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The Relationship Between Experienced Workplace Incivility and Pre- Quitting Behaviors: A Model of Mediated Moderation

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXPERIENCED WORKPLACE INCIVILITY AND PRE-QUITTING BEHAVIORS: A MODEL OF MEDIATED MODERATION

by

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ABSTRACT

Workplace incivility is a non-overt and subtle form of workplace mistreatment. Though these low-intensity behaviors are often ambiguous, they display a lack of regard for people and are intended to harm. Yet the workplace incivility literature lacks in many areas, including its inclusion into more novel models. Therefore, this dissertation addressed several gaps in the workplace incivility literature, including distinguishing and measuring the impact of different sources of incivility, the social power of the instigators, and the distal outcome of pre-quitting behaviors. The researcher tested a unique theoretical model that included supervisor-and customer-instigated incivility, and illegitimate task assignment, as predictors with emotional exhaustion serving as a moderating variable between predictors and pre-quitting behaviors, deviant outcomes, and COVID-19 safety protocol adherence. In addition, both psychological capital and coercive power of the supervisor were tested for moderating effects. CFA was conducted to ensure validity of the ten measurement scales, and SEM verified the goodness-of-fit effects of the hypothesized model, including an analysis of the model's purported paths. Data were collected (n=302) in a two-wave design. Results indicated support for most hypotheses in the hypothesized model, and the findings carry significant implications for the workplace incivility literature and practitioners alike.

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DEDICATION

This, my second dissertation, is once again dedicated to my exceptionally loving and fabulous wife, Myra, who has found the capacity to stand by and support me through another doctorate degree. Without her, this was not possible. I also thank my son, Silas, who understood that I had to work some Saturdays when I would rather be golfing with him. These two are my world.

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Thanks also to Drs. Fuller and Haynie for agreeing to serve on my committee. From the initial idea, through several revisions, and to the end, you guys offered sage advice and sound ideas. I know my study is better because you two were involved.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Who does not prefer civility to barbarianism?"
—CS Lewis, *The Four Loves*

Organizational researchers have considered myriad topics related to negative workplace behaviors in the last several decades. Their interests have been attributed to the increased prevalence and reports of destructive incidents at work (Chen, Ferris, Kwon, Yan, Zhou & Hong, 2013) as well as enormous reported costs associated with such behaviors (Porath & Pearson, 2009). These studies suggest that negative behaviors directed at employees in the workplace can lead to adverse consequences via stress-response mechanisms that elicit negative emotional and psychological reactions (Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Bunk & Magley, 2013; Lim, Ilies, Koopman, Christoforou, & Arvey, 2016). Negative workplace behaviors that include aggression, harassment, deviance, antisocial actions, bullying, abusive leadership, and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) have been acknowledged. These studies have reported detrimental outcomes that negative workplace behaviors have on employee attitudes, well-being, and self-esteem (Schilpzand, de Pater, & Erez, 2016). In addition, targets of these behaviors (or those to whom these uncivil behaviors are directed) engaged in fewer organizational citizenship behaviors (or OCBs) (Dalal, 2005; Hershcovis, 2011), had higher turnover

intentions (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008), and experienced more stress than their colleagues (Bowling & Beehr, 2006).

One of the more recent negative workplace behaviors to receive attention has been workplace incivility. Workplace incivility is a non-overt and more subtle form of social mistreatment (Lim et al., 2016). The construct was first introduced by Andersson & Pearson (1999) and defined as "low-intensity deviant workplace behavior with an ambiguous intent to harm" (pg. 457). Workplace incivility represents a pervasive organizational phenomenon that includes demeaning remarks, talking down to others, expressive insults, exclusionary actions, not listening to people, addressing others in unprofessional terms, condescending tones, and even gossip (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina, 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2009). Though workplace incivility is not overtly aggressive and may seem to lack a clear intent to harm, these inconsiderate deeds are rude, violate social norms of respect, injure their targets, and undermine positive organizational climates (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina, 2008). Workplace incivility behaviors are considered behaviors that are "characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, pg. 457). Further, they include actions intended to demean, exclude, overlook, derogate, or otherwise treat targets in a discourteous manner (Cortina, Magley, Williams & Langhout, 2001).

While these uncivil behaviors display a lack of regard for coworkers, they differ from other forms of negative workplace behaviors like social undermining and workplace aggression due to the ambiguity of intent (Lim et al., 2016). In fact, researchers agree that incivility is not always clear to the targets, observers, or even the instigator that there is a

malicious intent (Baron, 2004; Lim et al., 2016). For example, in a workplace setting, a typical instance of interpersonal mistreatment may occur when an instigator yells an obscenity at a co-worker that forgot to make the appropriate number of copies for clients. Regardless of whether or not the verbal abuse took place in the presence of others, the instigator, the target, and the instigator's intent were clear and obvious. However, in the case of workplace incivility, the intent is often impalpable. An example might be a salesperson that, after closing a considerable sale, invites every salesperson in the regional office to lunch except one. The offending party (instigator) could even explain that he simply forgot to add the excluded team member (target) to the text thread; thus, it can often be difficult to identify specific instances of workplace incivility, and if there was true intent (Sliter & Boyd, 2015). However, in both instances, the result is the same: the targeted co-worker is hurt, embarrassed, and insulted.

Because workplace incivility represents low intensity and generalized behaviors, they are clearly distinct from sexual aggression, sexual harassment, and workplace violence because incivility is not comprised of sexual or physical forms of assault (Baron, 2004). Whereas bullying, aggression, and violence are more severe in nature and more obvious to all parties involved, workplace incivility tends to be vague behaviors that are more difficult to diagnose and discern. And unlike abusive supervision or other negative leadership behavior constructs, workplace incivility behaviors can originate not only with managers and supervisors but also with coworkers, subordinates, clients, and customers (Lim et al., 2016). Therefore, research on workplace incivility as a unique negative workplace construct is significant because these uncivil behaviors likely impact the consequential attitudes, emotions, and behaviors of targets differently as compared to the

targets of other negative workplace actions. It is also possible that the antecedents of workplace incivility behaviors vary from those that motivate more severe negative workplace behaviors (Baron, 2004).

Researchers agree workplace incivility is universal and prevalent in organizations in different industries and across cultures (e.g., Cortina & Magley, 2009; Lim & Lee, 2011). Some studies have estimated that 98 percent of all workers experience some type of uncivil behavior, while close to half experience it at least weekly (Porath & Pearson, 2012). Workplace incivility is also costly. Some view uncivil behaviors at work to be one of the most substantial economic drains to businesses (Porath & Pearson, 2009). In 2012, the estimated cost of experiencing incivility was estimated to be $14,000 per employee annually due to things like delays, work disengagement, and cognitive distractions (Porath & Pearson, 2012). Despite these devastating organizational outcomes, studies have suggested that many managers remain oblivious to the existence of workplace incivility in their offices (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Porath & Pearson, 2012).

In addition to the adverse economic impact at the organizational level, the human costs borne by employees who are subjected to workplace incivility are quite severe (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Workplace incivility is a threat to the individual as these behaviors threaten personal identity, the positive sense of one's self, and can lead to negative personal outcomes. Because uncivil workplace interactions represent the rude and insulting treatment of employees, it can denigrate the individual's sense of belonging in the workplace as well as undercut their competence (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008). Thus, instead of employees feeling safe and securing their self-images by providing supportive relationships in the workplace, incivility is associated with

relationships characterized by harassment (Lim & Cortina, 2005) and distrust between the target and organizational members (Porath & Pearson, 2009).

Lim et al. (2008) found that workplace incivility tends to permeate workgroups and team climates and indirectly affects other members even when the incivility is not even directed at them.

Inquiry into workplace incivility has been conducted in various manners over the years, including with regard to the type of incivility (i.e., experienced, witnessed, or instigated). Experienced workplace incivility (EWI) research focuses on various outcomes of those who have experienced the uncivil behaviors, while witnessed workplace incivility studies have assessed outcomes of those that have observed uncivil behaviors directed at co-worker. Finally, studies on instigated workplace incivility have attempted to understand the antecedents and outcomes of those who initiate incivility in the workplace. All incivility research, however, relates uncivil behaviors to negative organizational and individual outcomes. The focus of this dissertation will be on EWI and the consequential affective states of victims and their resultant behaviors.

Research has linked EWI to numerous adverse individual outcomes. As employees experience more and more incivility at work, there is a tendency to become more withdrawn (Chen et al., 2013) and demonstrate more attitudes, cognitions, and behaviors that ultimately lead to their exit from the organization (Schilpzand et al., 2016). As a result, EWI is a precursor to many concepts and constructs discussed in the voluntary employee turnover literature. Studies have shown a negative relationship between EWI and organizational commitment (Cortina et al., 2001), supervisor and co-worker satisfaction (Lim & Lee, 2011), justice perceptions (Walsh, Lee, Jensen,

McGonagle & Samnani, 2018), job satisfaction (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002), OCBs (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008), mental and physical health (Lim, et al., 2008), overall well-being (Demsky, Fritz, Hammer & Black, 2018), positive affect (Giumetti, Hatfield, Scisco, Schroeder, Muth & Kowalski, 2013; Penney & Spector, 2005), affective trust (Cameron & Webster, 2011), and task performance and work engagement (Chen et al., 2013).

Concomitantly, EWI has been shown to be positively related to various negative individual outcomes, including workplace withdrawal (Sliter, Slier & Jex, 2012; Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001), burnout (Kern & Grandey, 2009), workplace deviance and negative affect (Penney & Spector, 2005), emotional exhaustion and emotional labor (Sliter, Jex, Wolford & McInnerney, 2010), turnover intentions (Cortina et al., 2001), psychological distress (Adams & Webster, 2013; Cortina et al., 2001), job insecurity (Hershcovis, Ogunfowora, Reich, & Christie, 2017), counterproductive work behaviors (Meier & Spector, 2013), absenteeism (Porath & Pearson, 2012), negative reciprocity and retaliation (Wu, Zhang, Chiu & He, 2013), and avoidance (Cortina, 2008). Recent research has even connected EWI with more distal outcomes discussed in the work-life conflict literature (e.g., Judge & Ilies, 2004; Hall & Richter, 1988), including a negative relationship with overall life satisfaction (Lim et al., 2008), marital satisfaction (Ferguson, 2012), as well as a positive relationship with aggression and withdrawal tendencies at home (Lim et al., 2016), and increased levels of work-life conflict (Ferguson, 2012; Lim & Lee, 2011). Clearly, uncivil treatment at work impacts targets in negative ways, many of which could lead to withdrawal, disengagement, and/or their exit.

Whereas EWI is considered a type of interpersonal- or relationship-related CWB, illegitimate tasks would be considered a task-related CWB in that supervisors, when they assign tasks to subordinates that are illegitimate in nature, are enacting deviance towards subordinates. The concept of illegitimate tasks (ITs) was introduced by Semmer, Tschan, Meier, Facchin, & Jacobshagen (2010) as a new stressor specifically ties to feeling offended at work. They described legitimate tasks as those that conform to workplace norms in terms of what can be reasonably expected from a given worker. In contrast, ITs were considered to the extent that a task violates these same norms (Semmer, Jacobshagen, & Meier, 2015). Hence, ITs have the ability to offending people's professional identities, and therefore, the self. That is, assigning someone tasks considered incompatible with their professional roles constitutes what Thoits (1991) calls identity-threatening stressors; they thus can be seen as offensive (Semmer et al., 2010). Although Semmer et al. (2010) did acknowledge that ITs is closely associated with both the role behavior and justice literatures, they concluded Its to be a unique construct because of its focus on tasks in combination with role-expectations and professional identity.

A recent study by Gardner et al. (2016) introduced the concept of pre-quitting behaviors (PQBs). Their instrument attempts to capture observable behaviors displayed by those intending to leave the organization. The researchers proposed that employees, during their process of planning to leave an organization, unwittingly 'leak' behaviors that predict their future exit (Gardner et al., 2016). Because PQBs are unintentionally signaled behaviors, PQBs can be observed by supervisors and coworkers. PQBs serve as outward displays of the employee's predisposition to voluntarily quit (Gardner et al.,

2016). The result of the study was a 14-item scale that transforms measurable behaviors into useful information about turnover proclivity and employees who are in the process of leaving. The researchers indicate PQBs can be used to predict future organizational exit beyond other established antecedents (Gardner et al., 2016), and therefore offer voluntary employee turnover researchers a new and potentially fruitful line of inquiry. Because previous research has confirmed the relationships between EWI and emotional exhaustion as well as the relationship between emotional exhaustion and various pre-withdrawal attitudes and cognitions, including turnover intentions (e.g., Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Zohar, 1997; Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986), it seems needful to test a model that establishes clear relationships between these constructs and PQBs.

When targets experience incivility from supervisors, coworkers, or customers, these adverse experiences cause various detrimental individual-level outcomes, including emotional exhaustion (Sliter et al., 2010; Kern & Grandey, 2009). Emotional exhaustion is the enduring state of physical and/or emotional depletion an employee experiences resultant of excessive job demands, stressors, and hassles (Shirom, 1989; Zohar, 1997). In the work context, emotional exhaustion describes feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's job demands (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998) and causes employees to feel psychologically and emotionally drained (Cropanzano et al., 2003). Emotional exhaustion has been linked to various negative employee outcomes such as quit intentions (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Zohar, 1997). Thus, research suggests victims of workplace incivility will tend to experience more emotional exhaustion (Kern & Grandey, 2000) and become more likely to exhibit a host of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, some of which could signal their departure.

However, there may be psychological mechanisms that contend with the stress and emotional depletion caused by EWI. One such mechanism is psychological capital, or PsyCap. PsyCap is defined as:

> ... an individual's positive psychological state of development characterized by: (1) having confidence (efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success. (Luthans, Youseff & Avolio 2007)

PsyCap is a positive core construct that was conceptually identified and introduced by Luthans and colleagues (e.g., Luthans, 2002; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). The PsyCap construct is a second-order construct that combines four other psychological capacities: efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. Thus, this multidimensional measure is a psychological resource that can help individuals combat negativity, challenges, problems, and adversity because each underlying capacity interacts synergistically with one another such that an individual is at his or her individual best when one resource builds upon the other" (Friend, Johnson, Luthans & Sohi, 2007). In addition, PsyCap is state-like, relatively stable, malleable, and it can be increased through concerted effort, development, and training (Luthans, Avey, Avolio & Peterson, 2010).

PsyCap has appeared often in the positive organizational behavior (POB) literature, which suggests that positively oriented human resource strengths and

psychological capacities can be measured and developed for performance improvement (Luthans, 2002). PsyCap, it has been suggested, is beneficial not only in the organization, but in life in general (Avey, Reichard, Luthans & Mhatre, 2011) because, as Bandura (1988, pg. 56) stated, the "evidence shows that human accomplishments and positive well-being require an optimistic sense of personal efficacy to override the numerous impediments to success." Since it has been shown that EWI is positively related to emotional exhaustion (Sliter et al., 2010; Kern & Grandey, 2009), it may be that a positive psychological resource, such as PsyCap, will lessen the degree to which targets experience emotional exhaustion, thereby combating their potential disengagement and withdrawal.

Need for Future Research

There are notable gaps in the workplace incivility literature that could be addressed in order to further develop and understand the concept (Schilpzand et al., 2016). This dissertation will address three distinct recommendations for future research pointed out in the incivility literature. First, Liu, Zhou, & Che (2018) indicated researchers should assess the source of EWI to determine whether different sources impact the related outcomes. In their opinion, more workplace incivility studies should distinguish the sources of incivility because different sources would impact targets differently. Though some studies have identified the source of incivility, (e.g., Leiter, Laschinger, Day & Oore, 2011; Cortina et al., 2001), most does not provide a frame of reference (Hershcovis et al., 2017). In addition, researchers have yet to test the source of incivility as a moderating mechanism between EWI and emotional exhaustion. It is likely that EWI from a supervisor would be more impactful than uncivil actions from coworkers

because of the power differential (Liu et al., 2018; Schilpzand et al., 2016). In addition, because targets depend on their supervisors for performance evaluations, promotion, etc., it is likely that experiencing incivility from a supervisor may be more impactful than incivility experienced from co-workers or customers. (Schilpzand et al., 2016). The present study, therefore, will assess the source (supervisor, co-worker, customer) as a moderating factor in the relationship between EWI and emotional exhaustion.

Closely related to source of incivility research, Hershcovis and colleagues (2017) felt researchers should provide better frames of reference regarding the level of power of the instigator. It is likely that EWI from a supervisor would be more impactful than that from coworkers because of the power differential (Liu et al., 2018; Schilpzand et al., 2016). Yet, researchers have mostly ignored social power as a moderating mechanism between EWI and emotional exhaustion. The present dissertation, therefore, will also assess the level of power of the instigator as a moderating factor in the relationship between EWI and emotional exhaustion.

It is also beneficial to test ITs in a model with several of the constructs this dissertation's model submits. Although research has shown that ITs is associated with workplace stress and burnout (Semmer, Jacobshagen, Meier, Elfering, Beehr, Kälin, & Tschan, 2015), and emotional exhaustion is one component of burnout, no studies to date have addressed this direct relationship. In addition, that relationship has not been assessed with the moderating construct of PsyCap. The hypothesized model of this dissertation will address these relationships as well as the distal PQBs outcome through emotional exhaustion.

Finally, this dissertation introduces theoretical perspectives not commonly found in the workplace incivility literature. The social interactionist perspective was the theoretical framework underpinning Andersson & Pearson (1999) seminal workplace incivility paper. However, several researchers have suggested that workplace incivility research could benefit from new theoretical frameworks.

Schilpzand et al. (2016) felt workplace incivility research could benefit theoretical perspectives that could help unify the experienced, instigated, and witnessed incivility literatures and help move their conceptualizations. One such theory they proposed was the affective events theory, or AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to AET, events at work incite affective reactions that then elicit attitudes and behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Though AET has been the theoretical perspective that has linked incivility at work to health outcomes and turnover intentions (Lim et al., 2008), it was done so through the affective process of satisfaction, not through an affective state like emotional exhaustion. Therefore, this dissertation will serve to fill a gap in workplace incivility literature as the researcher feels strongly that AET supports the hypothesized model and the relationships between EWI and emotional exhaustion as well as the relationship between emotional exhaustion and PQBs. A more detailed consideration of AET is provided in Chapter II.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this dissertation is to establish a distal relationship between EWI and PQBs by testing a unique hypothesized model that includes both mediating and moderating factors. The model incorporates the mediating construct of emotional exhaustion as well as two moderating factors: PsyCap and the supervisors' levels of

power. It also attempts to establish a connection between emotional exhaustion, deviant behavior, and a novel outcome: adherence to COVID-19 safety protocols and policies.

Research Questions

The specific research questions are:

1. Is EWI and ITs positively related with PQBs?
2. Are emotionally exhausted employees less likely to adhere to COVID-19 safety behaviors?
3. Does emotional exhaustion mediate the relationships between both EWI and PQBs and ITs and PQBs?
4. Does PsyCap moderate the relationship between EWI and emotional exhaustion as well as ITs and emotional exhaustion?
5. Does the source of incivility moderate the relationship between EWI and emotional exhaustion?
6. Does the instigator's power moderate the relationship between EWI and emotional exhaustion?

Contributions

This dissertation's primary contribution is that it furthers the extant literature on EWI. The hypothesized model is distinctive in many ways. It includes several components not seen in previous EWI studies, including the moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between EWI and emotional exhaustion as well as the PQBs outcome. It should be noted that, to the extent that PQBs are included in the model, this dissertation also serves to advance the novel PQBs research by examining potential antecedents to its construct. To date, only a handful of studies have utilized

PQBs (e.g., Li, Duverger & Yu, 2018; Wang, Hom & Allen, 2017), none of which have included workplace incivility.

Another contribution of this dissertation is to provide understanding of how sources of the incivility affects targets' emotional exhaustion. Because incivility research lumps uncivil behaviors of supervisors and coworkers (and often customers) together, research on different sources of incivility is lacking (Herschcovis & Barling, 2010). By differentiating who instigates the incivility (supervisor, co-worker, or customer), it is the researcher's hopes to advance the literature on whether distinctive relationships and role differentials impact the outcomes of EWI (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010).

The researcher also hopes to provide insight into how the instigators' levels of power—regardless of position—affect the targets' emotional exhaustion. Because only a handful of researchers have addressed the role of instigator power in workplace incivility outcomes, we know very little to date about the impacts of different levels of power on targets' outcomes (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). By incorporating social power into the hypothesized model, the researcher hopes to advance our understanding of how power affects EWI (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010).

Finally, this dissertation will assess counterproductivity in two ways: (a) deviant behaviors and (b) inadherence to safety COVID-19 protocols that have been recently established in the workplace. Research suggests that unsafe behaviors/disobeying to safety protocols are a dimension of counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) (Casillas, Robbins, McKinniss, Postlethwaite & Oh, 2009). Research had established myriad negative outcomes and CWBs for those with increased levels of emotional exhaustion (e.g., Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Kahill, 1988; Leiter & Maslach, 1998; Belcastro &

Hays, 1984; Belcastro, 1982). Skarlicki and colleagues (1999) viewed CWBs as a cognition-based response to experienced injustice, such as EWI. Because the researcher hypothesizes that incivility leads to emotional exhaustion and because studies have demonstrated that work stressors relate indirectly to worker deviance through negative emotions (Spector & Fox, 2002; Schat & Kelloway, 2003), the research model will test the mediating effect of emotional exhaustion on the relationship between EWI and deviant behaviors. It also seems timely to assess COVID-19 safety protocols that have been established across industries since late 2019. Because adhering to workplace policies, procedures, and safety protocols is considered to be a necessary in-role behavior, the conscious decision to not follow rules and instructions would not only be dangerous and negligent, but it would also reflect a behavior that is counterproductive to the work environment, (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001).

The hypothesized model guiding the present study is displayed in Figure 1.1. The model attempts to explain the process by which workplace incivility contributes to PQBs, including mechanisms that may impede or accelerate this process. The study's model is grounded in two theories the researcher feels are particularly relevant to the experience of workplace incivility. These include the Affective Events Theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and Friedrickson's (2001) Broaden and Build Theory. Figure 1 depicts the study's hypothesized model. Chapter two provides detailed exploration of each construct in the model along with numerous hypotheses to be tested.

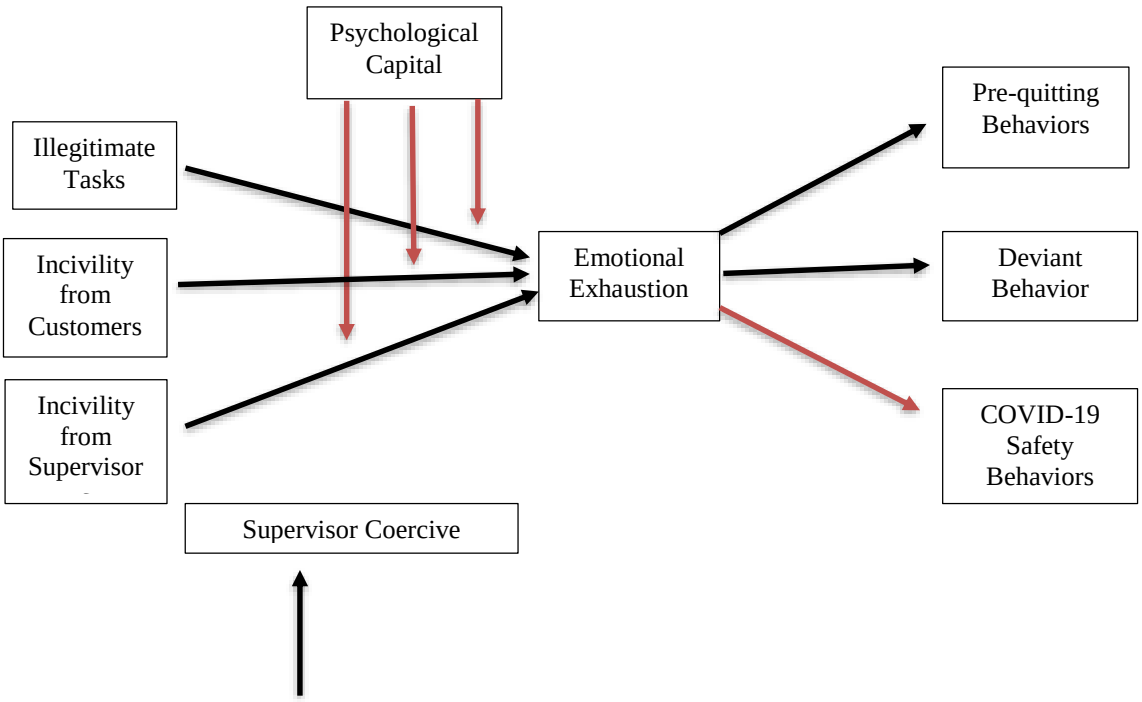

Figure 1.1: *Hypothesized Model*

Organization of the Dissertation

The remainder of the study will be organized as follows. In Chapter 2, exhaustive literature reviews relevant to components of the above hypothesized model will be provided. Chapter 3 will provide a discussion of the proposed statistical methods and techniques to be employed. In Chapter 4, the study's findings will be explored. Finally, in Chapter 5, the practical implications of the results will be disseminated, along with potential implications and insights into potential avenues of future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

This chapter serves to review the literatures relevant constructs in the study's hypothesized model (Figure 1.1). Empirical and theoretical studies in each area were reviewed. The chapter begins with analysis of civility and incivility in general. The chapter begins with an overview of general incivility in society. Then workplace incivility is introduced along with a detailed discussion of definitions causes, types, instrumentation, and established antecedents and outcomes. It then reviews the literature associated with EWI. After that, analyses of the remaining six constructs to be measured, including illegitimate tasks (ITs), emotional exhaustion, psychological capital, social power, source of incivility, and PQBs, are explored. Intertwined in this chapter are eleven hypotheses for which the researcher makes theoretical arguments concerning proposed relationships in the hypothesized model.

Civility and Incivility

The importance of civility can't be overstated in developed societies. It has been submitted that civility serves to soften the divisions between social classes and the rich and poor (Morris, 1996), provides the means to attain cultural superiority and social advantage (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), acts as the foundation for human rationale

(Shulman & Carey, 1984), provides insight into unexplained conduct (Bellah, 1970), and is even the source of the courteous treatment of colleagues (Roberts, 1985). Civility speaks to the fundamental tone and practice of democracy (Herbst, 2010). Civility is a moral imperative founded on one's love of and respect for humanity (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). It is "the sum of the many sacrifices we are called to make together" (Carter, 1998; pg. 11), and an individual's signal of self-control (Wilson, 1993).

Some have even reported civility as a moral virtue that allows them to behave in an orderly way and cooperate within a community or culture (e.g., Carter, 1998; Wilson, 1993).

Although many agree the definition of civility has burgeoned to include most everything from etiquette to professional conduct and from civic order to moral imperative (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), the dictionary simply defines civility as courtesy and politeness towards others. Workplace civility, therefore, is a behavior that involves politeness and regard to others in the workplace and demonstrates workplace norms and respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). It can be argued that the more complex the interaction, the more the parties involved should behave in more civil, stable manners that would be less likely to be construed as offensive (Elias, 1982). This allows individual actions and behaviors to fulfill their social function. As the current business environment is challenged by technology, globalization, and asynchronous interactions often defined by language barriers as well as differing political climates, religious beliefs, and cultural norms, an increase in civility and forgiving attitudes seems needful.

At the end of the millennium, some researchers felt the business world was one of the last bastions of civility after what was considered a chaotic and socially rude 1990s

that promoted self-expression and freedom of behavior (Hamilton & Sullivan, 1997; Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Historically, co-worker relationships were characterized by formal yet friendly, distant yet polite, interactions (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). However, workplace etiquette seemed to become somewhat lacking as businesses began to see an uptick in uncivil behaviors that reflected the insolence and rudeness of its broader society. Researchers cited potential sources of uncivil behavior at work that includes employee diversity, downsizing, budget cuts, increased pressures for productivity, reengineering, organizational flattening, and the use of part-time employees as causes for the increase in uncivil and aggressive workplace behaviors (Neuman & Baron, 1997). In a rapidly changing business landscape when society was growing discourteous, there seemed to be a loss of what was considered appropriate workplace behavior.

Sadly, our society appears to have moved even further from civility since the start of the new millennium. One needs to look no further than the actions and comments of our public servants in the highest national offices. A 2010 survey found that more than 80% of Americans viewed the lack of civil and respectful speech in our political system as a problem (Jones & Cox, 2010). The 2016 presidential campaign reached unimaginable levels of incivility, as name-calling, allegations of criminality, accusations of lying, sexist remarks, and a total departure from political correctness seemed to be primary campaign strategies (Kenski, Filer, & Conway-Silva, 2018). Furthermore, as the Internet, social media, and general media environments have created more opportunities for public discourse and discussion of current events and issues, it has enabled instances of incivility to spread more rapidly and widely than ever before (Sobieraj & Berry, 2011).

Consequently, intolerant verbiage, rude statements, shocking assertions, overtly sarcastic humor, nasty commentary, argumentative conversations, and condescending remarks are now not only the norm, but tend to be the posts and tweets that receive the most attention; thus, societal civility seems to be declining, though communication experts have observed that uncivil comments fail to bring anything of substance to productive discussions (Coe, Kenski & Rains, 2014).

Workplace Incivility

Workplace incivility is universal and prevalent in organizations in different industries and cultures (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Lim & Lee, 2011). Some studies have estimated the incidence of workplace civility has doubled over the last decade (Porath & Pearson, 2012). Others have found that leaders in various industries and organizations are experiencing increases in employee turnover, absenteeism, health insurance claims, interference within work units' productivity and output, diminished supportive behavior among employees, and sullying of organizational and individual reputations because of workplace incivility (Carroll-Garrison, 2012).

The human costs borne by employees who are subjected to workplace incivility are quite severe as many contemplate exit from that organization (Cortina et al., 2009). Workplace incivility is a direct threat to the individual; uncivil behaviors directed at a person threatens their identity, self-esteem, and can lead to negative personal outcomes. Because uncivil workplace interactions represent the rude and insulting treatment of employees, it can denigrate the individual's sense of belonging in the workplace as well as undercut their competence (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008). Thus, instead of employees feeling safe and supported in their workplace relationships, workplace

incivility is associated with relationships characterized by harassment (Lim & Cortina, 2005) and distrust (Porath & Pearson, 2009). In addition, Lim et al. (2008) as well as Porath & Pearson (2012) found that workplace incivility can permeate workgroups and teams, and it indirectly affects other members who may simply observe the incivility. Though it can often be difficult to identify specific instances of workplace incivility (Sliter & Boyd, 2015), uncivil behaviors at work are detrimental on the organizational and individual levels, researchers have devoted considerable efforts to *examine* workplace incivility in recent years.

In 2001, Cortina and colleagues (2001) found that over 70% of 1180 public sector employees had experienced incivility in the previous 5 years. In 2013, results from thousands of sampled employees showed that number had increased to 98% (Pearson & Porath, 2013). Pearson and colleagues' (2001) early workplace incivility study disclosed that more than one third of their participants indicated that, because they had experienced incivility at work, they (a) intentionally reduced work efforts, (b) stopped performing tasks and activities beyond their job descriptions, and (c) ceased voluntary efforts like helping coworkers in need as well as newcomers. In addition, targets may contribute less to the organization by refusing to serve on committees, task forces, boards, and other efforts to generate innovative ideas that better the organization (Estes & Wang, 2008). Sadly, Pearson et al.'s (2001) study reported that half of the participants who were targets of uncivil behaviors contemplated quitting, while 12% actually did.

Workplace incivility is also costly. Some view uncivil behaviors at work to be one of the most substantial economic drains to businesses (Porath & Pearson, 2009). In 2009, the estimated cost of experiencing incivility was estimated to be $14,000 per employee

annually due to things like delays, work disengagement, and cognitive distractions (Pearson & Porath, 2009). Porath & Pearson, in their 2012 analysis entitled *The Price of Incivility* which included surveys and interviews from over 800 managers nationwide, found the following outcomes among workers on the receiving end of incivility:

- 48% intentionally decreased their work effort
- 47% intentionally decreased the time spent at work
- 38% intentionally decreased the quality of their work
- 80% lost work time worrying about the incident
- 63% lost work time avoiding the offender
- 66% said that their performance declined
- 78% said that their commitment to the organization declined
- 12% said that they left their job because of the uncivil treatment
- 25% admitted to taking their frustration out on customers

Workplace incivility tends to create adverse working conditions that can impact those who are not directly involved. For instance, incivility creates an unpleasant environment "where people just simply stop doing their best" (Estes & Wang, 2016, pg. 16). Gonthier (2002) pointed out that when relationships among employees are shaky, workers tend to avoid work more often. Thus, absenteeism climbs, productivity plummets, and workers worry about the next incident (Gonthier, 2002). Pearson & Porath (2005) implied additional organizational impacts could include others modeling uncivil behaviors, which could lead to an unhealthier environment.

Despite these devastating organizational outcomes, studies have suggested that many managers remain oblivious to the existence of workplace incivility in their offices

(Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Porath & Pearson, 2012). If ignored, it has been argued that workplace incivility could potentially spiral into more overt and intense aggressive workplace behaviors (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Workplace incivility negatively impacts organizational performance and interferes with the creation of civil and respectful workplaces (Estes & Wang, 2008). In fact, a single habitually offensive employee in a top management position could potentially cause millions of dollars in employee, customer, and productivity losses (Porath & Pearson, 2009; Porath & Pearson, 2012).

Workplace Incivility Defined

Andersson & Pearson (1999), defined workplace incivility as:

> "…low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others." (pg. 457)

Workplace incivility is simply a concealed and more subtle form of mistreatment (Lim et al., 2016) that can cause harm, just as more aggressive abuses can. Workplace incivility represents the overwhelming majority of acts of mistreatment in organizations (Neuman & Baron, 1997) and seem to be a pervasive organizational phenomenon. These generalized behaviors are not comprised of sexual or physical forms of assault (Baron, 2004). Workplace incivility can include actions such as insinuating glances, demeaning remarks, talking down to others, expressive insults, exclusionary actions, not listening to people, negative gestures, addressing others in unprofessional terms, condescending tones, and even gossip (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina, 2008; Porath & Pearson,

2009). Though workplace incivility is not overtly aggressive and may seem to lack a clear intent to harm, these inconsiderate deeds are rude, violate social norms of respect, injure their targets, and undermine positive organizational climates (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina, 2008). Further, workplace incivility is intended to demean, exclude, overlook, derogate, or otherwise treat targets in a discourteous manner (Cortina et al., 2001). These behaviors often lack the drama and theatrics associated with more obvious forms of harassment and aggression; still, though they exist as more low-key stressors, they may over time wear down the targets. Johnson and Indvik (2001) identified 11 of the most common uncivil behaviors found in organizations:

(1) condescending and demeaning comments

(2) overruling decisions without offering a reason

(3) disrupting meetings

(4) giving public reprimands

(5) talking about someone behind his or her back

(6) giving others the silent treatment

(7) ignoring people

(8) insulting and yelling at others

(9) giving dirty looks or negative eye contact

(10) not giving credit where credit is due

(11) taking credit for others' achievements

Workplace Incivility Construct

Until Andersson & Pearson (1999) introduced the construct, the growing body of organizational research on negative workplace behaviors involved those more explicit

actions intended to harm others. This included direct forms of physical and verbal aggression and violence (e.g. Folger, Robinson, Dietz, McLean, Parks & Baron, 1998), deviance (e.g., Robinson & Bennett, 1995), sexual harassment (e.g., Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997), abusive supervision (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey & Toth, 1997), and racism (e.g. Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990), to name a few. Perhaps because of the discernable and immediate consequences of these more intense acts, academics have largely focused on these more visible forms of workplace deviance (Taylor, 2004). Though these and other related forms of adverse workplace behaviors still exist and continue to be investigated, workplace incivility was conceptualized as a form of employee deviance that represents a subset of employee deviant behaviors (Cortina et al., 2001). Workplace incivility was introduced as a set of negative workplace behaviors that was conceptually different from the aforementioned workplace aggression concepts in three important ways.

First, whereas bullying, verbal aggression, social undermining and violence are more severe in nature, a defining characteristic of workplace incivility is that it's a low intensity behavior (Lim et al., 2016). That is, aggression in organizations is often instigated by passionate people experiencing high emotion, and their behaviors tend to be delivered with great force and potency. Workplace incivility, on the other hand, is much less severe in nature and is more akin to petty tyranny than aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). On the surface, the instigator of the uncivil action may appear calm, measured, and even appear polite to the target. Still, though their actions may not carry the severity of more aggressive behaviors, the intent is often to hurt, alienate,

misrepresent, or exclude their target, even though their rudeness may or may not be detected by either the target or those observing the behavior.

Second, workplace incivility embodies more ambiguous activity than more aggressive behaviors. Whereas workplace aggression (i.e. bullying, vandalism, sabotage, and physical abuse) shows a clear intent to harm or damage (Schilpzand et al., 2016; Andersson & Pearson, 1999), workplace incivility is less overt and more difficult to detect. Whereas bullying, aggression, and violence are more severe in nature and more obvious to all parties involved, workplace incivility is generally a vaguer set of behaviors that tend to be difficult to diagnose and discern. Targets of workplace incivility may have difficulty discerning the intent (Schilpzand et al., 2016; Cortina et al., 2001), and it has been suggested that the target—and often the instigator—are unaware specific behavior has a malicious intent (Baron, 2004). Andersson & Pearson (1999) observed that some instances of workplace incivility, like those occurring because of ignorance or simple oversight, were not premeditated by the instigator and had no harmful intent. In addition, some uncivil behaviors are simply misinterpretations or due to target hypersensitivity (Cortina et al., 2001).

The final characteristic that differentiates incivility from other negative organizational constructs, such as abusive supervision, is the source of the negative conduct (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Workplace incivility may be enacted not just by supervisors or managers, but also by coworkers, clients, and/or customers. This distinguishes incivility from abusive supervision, where power and higher status is associated with the instigator (Tepper, 2000). Because workplace incivility can come from multiple sources, employees likely encounter workplace incivility than other

workplace mistreatment constructs (Cortina et al., 2001). These three distinctions help workplace incivility exist as a distinct construct in the negative workplace behavior literature because targets of these actions likely experience different cognitions, emotions, and behaviors as a consequence (Schilpzand et al., 2016; Baron, 2004).

Causes of Workplace Incivility

Estes and Wang (2016), in their exhaustive review, offered three primary causes of workplace incivility. The first was worker demographics. The workplace is filled with conflicting viewpoints and voices based on diversity in terms of age, values, education, race and ethnicity, nationality, political affiliation and religion—more so than at any time in this country since the Industrial Revolution (Estes & Wang, 2016). Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak (2000) opined workplace incivility "is a problem of values, ambitions, views, mind- sets, demographics and generations in conflict" (pg. 10). Therefore, though diversity can be an organizational asset and even a competitive advantage in terms of encouraging creativity, fostering innovation, and improving reputation, more diverse work environments that lack understanding of and empathy towards others may be bastions of incivility.

Their second cause of workplace incivility was workplace informality. Whereas the workplace was historically hierarchical in nature and much more structures, technological advances and organizational flattening have created more casual environments. According to Gonthier (2002), when workplaces went casual, the lines between what was and was not acceptable became blurred. That is, "many people became confused and ultimately concluded that anything goes" (Gonthier, 2002, pg. 7). As work environments became less formal, some long-standing cues and norms about respect and

politeness and civility may also have vanished (Estes & Wang, 2016). What was and was not appropriate became more difficult to discern (Pearson et al., 2000). Andersson & Pearson, 1999) conveyed that, in settings of organizational informality, the probability of the occurrence and/or escalation of workplace incivility are enhanced.

Finally, Estes & Wang (2016) claimed that "power and social status affect the nature and movement of incivility at work" (pg. 13). Those who hold and exercise more power in the organization have more ways to be uncivil and get away with it (Porath & Pearson, 2005) because those with less power tend to be the targets (Cortina et al., 2001). As workplace incivility starts at the top and travels downward, the hierarchical and power differences can make the offensive behavior seem inconsequential and even normal (Estes & Wang, 2016). In fact, Andersson and Pearson (1999) would point to this as the starting point in what they termed the *incivility spiral* that transpires in organizations. However, since most employees are reluctant to retaliate in an uncivil way to their superiors, uncivil actions are often either reciprocated to their co-workers or internalized.

Sources of Workplace Incivility

The workplace incivility literature, similar to the study of other negative workplace behaviors such as aggression, harassment, deviance, and bullying, has acknowledged three common sources from which the negative behaviors might arise: supervisors or managers, co-workers, and customers or clients (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010).

Workplace incivility research has long identified uncivil behaviors instigated by supervisors. Porath and Erez (2007) concluded that participants who experienced an uncivil incident from an authority figure had lower task and creative performance than

the control group. Kim and Shapiro (2008) asserted that supervisor-instigated workplace incivility caused negative emotions and retaliatory behaviors amongst employees. Lim and Teo (2009) found that uncivil cyber behaviors of supervisors was related to various deleterious outcomes, including decreased organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Interestingly, Lim and Lee (2009) determined that most reported workplace incivility was instigated by supervisors because incivility was a means of asserting power. They felt that, according to social power theory, "society confers greater power on particular individuals through social expectations and norms, and individuals lacking power are more likely to have power exerted against them" (Lim & Lee, 2009, pg. 96).

Coworker incivility has been examined as well. Minor-Rubino and Cortina (2004) discovered that coworker incivility had the most destructive outcomes for witnesses when the uncivil behaviors were directed toward females. In addition, coworker incivility was related to decreased organizational trust, turnover intentions, and burnout (Minor-Rubino & Cortina, 2004). Smith et al. (2010) found that coworker incivility was a predictor of decreased affective commitment. Taylor and Kluemper (2010) discovered coworker incivility was indicative of enacted aggression and reciprocated incivility. Totterdell, Hershcovis and Niven (2012) found that witnessing coworker incivility led to emotional depletion. Sliter, Sliter and Jex (2012) employed bank tellers to examine the consequences of customer incivility on employees. They found that coworker incivility was positively associated with absenteeism, tardiness and negatively related to sales performance. Finally, Scott, Restubog and Zagenczyk (2013) found those who instigated coworker incivility were often distrusted amongst their workgroups.

Incivility by clients and/or customers has also produced a similar set of detrimental incivility outcomes, though the body of research is smaller in scale. Beaudoin and Edgar (2003) found that nurses affected by patient incivility suffered decreased well-being and lower levels of job satisfaction and desire to remain with the organization. Most of this research comes from the service industry, where customer/worker interactions are most common. Dormann and Zapf (2004) identified the most common types of customer incivility as verbal aggression and disproportionate customer demands, or unattainable levels of service. Sliter et al. (2010) established a relationship between customer incivility and burnout. Finally, Koopman, Lin, Lennard, Matta, & Johnson (2020) found that customer incivility was associated with worker' morale and well-being. Still other researchers have explored multiple sources of incivility either simultaneously or made no distinction in the sources (e.g., Barker & Cortina, 2007; Spence Laschinger et al., 2009)).

A major problem with workplace incivility research is that, although it acknowledges the three different sources, researchers have tended to lump all the sources together without differentiation. Participants in incivility research are often asked to report how frequently they have experienced incivility from someone at work without the means to specify (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). In fact, the WIS developed by Cortina and colleagues (2001), which is the most frequently used instrument to study workplace incivility, does not separate supervisor-initiated from coworker-initiated incivility, nor does it even include customer-instigated incivility (Schilpzand et al., 2016). And because these studies fail to compare the incivility outcomes based on different sources, little is known as to whether different sources lead to different outcomes despite vast research

that discusses how status and role differentials influence the severity and impacts to various employee outcomes (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Though researchers have called for the distinction of these sources, practical research design considerations often limit the ability of researchers to collect such data (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Researchers have suggested such distinctions are worth identifying (e.g., Hershcovis and Barling, 2010) because source distinction informs more specific, targeted, and practical recommendations (Demsky et al., 2018).

Workplace Incivility Instruments

Workplace Incivility Scale

The majority of workplace incivility research has utilized the Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS), developed by Cortina et al. (2001). The WIS is a seven-item scale that asks respondents to determine how frequently they have encountered uncivil behaviors from supervisors or coworkers over the last five years. Respondents attempt to determine how often they experienced rude, disrespectful, or condescending behaviors (Cortina et al., 2001). The scale was constructed from a list of the most common negative actions in the workplace (Einarsen, 1999), which included devaluation of work efforts, insulting remarks, and social exclusion. The researchers derived the specific content that appeared on the WIS, however, from focus groups and interviews conducted in the organizational setting (Cortina et al., 2001). The survey "covered demographics; job, psychological, and somatic conditions; and experiences of interpersonal mistreatment, including incivility and sexual harassment" (Cortina et al., 2001, pg. 68). The WIS was updated and now contains 12 items that capture a broader range of uncivil actions, such as experiencing interruptions, angry outbursts, or receiving hostile looks from coworkers or supervisors

over the past year (Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013). To date, the WIS remains the standard workplace incivility instrument, and Cortina and colleagues' study (2001) has been cited more than 1,400 times.

Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire

The Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire (UWBQ), developed by Martin and Hine (2005), is a longer, 20-item, 4-factor scale assessed how frequently respondents experienced uncivil workplace behaviors, such as having others raise their voices, eye-rolling, being interrupted, being excluded, and being gossiped about by coworkers (Martin & Hine, 2005). The two primary differences between the WIS and the UWBQ were time frame and source. That is, the UMBQ had respondents respond to uncivil behaviors over the past year as opposed to the past five years, and the source of the workplace incivility was not identified. Martin & Hine (2005) reported the UMBQ had sound validity measures as well as discriminant psychometric properties than the WIS. To date, the UMBQ has been utilized in dozens of workplace incivility studies (e.g., Sears & Humiston, 2015; Kirk, Schutte, & Hine, 2011). In fact, Gray, Carter and Sears (2017) recently adapted the UMBQ (unidimensional scale) into a multidimensional scale that changed the referent from experienced to instigated incivility and usable with a wider range of occupations (Gray et al., 2017). Though the UMBQ-1 remained intact structurally, it accounted for additional variance (Gray et al., 2017).

Other Workplace Incivility Research Methods

Though the WIS and UMBQ are the most widely used workplace incivility measures, some researchers have adapted measures or experimental designs to capture the phenomenon. For instance, Porath and Erez, in two different studies (2009; 2007),

instead of utilizing surveys, implemented an experimental design to assess participant reactions to workplace incivility. Participants were exposed to rude, demeaning, uncivil actions by a person in authority and a third party. Despite the source, the same result was produced: uncivil actions reduced performance on routine tasks, performance on creative tasks, and helpfulness. In addition, Kim and Shapiro (2008) asked participants to read a scenario that included an uncivil interaction condition and fill out a survey of their perceptions. Montgomery, Kane, and Vance (2004) presented participants with a video that showed uncivil conduct and interactions in the workplace. Tremmel and Sonnentag (2017) as well as Totterdell et al. (2012) utilized a longitudinal a diary methodology to study the consequences of workplace incivility over time; and Diefendorff and Croyle (2008) asked employees in the customer service sector to imagine a customer behaving in an uncivil manner.

Types of Workplace Incivility

Not only do workplace incivility incidents vary with respect to time frame and sources, they differ with regard to the type of incivility. Workplace incivility studies can be broken into three types based on foci: those who instigate the incivility, those who experience the incivility (EWI), and those who witness the incivility. Most workplace incivility research focuses on EWI and various outcomes associated with that experience (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Given the focus of this dissertation is experienced workplace incivility (EWI), and because a subsequent section carefully examines that specific type, the following two sub-sections give brief overviews of the other two types of workplace incivility found in the literature.

Instigated Workplace Incivility

The work on instigated incivility focuses on the agents of uncivil behaviors in the organization. These studies attempt to understand what prompts these perpetrators to act uncivilly and what the outcomes are for these instigators (Schilpzand et al., 2016). To date, most studies have focused on the antecedents of instigator's incivility. These include positive relationships between workplace incivility and the various instigator's personal characteristics, including level of power (e.g., Cortina et al, 2001), trait anger (e.g., Meier, Gross, Spector & Semmer et al., 2013; Cortina et al., 2001), and confrontational or conflict-oriented management styles (e.g., Trudel & Reio, 2011; Porath & Erez, 2007). Additionally, studies have revealed positive relationships between certain perpetrator attitudes and instigated incivility. These include work exhaustion (e.g., Blau, 2007), emotional exhaustion (e.g., Van Jaarsveld, Walker & Skarlicki, 2010), and distrust (e.g., Scott et al., 2013). There have also been shown to be negative relationships between instigated workplace incivility and job satisfaction and distributive justice (e.g., Blau & Andersson, 2005) and procedural justice (e.g., Blau, 2007).

Certain situational variables or contextual factors are also thought to be antecedents to instigated incivility as well. Several researchers reported that workers who experienced incivility from supervisors (Trudel & Reio, 2011) and customers (Van Jaarsveld et al., 2010) were more likely to instigate more incivility in the future than those who did not experience incivility at all. In addition, increased job demands (e.g. Van Jaarsveld et al., 2010) as well as lack of reciprocity (e.g., Meier & Spector, 2013) positively predict instigated incivility in the workplace. One study of note has reported a few consequences of instigated incivility. Scott et al. (2013), whose study focused on call

center employees, discovered that those who instigated incivility at work were distrusted and ostracized by fellow employees.

Witnessed Workplace Incivility

Because workplace incivility takes place in a social setting, it is highly likely these incidents are witnessed by others (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Yet, to date, it has been the least researched type of workplace incivility. At the time of this dissertation, the researcher could locate only four major research projects that presented witnessed workplace incivility as the primary variable in the study. Thus, is it is still considered a developing area of study with various gaps in literature (Schilpzand, 2016). Those that have studied the construct, however, have provided interesting results. Montgomery and colleagues (2004) reported that females thought incivility was much more inappropriate than their male. Minor-Rubino & Cortina (2004) found that those employees working in groups that witnessed uncivil behavior reported higher levels of health-related issues and work withdrawal. In addition, Porath and Perez (2009) reported witnessed incivility is related to more negative affect, lower task performance, and fewer helpful behaviors in the organization. Finally, Totterdell et al. (2012) suggested witnessed incivility is related to emotional exhaustion, especially when the uncivil behaviors were witnessed directly.

Workplace Incivility Reference Periods

In the workplace civility literature, there is no one reference period considered the gold standard; depending on the study in question, workplace incivility has been assessed from up to five years after the experience. The common practice is for researchers to choose a specific reference period based on the frequency of the event that being rated or considered (Igou, Bless, & Schwarz, 2002). For those more infrequent events,

investigators prefer longer reference periods so as to minimize the number of participants who report nonoccurrence of the event in that time frame (Schilpzand et al., 2016). However, for more recurrent events, researchers choose shorter reference periods so that respondents do not forget those frequent incidents that happened in the more distal past (Igou et al., 2002). Thus, a lack of agreement exists regarding which is the most appropriate workplace incivility reference period (Schilpzand et al., 2016). It should be noted that this lack of reference period agreement has been pointed out as a shortcoming of workplace incivility research because the reference period may significantly influence how respondents interpret the questions in the survey (Schaeffer & Presser, 2003). In other words, "the reference period may prime the types and severity of the experiences participants recollect, which, in turn, is also likely to influence participants' perceptions of the effects that these incidents had on variables of interest" (Schilpzand, 2016, pg. 64). It would stand to reason that more proximal incivility experiences that have yet to be cognitively resolved may seem much impactful than those that happened years ago and have been better processed (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

Thus, meaningful workplace incivility research has been conducted with multiple reference period. Researchers have measured workplace incivility over five years (e.g., Lim & Lee, 2011; Minor-Rubino & Cortina, 2004). Some have assessed incivility over the past year (Walsh et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2013; Ferguson, 2012; Cortina et al., 2001). Still others have studies shorter reference periods. For instance, Wilson and Holmvall, (2013) examined workplace incivility experiences over the past 6 months, Blau (2007) inquired about workplace incivility over the past 4 months, and Scott et al. (2013) asked about incivility during the past 3 months. Sliter et al. (2012; 2010) asked about incivility

over a month's time, and Kern and Grandey (2009) queried respondents about uncivil actions they experienced over the past two weeks. Finally, Lim et al. (2018) assessed same-day experiences of incivility.

Experienced Workplace Incivility

Most research that constitutes the workplace incivility literature is concentrated on experienced workplace incivility (EWI). Those that experience the incivility of others—the targets—are most often the respondents in these studies that attempt to identify not only the antecedents and outcomes of EWI, but also what makes someone a likely target of uncivil behavior (Schilpzand et al., 2016). The Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001), the most utilized instrument in the workplace incivility literature, was originally design to capture EWI. Namely, it measured the frequency by which targets experienced disrespectful, rude, and condescending behaviors from both superiors and coworkers (Cortina et al., 2001). The following two sub-sections describe the antecedents and consequences of EWI found in the workplace incivility literature.

Antecedents of EWI

The research on antecedents of EWI is still lacking (Schilpzand et al., 2016) as most research effort shave focused on target outcomes. Though most early studies focused on the consequences of EWI, some research has accumulated on the precursors of EWI. These antecedents can be divided into three categories: target dispositions, target behaviors, and contextual aspects. Combined, these studies provide a foundation to understand those who are most likely to experience incivility at work.

Targets' Dispositions

Age is a dispositional target attribute that has long been associated with discourteous treatment at work. Leiter et al. (2017) reported that younger (Gen X) employees reported more uncivil treatment than older (Baby Boomer) workers. Similarly, Lim & Lee (2011) found that younger workers reported more EMI than older workers. Personality traits have also appeared in workplace incivility studies as antecedents. A study by Milam, Spitzmueller and Penney (2009) indicated that employees high in neuroticism and low in agreeableness reported higher levels of EWI.

Interestingly, some have pointed out that workplace incivility enactment might be a modern way to discriminate (Cortina, 2008). Given that overt discriminatory conduct such as sexism and racism are no longer tolerated in the organization and because legislation (i.e., Title VII) prohibits such conduct in the workplace (Schilpzand, 2016), "employees may at times be differentially targeted with incivility on the basis of their sex or race, potentially creating disparate work environments across social groups" (Cortina, 2008, pg. 68). Incivility may, in fact, be a pattern that is directed at certain races and/or genders in certain organizations. In such instances, Cortina (2008) asserted that incivility in organizations is nothing more than a disguised form of workplace discrimination.

For the most part, research seems to support Cortina's (2008) theory. In multiple studies, females have been associated with higher levels of EWI (e.g., Cortina et al., 2013; Trudel & Reio, 2011; Cameron & Webster, 2011; Cortina et al., 2001). Milam et al., (2009) found that both obese white and black females experienced more uncivil actions than obese white or black males. One study of note, however, found that men experienced more workplace incivility than their female counterparts (Lim & Lee, 2011).

In addition, Cortina et al. (2013) found that a higher proportion of males in a workgroup led to more reported levels of EWI.

Additionally, race has also been positively related with EWI. Cameron & Webster (2011) found minority status predicted EWI. More recently, Welbourne, Gangadharan, and Sariol (2015) reported that Hispanic males reported higher levels of uncivil experiences at work than their non-Hispanic male coworkers. Their conclusion was that ethnicity may be a preceding factor in EWI.

Targets' Behaviors

A few scholars have explored potential behaviors that make it more likely for employees to become targets of workplace incivility. Personnel that employ dominating conflict management styles have a positive relationship with EWI, while those with integrative conflict management styles experience less incivility (Trudel & Reio, 2011). Cameron and Webster (2011) found that those utilizing various multi-communication technologies were more likely to experience workplace incivility as well. Counterproductive workplace behaviors, which are usually a reported outcome in organizational literature, have been explored as antecedents to EWI. Meier and Spector (2013) reported that both interpersonal and organizational counterproductivity were related to EWI up to 8 months later. In addition,

Context

It has been well documented that civility trainings and intervention programs work to reduce EWI in organizations. In two studies, Leiter, Day, Oore and Laschinger (2012) and Spence Laschinger and colleagues (2012) both found that 6-month interventions decreased experienced incivility from supervisors after the intervention, but

it did not significantly impact EWI from of co-workers. Leiter et al. (2012), through pre- and post-testing, discovered that 12-month incivility interventions decreased EWI from supervisors as well. Taylor and Kluemper (2012) discovered that perceived role ambiguity and role conflict (but not overload) were antecedents of EWI, which then led to more aggressive behaviors.

Consequences of EWI

The majority of research has focused on the consequences of targets' experiences as opposed to the antecedents (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Researchers have shown those who experience workplace incivility are related various affective, attitudinal, cognitive, and behavioral consequences.

Affective Outcomes

Researchers have discovered that EWI has detrimental effects on one's emotions and feelings. Targets of workplace incivility have heightened emotionality and decreased levels of optimism (Bunk & Magley, 2013). Sliter et al. (2010) reported EWI was positively related to emotional exhaustion through the mechanism of perceived emotional labor demands of one's job. Kern & Grandey (2009) and Adams & Webster (2013) also linked EWI to emotional labor and emotional exhaustion. General negative emotions were the consequence of EWI in several studies (e.g., Sakurai & Jex, 2012; Kim & Shapiro, 2008), as was depression (e.g., Lim & Lee, 2011; Miner-Rubino, 2004). Furthermore, higher negative affect and lower positive affect were found in targets (Giumetti et al., 2013), in addition to decreased affective trust in the instigator (Cameron & Webster, 2011).

Other negative outcomes EWI include depleted levels of cognitive, emotional, and social energy (Giumetti et al., 2013), increased levels of stress (Adams & Webster, 2013; Miner et al., 2010; Lim & Cortina, 2005), and psychological distress (Kern & Grandey, 2009). Porath & Pearson (2012) discovered a range of emotional reactions to EWI, including increased anger, fear, and sadness, while Lim's research team (2016) linked EWI with guilt, and Liu and colleagues (2018) found EWI was related to burnout. EWI has also been connected with targets' personal and home lives, such as lower levels of overall well-being (Lim et al., 2008), anger and withdrawal at home (Lim et al., 2016), decreased marital satisfaction (Ferguson, 2012) and more intense work–family conflict (Ferguson, 2012).

Attitudinal Outcomes

Researchers assert that EWI also impacts the recipients' attitudes at both work and home. For instance, EWI decreases worker optimism (Bunk & Magley, 2013). Many studies indicate that targets of incivility at work have decreased satisfaction with their jobs (Wilson & Holmvall, 2013; Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010; Lim et al., 2008) as well as lower satisfaction with those they work with, including their supervisors and coworkers (Bunk & Magley, 2013). Cortina et al. (2005) found that experienced incivility negatively impacted all facets of job satisfaction, which includes work satisfaction, pay satisfaction, and promotion satisfaction. In addition, Lim and Teo (2009) found targets of cyber incivility at work had reduced levels of organizational commitment. Others, such as Miner-Rubino et al. (2010, 2004), discovered targets of EWI reported lower life and health satisfaction, while Lim & Cortina (2005) discovered those experiencing uncivil

behaviors at work report more negative away-from-work attitudes, such as decreased marital and partner satisfaction.

Behavioral Outcomes

Experienced workplace incivility is concomitant with various counterproductive behavioral responses by its targets. Research suggests that those experiencing workplace incivility are likely to reciprocate the incivility (Bunk & Magley, 2013) engage in retaliatory behaviors (Kim & Shapiro, 2008), become deviant (Lim & Teo, 2009), and display more counterproductive behaviors at work (Penney & Spector, 2005). Further, Lutgen-Sandvik (2003) submitted that EWI may be a precursor to workplace aggression and violence on behalf of targets, and that it could lead to sabotage at the hands of the targets. Additionally, EWI also affects targets' performance-related domains, like task performance (Chen et al., 2013; Giumetti et al., 2013) creativity (Porath & Erez, 2007), and OCBs (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). Yet targets rarely report these behaviors to organizational authorities (Cortina & Magley, 2009), perhaps less than half of employees think their organization would be responsive to workplace incivility (Pearson & Porath, 2004).

Pearson and Porath (2005) observed that employees experiencing incivility in the workplace intentionally reduced their work effort, spent work time telling coworkers about the incident, and avoided the instigator. Eventually these uncivil experiences cause targets to become less engaged at work (Chen et al., 2013) and even withdraw from collaborative and team-oriented assignments (Pearson et al., 2000). EWI additionally relates to a host of negative outcomes, including decreased career salience (Lim & Teo, 2009), heightened levels of absenteeism (Sliter et al., 2012), withdrawal behavior (Lim &

Corina, 2005), and leave intentions (Wilson & Holmvall, 2013). In addition, Yamada (2000) reported greater levels of stress, depression, mood swings, sleep problems, and feelings of shame, guilt, embarrassment, and lower self-esteem in a sample of lawyers who experienced workplace incivility. EWI eventually leads employees to exit the organization at higher rates (Porath & Pearson, 2012; 2005; Lim & Cortina, 2004). In fact, Porath and Pearson (2005) found that half of the participants in their study considered leaving the organization because of the incivility they experienced or to avoid the instigator.

Cognitive Outcomes

In terms of cognitive outcomes, much less research has accumulated. Still, a few studies have identified some of the cognitive outcomes of those workers experiencing incivility. EWI can lead to cognitive distraction while at work (Porath & Pearson, 2009) as well as decreased cognitive memory (Porath & Erez, 2007, 2009). Giumetti et al. (2013) found that exposure to cyber incivility tended to decreased people's cognitive energy levels and task engagement. One of the more alarming cognitive outcomes of EWI was reported by Porath and Erez (2009). They found that incivility and rudeness was related to dysfunctional ideation or thinking in aggressive and/or hostile ways. Cognitive reactions to incivility have also been found to create a negative relationship with perceptions of fairness (Lim & Lee, 2011) and task-related recall (Porath & Erez, 2007), However, EWI has shown to have a positive relationship with organizational injustice and organizational ostracism (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Pre-Quitting Behaviors

People routinely observe friends and strangers and attempt to predict their future behaviors. In fact, the basis of social science research is that people's behaviors reveal information about their thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and intentions. A core tenet of social perception research is that patterns of behaviors reflect dispositional attributes (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Simply stated, we better understand people with whom we interact by observing their behaviors because outward actions reveal inner core traits and dispositions. This premise allows scholars to ascertain people's enduring personality traits and identify their transient states (e.g., attitudes, behavioral intentions) to predict future behavior (Gardner et al., 2016). For example, DePaulo, Lindsay, Malone, Muhlenbruck, Charlton, and Cooper (2003) determined that people who told lies unconsciously revealed their deception through behavioral cues that truthful individuals failed to exhibit. In addition, in two independent studies, individuals unwittingly projected their intention to cooperate with or defect against their partner prior to participating in the Prisoner's Dilemma game (DeSteno et al., 2012; Sparks et al., 2016). As it relates to relationships, psychologists have discovered unfaithful partners may accidentally display behavioral cues that signal their infidelity (Shackelford & Buss, 1997). Finally, Gottman (2003) determined that couples convey the strength of their marriage via observable behavioral cues that can predict the likelihood of future divorce.

But despite the proof in the social science—and even widespread belief in the turnover literature—that employees with a predisposition to exit their current position demonstrate observable behaviors that can predict their future turnover (e.g., Branham, 2005; Harris, Kacmar & Witt, 2005), behavioral propensity frameworks have not been

widely considered as a means to predict employee turnover (Gardner et al., 2016). The turnover literature has instead focused on traits (gender), attitudes (job satisfaction), cognitions (turnover intentions), and contexts (embeddedness in local communities) that persuade employees to either stay with or exit the organization (e.g., Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012; Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Besides job searching scarce behavioral expressions of dissatisfaction such as avoidance and absenteeism (e.g. Schleicher, Watt, & Greguras, 2004), turnover researchers have not concentrated on behaviors that might forecast organizational withdrawal, especially those that might appear early in the employee's voluntary turnover process (Gardner et al., 2016).

Gardner et al. (2016) recently introduced the concept of pre-quitting behaviors, or PQBs. The concept of PQBs is grounded in the aforementioned social perception research. Once employees have decided to leave an organization and are planning their withdrawal, they likely will unwittingly elicit a number of behaviors that signal these intentions. These behaviors may or may not be noticed by supervisors and/or coworkers, yet are displayed. Until recently, instrumentation to assess these behaviors was nonexistent. Gardner et al. (2016) proposed that employees display, or 'leak' behaviors that signal their impending exit (Gardner et al., 2016). Thus, their PQBs instrument, grounded in personality judgement theory, measures individuals' public behaviors (via supervisors and/or coworkers) that can be used to predict future voluntary turnover behaviors. In their seven-phase process of scale development, Gardner and colleagues 2016), who were initially provided 931 behaviors from a sample of 193 respondents that actually left employment in the previous year, produced a 14-item scale of what they termed *prototypical* pre-quitting behaviors.

The single factor scale had very sound, statistically significant loadings and strong reliability measures (α = .96; Gardner et al., 2016). The researchers' confirmatory factor analysis suggested the overall pattern of the three fit statistics fit the data very well as a one-factor model (CFI = .95, SRMR = .03, and RMSEA = .10; Gardner et al., 2016), and satisfied convergent and discriminant validity. Finally, efforts were made to validate the predictive qualities of the PQBs scale as it related to turnover. Results revealed the PQBs instrument did, in fact, "forecast future voluntary turnover and do so over and above established predictors" (Gardner et al., 2016; pg. 20). Thus, their PQBs scale transforms measurable behaviors into useful information about turnover proclivity and employees who are in the process of leaving, and it can be utilized to predict future voluntary turnover (Gardner et al., 2016).

EWI and PQBs

A stressor refers to the discomfort individuals experience as a consequence of work situations, which usually occurs when they feel there is a discrepancy between their job demands and job resources (Jex, Beehr, & Roberts, 1992; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The occupational stress literature has both recognized the role of emotions in the work-related stress process and characterized interpersonal mistreatment as a stressor that leads to strains (e.g., Frone, 2000; Spector & Jex, 1998). Stressors are inciting incidents that prompt negative reactions, while strains are the negative consequences of those stressors (Adams & Webster, 2012). Stressors refer to the discomfort individuals experience as a consequence of work situations, which usually occurs when there is a discrepancy between job demands and job resources (Jex & Beehr, 1991; Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). Examples of workplace stress include interpersonal conflict and high job demands

(Spector & Goh, 2002). Spector and Jex's (1998) job stress model states that when individuals perceive environmental stressors and appraise them as such, it leads to the experience of negative emotions such as anxiety or anger, which are followed by reactions to the stressors. These reactions can manifest physically, psychologically or behaviorally (Jex & Beehr, 1991).

Exposure to incivility at workplace is a type of personal level job stressor (Lim et al., 2008) that leads to negative emotions in targets, which in turn, lead to strains. Workplace incivility is an event or condition in the environment that necessitates a response. Such responses, for example, could be absence from work (behavioral) in order to avoid the source of incivility, or feelings of confusion and sadness (psychological) and related levels of increased anxiety (physical) as a result of experiencing incivility. This claim is supported in research conducted by Caza and Cortina (2007) and who found that undergraduate working students' feelings of general psychological distress such as depression and anxiety increased as the experience of incivility became more frequent. Adams and Webster (2012) provide further support in their study which was conducted with employees from an engineering firm who reported greater distress as a result of experiencing incivility. Thus, interpersonal mistreatment at work is a stressful event that can ignite undesirable affect-driven behaviors (Adams & Webster, 2012).

Workplace incivility, like other types of interpersonal mistreatment, is a stressful, emotion-provoking event (Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008; Spector & Goh, 2001). According to affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), individuals have affective reactions to events that happen in life, including the workplace. Workplace events influence employee attitudes and behaviors via their influence on employee

emotions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). When one experiences uncivil behaviors from supervisors and/or coworkers, the embarrassment, humiliation, or shame can activate a strong emotional response. These stressful events at work can influence future negative behaviors (e.g., withdrawal or exit) because they are perceived to be so adverse and harmful. Positive events tend to prompt positive emotions, but negative events tend to elicit more intense negative emotions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) because of their more pressing and potentially harmful impact (Taylor, 1991).

As indicated, previous research has confirmed the relationships between EWI and various pre-withdrawal attitudes and behaviors, including work disengagement (Chen et al., 2013), decreased job satisfaction (Lim et al., 2008), job withdrawal, (Cortina et al., 2001), and turnover intentions (Cortina et al., 2013). Because employees who have experienced incivility in the workplace are more likely to have negative affective reactions that cause them to exit the organization at higher rates (Porath & Pearson, 2012; 2005; Lim & Cortina, 2004), their intentions to withdraw from the organization will tend to be unintentionally leaked and signaled through various PQBs. The researcher hypothesizes the following:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between EWI from (a) supervisors and (b) customers and PQBs.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion has been a significant topic of interest in the organizational literature because it has important implications for employees' well beings and qualities of life that impact organizational productivity and functioning (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Kahill, 1988). Researchers have linked emotional exhaustion to myriad physical

ailments and health problems in individuals, including colds, gastro-intestinal issues, headaches, sleep disturbance and insomnia, depression, and family conflict (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Kahill, 1988; Leiter, 1998; Belcastro & Hays, 1984; Belcastro, 1982). However, though health and physical well-being alone seem to be ample incentive for its study, there remain additional justifications for emotional exhaustion research because they can have detrimental organizational implications beyond physiological problems.

Emotional exhaustion was originally conceptualized as one of three sub-dimensions in Maslach and Jackson's (1981) model of burnout, along with depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. In recent years, however, emotional exhaustion has emerged as a central variable for understanding the burnout process (Alcaron, Eschleman, & Bowling, 2009) for several reasons. First, of the three sub-dimensions of burnout, emotional exhaustion exhibits the best conceptual fit. It also seems to capture the core meaning of burnout better than the other two components (Pines & Aronson, 1988). Moreover, emphasizing emotional exhaustion allows scholars to more clearly discriminate burnout from the related concepts such as self-efficacy and self-esteem (Shirom, 1989). The result has been that emotional exhaustion and burnout are somewhat interchangeable, as researchers have used emotional exhaustion as a proxy for burnout (Tuithof, ten Have, Beekman, van Dorsselaer, Kleinjan, Schaufeli, & de Graaf, 2017).

Emotional exhaustion can be defined as a chronic state of psychological depletion, energy loss, and fatigue. It can cause employees to feel psychologically and emotionally drained (Cropanzano et al., 2003). Emotional exhaustion describes the feeling of being emotionally weary and exhausted by one's work due to excessive job

demands, stressors, overextension, and hassles (Shirom, 1989; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Zohar, 1997). Cordes and Dougherty (1993) described emotional exhaustion as a state where one lacks energy and a has the feeling that their emotional resources are used up. Leiter (2017) explained that emotional exhaustion rises in response a demanding work environment that involves stressors. Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001) suggested that emotional exhaustion "closely resembles traditional stress reactions that are studied in occupational stress research, such as fatigue, job-related depression, psychosomatic complaints, and anxiety" (p. 499). Given these observations, it is reasonable to conceptualize emotional exhaustion as a type of strain that results from workplace stressors (Hülsheger, Albert, Feinholdt & Lang, 2013).

EWI and EE

In general, employees are confronted with a variety of demands and challenges in the workplace. Common stressors could include customer service, increased workloads, competitive environments, challenging bosses, and confusing job roles, difficult coworker relationships, and uncivil encounters. Confronting work-related demands such as incivility results in a depletion of cognitive and emotional resources (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 2018). Over time, exposure to workplace mistreatments, like incivility, can lead to emotional exhaustion (Lloyd, Boer, Keller, & Voelpel, 2015). Demerouti, et al. (2001) proposed that emotional exhaustion is closely related to fatigue, job-related depression, and anxiety. Given these observations, it is reasonable to conceptualize emotional exhaustion as a type of strain that results from workplace stressors (Hülsheger et al., 2013).

According to affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), workplace events influence not only employee behaviors, but also employee affect. Workplace incivility, for instance, can impact affect and behaviors through an emotional mechanism. Simply stated, emotional exhaustion is an effective response to stressful events at work (Zohar, 1997). Research shows that, as one encounters increased stressors at work, it can necessitate more effort to control one's emotions, and this leads to emotional exhaustion (Sonnentag, Kuttler & Fritz, 2010). Investigators point to the fact that emotional exhaustion is the product of repeated exposure to stressors or long-term involvement in situations that are psychologically challenging and/or emotionally demanding (e.g., Wright & Cropanzano 1998; Zohar 1997). As stressors lead to increased levels of emotional exhaustion, workers begin to feel inadequate in fulfilling their job demands, and work loses its meaning (Leiter, 2017). In addition, those events that are deemed more relevant by an individual are likely to have more affective significance to the individual (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In other words, a negative workplace experience that is considered important to an employee will trigger a stronger affective reaction that could lead to a more devastating outcome. Kern and Grandey (2009) found an association between employees who experienced incivility from customers and emotional exhaustion because words and deeds that convey disrespect tend to cause psychological harm to the targets (Pearson et al., 2001). Targets assess incivility as stressful events that can hurt their feelings and cause affective impairments, including emotional exhaustion (Estes & Wang, 2008). Therefore, the researcher hypothesizes the following:

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between EWI from (a) supervisors and (b) customers and emotional exhaustion.

EE and PQBs

Friedrickson's (2001) Broaden-and-Build Theory is founded on the premise that positive worker emotions lead to positive outcomes. Thus, emotionally exhausted workers who have endured negative emotions because of EWI have deleterious effects on the organization. Fredrickson (2001) asserted that positive emotions, such as joy and happiness, can broadened one's mindset and carry indirect and long-term adaptive value because broadenings assist in building the individual's enduring personal resources. When a worker can experience positive interactions and circumstances, that worker has a greater capacity to thrive, flourish, and grow (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). As an example, Wright and Bonnett (1997) found the positive emotion interest fosters one's "desire to explore, assimilate new experiences, encounter new information, and grow" (pg. 93). So, theoretically, as individuals work in in positive, encouraging environs, they feel supported to build-and-broaden and achieve higher levels of work engagement. Unfortunately, the opposite would be also to true. Emotionally exhausted workers would not feel the support necessary to expend their mindsets. They would build fewer personal resources in their jobs and would not thrive as compared to their higher emotionally fulfilled counterparts. Workers who experience more negative emotions such as sadness, confusion, anger, and frustration are less productive (Spector, 1997), and lack a psychological connection to their work (Bakker et al., 2011).

Emotional exhaustion, as an antecedent, has been linked to various negative employee outcomes related to quit intentions and job withdrawal (Estes & Wang, 2016;

Zohar, 1997). In addition, emotionally exhausted workers manifest lower levels of job satisfaction (Hülsheger et al., 2013), organizational commitment (Lee & Ashforth, 1990; Leiter & Maslach, 1988), job performance (Grandey & Fisk, 2004), OCBs (Cropanzano et al., 2001), and turnover (Westman & Eden, 1997).

Those who experience workplace incivility will tend to exhibit more emotional exhaustion (Kern & Grandey, 2000). Emotional exhausted workers are weary with their work and tasks. The excessive job demands they feel create a sense of overextension (Shirom, 1989). They are anxious about showing up at work and feel depleted at the end of the workday. They lack energy and feel all emotional resources are depleted (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). When all of these factors are present and create psychological stress for an employee, workers feel inadequate and work loses its meaning (Leiter, 2017).

All of this results in emotionally exhausted employees who demonstrate greater propensities to seek employment elsewhere (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Workers experiencing incivility will begin to contemplate and plan their organizational exit, looking for greener pastures. As they do so, they will leak and signal PQBs (Gardner et al., 2016) that indicate their impending departure the organization. Thus, the researcher further hypothesizes the following:

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between emotional exhaustion and PQBs.

Emotional exhaustion is chronic state of psychological depletion, energy loss, and fatigue that can be the result of myriad work situations or circumstances, including EWI. When employees are subjected to rude comments, insensitive behaviors, and a lack of professionalism over time, they tend to exhibit emotional exhaustion. Emotionally

exhausted employees become unhappy employees (Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander, 2006). High levels of exhaustion further add to an employee's feelings of dissatisfaction (Babakus, Cravens, Johnson, & Moncrief, 1999; Mulki et al., 2006). Studies have shown that as emotionally exhausted employees become more dissatisfied with their jobs, they eventually become less committed to the organization (e.g., Babakus et al., 1999) which would likely lead to thoughts of organizational exit. Thus, because the researcher has hypothesized positive relationships between EWI and PQBs, EWI and emotional exhaustion, as well as emotional exhaustion and PQBs, the researcher further hypothesizes:

Hypothesis 4: Emotional exhaustion mediates the relationships between EWI from (a) supervisors and (b) customers and PQBs.

Illegitimate Tasks

Organizational researchers have examined the relationships between low degrees of justice (or fairness) and unfavorable outcomes, including CWBs (e.g., Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1996; Spector & Goh, 2001; Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005). Illegitimate tasks (ITs), as introduced by Semmer et al. (2010), is a task related CWB that violate people's professional identities. "A task is legitimate to the extent that it conforms to norms about what can reasonably be expected from a given person, and it is illegitimate to the extent that it violates such norms" (Semmer et al., 2010, pg. 72). Legitimate and illegitimate tasks are dependent upon people's roles within an organization. Roles are connected to certain sets of expectations (Stryker & Burke, 2000) in that a role defines what is/is not expected from the person in that role. Simply stated, if a task is expected of someone, it's legitimate; if a task is not expected of someone, it is illegitimate. As an

example, legitimate tasks of a professor might be to teach, publish, and advise. But ITs would include cleaning bathrooms, delivering campus mail, and repairing lab equipment.

IT research has grown out of the larger, much more rooted job demand literature. Job demands are physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require substantial effort (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Thus, they relate to certain physiological and/or psychological costs and become stress when meeting demands requires great effort (Jacobshagen, 2006). In these instances, the job demand may become a strain that elicits negative responses such as depression, anxiety, or burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). An IT can be considered both a task-related stressor as well as a social stressor (Jacobshagen, 2006).

Task-related stressors are things such as unforeseen task difficulties, interruptions, technical or organizational problems, lack of knowledge, spurious feedback, or role ambiguity, and time pressure (Frese & Zapf, 1994). Illegitimate tasks are considered a task-related stressor because when tasks are assigned that one feels are not important to complete and/or their task to perform, it makes good performance difficult. And because some identity strongly with their work and self-esteem is tied to performance at work (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008), failing to reach performance standards may threaten the self (Semmer et al., 2015).

ITs are also social stressors (Dorman & Zapf, 2002; Jacobshagen, 2006; Semmer et al., 2010). A social stressor can be a social animosity, conflict with a co-worker or supervisor, an unfair behavior, or a negative climate (Dormann & Zapf, 2002). Social stressors have been found to constitute an important stress factor (e.g., Dormann & Zapf, 2002; Zapf, Doorman, & Frese, 1996) to workers. Social stressors induce stress and strain

because they threaten self-esteem (Dormann & Zapf, 2002) and the positive view of self when negative evaluations and/or attributions of blame are involved (Reicherts & Pihet, 2000). According to Semmer et al., "tasks may carry social messages that are not tied to their characteristics in terms of intrinsic aspects (e.g. dirty work), or in terms of task design (e.g. autonomy)" (2015, pg. 33). Thus, a task may be normal in principle, but relate a demeaning social message under specific circumstances.

The literature has identified two types of ITs: *unreasonable* and *unnecessary.* Unreasonable tasks are those that fall outside the scope of the employee's occupational role. In some instances, it is being asked to perform work often regarded as a service, or even complete an o OCB (Semmer et al., 2010). Tasks may also be considered unreasonable if they conflict with specific aspects of one's roles, such as education, experience, authority, or expertise (Semmer et al., 2014). For instance, a highly educated nurse practitioner that is asked by a doctor to clean up soiled linens in a patient's room may argue (a) that is outside his/her role, (b) their education level has moved them beyond this task, and (c) their level of expertise is beyond the scope of this task. Unnecessary tasks, on the other hand, are tasks that must be completed due to inefficiencies, lack of information, failure to plan, etc. In other words, these tasks are avoidable (Semmer et al., 2015), or they just don't make sense (Semmer et al., 2010). An example might be an employee having to re-enter data into a database because two newly purchased computer systems were not compatible. It's an illegitimate task because, although the data-entry task itself is unavoidable, it was unnecessary to complete the task twice. Interestingly, Semmer and colleagues (2010) found that ITs induced negative affect (e.g. anger) as well as a desire for getting even for being wronged.

ITs are what Björk, Bejerot, Jacobshagen, & Härenstam (2013) labeled the "I shouldn't have to do this" tasks. It should be noted the commonality of both unnecessary and unreasonable tasks is that the employee perspective is that he/she should not be expected to perform them. "It is this lack of legitimacy, and the social message of disrespect associated with it, that distinguishes illegitimate tasks from existing concepts in occupational stress research" (Semmer et al., 2010).

ITs and PQBs

People occupy roles in organizations, and roles are connected to expectations of the behaviors that are and are not expected (Stryker & Burke, 2000), at least under normal circumstances. Professional roles, however, for many people, become part of their social identity (Warr, 1987) that provides them with a sense of meaning and purpose (Thoits, 1991). According to social identity theory, people tend to value their professional roles, they defend them against negative evaluations, and they make favorable social comparisons (Meyer, Becker, & van Dick, 2006). So, affirming one's professional identity likely induces pride and self-esteem, whereas threats to the same professional identity would likely be stressful (Warr, 1987). When one is confronted with contradictory expectations, such as incongruous tasks, role conflict is enacted (Semmer et al., 2015).

Illegitimate tasks represent a specific instance of role conflict; it is a conflict "between the focal person's internal standards or values and the defined role behavior" (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970, pg. 155). Illegitimate tasks have the potential to threaten not only one's role in the organization, but their overall identity as well. Because roles are connected not only to expectations but also to identity, people may tend to

distance themselves from a role that is conflicting (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004; Semmer & Schallberger, 1996). Being responsible for tasks that seem incompatible to roles constitutes what Thoits (1991) termed identity-threatening stressors.

In addition to role conflict, ITs also represent distributive justice to the extent an employee sees a task as an outcome (Semmer et al., 2010) that is distributed by a supervisor. If an employee concludes task distribution decisions were made in an unfair manner and indicates disrespectful behavior, procedural and interactional (in)justice are relevant as well (Semmer et al., 2010). Injustice constitutes a stressor (Greenberg, 2010) because it implies one's standing in the social hierarchy. This also impacts esteem and the sense of self. Thus, if employees are deprived of justice, they likely feel disrespected and threatened (Cropanzano et al., 2001).

When an employee is given a task that he/she believes is unreasonable or unnecessary, they experience role conflict as a strain, and this event induces stress. Numerous studies have established distinct relationships between role conflict and quit intentions (Good, Sisler & Gentry, 1988; Boyar, Maertz, Pearson & Keough, 2003), role conflict and work engagement (Breevart & Bakker, 2018), and role conflict and CWBs (Zhang, Crant, & Weng, 2019; Bowling & Eschelman, 2010). Similarly, extensive literature also links felt injustices to quit intentions (DeConick & Johnson, 2009), organizational commitment (Sjahruddin & Sudiro, 2013), work engagement (Strom, Sears, & Kelly, 2014), and CWBs (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001).

Given that PQBs are behaviors unwittingly elicited by employees who are intent on exiting the organization, the researcher hypothesizes:

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between ITs and PQBs.

ITs and EE

Stressors, such as ITs, carry the potential to induce strain. One prerequisite for strain to occur is the threat that one may not attainment important goals, and goals are especially important for most people if they are related to the self (Leary, 1999), that helps preserve a positive self-image. As mentioned, several stress-response mechanisms elicit negative emotional and psychological reactions (Lim et al., 2008; Bunk & Magley, 2013; Lim, Ilies, & Koopman, Christoforou, & Arvey, 2016). When one considers that emotional exhaustion is a chronic state of psychological depletion, energy loss, and fatigue, it becomes obvious that the assignment of tasks considered to be illegitimate could lead to employees feeling psychologically and emotionally drained. In fact, excessive job demands and overextension of tasks were related to emotional exhaustion in previous studies (e.g., Shirom, 1989; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Zohar, 1997). Further, because demanding work environment have also been linked to emotionally exhausted employee stressors (Hülsheger et al., 2013), it seems reasonable to hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between ITs and emotional exhaustion.

ITs, EE, and PQBs

ITs are wrongfully assigned tasks that induce stress in employees because of potential role conflict and/or perceptions that injustices have occurred (Lim & Lee, 2011). As mentioned, emotionally exhausted employees are unhappy employees (Mulki et al., 2006) with increase feelings of dissatisfaction (Babakus et al., 1999). Dissatisfied employees tend to ponder ways to exit the organization (Hom et al., 2012). When that

exit is near, they will elicit certain behaviors just before leaving (Gardner et al., 2018). Therefore, because the researcher has hypothesized positive relationships between ITs and PQBs, ITs and emotional exhaustion, as well as emotional exhaustion and PQBs, the researcher further hypothesizes:

Hypothesis 7: Emotional exhaustion mediates the relationship between ITs and PQBs.

Safety Behavior

Corporations have focused on the safe behaviors of their employees for centuries. Safety behavior is defined as the behavior through which people abide by the operating rules at work, as well as all rules and regulations made for the purpose of ensuring their own safety and co-worker safety (Soo & Ali, 2013); it also refers to the series of conscious behaviors made by people in the process of work to avoid accidents and maintain their own well-being (Soo & Ali, 2013). Neal and Griffin (2006) divided the safety behavior into two different dimensions: safety obedience behavior and safety participation behavior. Safety obedience behavior are those behaviors that promote work to be done in a safe way; these behaviors are in accordance with the safety procedures and policies mandated by the organization (Neal & Griffin, 2006). Safety participation behavior on the other hand, are behaviors that help employees actively participate in the creation of a safe workplace beyond the normal organization regulations (Neal & Griffin, 2006), almost like safety OCBs.

One way to consider employee adherence to safety protocols and regulations is through the concept of psychological contract. Psychological contract is defined as the perceived mutual obligations that exist employees and the employers (Robinson, Kraatz,

& Rousseau, 1994), or "the idiosyncratic set of reciprocal expectations held by employees concerning their obligations (i.e. what they will do for the employer) and their entitlements (i.e. what they expect to receive in return)" (McLean Parks, Kidder, & Gallagher, 1998, pg. 698). The psychological contract, therefore, reflects the employees' understanding of and belief in reciprocity, and serves as a baseline to evaluate employee investments into the organizations as well as the benefits received in return (Piccoli & de Witte, 2015). Employees expect rewards (paychecks, promotions, etc.) from the organization while, at the same time, the organization places certain demands on the individual (commitment, schedules, etc.). The reciprocal relationship creates increasing obligations between the parties as an exchange relationship is formed (Blau, 1964). Psychological contract stresses the idea of balance; it is fundamental (Piccoli & de Witte, 2015). Any perceived imbalance is considered a breach of the contract, especially from the employee's perspective. Psychological contract breach, therefore, almost always describes employee perceptions regarding the extent to which the organization has failed to fulfil its promises or obligations (McLean Parks et al., 1998). These unmet expectations of employees lie at the basis of a psychological contract breach (Piccoli & de Witte, 2015).

EE and Safety Behavior

Psychological contract breach has been linked to several negative employment outcomes and negative affective reactions (Piccoli & de Witte, 2015) as well as negative emotional experiences (Morison & Robinson, 1997), including emotional exhaustion. As discussed, emotional exhaustion can be described as psychological weariness and fatigue due negative experiences at one's work (Shirom, 1989) or a demanding work

environment (Leiter, 2017). Previous studies have shown that the psychological contract can regulate the behavior of employees in their work, including following safety procedures (Turnley, Bolino, & Lester, 2003). That is, as long as employees feel the psychological contract intact and the employer is providing what is expected, they are more likely to follow organizational procedures, including safety protocols. However, employer violation of the psychological contract—such as employees experiencing incivility—can lead to a series of negative emotions, including emotional exhaustion (Wang, Jiang, Yang, & Shing Chan, 2016).

EWI is a breach of the psychological contract in that targets receive rudeness and unnecessarily impolite words and gestures in workplace, which is not part of the expected reciprocity. The researcher has established the hypothesized relationship between EWI and emotional exhaustion, and he has additionally described how psychological contract breach leads to emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, when psychological contracts are validated, employees are more likely to follow organizational procedures and policies, including safety protocols (Turnley et al., 2003). Therefore, because EWI is a breach of the psychological contract that leads to emotional exhaustion in turn, as employees become more emotionally exhausted, they will pay less attention to safety behaviors and adhere to organizational policies. Thus:

Hypothesis 8: There is a negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and COVID 19-related safety behaviors.

Workplace Deviance

Regardless of the industry, every workplace has an acceptable set of behavioral standards, referred to as organizational norms. Organizational norms consist of basic

moral standards as well as other traditional community standards, including those prescribed by formal and informal organizational policies, rules, and procedures (Feldman, 1984). Yet, employees can be motivated to adhere to these expected behaviors and social standards at work or be motivated to violate these normative social expectations (Kaplan, 1975). Thus, there are those who choose not to follow such standards and breach these organizational norms. Workplace deviance occurs when employees do not conform and their voluntary behaviors violate workplace norms (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Early on, researchers found some reasons for deviant behavior in the workplace included reactions to perceived injustice, dissatisfaction, role modeling, and thrill-seeking (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Interestingly, deviant organizational behavior is distinct in that it is usually behavior that is very constrained in the workplace (Itzkovich & Heilbrunn, 2016). That is, employees who exhibit deviance behaviors at work do not necessarily behave in a deviant manner outside the workplace.

Workplace deviance, along with many other CWBs, has hampered organizations for centuries (Bennett, 2015). CWB is a very broad and encompassing construct that denotes all "behavior that is intended to have a detrimental effect on organizations and their members" (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001, p. 292). Initially, this line of research examined specific types of negative behaviors in the workplace, such as employee theft and withdrawal (Bennett et al., 2015). However, Robinson and Bennett (1995) were the first to introduce the concept of workplace deviance as separate from the very general CWB construct. They specifically defined workplace deviance as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of

an organization, its members or both" (1995, p. 556). Workplace deviance has two dimensions based on the inclination of the offender. The first dimension is differentiated based on whether the act is deviancy toward people (political deviance and personal aggression) or deviancy toward the organization (property deviance and production deviance). The second dimension addresses whether the act is more serious or less serious. The two dimensions represent four distinct facets of deviancy (Itzkovich & Heilbrunn, 2016).

Workplace deviance threatens the organization from a financial and production perspective (Mackey, McAllister, Ellen III, & Carson, 2019). One reason workplace deviance is so problematic is that it is prevalent; in fact, the majority of employees engage in workplace deviance to some degree, which costs organizations billions of dollars per year in lost productivity and other expenses (Bennett, 2015). Workplace deviance is also adversely associated with numerous employee perceptions and behaviors (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007), including abusive supervision (Tepper et al. 2008), hostility (Judge, Scott, & Illes, 2006), justice perceptions (Aquino, Galperin, and Bennett 2004), emotional intelligence (Winkel, Wyland, Shaffer, & Clason, 2011) , turnover intentions (Christian & Ellis, 2014), burnout (Mo & Shi, 2017), job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mulki et al., 2006), and stress (Omar, Halim, Zainah, & Farhadi, 2011). Altogether, prior research has emphasized the importance of understanding the workplace deviance phenomenon and its adverse monetary, psychological, and societal costs.

EE and Workplace Deviance

Emotional exhaustion, as detailed earlier, is a workplace stressor defined as "the feeling of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by ones' work" (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 101). Continued or ongoing hassles and excessive stresses can lead employees to suffer both physical and emotional depletion (Wright and Cropanzano, 1998). When employees are faced with stress and suffer emotionally, they can become frustrated, disappointed, and dissatisfied (Mulki et al., 2006). Spector and Fox's (2005) a stressor-emotion model of workplace deviance behaviors asserted that worker deviance could be a response to job stressors. A few researchers have sought to established the relationship between emotional exhaustion and workplace deviance. Enwereuzor, Onyushi, Onyeubueke, Amazue, and Nwoke (2017) found that emotional exhaustion was positively related to workplace deviance, but the sample included only school teachers.

Stressful situations lead to emotional exhausted employees that are frustrated, irritable, or impatience. These individuals will tend to be less happy, less engaged, less committed, and will be more likely to respond in deviant ways against the organization (Vardi & Weitz, 2004). Thus,

Hypothesis 9: There is a positive relationship between emotional exhaustion and deviant behaviors.

Psychological Capital

Earlier in Chapter 2, the researcher proposed direct, positive relationships between EWI and emotional exhaustion, ITs and emotional exhaustion, and emotional exhaustion and PQBs, and all of which were relationships in the hypothesized model. Next, the researcher attempts to build the case that psychological capital, or PsyCap, can

potentially attenuate the amount of emotional exhaustion exhibited by those who experience incivility at work.

Positive organizational behavior (Luthans, 2002; Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans et al., 2008), or POB, emerged as a field of study in the early 2000s as a derivative of positive psychology. It focused on developing a positive approach human resource management (Luthans et al., 2007) by applying positive psychology to the workplace (Luthans et al., 2008). POB is defined as "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement" (Luthans, 2002, pg. 59). To be included in POB, constructs had to be a positive strength or psychological capacity, be grounded in theory, have valid measures, and be state-like (as opposed to trait- like) to distinguish itself from other positively oriented constructs (Luthans 2002; Luthans, et al., 2007). The four resultant constructs included in the measure of POB were hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy. When combined, these represent a multidimensional construct known as PsyCap (Luthans, 2002; Luthans et al, 2007; Luthans et al, 2008; Avey et al, 2011).

The PsyCap Construct

PsyCap is defined as:

> . . . an individual's positive psychological state of development characterized by: (1) having confidence (efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals

> (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success. (Luthans, et al., 2007, pg. 3)

PsyCap is considered to be a second-order construct because, though it shares variance between its four underlying constructs of hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy (Luthans et al., 2007), the four components are conceptually and psychometrically distinct (Luthans & Yousef, 2007). Luthans et al. (2007) found that PsyCap accounted for more variance in desired employee outcomes than its four individual constructs, making it a second-order construct. They modeled the four components of PsyCap separately, then in various combinations, and then in a model where they were fit to overall PsyCap (Luthans et al., 2007). In every instance, model holding PsyCap as a second-order factor fit the data the best (Luthans et al., 2007).

Hobfoll's (2002) psychological resource theory has often been used to explain what PsyCap is and how it works. Psychological resource theory suggests some psychological constructs are best understood as indicators of broader underlying factors (Avey et al., 2011). That is, while an individual construct (e.g., PsyCap or core self-evaluations) may be valid in terms of discriminant and predictive validity, it may be more beneficial to consider it as an indicator of something more core (Avey, Luthans & Jensen, 2009). Hobfoll's (2002) psychological resource theory posits that individuals possessing higher levels of these four resources have capacities to perform at consistently higher levels than would be possible with higher levels of just one of these components alone (Luthans et al., 2007). Thus, the four PsyCap components "may be viewed as positive resources that interact synergistically (i.e., positive interactions among the PsyCap

components), such that an individual is at his or her individual best when one resource builds upon the other" (Friend et al., 2016).

In more general terms, PsyCap is a core psychological resource that can be viewed simply as *who you are* and *what you can become through positive development* (Avolio & Luthans, 2006). This is unlike the definitional characteristics of human capital (*what you know*), social capital (*who you know*), and financial capital (*what you have*) (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Peterson, 2010). PsyCap is state-like, or "moderately stable but not dispositional or fixed like personality or core self-evaluation traits and can be changed by experience and developed in training" (Luthans, 2008, pg. 224).

PsyCap is also malleable (Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans, 2002); that is, it can be increased through concerted effort, development, and training (Luthans et al., 2010) "to achieve veritable, sustained growth and performance" (Luthans, 2008, pg. 224). Interestingly, research on positive emotions has found that people operate at more optimal levels of both cognitive and emotional functioning when they report higher levels of positive emotions (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005) because "positivity in general, and positive emotions and cognitions in particular, are likely to help support the theoretical explanation of PsyCap" (Luthans et al., 2008, pg. 224). This thought aligns with Hobfoll's (2002) psychological resource theory, which suggests psychological resources (e.g., hope) can be members of larger psychological domains.

Hope

Hope is one's ability to set and accomplish goals along with the ability to set alternative routes to achieving goals (Friend et al., 2016). This goal-directed energy is similar to Snyder's (2000) concepts of willpower and waypower. To possess hope means

one must have both the will to succeed in a given task, as well as a viable means, or way to accomplish that task (Luthans, 2008). Those with higher capacities of hope tend to accomplish goals at higher rates and are more capable of realizing job success (Friend et al., 2016). Those high in hope are able to plan contingencies to overcome potential obstacles and thereby obtain goals that others could not without this foresight (Snyder, 2000). Thus, individuals with high levels of hope show the capacity to accomplish goals in the face of resistance and challenge as they demonstrate the ability to succeed even when circumstances and conditions seem to not be in their favor.

Resilience

People who demonstrate resilience are able to recover from adversity as opposed to being devastated by it (Block & Kremen ,1996) and enables individuals to bounce back quickly after experiencing adverse events (Masten, 2001). Resilience at work can be viewed as the psychological capacity to rebound from adversity and uncertainty as well as conflict (Luthans 2002). Fredrickson and Joiner (2002) reported highly resilient individuals become more resilient to an adversity each time they face and overcome a setback, initiating what they termed as upward spiraling effect. Thus, resilience is "characterized by coping responses not only to adverse events, but also to extreme positive events as well" (Luthans, 2008, pg. 222).

Optimism

The third component of PsyCap is optimism, or an overall positive outlook that embodies positive emotions, motivation, and realistic views. Carver and Scheier (2002) noted the differences between optimists and pessimists were not trivial; they differed in how they approached problems and challenges as well as how they coped with adversity.

Optimistic people continue to put forth effort regardless of increasing adversity (Luthans et al., 2007) because they believe desirable outcomes will result from increased efforts (Luthans et al. 2010). These enhanced efforts and consequential outcomes lead to increases in performance (e.g. Luthans 2001; Luthans et al, 2008).

Self-efficacy

Finally, self-efficacy is characterized by a positive belief in one's ability to withstand challenges and succeed in the midst of difficulty (Luthans et al., 2007). Efficacy in the workplace is defined as "the employee's conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, pg.66). Employees high in efficacy show more confidence in their abilities, which in turn mobilizes motivation, cognitive resources, and behaviors that help persist through difficult situations (Wood & Bandura, 1989). More efficacious employees tend to have higher performance measures; their self-belief and confidence urges them to accept the types of challenges towards which others may show reluctance.

Boundary Conditions of PsyCap

Previous research has found at least seven boundary conditions or characteristics that provide an operational understanding of PsyCap (Avey, 2014). First, as mentioned earlier, PsyCap is a multidimensional construct; the shared variance of four dimensions combine to create a broader domain (Avey, 2014). Second, PsyCap is a domain specific measure that is operationalized in one specific setting: the workplace (Luthans, 2002). Third, PsyCap is a relatively stable construct. Luthans et al. (2007) demonstrated that PsyCap was more stable than emotions but more malleable than personality. Thus,

PsyCap is state-like, an important construct attribute in terms of research (Avey, 2014). The fourth characteristic of PsyCap is that it is a self-rated measure. This is important when one considers PsyCap is an individual's state of development (Norman et al., 2010), and is best understood and reported by the individual as opposed to peers or supervisors.

PsyCap's fifth boundary condition is that it is measurable (Luthans, 2002), including the 24-item PCQ-24 (Luthans, et al., 2007), the 12-item reduced version of the PCQ-24 (Avey et al., 2010), and Harms and Luthans' (2012) most recent implicit measure of PsyCap. In addition, PsyCap is predictive of performance (e.g., Luthans, 2002; Avey et al., 2010). In fact, PsyCap is consistently, positively, and significantly related to employee performance (Avey, 2014). The final PsyCap boundary condition is that it remains a measure that targets the individual level, as opposed to the group level. As a result, fewer than 100 studies that utilized a PsyCap measure assessed at the individual level of analysis (Avey, 2014).

PsyCap in the Literature

PsyCap has been shown to be positively related to myriad employee outcomes considered desirable by human resource managers. These include positive relationships between PsyCap and satisfaction (Luthans & Youssef, 2007) organizational commitment (Luthans et al., 2008), OCBs (Walumbwa, Luthans & Avey, & Oke, 2011), performance (Peterson, Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Zhang, 2011), and more employability (Chen & Lim, 2012), to name a few. In addition, PsyCap has demonstrated a negative relationship with burnout (Zhao & Zhang, 2010), job stress (Abbas & Raja, 2015), cynicism (Avey et al., 2011), and turnover intentions (Avey, Luthans & Jensen, 2009),

among others. In addition, several studies have found PsyCap to be a moderating mechanism in various relationships. It moderated the relationships between stress and depression (Zhong & Ren, 2009), stress and CWBs (Bennett, 2015), stress and achievement (Gautam & Pradham, 2018), occupational stress and well-being (Milangeni, 2016), authentic leadership and tolerance to workplace incivility (Megeirhi, Kilic, Avci, Afsar, & Abubakar, 2018), and organizational support and OCBs (Shaheen, Bukhari & Adil, 2016). As far at the antecedents of PsyCap, few studies have published any predictors. However, Avey (2014) found that the strongest predictor of PsyCap was self-esteem, followed closely by proactive personality. In addition, authentic and ethical leadership predicted PsyCap, with each contributing unique variance.

PsyCap, EWI, and EE

As denoted, EWI is a workplace stressor related to various negative workplace outcomes. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) argued that even though job demands create distress for employees which can lead to negative psychological outcomes, positive psychological resources may counteract the distress from these demands and even help suppress stress and anxiety. Consequently, previous researchers have found negative relationships between PsyCap and both stress and anxiety (e.g., Avey et el., 2009). Research has also shown positive relationships with between PsyCap and psychological well-being (e.g., Avey et al., 2010). Thus, PsyCap has consistently proven to have positive relationships with desirable employee outcomes and negative relationships with undesirable employee outcomes (Avey et al., 2011).

In this dissertation, EWI is hypothesized to be related to PQBs through the mediating mechanism of emotional exhaustion. Experiencing incivility at work is a

stressful experience that leads employees to experience various negative affective outcomes, including emotional exhaustion. However, PsyCap should potentially temper this relationship. The four broad underlying factors of PsyCap indicate a core component in individuals (Avey et al., 2009) that interact synergistically (Luthans, 2002) to help individuals consistently perform at higher levels (Luthans, 2008), and overcome adversity and problems (Luthans et al., 2007). Because employees high in PsyCap are resilient, they are able to recover from difficulty (Block & Kremen, 1996), bounce back from uncertainty and conflict (Luthans 2002), and develop coping responses to adverse workplace events (Luthans, 2008). Because employees high in PsyCap are optimistic, they differ from those low in PsyCap. They approach problems and challenges in a positive manner (Luthans et la., 2007), they put forth effort even in strenuous situations (Luthans, 2008), and they believe optimistic outcomes will result from their increased efforts (Luthans et al. 2010). Further, employees high in PsyCap are hopeful; they show the capacity to accomplish goals in the face of resistance and challenge, even when conditions are not in their favor (Snyder, 2000). Finally, those high in PsyCap exhibit higher levels of self-efficacy are able to withstand challenges (Luthans et al., 2007), and show more confidence in their abilities which helps them persist through difficult situations (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

The researcher submits that this combination of the four components of PsyCap (hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy) will help employees overcome stressful and adverse workplace events, including workplace incivility. PsyCap should be a plausible moderator of the relationship between EWI and emotional exhaustion. That is, those employees higher in PsyCap, after experiencing workplace incivility, should report

lower levels of emotional exhaustion as compared to those employee's low in PsyCap who experience the same incivility. The demeaning words, harmful actions, and rude behaviors does not have the same negative affective impact on those high in PsyCap as it does on those without high levels of this positive psychological resource. Thus, the researcher hypothesizes:

> *Hypothesis 10: Psychological capital negatively moderates the relationships between EWI from both sources and emotional exhaustion so that when psychological capital is high, the positive relationship between EWI from (a) supervisors and (b) customers and emotional exhaustion is weakened*

PsyCap, ITs, and EE

Being assigned ITs is a strain that leads to employees experiencing stress because they consider the task either unreasonable or unnecessary (Semmer et al., 2010). Further, stressors at work cause employees to become, drained, disengaged, and psychologically depleted. In fact, emotional exhaustion is defined as an effective response to stressful events at work (Zohar, 1997). As stress increases, more effort must be mustered to control one's emotions; this leads to emotional exhaustion (Sonnentag et al., 2010). Consequently, given that ITs are stressors that result in emotional exhaustion, but PsyCap is a moderately stable, core psychological state of development characterized by hope (redirecting goals), efficacy (having confidence to succeed), optimism (positive attribution of success), and resilience (bouncing back), it seems likely that PsyCap would act to weaken the relationship between ITs and emotional exhaustion. Thus:

Hypothesis 11: Psychological capital negatively moderates the relationship between ITs and emotional exhaustion so that when psychological capital is high, the positive relationship between ITs and emotional exhaustion is weakened.

Social Power

Power is a chief concern of most employees and all organizations (Gioia & Sims,1983). In fact, some have noted that power is among the most socially motivating organizational processes (McClellan & Burnham, 1976). As one might expect, there are countless definitions of power. Often, the preferred definition depends on the research's frame of reference and area of interest. There exist preferred definitions of power from philosophy to economics to psychology. An oft-used definition of power utilized in organizational and management studies According to Anderson & Galinski (2006), social power (power over others) exists when someone is able to control valuable resources, impose his/her will on others, and influence the outcomes of others. This closely aligns with Fiske and Berdahl's (2007) who felt all basic principles of social power deem power as control over valued resources. People who have what they want—and what other people want—have power, and this power creates tension and social forces (Fiske & Berdahl, 2007).

Early researchers developed myriad theories on and approaches to power in organizations from both the micro and macro perspectives (e.g., Mechanic, 1962; Astley & Sanchdeva, 1984; Brass & Buckhart, 1993). What has likely been the most influential work on social power in organizations was conducted by French and Raven (1959) decades ago. According to most experts, French and Raven's typology has been the most

utilized in textbooks, and their framework has been the most cited in the literature (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989).

French and Raven's (1959) power typology distinguished between five types of power within an organization. Although conceptions of power can be examined from the viewpoint of one who exerts power or one who has power exerted on them, French and Raven chose the latter because they thought this the best way to explain the most phenomena of social power and influence. It should be noted that French and Raven's entire typology and framework hinged on the perception of power. That is, individuals with power (employee O) had power because other individuals (employee P) perceived—or believed—they had power. The French & Raven (1959) typology identified five unique types of social power:

> *(1) reward* power, based on P's perception that O has the ability to mediate rewards for him; (2) *coercive* power, based on P's perception that O has the ability to mediate punishments for him; (3) *legitimate* power, based on the perception by P that O has a legitimate right to prescribe behavior for him; (4) *referent* power, based on P's identification with O; and (5) *expert* power, based on the perception that O has some special knowledge or expertise… (pg. 151)

Although French and Raven's work was groundbreaking, several researchers that followed (e.g., Patchen, 1974; Yukl, 1989; Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985) had major criticisms of the original typology. Two of the major concerns were that French and Raven's original work lacked conceptual consistency, and it utilized single-item ranking (as opposed to a Likert scale; Schriesheim, Hinkin, & Podsakoff, 1991). As a result, Schriesheim et al. (1991) created a new social power scale based on concept of French

and Raven's (1959) groundbreaking typology. In essence, they utilized the original five typologies (reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert) but generated four updated items per typology. Their updated and psychometrically sound instrument has been used hundreds of times to date across multiple research areas to assess one's power in social settings.

Social Power and EWI

The famed American sociologist Charles Horton Cooley (1902), over a century ago, coined the term *looking glass* which denoted that people use other's perceptions of them to define themselves. His premise was that what others think matters in a variety of settings, including the workplace. However, one oversight of the workplace incivility research is that, although researchers have acknowledged the different sources of incivility (e.g., Hershcovis & Barling, 2010), they have mostly ignored the role of instigators' levels of power in their analyses. Thus, there is no true understanding of whether instigators with power leads to more detrimental outcomes. Yet, given the highly interpersonal context in which workplace incivility occurs, incivility from some persons may more detrimental than incivility from others (Hershcovis et al., 2017). This could be particularly true when the instigator has power over the target and/or within a specific social group (Hershcovis et al., 2017).

Many research efforts have examined the *source* of the incivility, including that of a supervisor or manager. Porath and Erez (2007) concluded that participants who experienced an uncivil incident from an authority figure had lower task and creative performance than the control group. Kim and Shapiro (2008) asserted that supervisor-instigated workplace incivility caused negative emotions and retaliatory behaviors

amongst employees. Lim and Teo (2009) found that uncivil cyber behaviors of supervisors was related to various deleterious outcomes, including decreased organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Interestingly, Lim and Lee (2011) determined that most reported workplace incivility was instigated by supervisors because incivility was a means of asserting power. They felt that, according to social power theory, "society confers greater power on particular individuals through social expectations and norms, and individuals lacking power are more likely to have power exerted against them" (Lim & Lee, 2011, pg. 96). Hershcovis and Barling (2010) discovered that workplace mistreatment originating from superiors in the form of abusive supervision had stronger negative outcomes than when it originated from coworkers. However, in almost all instances, previous research hypotheses and constructs of interest were based on the instigator's position with regard to the target and not the social power being exerted. They, therefore, failed to address the effects of incivility enacted by instigators with power because outcomes of power are as based on the felt sense of power (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006), and perceptions of power (French & Raven, 1959). Though the source of incivility is intuitively close to power and therefore may often be used as a proxy, it seems needful to explore the effects social power on EWI.

Recently, a few studies probed the relationship between power and workplace incivility. Cortina et al. (2001) was one of the first to place the power dynamic in an incivility model. They found that the more power a person had in an organization, the more likely they were to be uncivil to others. Cortina and Magley (2009) later found that higher instigator power was appraised more negatively by targets. Hershcovis and colleagues (2017) probed the extent to which the instigator's power moderated various

relationships within an incivility model. They discovered that the more powerful the instigator, the greater the embarrassment that was felt by the target when the incivility occurred in the presence of others. Finally, Foulk, Lanaj, Tu, Erez, & Archambeau (2018) studied incivility and psychological power. They found that powerholders perceived more incivility from subordinates on days when they enacted more abusive behavior, and they were more abusive on days they were exposed to psychological power (i.e., being reminded by a supervisor they are in charge). Besides these four studies, the researcher failed to find other a single project from a prominent source that focused the role of power in a workplace incivility model.

Social Power, EWI, and EE

To restate, emotional exhaustion is a chronic state of psychological depletion, energy loss, and fatigue that causes employees to feel emotionally drained (Cropanzano et al., 2003). It is expressed as emotional weariness and exhaustion due to excessive job demands, job stressors, and hassles at work (Shirom, 1989; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Zohar, 1997). It can be brought on and/or exacerbated by experiencing workplace incivility because confronting work-related demands such as incivility results in a depletion of cognitive and emotional resources (Baumeister et al., 1998). Over time, exposure to a variety of workplace mistreatments, including incivility, can lead to emotional exhaustion (Lloyd, et al. 2015).

Consequently, it seems likely that incivility originating with an organizational powerholder would cause more emotional exhaustion in the target than incivility from other source because powerholders are often relied upon for evaluations, rewards, promotions, and raises (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Schilpzand and colleagues (2016) found

that employees assumed that uncivil behaviors from supervisors (a proxy to powerholders) may be generalized by the target and bring along more unfavorable outcomes, of which emotional exhaustion is likely one. Hershcovis & Barling's (2010) meta-analysis found that workplace aggressions instigated by managers had stronger effects than aggression instigated by coworkers on outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover intent, organizational deviance, and job performance (Hershcovis & Barling (2010). In fact, among the most damaging stressors in the literature is related to people's social environments, such as the workplace (Sliter et al., 2012). And because those in power have the ability to reward, punish, and prescribe behavior in an organization (French & Raven, 1959), it seems likely that incivility instigated by a person with an increased level of power in an organization will have more deleterious effects on targets, including emotional exhaustion. To the researcher's knowledge, no study has yet tested the instigator's level of power as a moderating mechanism between EWI and emotional exhaustion. Therefore, given that a powerholder can impact the pay, promotion, evaluation, and even tenure of the target:

> *Hypothesis 12: Supervisor coercive power moderates the relationship between EWI and emotional exhaustion so that when supervisor social power is high, the relationship between EWI from supervisor and emotional exhaustion is strengthened.*

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The objective of this chapter is to address the study's participants, data collection procedures, and analysis techniques employed in this dissertation. The specific intent of this chapter is to explain how the researcher gathered suitable data from an appropriate sample that can be properly analyzed to either support or not support the research hypotheses based on appropriate instrumentation.

Participants and Procedures

Data were collected through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and Qualtrics. The participants were recruited through MTurk, an online data panel provider. For over a decade, MTurk has been a data source in a variety of applications (Castille & Simmering, 2013; Lovett, Bajaba, Simmering & Lovett, 2018; Behrend, Sharek, & Meade, 2011) and is considered at least as reliable as more traditional data collection methods (Wall, 2014) in terms of attentive responding characteristics, diversity in personality, education, ethnicity, and susceptibility to social desirability (Behrend et al., 2011). Recruiting participants through MTurk offers researchers speed of collection and simplicity as compared to more traditional data collection methods. In addition, Qualtrics, like other online data collection platforms, posits to offer increased data integrity via digital

fingerprinting, traps for geo-IP violators, and timestamps to flag fast responding (Holt & Loraas, 2019).

Data were collected from full-time employees who were all over the age of 18. Because the focus of the study was on experiencing incivility from both supervisors and customers, participants had to indicate they had interactions with both parties on a typical workday. If they did not meet all of these conditions, they were immediately screened out.

Observations Needed

In Pedhazur & Schmelkin's (1991) classic work, it is recommended that a ß (the probability of accepting the null hypothesis when it's false) of 0.2 be utilized which leads to a power of .8 (1- ß). Additionally, Cohen's (1988) seminal work suggested that researchers publishing the size of difference between two variables do so with conventional small (*d* =.20), medium (*d* =.50), and large (*d* .80) values, respectively. Cohen (1988) further suggests conventional *p* values at .05, .01, and .00. And though it is nearly impossible to estimate regression coefficients before collecting data (Kleinbaum, Kupper Muller, 1988), Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2009) endorsed scenarios in which multiple regression techniques employ a minimum of fifty observations (and preferably one hundred observations) in most instances to maintain a power of 0.8. Social research standards also recommend a minimum ratio of observations to variables to be 5:1, but the preferred ratio is between 15:1 to 20:1 (Hair et al., 2009). Thus, in this dissertation, the researcher set the minimum sample size of 280 (20:1 ratio); 14 variables employed in this dissertation include 9 model variables, 4 control variables, and 1 marker variable.

Measures

Experienced Workplace Incivility

EWI was assessed with Cortina et al.'s (2013) updated, 12-item Workplace Incivility Scale. Participants completed incivility based on both their supervisor and customers by responding to items via a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (many times). The anchor read: "Think about your supervisor/customers. Then respond to your level of agreement with the following statements. Over the last several months, my supervisor/customers has/have…". Sample items included "Interrupted or spoken over", and "Ignored or failed to speak to you", and "Put you down or been condescending". The survey was answered twice by all participants; they assessed incivility they had experienced from both supervisors and customers. Cronbach's alpha was .967 for EWI from supervisors and .947 and from customers.

Illegitimate Tasks

Illegitimate tasks were assessed with Jacobshagen's (2006) 9-item Bern Illegitimate Tasks Scale. Participants responded to items via a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (frequently). Sample items included tasks participants have to take care of that "don't have to be done at all", "make no sense", and "should be done by someone else". Cronbach's alpha after the deletion of five items (see Chapter 4) was 0.901.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion was assessed with Maslach and Jackson's (1981) 8-item scale. Participants responded to items via a 7-point Likert scale that ranged from 0 (never) to 6 (every day). Sample items included "I feel emotionally drained from my

work", "I feel frustrated by my job", "I feel used up at the end of the work day", and "Working directly with people puts too much stress on me". Cronbach's alpha was .958

Pre-quitting Behaviors

PQBs were assessed with Gardner et al.'s (2018) 13-item scale. Participants responded to items via a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The anchor read: "Think about your behavior over the last 2-3 months. Please describe your level of agreement with each item below". Sample items included "I have been less interested in pleasing their manager than usual", "I have been less willing to commit to long-term timelines than usual", and "I have exhibited a negative change in attitude Cronbach's alpha after the deletion of three items (see Chapter 4) was .957.

Psychological Capital

PsyCap was assessed with Lorenz, Beer, Putz, and Heinitz's (2016) 12-item CPC-12 scale. Participants responded to items via a 6-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Sample items included "Right now, I see myself being pretty successful", "Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad", and "It's okay if there are people who don't like me". Cronbach's alpha after the deletion of three items (see Chapter 4) was .912.

Social Power

Social power was assessed with three of Hinkin & Schriesheim's (1989) five power scales (reward, coercive, and legitimate; total of 14-items). Participants responded to items via a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The anchor originally read: "My supervisor can…", but the anchor was changed

for this dissertation to read “The person in my organization that is most uncivil to me can …”. Sample items included “influence my getting a pay raise” (reward power), “make things unpleasant here” (coercive power), and “make me feel I have commitments to meet”. The overall Cronbach’s alpha for the power scale (reward, coercive, and legitimate) was .851.

COVID-19 Safety Behaviors Scale

Employee adherence to safety policies and procedures related to COVID-19 was assessed with the Du and Liu’s (2020) 9-item Covid-19 Safety Behavior scale. Participants responded to items via a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Sample items included “I abide by all COVID-19 safety rules at work”, “I pay attention to COVID-19 rules and regulations even when my supervisor is not present”, and “I demonstrate the appropriate COVID-19 behaviors to my colleagues”. Cronbach’s alpha after the deletion of two item (see Chapter 4) was .873.

Interpersonal Deviance Scale

Deviant behavior against the co-workers was assessed with six items from Bennett & Robinson’s (2000) Interpersonal Deviance Scale. Participants responded to items via a 7-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 7 (daily). Sample items included “Made fun of someone at work”, “Played a mean prank on someone at work”, and “Acted rudely toward someone at work”. Cronbach’s alpha after the deletion of one item (see Chapter 4) was .989.

Organizational Deviance Scale

Deviant behavior against the organization was assessed with five items from Bennett & Robinson’s (2000) Organizational Deviance Scale. Participants responded to

items via a 7-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 7 (daily). Sample items included “Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working”, “Come in late to work without permission”, and “Dragged out work in order to get overtime”. Cronbach’s alpha was .938.

Marker Variable

In self-report survey research, common method variance (CMV) remains a concern because of the potential inflation of observed correlation (Lindell and Whitney, 2001). Although disagreement on the most accurate approach persists, several researchers have utilized post-hoc CMV detection techniques (Simmering, Fuller, Richardson, Ocal & Atinc, 2014). Still, marker-based techniques have been tentatively suggested as effective means of identifying CMV (Simmering et al., 2014; Malhotra, Kim, & Patil, 2006).

One method employed to account for the effects of CMV is the use of a marker variable (Simmering, et al., 2014; Richardson, Simmering & Sturman, 2009; Lindell & Whitney, 2001). A quality marker variable is one that is not theoretically related to other variables in the study (Simmering et al., 2014). The absence of relationships between the maker variable and other key variables in the study is evidence that CMV has not influenced the relationships between the primary variables. (Bajaba, 2019). In addition, sound marker variables “elicits similar cognitive processes or response tendencies as those prompted by substantive items, thereby making it prone to the same CMV causes” (Simmering et al., 2014; pg. 3). The marker variable selected should also be internally consistency (Richardson, et al., 2009). The researcher used a marker variable developed by Miller & Chiodo (2008) entitled *Attitude Toward the Color Blue* scale is a 3-item

scale that can be applied to a wide variety of social science research (Miller & Chiodo, 2008). Participants responded to items via a 7-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items include “Blue is a lovely color”, “I think blue is a pretty color”, and “The color blue is wonderful”. Cronbach’s alpha in this study was .929.

The researcher employed the marker technique by Williams et al. (2010) to test for CMV. Williams et al.’s (2010) technique creates a first model, known as the baseline model, which differs from the CFA model in that loadings between the marker variable and the all model indicators are constrained to zero. This baseline model is then compared to a second model, known as the Method-C model. The Method-C model is similar to the baseline because measurement parameters associated with each indicator is fixed (Williams et al., 2010). However, the Method-C model has additional marker variable factor loadings latent to each of the indicators in the model that were forced to be equivalent in value (Williams et al., 2010). The comparison of the baseline and Method-C model tests for the presence of method variance associated with the *Attitude Toward the Color Blue* marker variable.

The Method-C model is then compared to the Method-U model. The Method-U model differs slightly from the Method-C model because all factor loadings from the latent marker variable to the indicators are allowed to produce free estimates with no constraints. By doing this, the assumption that the marker variable is related to substantive variables differently is tested (Cavazotte & Williams, 2002). This comparison essentially “provides a test of the key difference between the CMV and UMV models and the assumption of equal method effects” (Williams et al., 2010, pg. 498). Finally, a

comparison is made between the Method-U model and the Method-R model. The Method-R model restricts loadings equal to those of the baseline model, and the loadings between the marker variable and model indicators are either constrained as equal or remain unconstrained, depending on whether the Method-C model or the Method-U model was supported in their comparison. This comparison of either Model-C or Model-U with the Method-R model provides the statistical test of the biasing effects of the marker variable on substantive relations (Williams et al., 2010). As a criterion for model fit, we used the $\chi 2$ difference test, in which the $\Delta\chi 2$ test statistic. The marker variable in this study was tested using MPlus.

Control Variables

Citing work from Taylor, Bedeian, and Kluemper (2020), the researcher controlled for gender and race as "female and minority employees experience incivility and other types of harassment more frequently than their male and Caucasian counterparts" (pg. 884). In addition, because older employees tend to perform better and have longer-standing relationships with those in the organization (Chen et al. ,2013) the researcher also controlled for age. Gender was dummy-coded; males were assigned a value of 0 and females were assigned a value of 1. Race was also dummy-coded; non-Whites were assigned a value of 0 and Whites were assigned a value of 1.

Analyses

After data were loaded, demographic and descriptive statistics were attained, including a correlation table to show relationships between all model constructs. The researcher then performed confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) in SPSS AMOS 26 to ensure validity of the measurement scales. Next, the theoretical model was assessed using

structural equation modeling (SEM) to verify the goodness-of-fit effects of the hypothesized model, including an analysis of the model's purported paths (Lee & Huang, 2012).

To test the model's hypotheses, the researcher employed hierarchical multiple regression analyses to assess the direct and indirect effects of all hypotheses of interest after controlling for several variables (age, gender, tenure, and race). As recommended by Hayes (2017), the moderating effects of social power and PsyCap were assessed via the bootstrap sampling method to generate asymmetric confidence intervals (CIs) for the moderating effects. For possible significant interaction effects, simple slopes were plotted at one standard deviation below and above the mean to determine statistically significant interactions (Kim & Liu, 2017). In mediated moderation models, to which this study's hypothesized model conforms, the path from the intervention to the mediator ($X \rightarrow M$) depends on the level of a moderator variable (Z), whereas the effect of the mediator on the outcome ($M \rightarrow Y$) is constant (Morgan-Lopez & McKinnon, 2006). Therefore, the researcher followed procedures recommended by Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt (2005).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the data collected as well as the analysis described in the previous chapter. The researcher discusses demographics, descriptive statistics, reliability of measures, correlations, and hypothesis testing.

Participants and Demographics

As noted in Chapter 3, the participants in this study were recruited from MTurk and lived in North America. The researcher employed a two-wave design which has been recommended for survey research by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012). In this study, the two-wave design temporally separated the antecedents (EWI, ITs), mediator (EE) and moderator variables (PsyCap, Social Power) from the form the outcome variables with an approximate 5-day interval to reduce the concern of common method bias. Part I and part II surveys were matched according to MTurk worker ID numbers. Workers were paid $1.75 to complete Part I of the survey (the longer of the two) and $1.50 to complete Part II of the survey. MTurk workers received a randomly generated code from Qualtrics after completion of each survey that they had to enter into MTurk to be compensated. Part I of the survey took an average of nine minutes to complete, while Part II took an average of seven minutes to complete.

The initial number of respondents for Part I was 438 individuals. Part I of the survey included questions regarding demographics (some of which were used as control

variables), experienced workplace incivility, illegitimate tasks, psychological capital, social power of supervisor, and the CMV marker variable. It also included three manipulation checks: “I typically work 38 hours a day”, “I eat cement occasionally”, and “Select 1 for this item”. Any respondent that failed two manipulation checks was removed. In addition, participants that did not complete the entire survey were discarded. In the end, 47 were removed; 22 respondents failed at least two manipulation checks and 25 did not complete the entire survey. Therefore, a total of 391 complete and usable Part I surveys (85%). These 391 became the participant pool to whom an MTurk request was sent 5 days later to complete Part II of the survey. All 391 Part I participants were given the opportunity to complete the Part II survey and received the MTurk request.

The researcher requested 350 Part II surveys that could then be matched, using MTurk IDs, with the Part I surveys. Part II consisted of items measuring emotional exhaustion, pre-quitting behaviors, Covid-19 safety behaviors, devious behaviors (organizational and interpersonal), and the same *Feelings Towards Color Blue* marker variable. Part II manipulation checks were different from Part I and included: “I work 25 months a year”, and “Select 2 for this item”. As with Part I, any respondent who did not complete the entire survey or failed these two manipulation checks were removed. Of the 350 requests sent out to all 391 Part I completers, a total of 327 were returned in the mandated two-day time frame. Thus, the final sample, after removing Part II surveys that failed multiple manipulation checks (20) and/or incomplete surveys (5) was 302 (93%). Given Hair and colleague’s (2009) recommended 20:1 observation-to-variable ratio discussed in the Methods chapter, 302 complete and usable surveys satisfied the researcher’s target of 260 for this study.

Participants were asked demographic questions to assess gender identification, race, age, and tenure with current employer (Table 4.1). The sample included 65.4% of participants that identified as male (n=199), 33.5% of participants that identified as female (n=102), and nearly 1% of participants that identified as neither (n=3). White/Caucasian made up 78.3% of the sample (n=238), followed by Asian (10.2%; n=31), Black or African American (7%; n=21), Hispanic (3.5%; n=11), Asian/Pacific Islander (1%; n=3), while less than 1% (n=2) did not answer. The most prominent age group in the sample were those age 30-39 (39.8%; n=121), followed by those age 18-29 (24.5%; n=75), then those age 40-49 (22.7%; n=70), and finally those age 50 or older (13.1%; n=40). In terms of employment tenure, most participants had been at their current employer for some time. The largest group had been at their current job 3-5 years (36.0%; n=110), followed by 6-10 years (29.5%; n=90), 11 or more years (16.5%; n=51), 1-2 years (14.7%; n=46), and finally less than a year (.3%; n=1).

Table 4.1

Participant Demographics

Characteristic	n=302
Gender Identification	
Male	65.4%
Female	33.5%
Neither	1.0%
Race	
White/Caucasian	78.3%
Asian	10.2%
Black/African American	7.0%
Hispanic	3.5%
Asian/Pacific Islander	1.0%
No answer	<1.0%
Age	
18-29	24.5%
30-39	39.8%
40-49	22.7%
>50	13.1%
Employment Tenure	
>10 years	16.5%
6-10 years	29.5%
3-5 years	36.0%
1-2 years	14.7%
<1 year	0.3%

Descriptive Statistics

IBM's SPSS Statistics Version 26 was used to calculate the means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alpha reliabilities, and correlations for the nine scales in the study's hypothesized model as well as the CMV marker variable. The correlation matrix, presented in Table 4.2, shows that most of the variables are significantly correlated with several other scales and provides initial support for several direct effect hypotheses in the model, including Hypotheses 1-3, Hypotheses 5-6, and Hypothesis 10.

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	N	Mean	S.D.	PC	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. PC	301	4.874	0.7704	(0.912)										
2. ITs	302	2.395	0.7217	-.044	(0.901)									
3. SINC	303	1.724	0.9589	-.062	.688**	(0.967)								
4. CINC	300	2.171	0.9525	-.143*	.638**	.732**	(0.947)							
5. PWR	301	4.034	0.6922	.266**	.275**	.307**	.327**	(0.851)						
6. EE	302	3.136	1.3249	-.301**	.624**	.520**	.589**	.173*	(0.958)					
7. PQBs	300	2.252	0.9498	-.165**	.577**	.598**	.523**	.117*	.659**	(0.957)				
8. C19	303	3.847	0.8259	.188**	-.046	-.028	-.042	.148*	-.094	-.090	(0.873)			
9. IDB	304	4.6075	2.2198	-.062	.050	.093	.209**	-.006	.068	.136*	.132*	(0.989)		
10. ODB	301	2.835	1.4731	-.032	.214**	.255**	.284**	.119*	.138*	.383**	.040	.311**	(0.938)	
11. BLU	304	5.892	0.9121	.031	-.128*	-.038	-.047	.038	-.097	-.051	-.162**	.068	.003	(0.929)

*=p<.05; **p<.001; Cronbach's alphas are reported in parentheses on the diagonals

Scales are abbreviated in the correlation matrix as follows: psychological capital (PC), illegitimate tasks (IT), incivility from supervisor (SINC), incivility from customers (CINC), coercive power of supervisor (PWR), emotional exhaustion (EE), pre-quitting behaviors (PQB), COVID-19 safety behaviors (C19), interpersonal deviant behaviors (IDB), organizational deviant behaviors (ODB), and attitudes towards the color blue (BLU).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) were examined prior to factor analysis to determine the appropriateness of the factor analytic model. Bartlett's test of sphericity tests the null hypothesis that a sample's intercorrelation matrix is an identity matrix; if this is in fact the case, the variables would be unrelated and would not be suited for structure detection (Williams, Osman, & Brown, 2010). In this study, the test statistic was significant at the .001 level indicating that the intercorrelation matrix was not an identity matrix. The KMO test is a measure of how well-suited sample data is for factor analysis by measuring sampling adequacy for both individual variables and the entire model (Ferguson & Cox, 1993). That is, KMO indicates the proportion of variance among a group of variables that might be common variance (Ferguson & Cox, 1993). A KMO result greater than .80 indicates that factor analysis is useful with a particular data set. In the present study, KMO was 0.924, indicating the data was well-suited for CFA.

CFA was conducted on the data set (a) to verify the factor structure of the observed variables, and (b) to validate construct validity, or the relationships between the observed variables and the underlying latent constructs exist (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003).

To increase internal consistency of all scales with an acceptable and meaningful factorial structure, a pattern matrix of all scale items was produced (Bodroza & Jovanovich, 2016). Through an iterative process, all cross-loading items and items with loadings below .5 were discarded. (Shafer, Wang, 2018; Bodroza & Jovanovich, 2016). After deletions, the analyses were run again until all remaining items loaded on a single scale above the .5 cutoff. In the end, model fit was achieved only after several iterations of five scales that included the eventual deletion of fourteen variables. Deleted variables included three from PSYCAP (4,8,10), five from ITs (6,7,8,9,10), three from PQBs (9,11,13), two from COVID-19 (6,9), and one from ODBs (1). Only after these deletions did the above CFA produce a model that supported discriminant validity among the measures.

With these deleted-item scales and to confirm the latent structures above, CFA analysis was performed and demonstrated that a 10-factor model (SINC, CINC, IT, PsyCap, PWR, EE, C-19, PQB, IDB, and ODB) was sufficient. Results showed χ^2 (2655) = 4836.495, PCMIN/DF = 1.822, CFI = .908, RMSEA = .052, and PCLOSE = .080. All factor loadings were significant for the construct in the model. However, this model fit was achieved only after many iterations and the eventual deletion of fourteen variables from five of the proposed latent scales.

Common Method Variance

Common method bias (or common method variance; CMV) is defined as systematic variance that arises in self-report surveys from the method used to collect the data (Simmering et al., 2015). As this concern with the potential inflationary effect of CMV and subsequent type I errors (Simmering et al., 2015) has grown in recent years, researchers have sought post-hoc CMV techniques to help alleviate these concerns. For

the chosen marker variable for the following techniques employed in this study, *Attitudes Toward the Color Blue,* participants answered a three-item scale (Miller & Chiodo, 2008) based on their preferences of the color blue because that should be theoretically unrelated and not correlated with the other ten variables in the study.

Results of the CMV techniques are shown in Table 4.3 and include Chi-square, degrees of freedom, and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) values. It should be noted that the comparative fit values (.906) satisfy the minimum oft-suggested threshold for marker techniques (Holm, Hu & Bentler, 1999). A series of Chi-square difference tests were conducted between each model and its subsequent model. After the baseline vs. Model-C comparison, the significant results suggest the Method-C model fit the data better than the baseline model (p=.006). This indicates that the marker variable was related to the substantive indicators. Next, a comparison between Model-C and Model-U was made. The non-significant results suggest that the Method-C model fit the data better than did Model-U (p=.301). Thus, a comparison between Method-C and Method-R was conducted. These results showed still that Method-C fit the data better than did Method-R (p=1.0) Because the Method-R model did not fit the data better than the Method-C model, the researcher concluded that the model indicators did not result in common method bias in the model estimates and this study was not confounded by CMV.

Table 4.3

CMV Summaries of Chi-square, Goodness-of-fit Values, and Model Comparisons

Model	χ^2	df	**CFI**
1. Baseline	5184.59	2886	0.906
2. Method-C	5176.96	2885	0.906
3. Method-U	5097.14	2881	0.906
4. Method-R	5177.30	2923	0.906
Chi-square Model Comparison Tests	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	**p-value**
1. Baseline vs. Method-C	7.63*	1	0.006
2. Method-C vs. Method-U	79.82	74	0.301
3. Method-C vs. Method-R	0.36	38	1.0

*=p<.05

The researcher is confident that CMV did not contaminate the sample and subsequent results. Procedural strategies were employed *a priori* to minimize the presence of method bias, including explicit instructions about the survey and how it would be used as well as separation of data collection (Jordan and Troth, 2020). In this study, data were collected so that EWI and ITs (independent variables) and EE, PQBs, and ODBs/IDBs (dependent variables) were collected at different stages and separated by several days. In addition, adding variables to a measurement model that is contaminated by method bias will tend to decrease method bias (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveria, 2010). More specifically, as independent variables are added to multivariate linear models (the present study utilized three), CMV (if present) is effectively parceled out (Siemsen et al., 2010). This echoes the earlier assumption of James (1980) who asserted that "as the number of measured causes increase, the likelihood of an unmeasured variables problem decreases" (pg. 418). All of this, coupled with the results of the CMV marker variable

technique which failed to detect the presence of CMV, provide a strong argument that results of this dissertation were not affected by any method bias.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis testing was conducted via SPSS 26's hierarchical regression analysis. In all instances, demographic variables (age, race, gender affiliation, and employment tenure) were controlled for because there existed theoretical rationale for doing so in previous studies on incivility. All control variables were entered in the first step when testing for main effects, mediation, and moderation. Separate regressions were conducted for each hypothesis.

Main Effects

Separate regressions were conducted to test each main effect. Main effects Hypotheses (1a, 1b, 2a, 2b, 3, 5, 6, 8, and 9), were tested by entering the control variables in the first step and the independent variable in the next step. None of the hierarchical regression models testing main effect hypotheses were susceptible to multicollinearity; in all instances, tolerance values were well above 0.2 and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) below 3 (Hadjimanolis, 2000). Main effects testing results are presented in Tables 4.3-4.6.

Hypothesis 1a (Table 4.4) and 1b (Table 4.5) expected that (a) SINC and (b) CINC would be positively related to PQBs such that those who reported more SINC and CINC would exhibit more PQBs. In Step 1, all control variables were entered, though none were significant. In Step 2, SINC and CINC were entered as independent variables and tested. The model with SINC as the predictor was significant ($F=31.495;\ p < .001$), and consistent with H1a, those who experienced SINC did display more PQBs

(β = 0.575, p < .001). This model predicted 42% of the variance. In addition, the model with CINC as the predictor was significant as well (*F=31.611; p < .001).* H1b was also confirmed; those who experienced more CINC also exhibited more PQBs (β = .504, p < .001). This model summary predicted 33.6% of the variance. Though both SINC and CINC predicted PQBs, initial results suggest that SINC may be more of a factor in PQBs than is CINC.

Table 4.4

Hierarchical Regression with SINC as Predictor

	Dependent Variables			
	PQBs (*H1a*)		EE (*H2a*)	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.066	.042	.103	.083
Race	.002	.016	.042	.054
Age	-.088	-.048	-.019	.014
Tenure	.037	.024	.063	.051
SINC		***.575*****		***.532*****
R^2	.011	.422	.013	.295
F	1.028	***31.495*****	1.103	***24.894*****
R^2 *change*		.411		.282

The reported statistics are standardized betas (with the exception of R^2, *F, and* R^2 *change)*
**p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001*

Table 4.5

Hierarchical Regression with CINC as Predictor

	Dependent Variables			
	PQBs (*H1b*)		EE (*H2b*)	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.066	.038	.103	.074
Race	.002	.017	.042	.058
Age	-.088	.066	-.019	.003
Tenure	-.037	.038	.063	.033
CINC		***.504****		***.591****
R^2	.011	.336	.013	.361
F	.831	***31.611****	1.103	***33.535****
R^2 *change*		.336		.347

The reported statistics are standardized betas (with the exception of R^2, *F, and* R^2 *change)*
**p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001*

Table 4.6

Hierarchical Regression with Illegitimate Tasks as Predictor

	Dependent Variables			
	PQBs (*H5*)		EE (*H6*)	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.066	.017	.103	.053
Race	.002	-.012	.042	.028
Age	.088	-.098	-.019	-.030
Tenure	-.037	.046	.063	.072
ITs		***.540****		***.548****
R^2	.011	.300	.013	.311
F	.831	***25.410****	1.103	***26.858****
R^2 *change*		.289		.298

The reported statistics are standardized betas (with the exception of R^2, *F, and* R^2 *change)*
**p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001*

Similarly, Hypothesis 2a (Table 4.4) and 2b (Table 4.5) tested whether experiencing (a) SINC and (b) CINC would be positively related to EE such that those who reported more incivility from each would show increased levels of EE. In Step 1,

none of the control variables were significant. In Step 2, SINC and CINC were entered as independent variables and tested. For H2a, the model was significant (*F=24.894; p < .001)),* and supported H2a that those who experienced more SINC reported more EE (β = .532, $p < .001$). This model summary predicted 29.5% of the variance. Likewise, for H2b, the model was significant (*F=33.535; p < .001),* H2b was retained, and those who experienced more CINC also exhibited more EE (β = 0.591, $p < .01$). This model summary predicted 36.1% of the variance. Interestingly, and as opposed to H1a and H1b, it appears that experiencing CINC is (F = 33.535) was more predictive of PQBs than was SINC (F = 24.894).

Hierarchical regressions were also employed to determine if a positive relationship existed between ITs and PQBs (H5) and EE (H6) such that those who were assigned more ITs would show increased levels of the outcome variables (Table 4.6). As with Step 1 in other hierarchical regressions discussed earlier, control variables were entered but were not significant predictors. In Step 2, ITs were entered as independent variables and tested. The ITs-PQBs model was significant (*F=25.410; p < .001).* H5 was confirmed, and results showed that employees assigned more ITs exhibited more PQBs (β = 0.540, $p < .001$). The model summary predicted 30% of the variance. Similarly, the ITs-EE model was also significant (*F=26.858; p < .001).* H6 also supported EE as an outcome of ITs (β = 0.616, $p < .001$). This model summary predicted 31.1% of the variance.

Hierarchical regression was also employed to test whether EE predicted PQBs (H3; Table 4.7) and deviant behaviors (H9a interpersonal and H9b organizational; Table 4.8) such that increased levels of EE would result in more of each behavior (Table 4.8).

Table 4.7

Hierarchical Regression with Emotional Exhaustion as Predictor

	Dependent Variables			
	PQBs (*H3*)		COVID-19 (*H8*)	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.066	-.009	***-.146****	***-.135****
Race	.002	-.029	***-.155*** **	***-.150*** **
Age	.088	-.074	.053	.051
Tenure	-.037	-.009	-.051	.087
EE		***.731*** **		-.103
R^2	.011	.538	.044	.054
F	.831	***69.216*** **	***3.399*** **	***3.401*** **
R^2 *change*		.527		.011

The reported statistics are standardized betas (with the exception of R^2, *F, and* R^2 *change)*
**p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001*

Table 4.8

Hierarchical Regression with Emotional Exhaustion as Predictor

	Dependent Variables			
	IDBs (*H9a*)		ODBs (*H9b*)	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	***-.138****	***-.146****	.045	.032
Race	***-.218*****	***-.222*****	.025	.020
Age	.059	.061	-.122	-.120
Tenure	-.020	-.025	.028	.020
EE		.078		***.124****
R^2	.065	.071	.017	.032
F	***5.218*****	***4.572*****	1.251	1.941
R^2 *change*		.006		.015

The reported statistics are standardized betas (with the exception of R^2, *F, and* R^2 *change)*
**p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001*

For the model testing H3, none of the control variables were significant. The Step 2 model was also significant (*F=69.216; p < .001).* EE was a strong predictor of PQBs (β = .731, p < .001). Thus, H3 was confirmed. The model summary predicted 53.8% of

the variance. For H9a, when the control variables were entered in Step 1, both gender (β = -.138, $p < .05$) and race (β = -.218, $p < .001$) were strong indicators and Model 1 was significant (*F=5.218; p < .001)*. The Step 2 model was also significant (*F=4.572; p < .001)*. However, EE did not predict IDBs (β = .078, *n.s.*), and H9a was not supported. Model 2 predicted just 7.1% of the variance. For the model in which EE predicted ODBs, the model was significant (*F=4.572; p < .001)*. Step 1 control variables in the H9b model were not significant. In Step 2, after EE was entered as the independent variable, the overall model was not significant (*F=1.941; n.s.*), yet EE was a significant predictor of ODBs (β = 0.124, $p < .05$).

The final hierarchical regression tested H8 which asserted EE would be negatively related to employees' adherence to COVID-19 protocols (Table 4.7) such that increases in emotional exhaustion would lead to a decrease in COVID-19 protocol adherence. When the control variables were entered in Step 1, both gender (β = -.146, $p < .05$) and race (β = -.155, $p < .01$) were strong indicators and Model 1 was significant (*F=3.399; p < .01)*. However, even though Model 2 was significant (*F=3.401; p < .01)*, the H8 assertion there was a negative relationship between EE and adherence to COVID-19 safety protocols was not established (β = -.103, *n.s.*). It should be noted that results did indicate a negative relationship that did somewhat approach significance (p = .070). The model summary predicted less than 5% of the variance.

Moderated Mediation

According to Hayes (2015), mediation and moderation analysis can be analytically integrated into a unified statistical model. This is referred to as *moderated mediation*, although it is often used interchangeably with the term *mediated moderation*.

However, Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt (2005) drew the distinction clearly when stating mediated moderation was the analysis to be utilized when trying to determine whether a mediation process was conditional on another variable. This analysis can be applied to any model in which "the indirect effect of *X* on *Y* through *M* is estimated as linearly related to a moderator" (Hayes, 2015, pg. 3). Thus, to test this study's moderation and mediation hypotheses, moderated mediation analysis was employed using SPSS 26 PROCESS Model 7. In PROCESS Model 7, the indirect effect of X (predictor) on Y (outcome) varies through M (moderator) as a function of W (mediator). All control variables (gender, age, tenure, and race) were entered, and simple slopes were calculated for all statistically significant interactions.

In the first analysis (H10a), the researcher examined the moderating effect of PsyCap on the relationship between SINC and EE as well as whether or not EE mediated the path of SINC (H4a) to PQBs. Specifically, the model hypothesized PsyCap would negatively moderate the relationship so that when PsyCap is high, the positive relationship between SINC and EE is weakened. As a reminder, all supposed relationships in H10a had been tested and significantly established in main effects hypotheses (SINC→EE, SINC→PQBs, and EE→PQBs). Regression estimates are shown in Table 4.9. None of the control variables entered into PROCESS as covariates were significant; results indicate the overall model was significant (*F=27.729; p < .001)* as well as the interaction between SINC and PSYCAP (β = .2851, s.e. = .0821, $p < .001$). This suggests PsyCap does moderate the effect of SINC on EE. However, the interaction was positive as opposed to the proposed negative moderation. Thus, H10a was not confirmed. Simple slopes of the relationship between SINC and EE (Figure 4.1) were

plotted at three points along the scale of PsyCap using Hayes's (2017) pick-a-point approach. At -1SD on PsyCap, the effect was positive and significant (β = .4391, s.e. = .0897, $p < .001$). At the PsyCap mean, the outcome was also positive and significant (β = .6692, s.e. = .0623, $p < .001$). Finally, at +1SD of PsyCap, PsyCap was a positive and significant predictor (β = .8992, s.e. = .0844, $p < .001$). It should be noted that the slopes are becoming more positive as we move from low PsyCap to high PsyCap.

Table 4.9

Moderating Effect of PsyCap on the Relationship between SINC and EE

Model Summary	*R*	R^2	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
	.629	.3956	1.0831	27.5853	7.0000	295.0000	.0000

Model	coeff.	s.e.	t	p	LLCI/ULCI
SINC	-.7535	.4171	-1.8067	.0718	-1.5743/.0673
PsyCap	-.9523	.1588	-5.9965	.0000	-1.2649/-.6398
SINC*PsyCap	.2851	.0822	3.5189	.0005	.1274/.4508

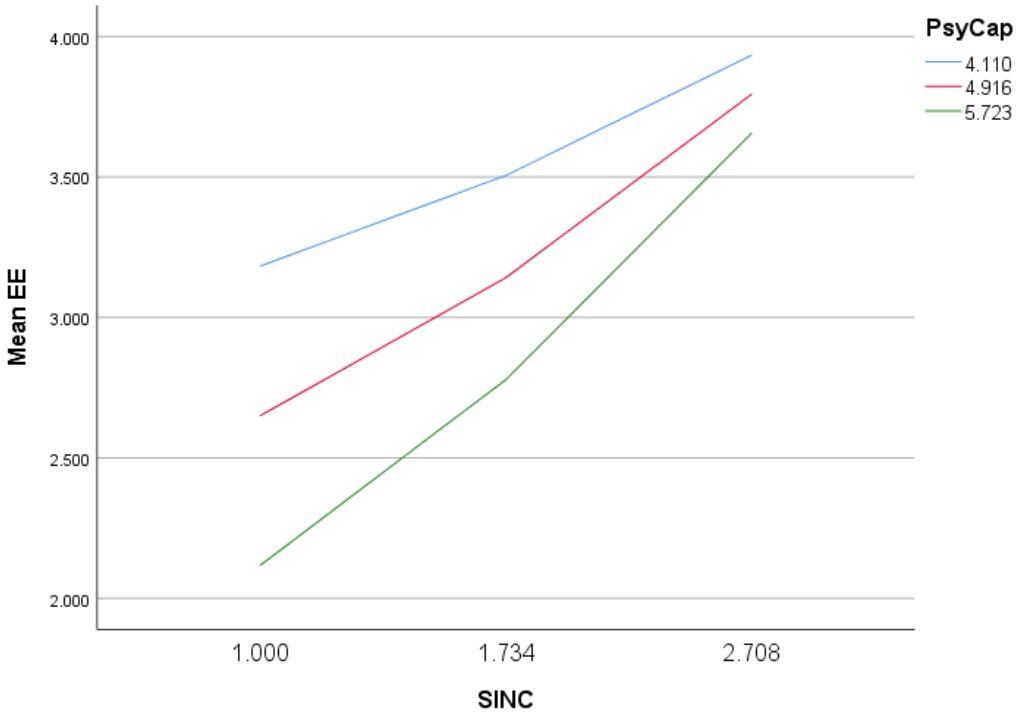

Figure 4.1: *Simple Slopes of PsyCap on the Relationship between SINC and EE*

The mediating role of EE on the SINC-PQBs relationship was then examined. H4a hypothesized that EE would, in fact, mediate this relationship. These relationships had been tested and established via main effects hypotheses (SINC→EE, SINC→PQBs, and EE→PQBs). Analyses of the indirect effects of SINC on PQBs through EE was significant ($\beta = .3280$, *s.e.= 0.0375*, 95% CI [.2578,.4052]. Thus, H4a was supported. These mediation paths are presented in Figure 4.2 along with all effects.

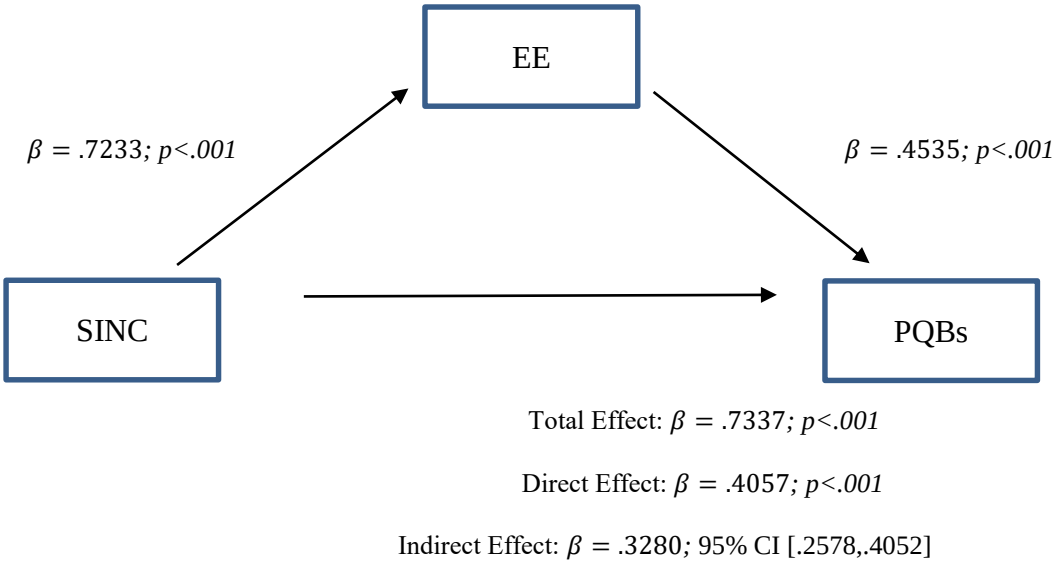

Figure 4.2: *Effects of All Relationships Between SINC and PQBs Through EE*

Next, the moderating impact of PsyCap on the relationship between CINC (H10b) and EE as well as whether or not EE mediated the path of CINC (H4b) to PQBs. Again, the model hypothesized PsyCap would negatively moderate the relationship so that when PsyCap is high, the positive relationship between CINC and EE is weakened. Regression estimates are shown in Table 4.10. None of the control variables entered into PROCESS as covariates were significant; results indicate the overall model was significant (*F=29.874; p < .001)* as well as the interaction between CINC and PSYCAP (β = .1507, s.e. = .0698, p < .05). This suggests PsyCap does moderate the effect of CINC on EE. However, just as with PsyCap moderating SINC→EE, PsyCap's effect on the relationship was positive as opposed to the theorized negative moderation. Thus, H10b was not confirmed. Simple slopes were plotted for the relationship between CINC and EE (Figure 4.3) along the scale of PsyCap. At -1SD on PsyCap, the effect was positive and significant (β = .5885, s.e. = .0837, p < .001). At the PsyCap mean, the outcome was also positive and significant (β = .7101, s.e. = .0588, p < .001). Finally, at +1SD of PsyCap,

PsyCap was a positive and significant predictor (β = .8316, s.e. = .0791, p < .001). The slopes become more positive as we move from low PsyCap to high PsyCap.

Table 4.10

Moderating Effect of PsyCap on the Relationship between CINC and EE

Model Summary	*R*	R^2	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
	.6428	.4132	1.0515	29.6800	7.0000	295.0000	.0000

Model	coeff.	s.e.	t	p	LLCI/ULCI
CINC	-.0349	.3529	- .0988	.9214	-.7294/.6597
PsyCap	-.6893	.1716	-4.0165	.0001	-1.0270/-.3515
CINC*PsyCap	.1514	.0701	2.1602	.0316	.0135/.2893

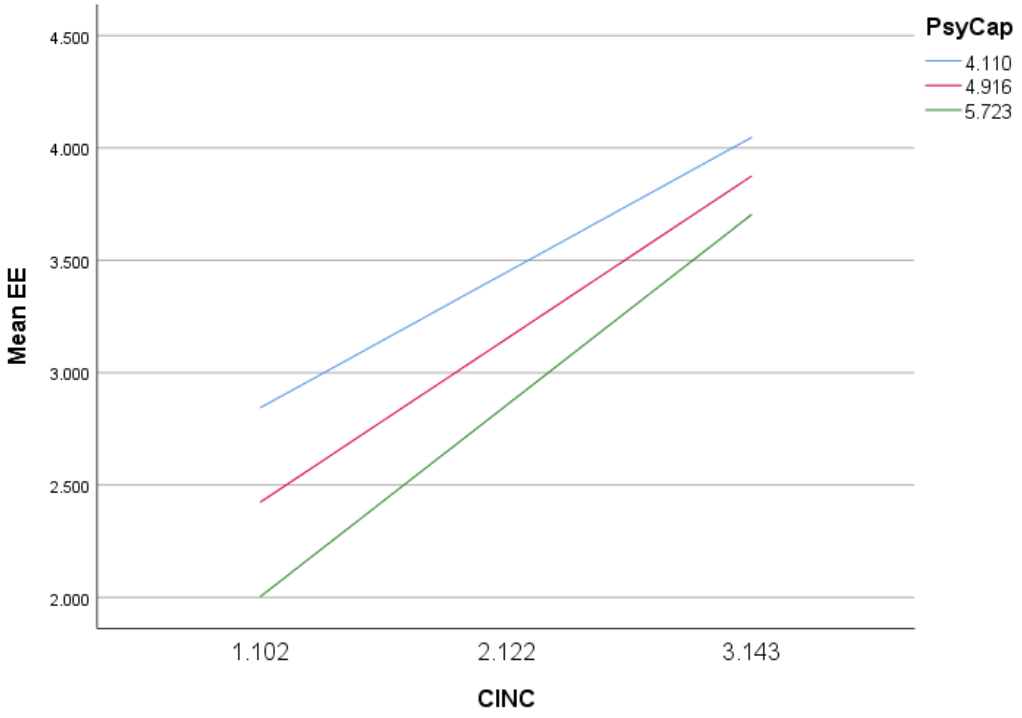

Figure 4.3: *Simple Slopes of PsyCap on the Relationship between CINC and EE*

The mediating role of EE on the CINC-PQBs relationship was determined next. H4b hypothesized that EE would mediate this relationship between CINC and PQBs. These relationships had been previously tested and significantly established via main effects hypotheses (CINC→EE, CINC→PQBs, and EE→PQBs). Analysis revealed the indirect effect of CINC on PQBs through EE was significant ($\beta = .3816$, *s.e.= .0423,* 95% CI [.3049,.4710]). Thus, H4b was supported. These mediation results are presented in Figure 4.4.

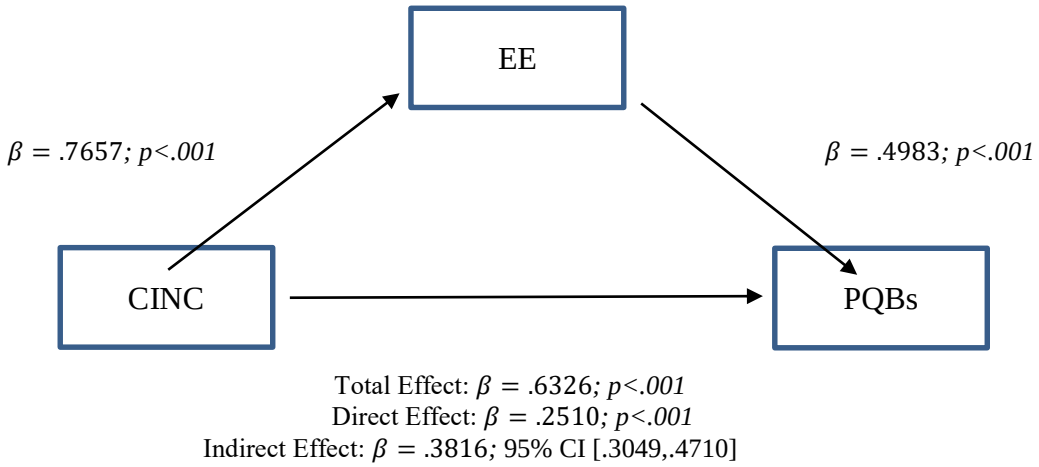

Figure 4.4*: Effects of all Relationships between CINC and PQBs through EE*

Thereafter, the researcher sought to examine whether PsyCap moderated the relationship between ITs and EE (H11), and whether EE mediated the path from ITs to PQBs (H7). Once again, PsyCap was posited to negatively moderate, and thereby weaken, the positive relationship between ITs and EE. Table 4.11 displays the regression estimates. Results indicate the overall model was significant (*F=29.783; p < .001)* as well as the interaction between ITs and PSYCAP (β = .2562, s.e. = .0799, p < .01). The model explained 41.4% of the variance. This indicates PsyCap does moderate the effect of ITs on EE, but just as before, PsyCap's effect on the relationship was positive as

opposed to the hypothesized negative moderation. Thus, H11 was not confirmed. Simple slopes were plotted for the moderating effect of PsyCap on the relationship between CINC and EE (Figure 4.5). At -1SD on PsyCap, the effect was positive and significant (β = .5111, s.e. = 1.056, p < .001). At the PsyCap mean, the outcome was also positive and significant (β = .7178, s.e. = .0677, p < .001). Finally, at +1SD of PsyCap, PsyCap was a positive and significant predictor (β = .9244, s.e. = .0795, p < .001). Slopes become more positive when moving from low PsyCap to high PsyCap.

Table 4.11

Moderating Effect of PsyCap on the Relationship between ITs and EE

Model Summary	*R*	R^2	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
	.6434	.4140	1.0501	29.7743	7.0000	295.0000	.0000

Model	coeff.	s.e.	t	p	LLCI/ULCI
ITs	-.5618	.4198	-1.3384	.1818	-1.3879/.2643
PsyCap	-1.1459	.2205	-5.1974	.0000	-1.5799/-.7120
ITs*PsyCap	.2602	.0805	3.2323	.0014	.1018/.4186

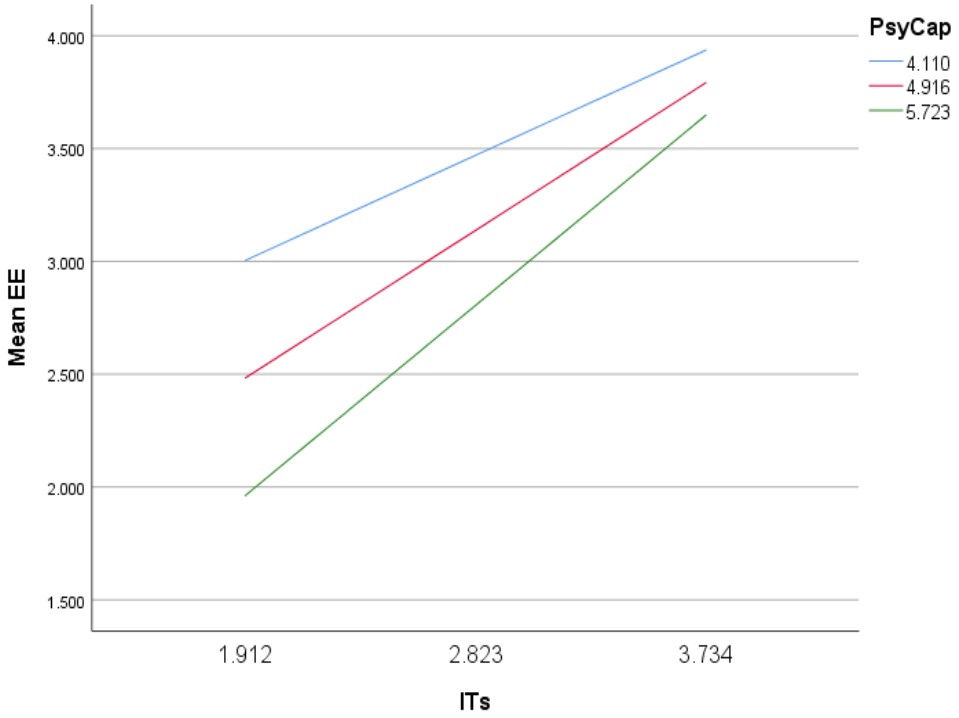

Figure 4.5: *Simple Slopes of PsyCap on the Relationship between ITs and EE*

Finally, the mediating role of EE on the ITs-PQBs relationship was analyzed. H7 posited that EE would mediate this relationship. Previously these relationships had been tested and significantly established (ITs→EE, ITs→PQBs, and EE→PQBs). Analysis of mediation data revealed the indirect effect of ITs on PQBs through EE was significant ($\beta = .4155$, *s.e.*= *.0511*, 95% CI [.3220,.5226]). Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported. These mediation results are presented in Figure 4.6.

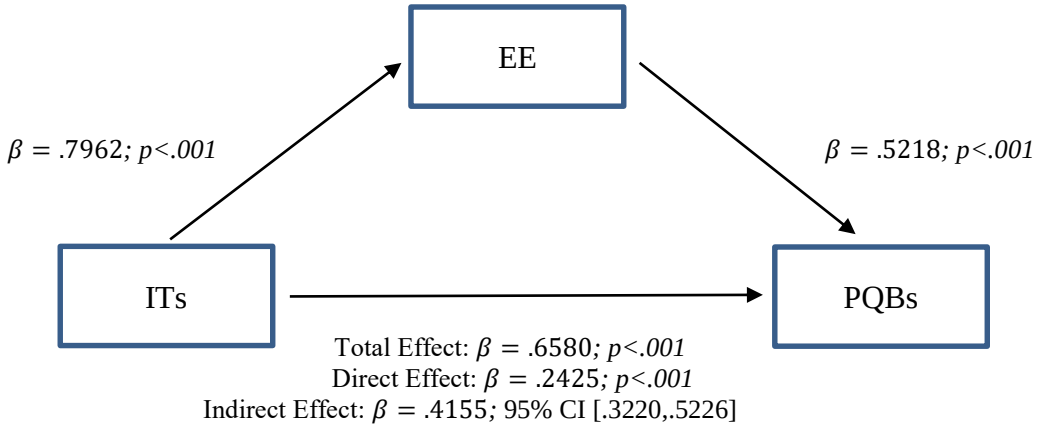

Figure 4.6: *Effects of all Relationships between ITs and PQBs through EE*

In the final moderation test, the moderating effect of supervisors' coercive power (PWR) on the relationship between SINC and EE was tested. PWR was posited to positively moderate the relationship so that when PWR was high, it strengthened the positive relationship between SINC and EE. Table 4.12 displays the regression estimates. Results indicate the overall model was significant (*F=19.9414; p < .001).* But the interaction between ITs and PWR was not significant (β = .1200, s.e. = .0610, p < .05). The model explained 32.1% of the variance, yet H12 was not supported.

Table 4.12

Moderating Effect of Coercive Power on the Relationship between SINC and EE

Model Summary	*R*	R^2	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
	.5667	.3212	1.2164	19.91144	7.0000	295.0000	.0000

Model	coeff.	s.e.	t	p	LLCI/ULCI
SINC	.1545	.2843	.5435	.5872	-.42050/.7141
Power	-.0228	.1019	-.235	.8233	-.2234/.1779
SINC*Power	.1157	.0611	1.8941	.0592	-.0045/.2360

Table 4.13

Hypotheses Results

Hypothesis	Regression Analysis
1a. There is a positive relationship between EWI from supervisors (SINC) and PQBs.	Supported; $p < .001$
1b. There is a positive relationship between EWI from customers (CINC) and PQBs.	Supported; $p < .001$
2a. There is a positive relationship between EWI from supervisors (SINC) and EE.	Supported; $p < .001$
2b. There is a positive relationship between EWI from customers (CINC) and EE.	Supported; $p < .001$
3. There is a positive relationship between EE and PQBs.	Supported; $p < .001$
4a. EE mediates the relationship between EWI from supervisors (SINC) and PQBs.	Supported; 95% CI [2578,.4052]
4b. EE mediates the relationship between EWI from customers (CINC) and PQBs.	Supported; 95% CI [.3049,.4710]
5. There is a positive relationship between ITs and PQBs.	Supported; $p < .001$
6. There is a positive relationship between ITs and EE.	Supported; $p < .001$
7. EE mediates the relationship between ITs and PQBs.	Supported; 95% CI [.3220,.5226]
8.There is a negative relationship between EE and COVID-19 safety behaviors.	Unsupported; $p = -.087$
9a. There is a positive relationship between EE and IDBs.	Unsupported; $p = .167$
9b. There is a positive relationship between EE and ODBs.	Supported; $p < .05$
10a. PsyCap negatively moderates the relationship between SINC and EE.	Supported; $p < .001$, but in opposite direction
10b. PsyCap negatively moderates the relationship between CINC and EE.	Supported; $p < .05$, but in opposite direction
11. PsyCap negatively moderates the relationship between ITs and EE.	Supported; $p < .001$, but in opposite direction
12. Coercive power moderates the relationship between SINC and EE.	Unsupported; $p = .0592$

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Based on affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) wherein harmful events at work incite adverse affective reactions that then elicit negative attitudes and behaviors, this dissertation tested hypotheses and relationships between negative experiences at work (EWI, ITs) and distal outcomes (PQBs, deviant behaviors, adherence to COVID-19 safety protocols) via a hypothesized model that incorporated potential mediating (EE) and moderating (PsyCap, PWR) factors. In doing so, it adds to the extant literatures on each by providing greater understanding of and appreciation for these organizational concepts. In all, the researcher found statistical significance in fifteen of the seventeen hypotheses (Table 4.12), which are discussed below. This chapter provides an examination of the results, describes contributions to the extant literature, discusses practical implications, and presents potential opportunities for future research.

Findings

Experiencing incivility at work was the central concept around which this study was devised. The hypothesized model posited several relationships regarding workers' experiencing incivility from supervisors and customers. One contribution of this dissertation was to provide a better understanding of how different sources of the incivility affects targets' emotional exhaustion. Because incivility research historically focused solely on the incident and target but not the source, a finer understanding of

outcomes based on sources was lacking (Herschcovis & Barling, 2010). Customer service workers in this study experienced considerably more incivility ($p < .001$) from customers (M=2.1224; s.d.=1.0208) than they did from supervisors (M=1.7338; s.d. =9737). These results are in contrast to Lim and Lee (2011) who reported that most workplace incivility reported by targets was instigated by supervisors because, as they suggested, incivility was a means of asserting power. However, it should be noted that data collected for this dissertation were not officially reported complaints by participants; rather, incivility towards participants was revealed through confidential survey questions. It could be that official complaints about incivility at work are filed at proportionately higher rates when the instigator is a supervisor, though greater incidences of incivility is perpetrated by customers.

With regards to EWI and EE, positive relationships were established between both SINC and CINC and EE. These outcomes were expected as research had already connected the general EWI construct to emotional exhaustion (Adams & Webster, 2013; Sakurai & Jex, 2012; Sliter et al., 2010; Kern & Grandey, 2009), and related deleterious affective outcomes including negative emotions (Kim and Shapiro, 2008), depression (Lim & Lee, 2011; Miner-Rubino, 2004), stress (Lim & Cortina, 2005), and lower positive affect (Giumetti et al., 2013). In this study, incivility specifically attributed to both supervisors and customers was established as a predictor of EE. This is noteworthy as, in most of previous studies, EWI was not a discrete construct that identified explicit sources. Thus, according to Schilpzand et al. (2016), these findings not only contribute to the broad workplace incivility literature, but they help illuminate source differences in EWI and the corresponding effects on targets.

Another purpose of this dissertation was to provide insight into how power interacted with supervisor incivility as very little to date has been published concerning the impacts of different levels of power on targets' outcomes (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Findings did not support the hypothesis that supervisors' coercive power moderates the relationship between SINC and EE. As mentioned previously, people who experienced SINC experienced more EE. Thus, it seemed that the more coercive power a supervisor had, the stronger the SINC→EE relationship would become. However, that was not the case though it should be mentioned results approached supporting this relationship (p=.0504). The lack of support for this moderating relationship could result from several issues. First, though the sample (n=302) was robust and met the observations needed standard set forth in Chapter 3 for desired statistical power (Kleinbaum et al.,1988; Hair et al., 2009), a larger sample could potentially result in support for this hypothesis. Larger samples have the ability to detect smaller effects, and it may be that more participants would further bolster the coercive power moderating variable in this study.

Second, coercive power as a moderator may not have transpired due to the sample type. The sample in this study came from the customer service industry in which workers indicated they interacted almost daily with customers and their supervisors. Thus, it is likely that most of the sample would include people in a lower-level or introductory-level job. The impact of a supervisor, regardless of coercive power, may be different on lower-level workers than would be on mid-level or upper-level workers with much more to lose. That is, a supervisor with high coercive power and the ability to impact a worker's promotion, compensation, or work load may not be able to influence, scare, or intimidate

lower level workers in an organization who are not there for the long-term or view their position as simply a replaceable job and not a career.

A positive relationship was found between ITs and EE which, to the researcher's knowledge, is the first study to establish this association. However, this is no surprising either. ITs are unexpected job demands, and job demands are known social stressors in the literature (Semmer et al., 2010; Jacobshagen, 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). When employees are assigned duties that are either unreasonable or unnecessary (or both), it potentially creates confusion about their role in the organization (Frese, 1996), their understanding of expectations (Stryker & Burke, 2000), and the relationship they have with their supervisor that assigned the task. Meyer, Becker, and van Dick (2006) found that ambiguity can threaten a person's professional role which is often closely tied to their social identity (Warr, 1987). A threat to one's social identity through role conflict induces stress (Warr, 1987). Hence, the assignment of ITs can increase EE for multiple reasons, including employees' subsequent animosity towards and conflict with supervisors because of the assigned tasks.

Relationships were also established between SINC and CINC and the outcome variable PQBs: as incivility (from supervisors and customers) increased, so too did pre-quitting behaviors. It should be noted that, to the extent that PQBs are included in the model, this dissertation serves to advance the PQBs research by examining potential antecedents to its construct. To date, only a handful of studies have utilized PQBs (e.g., Li, et al., 2017), none of which included workplace incivility or illegitimate tasks. In addition, EE fully mediates these SINC and CINC relationships with PQBs. Findings from this study support previous research that asserted employees treated in uncivil

manners experience negative emotions (Lim et al., 2008) and distress (Adams & Webster, 2012) that necessitates a response. It seems one of the responses is not only to plan to exit the organization (Porath & Pearson, 2012; 2005; Lim & Cortina, 2004), but also to begin exhibiting a host of behaviors that signal this exit.

ITs were also found to predict PQBs with EE serving as a mediating mechanism. Again, these results were expected. Similar to experiencing incivility, as people are assigned work tasks they feel are not within their organizational role, stress and confusion increase. Because people derive significant meaning and purpose from work (Thoits, 1991), ITs are a signal of social disrespect (Semmer et al., 2010) that can threaten one's role in the organization. When people experience this perceived injustice, uncertainty of their future, and/or distrust towards supervisors, they will become emotionally exhausted and become more likely to exit the organization. As such, they unknowingly behave in ways that signal their departure.

Results did not show any relationships between EE and IDBs (interpersonal deviance behaviors). That is, as workers became more emotionally exhausted, they did not tend to mistreat their co-workers as a consequence. Previous research suggested that those experiencing workplace incivility would be more likely to reciprocate the incivility (Bunk & Magley, 2013), though it was not specified to whom the incivility would be directed. However, this study did establish a positive relationship between EE and ODBs (organizational deviance behaviors). As employees become more emotionally exhausted (from EWI or other workplace stressors), they tend to demonstrate more behaviors that can be organizationally detrimental (e.g., come in late without permission, intentionally work slower). This is in line with previous studies that suggested emotionally exhausted

employees might become irritated, disappointed, and dissatisfied and may respond through deviant behaviors (Mulki et al., 2006) and/or more counterproductive behaviors (Penney & Spector, 2005). It seems emotionally exhausted people tend to take frustrations out on the organization and not their co-workers because the source of frustration may originate with supervisors and/or those higher up in organizational management. This would make sense, as research has shown that employees feeling injustice of some sort direct CWBs towards the organization and not individuals (Spector et al., 2006). Similarly, Lee & Spector (2006) reported that employee conflict with supervisors was related to ODBs while conflict with co-workers resulted in IDBs.

Results of this survey did not support the hypothesis that more emotionally exhausted employees would be less likely to adhere to COVID-19 safety policies and protocols, although the relationship was negative and approached significance ($p = .06$). Previous research had established the negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and safety compliance in other studies (e.g., Li, Jiang, Yao, & Li, 2013), yet the present study failed to confirm the link. Yet, this is understandable. COVID-19 was a worldwide pandemic. Unlike the vast majority of safety policies and protocols established and enacted by organizations, the COVID-19 policies such as masks, social distancing, temperature checks, etc. was to protect from a virus that was exceedingly transmittable, extremely lethal and, therefore, vastly different from the standard health and safety policies that one may find in a standard organization policy manual. Thus, it seems very unlikely that an employee was emotionally exhausted from being assigned an unreasonable task would therefore be more likely to risk their lives or the lives of their loved ones by ignoring protocols or procedures that protected them from contracting or

spreading a lethal virus. In addition, the pandemic removed so many people from the workplace for long periods of time. Once people returned to work, it seems likely that people were willing to follow any COVID-19 guidelines more closely to ensure that they continued in their position. Therefore, the failure of EE to predict inadherance to COVID-19 safety policies and procedures is very understandable.

Unexpected Findings

The hypothesized model had several hypotheses concerning the moderating effect of PsyCap on the relationships between SINC, CINC, ITs and EE. As a reminder, it was posited that PsyCap would weaken all three of these relationships so that as the IVs (SINC, CINC, ITs) increased and therefore EE increased, higher levels of PsyCap would attenuate this effect; in essence, PsyCap would weaken the increases in EE due to SINC, CINC, and ITs. Previous research provided sound theoretical reasoning for these hypotheses. And results for PsyCap as a moderator of all three predictor variables and EE was significant.

However, in none of these relationships was PsyCap found to be a negative moderator; on the contrary, all moderating effects were significant and positive: higher levels of PsyCap tended to increase EE as SINC, CINC, and ITs increased. Given the wealth of previous research that would suggest otherwise, this is somewhat confounding. PsyCap is a moderately stable and state-like, and was purposefully constructed to be utilized entirely in the workplace. Defined by hope, resilience, self-efficacy, and optimism, it seemed intuitively to be a psychological resource that could potentially buffer the negative emotional consequences of incivility from customers and supervisors as well as when given illegitimate task assignments. In fact, research already confirmed

PsyCap as a moderator in these (and similar) relationships (e.g., Milangeni, 2016; Zhong & Ren, 2009) as well as a construct negatively related to burnout (Zhao & Zhang, 2010), job stress (Abbas & Raja, 2015), cynicism (Avey et al., 2011), and turnover intentions (Avey et al., 2009). PsyCap was even negatively correlated with CINC, EE, and PQBs in this study. Though employees high in PsyCap, when faced with SINC, CINC, or ITs, demonstrated EE because of the optimism, confidence, and resilience they exhibited. Luthans et al. (2007) asserted that PsyCap helped workers overcome adversity and problems. Others found high PsyCap individuals were able to recover from difficulty (Block & Kremen, 1996) and bounce back from conflict (Luthans 2002). However, though PsyCap has been discussed as a moderator that can weaken the relationship between constructs understood to be negative such as emotional labor and emotional exhaustion (Widis, 2017), emotional labor and burnout (Weigert, 2016), and workload and cynicism (Price, 2017), no research could be found in which PsyCap was proposed to moderate the relationships that included negative actions of supervisors as an antecedent (e.g., EWI from supervisors).

The anomalies existing in these interactive effects, while counterintuitive, may be legitimate. It appears that PsyCap has such a strong main effect on EE that, even after extracting additional variances when combined with SINC, CINC, and ITs, it ends up having positive associations with EE. In fact, PsyCap may be better suited as a main effect, which is evident of the spread of the interaction with PsyCap when the antecedent variables are low. However, as PsyCap was conceptualized as a moderating factor in the hypothesized model, PsyCap did not interact as a moderator with SINC, CINC, and ITs as was theorized.

Beyond the methodological explanation above, there are myriad other possible reasons as to why PsyCap positively moderated relationships purported to negatively moderate, some likely related to individual differences and personality, some that aren't not fully understood, and others that can't be explained as research related to antecedents of PsyCap is so limited (Avey, 2014). However, upon further examination, the researcher feels two potential factors not included in this study might offer additional clarity: (1) leadership styles, and (2) person-organization fit.

Wu & Nguyen (2019) felt PsyCap, from the organizational side, could best be explained by leadership styles via social exchange theory, the two-sided, mutually contingent and mutually rewarding processes involving transactions. In fact, they found that leadership was the only organizational factor that impacted PsyCap. Leaders can influence the mood, motivation, behaviors, and performance of their subordinates (Wu & Nguyen, 2019). PsyCap is a psychological resource that is somewhat stable but also malleable; it can be developed through positive experiences and damaged through negative ones. They concluded that positive leaders through authentic and ethical leadership are able to increase PsyCap in subordinates. The more recognition and appreciation for accomplishments and recognition for devotion subordinates receive from supervisors, the higher the level of PsyCap they will attain. In contrast, abusive leaders had deleterious effects on PsyCap. It could be that subordinate PsyCap could not buffer the effects of SINC, ITs on EE because of their supervisor's leadership style. Leaders who are uncivil to subordinates are likely not authentic or ethical leaders, as being uncivil to others is a destructive and abusive practice. Employees, even though they are resilient, confident, hopeful, and optimistic suffer emotionally because they find themselves in

untenable working situations. Abusive leaders, by way of incivility, may create situations that increases emotional exhaustion in their employees—even those high in PsyCap.

The person-organization fit (P-O fit) addresses one's compatibility with their entire organization in terms of values, climate, personality, and goals (Kristoff-Brown, 2005). High P-O fit reduces conflict at work because employees are more compatible with the organization (Schwepker et al., 1997). However, because incivility is a type of conflict, experiencing incivility from supervisors and/or customers increases conflict. Rizzo and colleagues (1970) demonstrated that increased conflict creates uncertainty and leads to dissatisfaction and anxiety. It could be that when individuals with high PsyCap experience either SINC or CINC, they begin to question their compatibility with the organization. As incivility continues and they feel more and more misfit at work, and the result is perceived role conflict and emotional exhaustion. It might be that incompatibility with the organization that is revealed through a culture of incivility may be too much for high PsyCap individuals to overcome.

Limitations

The results of this dissertation should be interpreted and understood within the confines of the study's inherent methodological limitations. Of foremost consideration should be that this study was a self-reported, cross-sectional study. As with all studies of this type, they are intrinsically susceptible to social desirability bias (Nederhof, 1995). In other words, were the participants honest? People tend to deny social actions or behaviors that are socially unacceptable and accentuate those behaviors that are (Chung & Monroe, 2003) even in potentially confidential settings. Further, the measurement of PQBs was originally presented as an instrument to be completed by others (co-workers and/or

supervisors). In this study, the researcher made slight wording changes so that the construct could be self-reported. Even though the researcher did not detect evidence of CMV, because the sample data was same-source as opposed to multi-source, it could be argued there exists at least some measure of CMV that may have, in fact, contaminated the data and consequential conclusions drawn thereby. Another limitation is the sample itself; to bolster responses pertaining to incivility from customers, only workers from the customer service industry were recruited. Because these type workers may have attributes that differentiate them from other industries, caution should be used in terms of the study's generalizability. Finally, though the use of Amazon's Mechanical Turk has been used in extensive organizational research and has proven to be just as high-quality and reliable as traditional data collection methods (e.g., Aguinis, Villamor, & Ramani, 2021; Porter, Outlaw, & Gale, 2018; Lovett et al., 2018), questions about the true demographic make-up of Turkers as well as external validity limitations still exist (Stritch, Pederson, & Taggert, 2017).

These aforementioned limitations could be addressed by (a) conducting longitudinal studies that attempt to test the causality of incivility as opposed to simply the relationship, (b) combating possible CMV contamination through data collection waves where data related to IVs, mediators, and DVs are all separated, (c) utilize participants from outside the customer service industry to see if results are consistent or different, and (d) use a sample not recruited from an online data panel service to remedy questions related to external validity.

Future Research

Given the unexpected interaction of PsyCap on the relationships between SINC, CINC and ITs on EE in this model, more research efforts that include PsyCap and EWI is warranted. Given that research has suggested that high PsyCap should combat against negative occurrences, including uncivil behaviors, it seems paramount to understand why PsyCap does not serve to dampen emotional exhaustion experienced by workers following supervisor-instigated incivility. Specifically, is this related to a certain type, amount, or duration of incivility? Are these due to other personal characteristics of targets? These are questions that seem to necessitate more targeted incivility studies.

Most incivility research to date (including this study) has focused on the consequences of incivility. Given the devastating outcomes uncovered by incivility researchers (e.g., emotional exhaustion, PQBs, quit intentions, distress, anxiety, depression, etc.), it seems important to better understand the antecedents of incivility. From a practical perspective, extending a line of research that discovers and reports factors that lead to incivility would help accumulate knowledge that could be used develop policies and strategies to combat its presence in organizations (Schilpzand et al., 2016). This research could delve into the antecedents of incivility from the standpoint of both the instigator and the target. That is, what are personal characteristics, traits, motives, and attitudes that increase the likelihood that someone would instigate and also experience incivility at work?

Finally, incivility researchers might focus on the development of an instrument that assesses an organization's *culture of incivility*. Intuitively speaking, incivility thrives in some institutions but not in others. The literature still lacks in understanding the

organizational climate characteristics that either support and dissuade incivility amongst employees (Schilpzand et al., 2016). In addition, levels of incivility would seem to differ across sectors. Incivility is likely more common, more accepted, and more normative in some industries (e.g., the military) as opposed to others (e.g., education). In addition, the climate of some organizations within the same industry may differ substantially regarding how incivility is either discouraged or encouraged. The present study did not assess any organizational factors related to incivility. However, research that addressed EWI via an instrument that measured the organization's culture of incivility could not only add significantly to the literature, but it could be of practical importance to management in terms of understanding the incivility phenomenon within their own workplace.

Conclusion

This dissertation contributes to the extant body of literature on workplace incivility by providing more nuance to its effects within a unique hypothesized model. Specifically, results indicated that incivility from both supervisors and customers were related to emotional exhaustion and the distal outcome of pre-quitting behaviors. In addition, the greater the coercive power of the supervisor, the more deleterious the effects of their incivility towards subordinates in terms of emotional exhaustion and pre-quitting behaviors. This may seem intuitive, but it should inform supervisors as to how they treat those whom they manage. An additional noteworthy finding relates to PsyCap. Although employees high in PsyCap tend to be resilient and optimistic and less prone to become emotionally exhausted, it seems that higher levels of supervisor and customer incivility are often too much for them to overcome. Incivility inside the organization takes a

serious emotional toll on employees, and planning one's organizational exit seems to be a natural consequence.

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APPENDIX A

HUMAN USE APPROVAL LETTER

MEMORANDUM

TO: Mr. Matt Lovett and Dr. Marcia Dickerson

FROM: Dr. Richard Kordal, Director of Intellectual Property & Commercialization (OIPC)
rkordal@latech.edu

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: February 23, 2021

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

"An Exploration of Experienced Workplace Incivility"

HUC 21-066

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 February 23, 2021 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project continues beyond February 23, 2022.*** **ANY CHANGES** to your protocol procedures, including minor changes, should be reported immediately to the IRB for approval before implementation. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of Sponsored Projects.

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 Sponsored Projects or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

Updated Workplace Incivility Scale (12 items; Cortina et al., 2013)

Over the last three months how frequently has your supervisor…

1. Paid little attention to your statements or showed little interest in your opinions.
2. Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you had responsibility.
3. Gave you hostile looks, stares, or sneers.
4. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately.
5. Interrupted or "spoke over" you.
6. Rated you lower than you deserved on an evaluation.
7. Yelled, shouted, or swore at you.
8. Made insulting or disrespectful remarks about you.
9. Ignored you or failed to speak to you (e.g., gave you "the silent treatment").
10. Accused you of incompetence.
11. Targeted you with anger outbursts or "temper tantrums."
12. Made jokes at your expense.

Over the last three months how frequently has a customer/client…

1. Paid little attention to your statements or showed little interest in your opinions.
2. Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you had responsibility.
3. Gave you hostile looks, stares, or sneers.
4. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately.
5. Interrupted or "spoke over" you.
6. Rated you lower than you deserved on an evaluation.
7. Yelled, shouted, or swore at you.
8. Made insulting or disrespectful remarks about you.
9. Ignored you or failed to speak to you (e.g., gave you "the silent treatment").
10. Accused you of incompetence.
11. Targeted you with anger outbursts or "temper tantrums."
12. Made jokes at your expense.

5-point Likert scale: never=1, many times=5

Bern Illegitimate Tasks Scale, or BITS (8 items; Jacobshagen, 2006)

Do you have work tasks to take care of which keep you wondering if:

1-they have to be done at all?
2-they make sense at all?
3-they would not exist if it were organized differently?
4-they would not exist if some other people made less mistakes?
5-they exist because some people simply demand it this way?

Do you have work tasks to take care of which you believe:

6-should be done by someone else?
7-are going too far and should not be expected from you?
8-put you in an awkward position?
9-are unfair to you?

5-point Likert scale: never=1, frequently=5

Emotional Exhaustion (9 items; Maslach & Jackson, 1986)

1-I feel emotionally drained from my work
2-I feel frustrated by my job.
3-I feel used up at the end of the work day.
4-I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job
5-I feel I'm working too hard on my job.
6-Working all day with people is really a strain for me.
7-I feel burned out from my work.
8-I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.
9-Working directly with people puts too much stress on me.

6-point Likert scale: never=0, every day=6

Psychological Capital, or CPC-12 (12 items; Lorenz et al., 2016)

1. If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it.
2. Right now, I see myself being pretty successful.
3. I can think of many ways to reach my current goals.
4. I am looking forward to the life ahead of me.
5. The future holds a lot in store for me.
6. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.
7. Sometimes I make myself do things whether I want to or not.
8. When I'm in a difficult situation, I can usually find my way out of it.
9. It's okay if there are people who don't like me.
10. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
11. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.
12. I can remain clam when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.

6-point Likert scale: strongly disagree=1, strongly agree=6

Pre-quitting Behaviors, or PQBs (13 items; Gardner et al., 2016)

Think about your behavior over the last 2-3 months. Please describe your level of agreement with each item below:

1-My work productivity has decreased more than usual.
2-I have acted less like a team player than usual.
3-I have been doing the minimum amount of work more frequently than usual.
4-I have been less interested in pleasing my manager than usual.
5-I have been less willing to commit to long-term timelines than usual.
6-I have exhibited a negative change in attitude.
7-I have exhibited less effort and work motivation than usual.
8-I have exhibited less focus on job related matters than usual.
9-I have expressed dissatisfaction with my current job more frequently than usual.
10-I have expressed dissatisfaction with my supervisor more frequently than usual.
11-I have left early from work more frequently than usual.
12-I have lost enthusiasm for the mission of the organization.
13-I have shown less interest in working with customers than usual.

5-point Likert scale: strongly disagree=1, strongly agree=5

Coercive Power (4 items; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989)

My supervisor can:

1-give me undesirable job assignments.
2-make my work more difficult for me.
3-make things unpleasant here.
4-make being at work distasteful.

6-point Likert scale: strongly disagree=1, strongly agree =6

COVID-19 Safety Behaviors Scale (9 items; Du & Liu, 2020)

1. I use COVID-19 supplies at work (e.g., hand sanitizer).
2. I wear necessary COVID-19 protective equipment at work (e.g., masks).
3. I abide by all COVID-19 safety rules at work.
4. I actively cooperate with management at work to help prevent the spread of COVID-19.
5. I pay attention to COVID-19 rules and regulations even when my supervisor is not present.
6. I give suggestions on how to improve workplace COVID-19 safety culture.
7. I take part in activities that improve workplace COVID-19 safety culture.
8. I demonstrate the appropriate COVID-19 behaviors to my colleagues.
9. I correct the inappropriate COVID-19 behaviors of my colleagues.

5-point Likert scale: never=1, always=5

Interpersonal Deviance Scale (6 items) and Organizational Deviance Scale (5 items); (Bennett & Robinson, 2000)

Please indicate how often you have engaged in the following behaviors in the last few weeks:

Interpersonal
1. Made fun of someone at work.
2. Said something hurtful to someone at work.
3. Cursed at someone at work.
4. Played a mean prank on someone at work.
5. Acted rudely to someone at work.
6. Publicly embarrassed someone at work

Organizational
1. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
2. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.
3. Come in late to work without permission.
4. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.
5. Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

7-point Likert scale: never=1, daily=7