect. These hypotheses were tested with multiple linear regression.

First, the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity were evaluated. An examination of the histograms and distributions of scores showed reasonable normality, as well as skewness and kurtosis below two and above minus two. An inspection of the scatterplots supported the linearity assumption that all predictors were linearly related to the dependent variable, based on the observed elliptical shape of the relationships between variables. The variance inflation factor (VIF) values for all the variables were around two, and the tolerance was above 0.1, which suggests the absence of multicollinearity (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990). An inspection of the scatterplot of the standardized residuals indicated the assumption of homoscedasticity was met.

Table 5

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Self-Compassion as a Moderator of the INWE Negative Affect Relationship

Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	*t*	*p*	Lower CI 95%	Upper CI 95%	R^2	F	*p*	ΔR^2	ΔF	Δp
Step 1								0.27	45.65	0.000			
INWE	0.55	0.09	0.35	6.35	0.000	0.38	0.71						
Self-compassion	-4.93	0.75	-0.36	-6.62	0.000	-6.40	-3.47						
Step 2								0.27	30.37	0.000	0.000	0.13	0.72
INWE	0.54	0.09	0.35	6.33	0.000	0.38	0.71						
Self-compassion	-4.89	0.76	-0.36	-6.47	0.000	-6.38	-3.40						
INWE x SC	-0.18	0.51	-0.02	-0.36	0.72	-1.19	0.82						

N = 252

Having met the assumptions, a multiple linear regression was conducted to predict negative affect from self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness. The results are presented in Table 6. The model that included all three predictors, self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness, was statistically significant and accounted for 6% of the variance in negative affect (F (3, 248) = 4.87; p = 0.003). Mindfulness (β = -0.23, p = 0.012) predicted negative affect, holding the effects of the other variables constant. The relationship was negative, such that as mindfulness increased, the experience of negative emotions decreased. Common humanity was also significantly related to negative affect (β = 0.19, p =0 .02), holding the other predictors constant. However, this relationship was in the opposite direction than hypothesized (i.e., positive rather than negative). The higher the community humanity score, the higher the negative affect reported. Self-kindness (β = -0.12, p = 0.15) was not related to negative affect, when the other predictors were held constant. Therefore, Hypotheses 1a and b were not supported, while Hypothesis 1c was supported.

Hypothesis 2 stated that affective commitment would partially mediate the relationship between affective reactions and turnover intentions. The hypothesized model is depicted in Figure 2. A series of regression analyses were conducted to determine if the initial mediation conditions of Baron and Kenny (1986) and Hayes (2009) were met. The conditions that must be met are that the independent variable (negative affect) significantly predicts the mediator (affective commitment) and that the mediator must significantly predict the dependent variable (turnover intentions).

Table 6

Multiple Regression: Negative Affect Predicted by Self-Kindness, Common Humanity, and Mindfulness

Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	*t*	*p*	Lower CI 95%	Upper CI 95%	R^2	F	*p*
Model								0.06	4.87	0.003
Self-Kindness	-1.3	0.89	-0.12	-1.46	0.15	-3.06	0.46			
Common Humanity	2.09	0.91	0.19	2.29	0.02	0.29	3.89			
Mindfulness	-2.55	1.01	-0.23	-2.52	0.01	-4.54	-0.56			

n = 252

Hayes (2009) argued that the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable did not have to be significant because the mediator could weaken the relationship. Regardless of whether or not there is a statistical significance, any existing relationship would be weakened by the introduction of the mediator into the model.

The results of the regression analyses indicated that the independent variable, negative affect, significantly predicted the mediator, affective commitment ($\beta = -0.17$, $p = 0.006$). Both the independent variable, negative affect ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < 0.001$), and the mediator, affective commitment ($\beta = -0.56$, $p < 0.001$), significantly predicted turnover intentions. When the mediator, affective commitment, was entered into the model, the relationship between negative affect and turnover intentions was weakened, but still statistically significant ($\beta = 0.18$, $p = 0.001$). These findings suggest that the initial conditions of mediation were met. A bias-corrected bootstrap analysis was conducted with a 95% confidence interval to examine the indirect effects. Five thousand bootstrap samples were created using the original dataset. The results of the bootstrapping indicated the indirect effect of negative affect on turnover intentions through affective commitment was statistically significant ($B = 0.02$, $\beta = 0.09$, $SE = 0.03$, 95% CI [0.03, 0.16]). These findings suggest the relationship between negative affect and turnover intentions was partially mediated by affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3 stated that each of the three sub-facets of self-compassion (self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness) would be positively related to affective commitment. Hypothesis 3a stated that common humanity would have the strongest

relationship to affective commitment out of the three sub-facets of self-compassion. Both of these hypotheses were tested using multiple regression.

Before the regression, the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity were evaluated. An examination of the histograms and distributions of scores showed reasonable normality, and the skewness and kurtosis values were below two and above minus two, thus meeting the normality assumption. An inspection of the scatterplots supported the linearity assumption as all predictors were linearly related to the dependent variable. The variance inflation factors for all the variables were around two, and the tolerance levels were above 0.1, which suggests the absence of multicollinearity (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990). An inspection of the scatterplot of the dispersion of the standardized residuals indicated the assumption of homoscedasticity was met.

After the examinations of the assumptions, a multiple linear regression was conducted to predict affective commitment, based on self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness. The results are presented in Table 7. Self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness accounted for 1.3% of the variance in affective commitment, F (3, 248) = 1.05; p =0 .37. Self-kindness (β = 0.08, p = 0.33), common humanity (β = -0.02, p = 0.99), and mindfulness (β = 0.04, p = 0.67) did not significantly predict affective commitment. Therefore, no support for Hypothesis 3 was found, and Hypothesis 3a was not supported, as the relationship between common humanity and affective commitment was not significant.

Table 7

Multiple Regression: Affective Commitment Predicted by Self-Kindness, Common Humanity, and Mindfulness

Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	*t*	*p*	Lower CI 95%	Upper CI 95%	R^2	F	*p*
Model								0.013	1.05	0.37
Self-Kindness	0.150	0.16	0.080	0.98	0.33	-0.16	0.46			
Common Humanity	-0.003	0.16	-0.002	-0.02	0.99	-0.32	0.31			
Mindfulness	0.080	0.18	0.040	0.43	0.67	-0.28	0.43			

n = 252

Hypothesis 3b stated that each of the three sub-facets of self-compassion would be negatively related to turnover intentions. Hypothesis 3c stated that common humanity would again have the most robust relationship between the three sub-facets. These hypotheses were both tested in the same multiple regression. All the assumptions of multiple regression were tested in the same way as the previous hypothesis, and all were supported. An examination of the histograms and distributions of scores showed reasonable normality, and the skewness and kurtosis values were below two and above minus two, thus meeting the normality assumption. An inspection of the scatterplots supported the linearity assumption as all predictors were linearly related to the dependent variable. The variance inflation factors for all the variables were around two, and the tolerance values were above 0.1, which suggests the absence of multicollinearity (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990).

After the examinations of the assumptions, a multiple linear regression was conducted to predict turnover intentions, based on self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness. The results are presented in Table 8. Self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness accounted for 0.3% of the variance in turnover intentions, F (3, 248) = 0.229; $p = 0.88$. Self-kindness ($\beta = -0.01$, $p = 0.87$), common humanity ($\beta = 0.06$, $p = 0.48$), and mindfulness ($\beta = -0.004$, $p = 0.97$) did not significantly predict turnover intentions. Therefore, no support for Hypothesis 3b was found, and Hypothesis 3c was not supported, as the relationship between common humanity and turnover intentions was not significant.

Table 8

Multiple Regression: Turnover Intentions Predicted by Self-Kindness, Common Humanity, and Mindfulness

Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	*t*	*p*	Lower CI 95%	Upper CI 95%	R^2	F	*p*
Model								0.003	0.229	0.88
Self-Kindness	-0.03	0.19	-0.01	-0.17	0.87	-0.41	0.35			
Common Humanity	0.14	0.20	0.06	0.71	0.48	-0.25	0.53			
Mindfulness	-0.01	0.22	-0.004	-0.04	0.97	-0.44	0.42			

n = 252

In addition to the hypotheses, there was an additional research question in this dissertation regarding the distribution of the negative events across the reversal theory states. As reversal theory was not the central focus of this dissertation study, an exploratory examination of the frequency of reversal theory states was conducted. The results of the exploratory analysis are described below.

The majority of participants were in the telic state (i.e., concerned with accomplishing something for the future, doing something serious, and/or doing something crucial) at the time of the negative event. A total of 71.0% of participants endorsed the telic state response option (*n* = 179), opposed to 5.9% who endorsed the paratelic state response option (*n* = 15). A total of 23.0% indicated they were not motivated by either the telic or paratelic states (*n* = 58). A chi-square analysis was conducted and was significant (x^2 = 178.77, $p < 0.001$).

The majority of participants were conforming (i.e., concerned with doing what they were supposed to do, doing what was expected of them, and/or doing their duty) at the time of the negative event. 3.2% of participants endorsed the rebellious state response option (*n* = 8), opposed to 84.1% who endorsed the conforming state response option (*n* = 212). A total of 12.7% of participants indicated they were not motivated by either of the response options relating to the rebellious or conforming states. A chi-square analysis was conducted and was significant (x^2 = 298.12, $p < 0.001$).

The majority of participants (31.7%, *n* = 80) were in the other-mastery state (i.e., concerned with helping others to succeed, helping others to be powerful, and/or strengthening others). A total of 5.2% of participants endorsed the self-sympathy state response option (*n* = 13), 16.3% endorsed the self-mastery state item-response option

(*n 0*= 41), 17.9% endorsed the other-sympathy state response option (*n* = 45), and 31.7% endorsed the other-mastery state response option. A total of 29% of participants were not motivated by any of the response options relating to the self/other and sympathy/mastery state combinations (*n* = 79). A chi-square analysis was conducted and was significant (x^2 = 57.66, $p < 0.001$).

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The results of this dissertation demonstrated no evidence that self-compassion had an impact on workplace outcomes such as affective commitment. However, the study still contributed to the literature by examining constructs developed within the disciplines of counseling psychology and industrial-organizational psychology, with people with disabilities. The following paragraphs will explain the implications of the results, limitations of the dissertation, and the potential areas that future research could explore.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 stated that self-compassion would moderate the relationship between the importance of the event and the negative affect experienced by the individual. This hypothesis was not supported. Self-compassion had no statistically significant influence over the strength or direction of the relationship between the importance of the event, and the level of negative affect experienced by the participant. These results suggest self-compassion did not buffer the negative affect experienced.

Possible explanations for this result could have been because self-compassion was, in reality, not a moderator, but should be hypothesized to be a mediator between the importance of the event and the negative affect experienced. Perhaps a different model, where self-compassion is mediator or moderator on the other side of negative affect

Experienced. Perhaps a different model, where self-compassion is mediator or moderator on the other side of negative affect would find significant results. Perhaps self-compassion could be a mediator or moderator between negative affect and turnover, or affective commitment. If neither of these alternates is borne out in future research among diverse populations, then the importance of self-compassion in organizational psychology dwindles substantially.

Hypotheses 1a,1b,1c stated that the three subfacets of self-compassion would be negatively related to negative affect. The support for these three hypotheses was mixed. Self-kindness (1a) was not significantly related to negative affect. This indicates that the level of grace and kindness an individual extended to themselves did not influence the negative affect experienced. Common humanity (1b) was significant but in the opposite direction, and therefore not supported. Finally, mindfulness (1c) was significantly related to negative affect in the proposed direction and therefore supported.

The results of this dissertation conflicts with research by Leary and colleagues (2007). While they found that self-compassion can buffer and reduce negative affect, this study only found evidence of this for the mindfulness subfacet of self-compassion. It is possible that mindfulness could be the most critical aspect of self-compassion in this relationship, as it was the only variable to have a significant negative relationship with negative affect. Previous research has already found evidence supporting the positive impactions of mindfulness in the workplace (see Hyland et al., 2015), so it is possible that some of the positive findings on self-compassion, such in the Leary studies (Leary et al., 2007), were driven mostly by the mindfulness subfacet.

As previously stated, a statistically significant relationship between common humanity and negative affect was found, but in the opposite direction than what was hypothesized. This suggests that as common humanity goes up, the amount of negative affect goes up. At first glance, it does not seem intuitive that a person's who understands that they are not the only ones experiencing suffering or making mistakes would be more likely to experience a higher level of negative affect. Perhaps it has to do with the phrasing of the everyday humanity items in the self-compassion scale used by researchers (Neff, 2003b). Neff (2003a) describes common humanity as an understanding and acceptance that all humans are flawed, and no one is perfect. However, the items might not be interpreted and may have been interpreted more negatively. This will be discussed more in the limitations section.

Hypothesis 2 stated that affective commitment would partially mediate the relationship between affective reactions and turnover intentions. This hypothesis was supported. Other literature has supported parts of this model, such as the relationship between negative affect and organizational commitment (Wegge et al., 2006). As previously mentioned, negative affect is related to more withdrawal behaviors (Kaplan et al., 2009). However, to the researcher's knowledge, no studies involving negative affect, commitment, and turnover have examined a sample of working individuals with significant visual impairment. The idea behind Hypothesis 2 is intuitive: if employees experience less negative emotion at work, they are more likely to be committed and stay with the organization.

The key take-away of Hypothesis 2 is that organizations should invest resources into their employees' affective experience of work. Ignoring the emotions of their

employees, specifically the negative ones, could result in costly turnover for the organization. Employees who experience less negative affect are more likely to be committed to the organization at an emotional level, which means they are less likely to leave. The emotions we experience on the job influence how committed we feel towards a job. Affective commitment and negative affect predicted 36% of the variance in turnover in this present study. They should not be ignored by organizations.

Hypothesis 3 stated that the three subfacets of self-compassion, self-kindness, common humanity and mindfulness would be positively related to affective commitment. Hypothesis 3a stated that of the three subfacets, common humanity would have the strongest relationship. No support for found for either Hypothesis 3 or Hypothesis 3a. While these results suggest that self-compassion does not influence affective commitment, it is possible these results were skewed by the phrasing of the common humanity items in the self-compassion scale (Neff, 2003b). As expressed in the explanation of the findings in Hypothesis 1b, it is possible that the phrasing of the common humanity items could have triggered more feelings of hopelessness or despair in them than the theoretical construct would have.

Another possible explanation of these results may be that self-compassion influences commitment through another variable, such as negative affect. Perhaps self-compassion acts as a moderator or mediator between negative affect and turnover, as a coping mechanism of positive reinterpretation (Neff et al., 2005). In other words, high people in self-compassion talk to and treat themselves more kindly than those who are low, and this leads to less negative affect.

Research Question

Reversal theory state measures were also self-reported by participants. This was done to explore the distribution of the reversal theory states and answer the previously posed research question: How will the events distribute across the various states? The results regarding the distribution of scores on the state measure were not surprising. Most participants were in the telic and conforming states. The large number of participants indicating they were in the telic states follows reversal theory because they are likely serious and focused on accomplishing a goal at work during the time of the event. Such a large percentage of the participants being in the conforming states at the moment of the negative event follows reversal theory because they wanted to fit in and participate in the work of the organization of which they were a part. According to Apter (2007), when a state's motivation is not met, it results in dissatisfaction. It is possible that part of their negative reaction came from a state dissatisfaction. In other words, the event hindered them, distracted them, or kept them from doing what's expected of them and / or contributing something meaningful at work.

Another result of note was that the majority of the participants were either in the other-mastery state (32%) or the other-sympathy state (18%). While not as pronounced as the split between the telic and paratelic states or the rebellious and conforming results, it is interesting because it implies that most of the participants were more concerned about the needs and accomplishments of others, not themselves.

These two data points interpreted holistically describe employees who are good organizational citizens. Perhaps future research could examine the statistical significance between these states to explore further the extent to which during or immediately after

negative events, people with significant visual impairments want to fit in, want to do good work, accomplish their goals, and care about the welfare of others. If so, organizations would do well to invest in channeling this energy into positive outcomes. Granting accommodations and better opportunities to people with significant visual impairment or blindness will help channel these positive motivations into effective outcomes if they are found.

Limitations

The following research limitations are organized into three categories: research design limitations, data analysis limitations, and sample limitations. The limitations unique to the pilot study and the main study are described within each of the aforementioned categories, if applicable.

Research Design

There are several limitations in the research design for both studies. Both were cross-sectional rather than longitudinal studies. As a result, the data was collected at one snapshot in time. This type of design does not allow for the variable time to be examined in the study. For instance, in the main study, it would have been interesting to examine the effects of negative work events on negative affect over time, such as in a time series design or diary study. Besides, the impact of changes in affect on the outcome variables examined. In other words, perhaps it is not the level of affect experienced but the change in affect that has a stronger relationship to the outcome variables. A longitudinal design was not undertaken for this study due to the costly financial resources required, as the

current cross-sectional was resources-heavy. This leads to a research limitation unique to the main study.

In the main study, neither the duration nor the frequency of negative events were measured. Participants were asked to focus on a single, specific event occurring in the past two weeks. As previously mentioned, the more time that passes from an event, the higher the chances that the event will be recalled incorrectly, as cognitive biases are more likely to skew memory (Robinson & Clore, 2002; Weiss & Beal, 2005). The two-week time frame was chosen to reduce the chance of bias while still allowing for enough time for a negative event to have occurred. The benefits of this approach are that there is a higher likelihood that an increased number of participants sampled would have experienced a negative event and that from a research design perspective, it is not over-complex to undertake. However, measuring the level of affect immediately after the event would have potentially reduced the cognitive bias associated with the recall of the event but would have also been challenging to implement as it would mean finding people with significant visual impairment who had just gone through a negative event. As previously mentioned, a diary-study would have been too resource-heavy. Using an online survey methodology allowed me to survey a representative sample who had experienced negative events while still reasonably recalling them and without incurring excessive costs in the process.

As mentioned briefly in the previous chapter, the self-compassion scale (Neff, 2003a) appeared to have shortcomings regarding the construct validity of some of the common humanity items. According to Neff (2012), common humanity is the idea that all humans are flawed, all experience suffering, and no one is truly alone in their

experience. Neff's interpretation is positive when discussing the construct definition of common humanity. However, the way the items are phrased could have been interpreted differently by different participants. For example, take the following items: "…I see difficulties as part of life that everyone goes through." "…I try to remind myself that feelings of inadequacy are shared by most people (Neff, 2003b)." These items might be read as "nobody's perfect" to some, but to others, it could be "everyone is suffering, including me." The latter has a much more negative and hopeless interpretation. This limitation could have contributed to the unanticipated positive rather than negative relationship between common humanity and negative affect that was found when testing Hypothesis 1b and the lack of any significant relationship between common humanity and turnover intentions when testing Hypothesis 3a.

Data Analysis

Limitations within the data were found during the analysis. These were the kurtosis of the turnover intentions variable, and the reliability of the rebellious subscale in the MWNE scale.

In the pilot study, the alphas of the MNWE scale, while adequate, had a range of 0.687 to 0.925. The lowest alpha was for the rebellious state scale and was slightly below the threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2003). The MNWE scale was included to explore the research questions; therefore, concerns about the scale's validity did not impact the main hypotheses of the study.

The final data limitation was in the main study during the analysis of the turnover intentions data. While the other variables were evaluated to possess adequate qualities of normality, turnover intentions had a slight kurtosis. This could have potentially injected

additional error variance into the testing of Hypothesis 2. The kurtosis was not extreme, but still worth mentioning.

Sample

There are several limitations worth mentioning in regard to the samples collected for both the pilot study and the main study. For both the pilot and the main study, online samples were collected, but the pilot study participants were recruited through amazon's mTurk crowdsourcing platform. While the merits of amazon's mTurk have been discussed, the sample is very general.

In regards to the main study, the researcher must note that a technical error required data to be completed recollected. The survey platform used for the pilot study did not have an adequate level of accessibility when tested by partners at the PDRIB. A different survey vendor with superior technology was selected for the main study, so people with visual impairment would have an easier time taking the survey. When the survey was transferred to the new platform, several of the veracity items were lost, and a self-compassion item was copied twice. This was not caught by the researcher until after the data had been collected. The data was examined by the researcher but deemed too unclean to proceed, so all data was recollected. While the new data is more robust, it is possible that some participants took the survey twice, which could have had practice effects.

Another limitation of the main study was the limited number of demographic variables collected, such as comorbid disability, industry, and tenure. Measures were taken to reduce the overall number of survey items for participants to attempt to reduce survey fatigue. Research partners at the PDRIB stated that the visually impaired

population is at increased risk of survey fatigue. Therefore, the study was able to capture data or control for differences around job and industry type, tenure, and comorbid disability.

As stated, no study is perfect, and this dissertation is no exception. All these limitations are worthy of note and should be addressed in future research. However, none of the described limitations are fatal research flaws. Therefore, it is the opinion of the researcher that the results of this study can be considered reliable.

Future Research

This dissertation was meant to be a first step in exploring the effects of self-compassion in the workplace. While the evidence on self-compassion was lacking, there are ways other researchers and studies could further, and better, explore the issue.

The first possibility is to look at different methodologies to study the experience of negative events at work, and negative affect in general. While this dissertation was cross-sectional, others could explore the experience of people at work over time. What can be defined as a single event could potentially be a series of different emotions experienced in a situation over a period of time, such as a bad performance review or a lay-off (Frijda, 1993)? Future research could follow a sample of visually-impaired or blind over time, surveying them several times within a day, or capturing negative events periodically over a few months or years.

Future research could also consider different models when exploring self-compassion in the workplace. As mentioned as a possible explanation for Hypothesis 1 and 3, perhaps the model examined looked at self-compassion in the wrong place. Perhaps it is not a moderator between the importance of the event and the negative affect,

but between the negative affect experienced and the outcome variables of interest to organizations. Future research should examine whether self-compassion is a moderator or mediator between negative affect and turnover intentions or affective commitment. If so, then self-compassion still has merit for workplace interventions. Examining these relationships through structural equation modeling would also be a next step in exploring self-compassion's role in the workplace.

Future research should also examine the common humanity part of the self-compassion scale in more detail. The way the common humanity items are phrased is focused, not on understanding one is free from isolation of experience, but that everyone is suffering from a negative experience. The respondents may have focused on the general statement and not the idea that they were not alone in their experience of suffering. Instead of interpreting the items to mean "nobody's perfect," they interpreted them to mean "everyone is suffering, including me."

Regarding reversal theory, this dissertation collected hundreds of open-ended responses and state measure responses. A qualitative study could examine the content of the open-ended response with the reversal theory state examined. Apter (2007) theorized that negative affect could be experienced as an outcome state dissatisfaction. Because most of our sample was in the conforming telic state, and they were kept from fitting in and achieving their goals, they experienced state dissatisfaction. A study could examine how the dissatisfaction influenced the level of negative affect experienced.

Conclusion

People with disabilities are an untapped employment source, and, in today's job market are extremely valuable. This is especially true during times when the search for

talent is more complicated. In a recent Bureau of Labor and Statistics report, 128,000 jobs were added, and unemployment sits at 3.6% (U.S. Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2019). Not only should organizations be looking at previously overlooked talent pools, but they should also be paying more attention to their current employees' experience at work. The overarching message of this dissertation is that the impact that negatively affects people with visual impairments experience influences organizational outcomes. Brushing off or ignoring the experience of employees, especially those who already encounter challenges in their daily life, should be avoided.

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APPENDIX A

HUMAN USE APPROVAL LETTERS

MEMORANDUM

OFFICE OF SPONSORED PROJECTS

TO: Dr. Mitzi Desselles and Mr. Mike Knott

FROM: Dr. Richard Kordal, Director of Intellectual Properties
rkordal@latech.edu

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: October 2, 2017

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

"The Role of Self-compassion in Moderating Affective Reactions from Negative Events"

HUC 18-040

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. ***This approval was finalized on October 2, 2017 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond October 2, 2018.*** Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

Please be aware that you are responsible for reporting any adverse events or unanticipated problems.

A MEMBER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA SYSTEM

P.O. BOX 3092 • RUSTON, LA 71272 • TEL: (318) 257-5075 • FAX: (318) 257-5079

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF SPONSORED PROJECTS

MEMORANDUM

TO: Dr. Mitzi Desselles and Mr. Mike Knott

FROM: Dr. Richard Kordal, Director of Intellectual Properties
rkordal@latech.edu

SUBJECT: Human Use Committee Review

DATE: December 11, 2018

RE: Approved Continuation of Study HUC 18-040 REN19

TITLE: **"The Role of Self-compassion in Moderating Affective Reactions from Negative Events"**

HUC 18-040 REN19

The above referenced study has been approved as of December 11, 2018 as a continuation of the original study that received approval on October 2, 2017. **This project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including collecting or analyzing data, continues beyond December 11, 2019.** Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

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APPENDIX B

NEGATIVE WORK EVENT SURVEY

Description of Negative Work Event
Think of the most negative event that happened to you at work in the last two weeks. In your own words, briefly describe the event below.

Motivations during Negative Work Event (MNWE).
Try to think of the event as if it had just happened, and rate how concerned you were with each of the following statements.

Accomplishing something for the future
- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Doing something serious
- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Doing something crucial
- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Enjoying myself in the moment
- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Doing something playful

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Doing something of no great concern

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Doing what I'm supposed to do

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Doing what's expected of me

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Doing my duty

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Doing what I'm not supposed to do

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Doing the opposite of what's expected of me

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Being defiant

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Being powerful

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Being in control

- Not Concerned
- Not Very Concerned
- Slightly Concerned
- Moderately Concerned
- Concerned
- Very Concerned

Being dominant

- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Helping others to succeed

- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Helping others to be powerful

- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Strengthening others

- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Being cared for

- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Being helped
- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Being looked after
- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Caring for others
- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Showing consideration for others
- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Being loving towards others
- ❍ Not Concerned
- ❍ Not Very Concerned
- ❍ Slightly Concerned
- ❍ Moderately Concerned
- ❍ Concerned
- ❍ Very Concerned

Importance of the Negative Work Events (INWE)

The consequences of this event were large.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

Most people would think this event was important.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The consequences of this event were negative.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

Most people in this situation would find it distressing.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event was important to me personally.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

I thought a lot about the event.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

I cared about the event.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

I did not at all enjoy going through the event.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event had consequences.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

I hope the event does not occur again.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event caused trouble.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event was serious.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event was not a big deal.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event mattered a lot to me.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event was a big deal to me personally.
- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event was significant to me personally.
- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

Demographic Items

Please Respond to the items below.
Please indicate your biological sex.
- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female

How many paid hours per week do you work?
How many unpaid hours per week do you work?
What is your ethnicity?
- ❍ White
- ❍ Hispanic or Latino
- ❍ Black or African American
- ❍ American Indian or Alaska Native
- ❍ Asian
- ❍ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ❍ Other ____________________

What is your age?

What is your highest level of education?

- Less than high school
- High school graduate
- Some college
- 2-year degree
- 4-year degree
- Professional degree (ex. Masters)
- All but dissertation (ABD)
- Doctorate

Do you have employees who report directly to you?

- Yes
- No

APPENDIX C

IMPORTANCE OF NEGATIVE WORK EVENTS

. **Importance of Negative Work Events (INWE)**
The event was important to me personally.
- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event mattered a lot to me.
- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event was a big deal to me personally.
- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

The event was significant to me personally.
- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

Positive and Negative Affect Scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Indicate to what extent you felt this way after the event.

Interested

- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Distressed

- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Excited

- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Upset

- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Strong

- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Guilty

- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Scared
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Hostile
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Enthusiastic
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Proud
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Irritable
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Alert
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Ashamed
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Inspired
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Nervous
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Determined
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Attentive
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Jittery
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Active
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Afraid
- ❍ Very Slightly or Not at All
- ❍ A Little
- ❍ Moderately
- ❍ Quite a Bit
- ❍ Extremely

Self-Compassion Scale (Neff, 2003b)

Please read each statement carefully before answering. Indicate how often you behave in the stated manner using the scale below. The higher the number, the more frequently you engage in the stated behavior.

I'm disapproving and judgmental about my own flaws and inadequacies.
- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When I'm feeling down I tend to obsess and fixate on everything that's wrong.
- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When things are going badly for me, I see the difficulties as part of life that everyone goes through.
- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When I think about my inadequacies, it tends to make me feel more separate and cutoff from the rest of the world.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

I try to be loving towards myself when I'm feeling emotional pain.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When I fail at something important to me I become consumed by feelings of inadequacy.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When I'm down and out, I remind myself that there are lots of other people in the world feeling like I am.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When times are really difficult, I tend to be tough on myself.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When something upsets me I try to keep my emotions in balance.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When I feel inadequate in some way, I try to remind myself that feelings of inadequacy are shared by most people.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

I'm intolerant and impatient towards those aspects of my personality I don't like.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When I'm going through a very hard time, I give myself the caring and tenderness I need.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When I'm feeling down, I tend to feel like most other people are probably happier than I am.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Never

When something painful happens I try to take a balanced view of the situation.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

I try to see my failings as part of the human condition.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When I see aspects of myself that I don’t like, I get down on myself.
- Almost Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Almost Always

When I fail at something important to me I try to keep things in perspective.
- Almost Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Almost Always

When I’m really struggling, I tend to feel like other people must be having an easier time of it.
- Almost Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Almost Always

I’m kind to myself when I’m experiencing suffering.
- Almost Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Almost Always

When something upsets me I get carried away with my feelings.
- Almost Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Almost Always

I can be a bit cold-hearted towards myself when I'm experiencing suffering.
- Almost Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Almost Always

When I'm feeling down I try to approach my feelings with curiosity and openness.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

I’m tolerant of my own flaws and inadequacies.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When something painful happens I tend to blow the incident out of proportion.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

When I fail at something that's important to me, I tend to feel alone in my failure.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

I try to be understanding and patient towards those aspects of my personality I don’t like.

- ❍ Almost Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Almost Always

Turnover Intentions (Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith, 2013).

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about their job. With respect to your own feelings about the particular job you have now, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

I often think of quitting this job.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

I am always on the lookout for a better job.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

It is likely that I will look for another job during the next year.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

There isn’t much to be gained by staying in this job.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993).

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.

- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- ❍ Strongly disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat disagree
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree
- ❍ Somewhat agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly agree

Demographic Variables

Please indicate your biological sex.
- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female

How many paid hours per week do you work?
How many unpaid hours per week do you work?
What is your ethnicity?
- ❍ White
- ❍ Hispanic or Latino
- ❍ Black or African American
- ❍ American Indian or Alaska Native
- ❍ Asian
- ❍ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ❍ Other ____________________

What is your age?

What is your highest level of education?

- ❍ Less than high school
- ❍ High school graduate
- ❍ Some college
- ❍ 2-year degree
- ❍ 4-year degree
- ❍ Professional degree (ex. Masters)
- ❍ All but dissertation (ABD)
- ❍ Doctorate

Do you have employees who report directly to you?

- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

Do you self-identify as... (Choose one)

- ❍ Blind
- ❍ Visually impaired
- ❍ Sighted

At what age (in years) did you first become legally blind or severely visually impaired?

(If you were born legally blind or visually impaired, enter 0.)

What was your visual acuity in your better eye, with correction when you first became legally blind or visually impaired? (Choose one.)

- ❍ 20/200 or better
- ❍ 20/200-20/400
- ❍ 20/400-20/800
- ❍ 20/800 or worse, but could count fingers
- ❍ Hand motion only
- ❍ Light perception, but no detail perception
- ❍ Totally blind
- ❍ Other (please explain) ____________________

What is your visual acuity today in your better eye, with correction? (Choose one.)

- ❍ 20/200 or better
- ❍ 20/200-20/400
- ❍ 20/400-20/800
- ❍ 20/800 or worse, but could count fingers
- ❍ Hand motion only
- ❍ Light perception, but no detail perception
- ❍ Totally blind
- ❍ Other (please explain) ____________________

Check any of the following diagnosed disabilities you have besides blindness or visual impairment. (Check all that apply.)

- ❑ No other disability
- ❑ Hearing impairment/deaf
- ❑ Mobility or orthopedic impairment
- ❑ Other physical impairment
- ❑ Learning disability
- ❑ Autism/ASD/Asperger's
- ❑ Intellectual/cognitive disability
- ❑ Mental health/psychiatric impairment
- ❑ Speech or communication disability

Other (please explain): ____________________