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Taking a Closer Look at Workplace Incivility: Dimensionality and Source Effects

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Graduate Program in Psychology
A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree in Master of Science
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TAKING A CLOSER LOOK AT WORKPLACE INCIVILITY: DIMENSIONALITY
AND SOURCE EFFECTS

(Spine title: Workplace Incivility: Dimensionality and Source Effects)

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by

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Graduate Program in Psychology

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

The School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies
The University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, Canada

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THE UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN ONTARIO
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CERTIFICATE OF EXAMINATION

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Taking a closer look at workplace incivility: Dimensionality and source effects

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis was twofold. First, it sought to investigate whether taking a multi-foci approach to the study of workplace incivility would result in differential relations with affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. In general, the results were supported. When the source of incivility was measured jointly, relations between incivility and organizational outcomes were overestimated. Measuring incivility from a supervisor and a co-worker separately showed that incivility from a supervisor was more strongly associated with job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Co-worker incivility was more strongly associated with affective commitment. Second, this thesis critically assessed the dimensionality of the scale commonly used to measure workplace incivility. The Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001) revealed two factors – covert and overt incivility. Covert incivility had stronger relationships with organizational outcomes than overt incivility. I draw on relational considerations to explain these findings and to discuss avenues for future research.

Keywords: Workplace incivility, Source effects, Supervisor, Co-worker, Victims, Workplace Incivility Scale, Dimensionality

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Certificate of Examination	ii
Abstract	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
List of Appendices	x
Introduction	1
Defining workplace incivility	2
Outcomes of workplace incivility	3
Individual outcomes	3
Organizational outcomes	4
Measurement and conceptual problems with workplace incivility	5
Conceptualizing incivility: A multi-foci approach	5
Dimensionality of WIS	12
Method	15
Participants	15
Procedure	16
Measures	17
Results	18
Testing hypothesis 1	22
Overview of Regression Analyses.....	22

Incivility, source, and affective commitment	25
Incivility, source, and job satisfaction	27
Incivility, source, and turnover intentions	29
Testing hypothesis 2	31
Determination of items for subscales.....	31
Confirmatory factor analysis	31
Pattern of relationship between incivility subscales and outcomes by source.....	34
Affective commitment	35
Covert incivility, source, and affective commitment	36
Overt incivility, source, and affective commitment	36
Job Satisfaction	37
Covert incivility, source, and job satisfaction	37
Overt incivility, source, and job satisfaction	40
Turnover Intentions	40
Covert incivility, source, and turnover intentions	40
Overt incivility, source, and turnover intentions	43
Discussion	45
Summary of findings and implications	45
Source of incivility	48
Dimensionality of the WIS	50
Coping with incivility	54
Limitations and future directions	54
Conclusion	58

References	60
Appendices	69
Curriculum Vita	77

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Description	Page
1	Correlations among all study variables in the supervisor condition	19
2	Correlations among all study variables in the co-worker condition	20
3	Correlations among all study variables in the unspecified condition	21
4	Incremental Hierarchical Regressions for Incivility	26
5	Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the WIS items	32
6	Incremental Hierarchical Regressions for Covert Incivility.....	38
7	Incremental Hierarchical Regressions for Overt Incivility.....	41
8	Summary of Moderated Multiple Regression Analyses for Covert and Overt Incivlity	47

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Description	Page
1	Moderating effect of Source on the relation between Incivility and Job Satisfaction	28
2	Moderating effect of Source on the relation between Incivility and Turnover Intentions	30
3	Moderating effect of Source on the relation between Covert Incivility and Job Satisfaction.....	39
4	Moderating effect of Source on the relation between Overt Incivility and Job Satisfaction	42
5	Moderating effect of Source on the relation between Covert Incivility and Turnover Intentions	44
6	Moderating effect of Source on the relation between Overt Incivility and Turnover Intentions	46

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix	Description	Page
A	Ethics Approval Form	69
B	Demographic Questionnaire	70
C	Workplace Incivility Scale	71
D	Ways of Coping Scale	72
E	Affective Commitment Scale	74
F	Job Satisfaction	75
G	Turnover Intentions	76

Introduction

People want to be treated with respect. A basic level of civility and respect is expected in any kind of relationship, be it romantic, friendly, or fiscal. In the workplace especially, people want to work in an environment where they are treated with respect. Rude and discourteous treatment can result in unhappy employees, strained relationships, and an unpleasant work environment. Unfortunately, rudeness is on the rise (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Johnson & Invik, 2001; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000). Rude remarks, being ignored, a lack of politeness, and sarcasm are all instances of workplace incivility. Andersson and 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” (p. 457).

Incidents of workplace incivility are pervasive with most employees reporting at least one experience. In fact, a poll by Pearson et al., (2000) showed that an overwhelming majority of employees have experienced more than one act of incivility in the form of verbal or non-verbal abuse. Research has shown that being treated uncivilly results in greater job stress, cognitive distraction, psychological distress, and lower job satisfaction and creativity (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2005). Clearly, workplace incivility is costly for both the individual and the organization.

Workplace incivility has been defined as a mild form of interpersonal mistreatment. Nonetheless, a review of the literature suggests that researchers do not consider the source of incivility when investigating its outcomes. Moreover, it is not clear whether incivility is a unitary scale or if it is composed of multiple dimensions. The

purpose of the current research is to take a critical look at the current conceptualization and measurement of workplace incivility. Specifically, this research empirically examines whether the source of incivility has differential relations with organizational outcomes and takes a critical look at the instrument used to measure workplace incivility.

Defining workplace incivility

Incivility consists of three characteristics: violation of workplace norms and respect, ambiguous intent, and low intensity (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). The first characteristic of incivility is a violation of workplace norms. Not every organization operates in the same way, yet every organization has its own norms and expectations for what is considered acceptable interactional conduct among employees. This shared understanding allows for cooperation within the organization. Acts of incivility undermine that understanding and disrupt the well-being of the organization and its employees (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008).

The second characteristic of incivility is ambiguous intent. The instigator's goal is not always clear to the target. The uncivil behaviors could be intentional, but might also be due to ignorance, oversight, or the personality of the instigator (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Nonetheless, the ambiguity might cause the victim a great deal of stress as he or she may not know how to make sense of the situation, and consequently would not know how to respond to the behavior.

The third characteristic of incivility is referred to as low intensity. Compared to aggressive acts such as bullying or harassment, incivility is of lesser severity. Even if incivility is of lower intensity, it can still lead to aggression and escalating conflicts (Lim et al., 2008). In fact, experiencing incivility can lead to a spiral so that one person's

perception of incivility may cause him or her to retaliate with another uncivil behavior, which may eventually lead to more aggressive and intense forms of mistreatment (Pearson et al., 2000). Incivility therefore, can lead to adverse effects for both the victim and the organization.

Outcomes of workplace incivility

Workplace incivility can be costly for the victim, the organization, any bystanders, or even the instigator (i.e., via incivility spirals or retaliations). Research has associated workplace incivility with a number of negative individual and organizational outcomes.

Individual outcomes. Research has shown workplace incivility to be related to various attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. In their study of federal court system employees, Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout (2001) found that experiences of incivility were associated with many negative outcomes for the individual, including increased psychological distress, increased job withdrawal, and decreased job satisfaction. In another study of 307 undergraduate students who were employed full-time, Penney and Spector (2005) found that workplace incivility was negatively related to job satisfaction.

Lim et al. (2008) also found that workplace incivility negatively affects employees' occupational and psychological well-being. Experiences of workplace incivility were negatively related to both satisfaction with supervisor and co-workers, work satisfaction, and mental and physical health. In a more recent study with management employees and undergraduates, Miner, Settles, Pratt-Hyatt, and Brady

(2012) found that greater frequency of workplace incivility was negatively related with job satisfaction and positively related with job stress, depression, and physical symptoms.

Organizational outcomes. Workplace incivility is also related to outcomes that extend beyond the victim. Having an unpleasant work environment can cause employee distraction and discontentment, which may lead to an increase in employee absence or contribute to escalating conflict between employees. In turn, there could be a decrease in work effort and a decline in work productivity.

In a discussion of organizational outcomes, Pearson et al. (2000) posited that incivility can cause retaliation against the organization (e.g., stealing from the organization). Further, Johnson and Indvik (2001) found that nearly 80% of incivility victims report a decrease in work productivity due to incivility and over 10% of victims eventually leave their jobs. Lim et al. (2008) have also provided empirical evidence showing that workplace incivility is associated with increased turnover intentions. In another study, Sliter, Sliter, and Jex (2012) found that co-worker incivility was a significant predictor of absenteeism. Sliter et al. explained the results by applying the conservation of resources theory, which suggests that to deal with the social stress of workplace incivility employees might withdraw from work and/or reduce their performance. Additional support for the relation between incivility and organizational outcomes was found in a study conducted by Sakurai and Jex (2012). In a sample of 209 full-time university students, Sakurai and Jex found a negative relation between co-worker incivility and work effort.

When measuring workplace incivility, most studies use Cortina et al.'s (2001) Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS) or a slightly modified version. However, a critical

examination of the WIS reveals that it may be problematic for at least two reasons. First, it does not take into account the source of incivility, and only assesses individual employees' general experiences. The magnitude of effects of workplace incivility may be different depending on the source. Second, past research has assumed that the WIS assesses a one-dimensional construct. A closer examination of the items however suggests two underlying activities: overt instances of incivility and covert instances of incivility. Overt incivility includes behaviors that can be easily recognized as rude or discourteous and covert incivility includes behaviors that are less visible, or more ambiguous in form. In the next sections, these two problems will be expanded upon by critically examining the incivility construct and its measurement.

Measurement and conceptual problems with workplace incivility

Andersson and Pearson's (1999) seminal work introduced the concept of workplace incivility. Since then, there has been an abundance of research on the incidence and impact of workplace incivility without much critical evaluation of the construct itself. While the construct has provided researchers and practitioners with more insight on interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace, there are still several problematic issues with the current conceptualization and measurement of the incivility construct.

Conceptualizing incivility: A multi-foci approach. While customers and/or clients can most certainly be the instigator or target of incivility, most incivility researchers focus on intra-organizational sources of workplace incivility (i.e., Cortina et al., 2001). Nonetheless, the WIS does not identify the instigator of incivility. Like most other mistreatment scales, the WIS asks if an individual has experienced incivility from someone at work or a "supervisor/co-worker." No attempts have yet been made to ensure

that the source is in fact unimportant. While Pearson et al. (2005) theoretically identified an instigator's position and power as a possible moderator of the relation between incivility and potential outcomes, researchers have yet to provide any empirical investigation into differences between incivility originating from one's supervisor and incivility originating from one's co-worker(s).

A review by Aquino and Thau (2009) showed that researchers who study mistreatment in the organization typically ask respondents about treatment they have received without a specific reference to the status of the perpetrator. The instigator's status could be higher, lower, or equal to the victim's. No specific reference to the source of incivility may result in overestimating certain outcomes of incivility or overlooking other outcomes.

More generally, Hershcovis and Barling (2010) called for a multi-foci approach to the study of workplace aggression for methodological, theoretical, and practical reasons. A multi-foci approach involves investigating the source of mistreatment rather than just the experience of mistreatment. These reasons, as I outline below, can provide insight to the study of workplace incivility as both are forms of mistreatment in the organization (Pearson et al., 2005; Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Methodologically, many studies on aggression do not identify the instigator of the aggression. Similarly, in the study of workplace incivility, the instigator is rarely specified. Studies usually ask respondents whether they have experienced incivility from "someone at work" or from their "supervisor/co-worker." A meta-analysis by Hershcovis et al. (2007) showed that the pattern of predictors for workplace aggression was in fact relationship-specific. Poor leadership and interpersonal injustice were stronger predictors

of supervisor-targeted aggression than co-worker-targeted aggression. This is problematic because the magnitude of effects may not be the same from different sources. As a result, researchers could under or over-estimate the effects of workplace incivility without adequately assessing the source of incivility.

Theoretically, Hershcovis and Barling (2010) suggested that the impact of mediators or outcomes may vary depending on who instigated the aggression. For example, when the perpetrator is a supervisor, an employee may tend to have more feelings of job insecurity, which might then lead to job search behaviors. Aggression from a supervisor might even lead to lower levels of self-efficacy. If, on the other hand the perpetrator is a co-worker, Hershcovis and Barling posited that fears of job security are less likely. Lee and Spector (2006) also demonstrated that conflicts with supervisors or co-workers have different outcomes. Conflict with supervisors was more likely to result in counterproductive work behavior (CWB) directed toward the organization, while conflict with co-workers was more likely to result in CWB directed toward other individuals. This rationale can also be applied to the study of workplace incivility. Incivility from a supervisor might result in different outcomes than incivility from a co-worker. Incivility from a supervisor might result in lower job satisfaction whereas incivility from a co-worker might provoke victims to engage in more withdrawal behaviors.

Practically, Hershcovis & Barling (2010) suggested that aggression from different perpetrators involve different responses from the target and different prevention strategies from the organization. For instance, if a supervisor is the perpetrator of aggression then the victim might be more likely to avoid the instigator and seek emotional support from

co-workers or from family and friends. If a co-worker is the perpetrator of aggression then the victim might be more likely to confront him or her. By drawing on the power and justice literature, Hershcovis and Barling posited that attitudinal, behavioral, and health outcomes are stronger when the perpetrator is a supervisor rather than when the perpetrator is a co-worker(s).

People in high positions (i.e., supervisors) are able to influence their subordinates' behaviors and attitudes towards the organization. A study by Keltner, Gruenfeld, and Anderson (2003) demonstrated that people with less power are more attentive to threat or punishment since people in higher positions are able to influence the attitudes of those in relatively less powerful positions. In a sample of 232 employees, Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) showed that since supervisors are able to control important organizational resources such as pay allocation, promotions, and work assignments, their subordinates expected to be treated in a fair and respectful manner. Such work relationships are generally more long term and can be classified under a social exchange relationship. While these relationships include financial agreements, there is also a less concrete agreement that exists and involves recognition or esteem. In return for recognition, employees might be more likely to increase their work productivity or their organizational citizenship behaviors. As such, subordinates are more likely to attend to the actions of people in higher positions because the people in higher positions are more likely to have a greater influence on organizational and individual outcomes.

The justice literature also provides insight into differences resulting from incivility from supervisors compared to coworkers. Two meta-analytic reviews (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) provided

comprehensive summaries of the relationship between justice and several individual and organizational outcomes. Interactional justice – defined as the quality of interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented – has significant relations with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, withdrawal, and performance (Malatesta & Byrne, 1997; Materson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). In the case of interactional injustice, interpersonal mistreatment from a supervisor will have stronger effects than interpersonal mistreatment from a co-worker as the former has more power and control over the implementation of organizational procedures. Therefore, employees might be more sensitive to treatment from their supervisor.

Applying these findings to the study of workplace incivility, one might suspect that when a supervisor treats his or her subordinate(s) uncivilly it might lead to more negative outcomes than if a co-worker behaved uncivilly. Supervisor incivility might result in worse outcomes such as increased turnover intentions and lower job satisfaction than co-worker incivility. On the other hand, a co-worker only possesses social power and is able to influence the presence and quality of social relationships within a group (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). When people are treated uncivilly or aggressively by a co-worker, it could indicate that they do not belong to the group. Furthermore, individuals with a high need for belonging might suffer worse individual outcomes than individuals who do not have a high need for belonging.

The differential relationships that might emerge between supervisor or co-worker incivility and outcomes can also be explained through Fiske's (1992) general theory of social relations. Fiske posited that people are fundamentally sociable and organize their

lives with regard to seeking, making, sustaining, and repairing relationships. Fiske's theory suggests that people use only four relational models to guide social interactions. Two of which are particularly salient to this discussion are communal sharing and authority ranking.

Communal sharing stems from people's desire to be similar to others and not to stand out as different. This model reflects individuals' relationships with their co-workers. Co-worker incivility might negatively relate to people's self-evaluation as it could undermine one's sense of similarity and conformity with others. The second social model, authority ranking involves obedience to authority and deference to leaders. Subordinates aim to please their supervisors and display loyalty. As such, supervisor incivility might adversely influence one's attitudes and behaviors towards his or her job and employer. A supervisor represents the organization so experiencing supervisor incivility would be more likely to affect organizational outcomes than co-worker incivility (Frone, 2000).

Frone (2000) provided a model of interpersonal conflict at work to test the effect of source differences on psychological outcomes. He proposed that interpersonal conflict with one's supervisor would predict organizational outcomes while interpersonal conflict with co-workers would predict personal outcomes such as depression and self-esteem. His findings supported the model which provides us more insight into how incivility from different sources could potentially differentially affect employee outcomes.

Hershcovis and Barling (2010) also provided evidence for differential effects of source and workplace aggression by meta-analytically comparing the outcomes of aggression from different perpetrators. Results showed that supervisor aggression had

stronger negative relations than co-worker aggression on numerous variables including job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, turnover intentions, general health, and performance.

In sum, the current evidence suggests that outcomes differ in magnitude depending on the source of aggression. While there have been recent efforts in the incivility literature to separate supervisor and co-worker incivility (e.g., Reio, 2011), there remains some unanswered questions.

Reio (2011) separated workplace incivility into co-worker incivility and supervisor incivility. Reio surveyed 507 employees from government, profit, and non-profit organizations and reported that females were less likely to experience supervisor incivility than males but more likely to experience co-worker incivility. This study however only looked at the frequency with which workplace incivility occurs and did not measure any possible differential outcomes associated with incivility from different sources. Sliter et al. (2012) and Sakurai and Jex (2012) both attempted to distinguish supervisor and co-worker incivility by assessing only co-worker incivility. Studying only one source of incivility implies that it may be source specific, however, studying a single source at one time leaves it difficult to be certain if differential effects do exist.

Reio and Reio (2011) tried to rectify the problem by studying multiple sources of incivility at the same time by measuring the frequency with which 272 employees in an IT company were targets of supervisor or co-worker incivility. Experiences of incivility were almost the same – 78% of employees reported experiencing supervisor incivility and 81% of employees reported experiencing co-worker incivility. Similar to the Reio (2011) study, females experienced more co-worker incivility and males experienced more

supervisor incivility. Reio and Reio also investigated the link between incivility and two types of worker engagement: safety engagement (employees feeling safe expressing him or herself) and availability engagement (employees having the necessary resources or support to perform his or her roles well). While both types of incivility were negative predictors of safety and availability engagement, co-worker incivility was a stronger predictor of safety engagement and supervisor incivility was a stronger predictor of availability engagement. This strongly suggests that Hershcovis and Barling's (2010) multi-foci approach to the study of mistreatment on outcomes should be applied to incivility, and suggests that the magnitude of effects differs depending on the source.

The current conceptualization of incivility suggests that the source of incivility should not have an effect. However, given the discussion above, I believe that the source of incivility may play a more important role than current theories afford, such that incivility originating from a supervisor will have a more negative impact than incivility originating from a co-worker.

Hypothesis 1. The relations between supervisor incivility and job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and affective commitment should be stronger than the relations involving co-worker incivility.

Dimensionality of WIS. The WIS assesses employees' experiences of incivility via ten items which according to Cortina et al. (2001) forms a single overall factor. There is reason to believe that not all forms of incivility are the same. Drawing upon literature from other areas of mistreatment in the organization, the precedence for a multidimensional nature has been set by Robinson and Bennett's (1995) organization versus person typology of CWBs. This distinction has revealed some interesting findings.

For instance, Fox, Spector and Miles (2001) found that justice was more related to CWB directed toward the organization and interpersonal conflict was more related to CWB directed toward other individuals. Spector and Fox (2005) also believed that research would benefit from a more fine-grained analysis because of the potential for differential relations. While the source of mistreatment can have differential outcomes and relations, combing all items into one index might overlook distinctions between specific behaviors that might not all have the same antecedents and outcomes.

Spector et al. (2006) showed that assessing CWB as only one or two overall dimensions obscured relationships of possible causes with more specific behaviors. Using the 45-item Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C), the authors categorized CWBs in five subscales: abuse toward others, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. For the placement of the items into their respective subscales, the authors recruited 12 industrial/organizational psychology graduate students to be subject matter experts (SMEs). Spector et al. provided data from three samples that revealed differential relations among the CWB subscales and antecedent variables. Specifically, abuse and sabotage were most strongly associated with anger and stress, theft was unrelated to people's negative emotional experiences at work, and withdrawal was related to boredom and being upset. The CWB-C however, is generally used solely as a broad measure whereby users may run the risk of assuming that all CWBs are related to the same stressors and strains. Clearly, the presence of differential relations may obscure reality. Researcher should be more cautious about generalizing relationships from total score scales to the individual items, and must consider the bandwidth versus fidelity ('broad vs. narrow').

Another important distinction in the mistreatment literature has been made by Baron and Neuman (1998). These authors distinguished between two types of aggression: overt and covert. Overt aggression are behaviors that are readily recognized as aggressive in nature such as abusive verbal interactions (e.g., threats, yelling/shouting, or assaults), whereas covert aggressive behaviors are invisible or less visible in form (e.g., showing up late for meetings held by the target, belittling opinions, or failing to transmit information). Perhaps this distinction can be applied to incivility.

A closer examination of the items in the WIS (see Appendix C) suggests that there might be two underlying activities: overt incivility and covert incivility. A fine-grained analysis might reveal differential relations among outcomes that would otherwise be hidden by a single broad and general overall measure. It might be helpful therefore to explore whether or not incivility is best represented as a single index or if it can be decomposed into more than one dimension.

Categorizing items into overt versus covert incivility is likely to be closely related with perceptions of intent of the instigator (Baron & Neuman, 1998; Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999; Neuman & Baron, 2005; Kaukianen et al., 2001). Covert acts of incivility may disguise the identity of the instigator and his or her harm-doing intentions whereas overt acts openly reveal the perpetrator's identity and his or her intentions are more readily interpretable. As such, overt acts of incivility are easily classified as rude and discourteous whereas covert acts of incivility are more ambiguous in form and it is more difficult to be certain of an instigator's intentions.

Measuring incivility as a one dimensional construct might leave researchers unaware of distinctions among different forms of incivility that might not have the same

nomological network of antecedents and outcomes. Robinson and Bennett (1995) suggested that harmful behavior is generally more covert in nature. Similarly, Kaukianen et al. (2001) and Lagerspetz, Bjorkqvist, and Peltonen (1988) suggested that covert behavior is a kind of social manipulation. The instigator might purposefully engage in covert forms of incivility to disguise their motive and leave the victim unsure of whether the incivility was intentional or not. Covert incivility may leave the target more uncertain and more perplexed as to the victim's true motives. The uncertainty that arises from covert incivility could lead to more negative outcomes and may require different response strategies in comparison to overt incivility. Thus, the two forms may have differential relations with important organizationally-relevant outcome variables.

Hypothesis 2. If the current conceptualization of incivility is correct, a single factor will account for the variance in the WIS. I suspect that two factors may emerge, each potentially having different relations with job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and affective organizational commitment.

Method

Participants

A total of 307 individuals (123 males and 184 females) participated in this study. Data from all participants were retained for analyses unless otherwise noted. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 42 years old ($M = 18.74$ years, $SD = 1.82$). Participants were recruited through the University of Western Ontario's undergraduate psychology subject pool and participated in exchange for course credit.

Only individuals who were currently employed or had been previously employed were able to participate. One respondent indicated no job experience and was thus

removed from the rest of the analyses. Most of the participants (31.3%) worked in the retail industry, 30.5% worked in service, 15.4% worked in education and the remaining 23% worked in various industries ranging from general labor to accounting. Tenure ranged from 1 year to 11 years experience ($M = 2.14$ years, $SD = 1.45$).

Procedure

The study was conducted online through SuveryMonkey (an online survey software and questionnaire tool). Individuals interested in participating gained access to a link which redirected them to the questionnaire. In accordance with the Research Ethics Board at the University of Western Ontario (REB; see approval form in Appendix A), all participants were required to complete an informed consent document which indicated that their participation was entirely voluntary and they were free to withdraw at any time without loss of promised research credits. Only after completing the informed consent form were participants redirected to the rest of the questionnaire. Following the informed consent, participants were asked to complete a brief demographic questionnaire (see Appendix B) which included questions about age, race, sex, work experience, and tenure. Following the demographic form, individuals were asked to answer a number of questions regarding any incivility they may have experienced at work. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: the first condition asked participants to think of incivility that was instigated only by their supervisor, the second condition asked participants to think of incivility instigated only by a co-worker(s), and the third condition asked participants to think of incivility instigated by their supervisor and/or co-worker (as per the standard instructions of the WIS). Participants were randomly assigned

to each condition which resulted in 104 participants in the first condition, 100 participants in the second condition, and 102 participants in the third condition.

All participants responded to questions assessing their attitudes to work and response strategies to incivility – specifically, their affective commitment towards their organization, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and coping strategies. At the end of the survey, participants were redirected to the debriefing page.

Measures

Incivility. The Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS; Cortina et al., 2001) was used to assess incivility. Cortina and Magley (2009) have since supplemented the WIS with three additional items which were also administered in this study. The WIS consists of 10 items that measure the frequency with which individuals have experienced each statement. Participants responded using a 5-point scale ranging from (1) once or twice a year to (5) everyday. Cronbach's alpha for the single incivility scale of the WIS in this study is .89. A sample item is: "My co-worker/supervisor paid little attention to a statement I made or showed little interest in my opinion." See Appendix C.

Coping. The Ways of Coping (WOC) Scale (25 items) was used to assess coping strategies among participants (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980, 1985). The scale assessed problem-oriented coping strategies with six items ($\alpha = .71$), emotion-oriented coping strategies with six items ($\alpha = .75$), and avoidance-oriented coping strategies with 13 items ($\alpha = .82$). Items were scored on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. A sample item of each coping strategy is: "I made a plan of action and followed it" (problem-oriented), "I talked to someone about how I was

feeling” (emotion-oriented), and “I went on as if nothing had happened” (avoidance-oriented). See Appendix D.

Affective commitment. Allen and Meyer’s (1990) 8-item scale was used to assess participants’ affective commitment towards their organization. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement to items using a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Cronbach’s alpha is .73. A sample item is: “I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.” See Appendix E.

Job satisfaction. Three items from Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) measure were used to assess participants’ job satisfaction. The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Cronbach’s alpha is .85. A sample item is “Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.” See Appendix F.

Turnover intentions. Three items from the withdrawal scale from Hanish and Hulin (1990, 1991) were used to assess thoughts about, or intentions to quit the organization. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement using a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agrees. They were also asked to estimate how often they think about leaving their job from (1) once or twice a year to (5) everyday. Cronbach’s alpha is .85. The items are: “How desirable would it be to leave your job;” “How likely is it that you will leave your job;” “How often do you think about quitting your job.” See Appendix G.

Results

Tables 1, 2, and 3 show the correlations among all the study variables as separated by source as well as the internal consistencies of each scale. Prior to investigating this study’s hypotheses, the data was screened for outliers using Cook’s Distance. This

Table 1.

Correlations among all study variables in the supervisor condition

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Incivility	1.52	.52	(.85)								
2. Covert incivility	1.54	.54	.85**	(.69)							
3. Overt incivility	1.51	.64	.93**	.61**	(.82)						
4. Affective commitment	2.88	.68	-.10	-.20*	.01	(.75)					
5. Job satisfaction	3.42	.94	-.28**	-.35**	-.19	.43**	(.85)				
6. Turnover intentions	2.29	.93	.10	.22*	.01	-.41**	-.47**	(.80)			
7. Problem-focused coping	3.04	.61	.12	-.16	-.06	.24*	.20*	-.04	(.65)		
8. Emotion-focused coping	2.63	.70	-.08	-.11	-.04	.12	.02	.07	.61**	(.70)	
9. Avoidance	2.53	.54	.04	-.13	.02	.09	-.05	.12	.46**	.53**	(.76)

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Values in parentheses are Cronbach's alphas.

Table 2.

Correlations among all study variables in the co-worker condition

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Incivility	1.64	.74	(.92)								
2. Covert incivility	1.67	.75	.91**	(.81)							
3. Overt incivility	1.63	.82	.94**	.75**	(.90)						
4. Affective commitment	2.71	.61	-.23*	-.23*	-.23*	(.69)					
5. Job satisfaction	3.40	.97	-.03	-.03	-.08	.33**	(.87)				
6. Turnover intentions	2.26	1.06	.01	.01	.07	-.43**	-.54**	(.85)			
7. Problem-focused coping	3.10	.65	-.13	.07	.17	.02	-.03	.14	(.70)		
8. Emotion-focused coping	2.78	.77	.05	.10	.00	.02	-.01	.07	.58**	(.78)	
9. Avoidance	2.62	.62	.28**	.30**	.25*	-.15	-.25*	.16	.54**	.60**	(.84)

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Values in parentheses are Cronbach's alphas.

Table 3.

Correlations among all study variables in the unspecified condition

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Incivility	1.48	.54	(.86)								
2. Covert incivility	1.54	.65	.89**	(.79)							
3. Overt incivility	1.45	.56	.91**	.64**	(.76)						
4. Affective commitment	2.88	.73	-.36**	-.36**	-.27**	(.75)					
5. Job satisfaction	3.49	1.00	-.42**	-.37**	-.39**	.52**	(.83)				
6. Turnover intentions	2.12	1.13	.44**	.37**	.42**	-.56**	-.46**	(.89)			
7. Problem-focused coping	2.97	.71	-.04	-.04	-.01	.22*	-.26**	.01	(.75)		
8. Emotion-focused coping	2.64	.76	-.05	-.01	-.03	.15	-.16	-.07	.65**	(.77)	
9. Avoidance	2.58	.60	-.01	-.05	.05	.06	.22*	.11	.63**	.55**	(.83)

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Values in parentheses are Cronbach's alphas.

measure examines the overall influence of a case on the regression model (Field, 2005). Cook and Weisberg (1982) suggested that values greater than one might be of concern. For all the regression models, Cook's Distance was substantially less than one suggesting that there is no concern for outliers exerting any influence on the parameters of each model.

Testing hypothesis 1.

Overview of Regression Analyses. Hypothesis 1 was tested using a moderated multiple regression analysis in which incivility and the source of incivility were entered in the first step and the interaction effects of incivility and source on organizational outcomes was entered in the second step. The dependent variables were affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions.

Prior to conducting the moderated multiple regressions, a one way ANOVA was used to test whether there were any mean differences between the three conditions in terms of overall incivility (supervisor incivility, co-worker incivility, and unspecified incivility). Results of the ANOVA showed no mean differences as $F(2, 304) = 2.05, p > 0.05$.

To code for the unique contributions of each source of incivility, effect coding was used to develop two additional variables. Effect coding was used instead of dummy coding, as dummy coding would produce incorrect F-ratios for the main effect (Gardner, personal communication, February 9, 2011). There were three potential sources of incivility in this study: incivility from a supervisor, incivility from co-workers, and incivility from an unspecified source. Since there were three groups, I created two variables for the regression. The first variable coded supervisor incivility as 1, co-worker

incivility as 0, and unspecified incivility as – 1. The second variable coded supervisor incivility as 0, co-worker incivility as 1, and unspecified incivility as – 1. Accordingly, the first variable compares supervisor incivility against the combined condition (unspecified incivility) and the second variable compares co-worker incivility against the combined condition. The continuous incivility variable was centered to avoid the problem of multicollinearity and the problem of evaluating one main effect at an extreme value of another variable (Howell, 2010). To create my interaction terms, I then multiplied the centered incivility scale by each of the effect coded variables that resulted in two interaction terms.

To assess the unique contributions of each source of variance, squared multiple correlations based on the effect coded variables were obtained in order to compute the relevant squared multiple semipartial correlations (i.e. the unique contributions). For example, to compute the unique contribution of incivility, the following formula from Gardner (personal communication, February 9, 2011) was used:

$$\hat{R}_{INC\bar{V}}^2 = R_{Source,INC\bar{V},Source \times INC\bar{V}}^2 - R_{Source,INC\bar{V} \times Source}^2$$

Following computation of the squared multiple semipartial correlations, F-ratios were calculated using the following equation (Gardner & Tremblay, 2007):

$$F = \frac{\hat{R}_{effect}^2 / v}{(1 - R_{Source,INC\bar{V},Source \times INC\bar{V}}^2) / (N - p - 1)}$$

Where v is the number of vectors for the incivility effect (i.e., two effect coded source variables), p is the number of vectors necessary to calculate the residual error (i.e., number of predictors in the regression model), and $N - p - 1$ is the degrees of freedom for the error term.

To determine the effects of source and incivility on organizational outcomes, regression was used to determine the change in R^2 . The interactions were only interpreted if adding them significantly increased the amount of variance accounted for, as compared to the first step of the regression. For significant interactions, the simple slopes and appropriate *post hoc* tests are reported.

I also conducted residual diagnostics for all the regression analyses. Specifically, residuals were examined for normality, homogeneity of variance, and independence from predicted values, as well as the independent variables. For all of the regressions, examination of the histograms of residuals showed a distribution that closely resembled a normal curve, thus satisfying the normality requirement. Scatterplots were then used to examine the homogeneity of residual variances across the range of predicted values. All of the scatterplots showed an even distribution of residual variances, which suggests a homogenous distribution. Moreover, the assumption of homogenous of error variances was measured by using the Alternative Tests for Moderated Multiple Regression (ALTMMR; Aguinis, 2004). In accord with DeShon and Alexander's (1994) rule of thumb, the assumption of homogeneity was not violated in each of the moderated multiple regressions. This is important as a violation can increase or decrease Type I error rates and increase Type II error rates (Aguinis, Peterson, & Pierce, 1999). Finally, correlations between the residuals and predicted values and the residuals and independent

variables showed that none of the relations were significantly different from zero. This is a strong indication of the residuals' independence from the variables used in each analysis.

Another consideration for regression diagnostics is multicollinearity.

Multicollinearity is when the predictor variables demonstrate strong correlations among one another. Multicollinearity concerns are important for any regression analysis, as collinearity can increase the standard error of a regression coefficient, which in turn can increase the width of confidence intervals and decrease the t value for each regression coefficient (Howell, 2010). Having two highly correlated predictors suggests that one has little to add over and above another, and may decrease the stability of the regression equation, and the chance of cross-validating the finding. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) measures the multicollinearity between the predictor variables. As such, ideally there will be low values of VIF for each predictor variable. Landau and Everitt (2004) suggest a commonly used rule-of-thumb of 10.00 when investigating the variance inflation factors. VIFs for all of the regressions in the study suggest that collinearity among predictors is not an issue, as no VIF value was greater than 1.36.

Incivility, source, and affective commitment. Table 4 contains the results of the regression of affective commitment on incivility, effect code variable 1, and effect code variable 2. The main effects accounted for 7% of the variance, $p < .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .06$). Adding the interaction terms did not significantly add to the prediction of affective commitment $R^2 = .02$, $p > .05$, resulting in a total $R^2 = .08$, $p > .05$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .07$).

There was no main effect of source of incivility indicating that the intercepts for the three groups (supervisor, co-worker, or unspecified) did not vary more than could be

Table 4.

Heirarchical Regressions for Incivility

	Affective Commitment		Job Satisfaction		Turnover Intentions							
	Model 1	S.E.	Model 2	S.E.	Model 1	S.E.	Model 2	S.E.				
Incivility	-.26**	.06	-.28**	.07	-.36**	.10	-.45**	.09	.30**	.10	.37**	.10
Effect code 1	.04	.05	.05	.05	-.03	.08	-.01	.08	.05	.08	.03	.08
Effect code 2	-.09	.05	-.09	.05	.00	.08	-.01	.08	-.02	.09	-.01	.08
Incivility × Effect code 1			.14	.10			-.08	.14			-.20	.15
Incivility × Effect code 2			.08	.08			.43**	.12			-.36**	.13
R^2	.07**	(.06)	.08	(.07)	.05**	(.04)	.09**	(.07)	.03*	(.02)	.08**	(.07)
ΔR^2			.02				.04**				.05**	

Note. S.E. is standard error. Values in parenthesis signify adjusted R^2 s. Effect code 1 is the first recoded variable where supervisor incivility was coded as 1, co-worker incivility as 0, and supervisor/co-worker incivility as - 1. Effect code 2 is the second recoded variable where supervisor incivility was coded as 0, co-worker incivility as 1, and supervisor/co-worker incivility as - 1. Values listed under Model 1 and Model 2 are unstandardized b coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

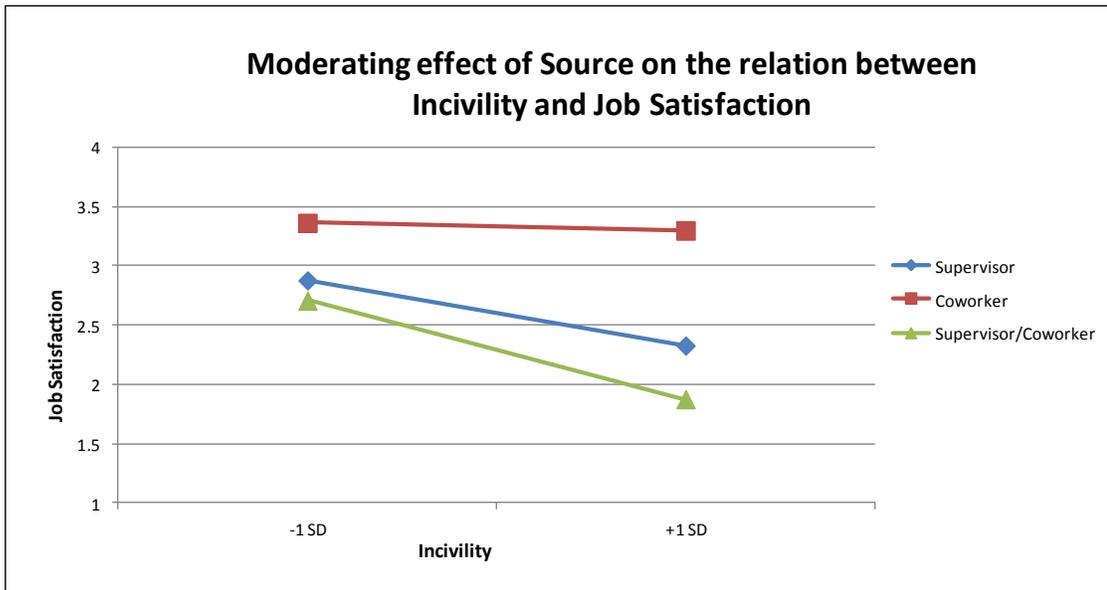
reasonably attributed to chance, $F(2, 301) = 1.33, p > .05$. There was a main effect of incivility, $F(2, 301) = 8.83, p < .05$, indicating that the mean of the three slopes was significantly different from zero. Finally the interaction effect was not significant, $F(2, 301) = 2.67, p > .05$, meaning that the three slopes did not vary more than could be reasonably attributed to chance. As such, there was no evidence to suggest that incivility interacted with source to influence affective commitment.

Incivility, source, and job satisfaction. Table 4 shows the regression of job satisfaction on incivility and the two effect-coded variables. The variables in the first block, accounted for 5% of the variance $p < .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .04$). The addition of the interaction terms in the second block significantly increased the R^2 to .09, $p < .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .07$), $\Delta R^2 = .04, p < .01, F(2, 301) = 8.33, p < .05$.

There was no main effect of source of incivility, indicating that the intercepts for the three groups did not vary more than could be reasonably attributed to chance, $F(2, 301) = 0.00, p > .05$. There was a main effect of incivility, $F(2, 301) = 11.50, p < .05$, indicating that as experiences of incivility increased, employees job satisfaction decreased.

Finally, an examination of the interactions terms shows that only the comparison of co-working incivility to the unspecified group was significant, $b = .43, p < .01$. Figure 1 shows the relationship between incivility and source on job satisfaction. The relation between incivility and job satisfaction was strongest when the source of incivility was unspecified. *Post hoc* tests were applied to test each of the three slopes against zero. The slope of supervisor incivility was significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = -3.00, p <$

Figure 1.



.01 as was the slope of the unspecified condition, $t(2, 301) = -4.45, p < .01$. The slope of co-worker incivility was not significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = -.35, p > .05$

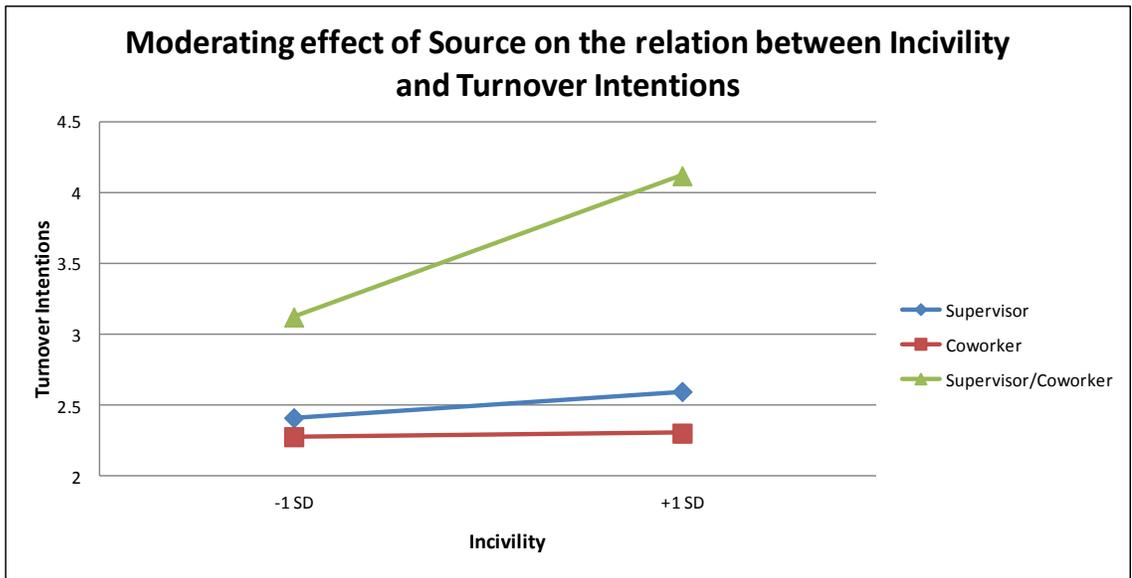
Incivility, source, and turnover intentions. The regression of turnover intentions on incivility and the two recoded variables gave an $R^2 = .03, p < .05$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .02$; Table 4). Adding the interaction terms accounted for an incremental change in R^2 of $.05, p < .01$, resulting in a total $R^2 = .08, p < .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .07$).

No main effect for source of incivility was found, indicating no difference among the intercepts between supervisor incivility, co-worker incivility, and unspecified incivility, $F(2, 301) = 0.17, p > .05$. There was a significant main effect of incivility, $F(2, 301) = 11.50, p < .05$, indicating that the mean of the three slopes was significantly different than zero. In other words, as levels of incivility increased, so did employee's intent-to-leave.

A significant interaction effect between source of incivility and incivility was also found, $F(2, 301) = 8.17, p < .05$, indicating that the slopes of supervisor, co-worker, and unspecified incivility varied more than can be reasonably attributed to chance. Of the two interaction terms, only the one comparing co-worker incivility to the unspecified group was significant, $b = -.36, p < .01$. Figure 2 shows the relationship between incivility and source on turnover intentions. The relation between incivility and turnover intentions was strongest when the source of incivility was unspecified.

Since a significant interaction effect between source of incivility and incivility was found, *post hoc* tests were applied to test each of the three slopes against zero. The slope of supervisor incivility was not significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = 0.94, p > .05$ as was the slope of co-worker incivility, $t(2, 301) = 0.12, p > .05$. However, the

Figure 2.



slope of the combined condition was significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = 4.97, p < .01$.

Overall, the inclusion of the interaction between source and incivility helped account for between four and five percent of the variance, over and above that accounted by the main effects alone. In sum, incivility from a supervisor is related to worse outcomes than incivility from a co-worker and failing to specify the source of incivility will distort the magnitude of the correlations, thus Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Testing hypothesis 2.

Determination of items for subscales. To place the items into the two proposed dimensions, eight industrial/organizational psychology graduate students were recruited to serve as subject matter experts (SMEs) to sort the WIS items (see Spector et al., 2006). The SMEs were given definitions of both categories (i.e. covert incivility and overt incivility) and were asked to place each item into the category which represented it best. To place an item into a category, a threshold of at least 80% agreement was set (specifically 5-6 judges). This process led to classifications of 9 of the 10 items. SMEs could not agree on how to classify item 7 (“How often has your supervisor/co-worker made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters”). As such, this item was excluded from further analyses. Following the placement of items into their respective categories, a confirmatory factor analysis was used to investigate the dimensionality of the remaining WIS items (see Table 5).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis. To test the overall fit of the proposed factor structure of the WIS, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used. Using *Mplus 6.11* (Muthén & Muthén, 2011), a model examining the two hypothesized factors of the WIS

Figure 5.

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the WIS Items

Items	Overt Incivility	Covert Incivility
<i>In the past year, how often has someone at work...</i>		
Put you down or was condescending to you in some way?	0.769*	
Made demeaning, rude, or derogatory remarks about you?	0.882*	
Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?	0.755*	
Made jokes at your expense?	0.755*	
Yelled, shouted, or swore at you?	0.797*	
Paid little attention to a statement you made or showed little interest in your opinion?		0.801*
Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?		0.753*
Doubted your judgment in a matter over which you have responsibility?		0.753*
Ignored you or failed to speak to you?		0.665*

Note. All values are standardized factor loadings. * $p < 0.001$.

was analyzed with a robust weighted least squares (WLSMV) estimation. WLSMV estimation was used in this case to help account for the categorical frequency-based nature of the items (Muthén & Muthén). With each item rated on a 1 through 5 Likert scale, the indicators of each factor were of an ordered-categorical nature, rather than a continuous nature. Flora and Curran (2004) have suggested that data of this nature should be analyzed using a weighted least squares-based estimator. As such, following their recommendations WLSMV was used to help account for the categorical nature of the Likert ratings.

A two-factor model was specified with items loading onto each indicator's respective latent trait factor, as determined by the SME ratings. I examined several fit indices to assess the goodness of fit of the model to the data including the chi-square test, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the comparative fit index (CFI).

The hypothesized model converged without error. The two-factor confirmatory solution is shown in Table 5. All factor loadings were significant. The CFA showed a good fit to the data and surpassed the cut-off rules-of-thumb commonly cited (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999; CFI > .90, RMSEA < .08). The $\chi^2(26) = 50.16, p < .01$, the CFI was .988, and the RMSEA was .055 (with a 90% Confidence Interval ranging from .031 to .078). The distribution of residuals indicated that over 93% of residuals were estimated to be between -.10 and .10.

A CFA was also conducted assessing the goodness of fit of the competing original model (i.e., the single factor model). While all fit indices were adequate – the $\chi^2(27) = 73.36, p < .001$, the CFI was .976, and the RMSEA was .075 (with a 90% Confidence

Interval ranging from .031 to .078) – the hypothesized model is still a better fit to the data as chi-square difference testing (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Bagozzi & Phillips, 1982) showed a $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 14.30, p < .001$. The significant $\Delta\chi^2$ indicates that the two factor model is a better representation of the data. It should be noted that χ^2 values reported from WLSMV cannot be compared in the normal way of just subtracting one from the other, as would χ^2 values from maximum likelihood estimation. *Mplus* provides an estimated χ^2 value through the DIFFTEST function (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2006; Morin, Moullec, Maïano, Layet, Just, & Ninot, 2011). In sum, the CFAs analysis provides evidence to support Hypothesis 2.

Pattern of relations between incivility subscales and other study variables by source. Correlations among the two incivility subscales and outcome variables were examined in each of the three source conditions: supervisor incivility, co-worker incivility, and unspecified incivility (correlations can be found in Tables 1, 2, and 3, respectively). ANOVAs were conducted to test any mean differences between the three conditions. For both overt and covert incivility, no mean differences were observed: $F(2, 304) = 1.84, p > .05$; $F(2, 304) = 1.28, p > .05$ respectively.

Covert incivility originating from the supervisor had the strongest relations with affective commitment ($r = -.20$), job satisfaction ($r = -.35$), and turnover intentions ($r = .22$). Supervisor overt incivility failed to correlate significantly with any of the outcome variables.

Both types of supervisor incivility failed to correlate significantly with any form of coping. Covert and overt supervisor incivility showed different relations than the original supervisor incivility scale, as correlations between supervisor incivility and

affective commitment and supervisor incivility and turnover intentions were not significantly correlated.

Covert or overt incivility from a co-worker had a similar pattern of relations. Both types were significantly correlated with affective commitment ($r = -.23$) and avoidance ($r = .30, .25$) and were comparable in magnitude. Covert and overt co-worker incivility failed to correlate significantly with any of the other outcome variables in this study. Correlations among the study variables in the unspecified source condition showed a different pattern. Correlations between unspecified incivility and affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions were either comparable in magnitude to the two forms of incivility or slightly larger. These correlations were all significant.

Unspecified covert incivility had a moderately strong relation with affective commitment ($r = -.36$). Unspecified overt incivility also correlated significantly with affective commitment ($r = -.27$). Covert and overt incivility showed similar relations with job satisfaction, and turnover intentions although correlations with overt incivility were slightly larger in magnitude.

In the next series of analyses, I examined whether or not the source of the incivility (supervisor, co-worker or unspecified) and the type of incivility (overt or covert) have a differential impact on affective commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Moderated multiple regressions were conducted to explore the possibility of source as a moderator of the relation between incivility and undesirable organizational outcomes.

Affective commitment.

Covert incivility, source, and affective commitment. The regression of affective commitment on covert incivility and the two recoded variables – effect code 1 and effect code 2 (Table 6) shows an $R^2 = .08, p < .05$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .07$). Inclusion of the interaction terms accounted for an incremental change in R^2 of .01, $p > .01$, resulting in a total $R^2 = .09, p > .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .08$).

There was no main effect of source of covert incivility on affective commitment, indicating that the intercepts for the three groups (supervisor, co-worker, or unspecified) did not vary more than could be reasonably attributed to chance, $F(2, 301) = 1.50, p > .05$. There was a main effect of incivility, $F(2, 301) = 11.17, p < .05$, indicating that the more covert incivility employees experienced, the lower their affective commitment to the organization. Finally the interaction effect was not significant, $F(2, 301) = 1.33, p > .05$, meaning that the three slopes did not vary more than could be reasonably attributed to chance. The results suggest that the relation between covert incivility and affective commitment does not depend on source.

Overt incivility, source, and affective commitment. The pattern for overt incivility was the same as that for covert incivility (see Table 7). In the first block, incivility and source accounted for only four percent of the variance in affective commitment, $p < .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .03$). The addition of the interaction terms in the second block increased the R^2 to .06, $p > .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .04$), suggesting that $\Delta R^2 = .02, p > .01$.

There was no main effect of source of overt incivility, $F(2, 301) = 1.67, p > .05$. There was a main effect of overt incivility, $F(2, 301) = 4.17, p < .05$, indicating the more overt incivility the participants experienced the less their affective commitment. Finally

the interaction effect was not significant, $F(2, 301) = 2.67, p > .05$. As such, overt incivility does not interact with the source of incivility to predict affective commitment.

Job Satisfaction

Covert incivility, source, and job satisfaction. The regression of job satisfaction on covert incivility and the two effect coded variables (Table 6) shows an $R^2 = .05, p < .05$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .04$). Inclusion of the interaction terms accounted for an incremental change in R^2 of .04, $p < .01$, resulting in a total $R^2 = .09, p < .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .07$).

No main effect for source of incivility was found, $F(2, 301) = 0.17, p > .05$. There was a significant main effect of covert incivility though, $F(2, 301) = 10.67, p < .05$, indicating that the more covert incivility participants experienced the lower the job satisfaction. There was also a significant interaction effect between source of incivility and covert incivility in the prediction of job satisfaction, $F(2, 301) = 6.83, p < .05$.

Of the two interaction terms, only the one comparing co-worker covert incivility to the combined group was significant, $b = .41, p < .01$. Figure 3 shows the relationship between covert incivility and source on job satisfaction. The relation between covert incivility and job satisfaction was strongest when the source of incivility was unspecified or when it was specified as coming from a supervisor.

Post hoc tests were applied to test each of the three slopes against zero. The slope of supervisor covert incivility was significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = -3.55, p < .05$. The slope of co-worker covert incivility was not significant, $t(2, 301) = 0.13, p > .05$. The slope of the combined condition was significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = -3.30, p < .01$. There is virtually no effect when the source of covert incivility is a coworker but when the source is either the supervisor or unspecified there is an effect.

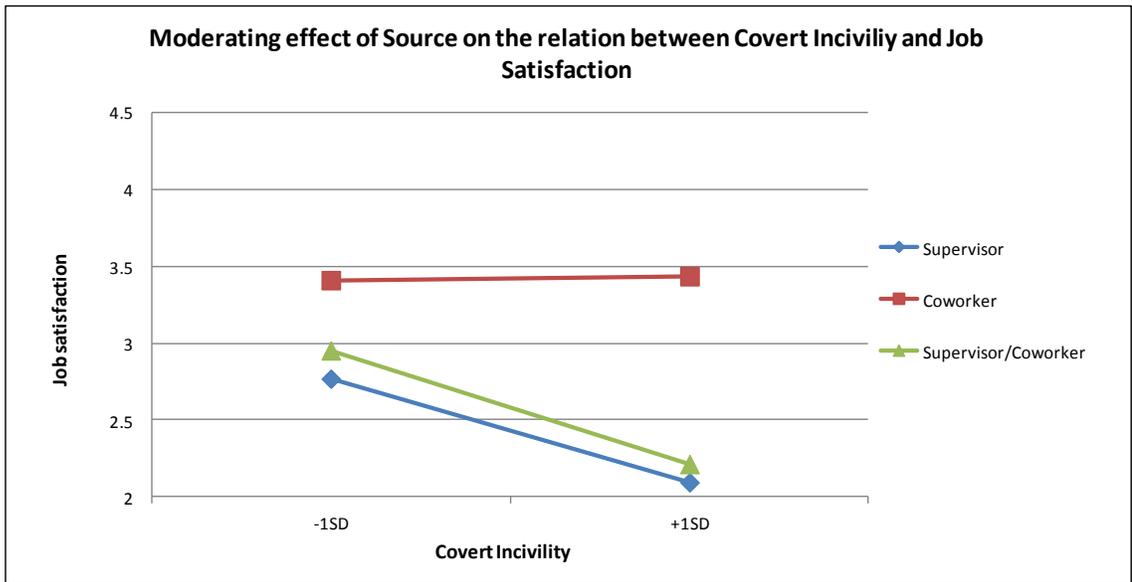
Table 6.

Hierarchical Regressions for Covert Incivility

	Affective Commitment		Job Satisfaction		Turnover Intentions	
	Model 1	S.E.	Model 1	S.E.	Model 1	S.E.
Covert Incivility	-.28**	.06	-.33**	.09	.25**	.09
Effect code 1	.04	.05	-.03	.08	.06	.08
Effect code 2	-.10	.05	-.01	.08	-.01	.08
Covert Incivility × Effect code 1		.02		.13		.14
Covert Incivility × Effect code 2		.10		.41**		.42**
R^2	.08** (.07)		.05** (.04)		.03* (.02)	
ΔR^2	.01		.09** (.07)		.07** (.06)	
				.04**		.04**

Note. S.E. is standard error. Values in parenthesis signify adjusted R^2 s. Effect code 1 is the first recoded variable where supervisor incivility was coded as 1, co-worker incivility as 0, and supervisor/co-worker incivility as - 1. Effect code 2 is the second recoded variable where supervisor incivility was coded as 0, co-worker incivility as 1, and supervisor/co-worker incivility as - 1. Values listed under Model 1 and Model 2 are unstandardized b coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Figure 3.



Overt incivility, source, and job satisfaction. The regression of job satisfaction on overt incivility and the two effect coded variables (Table 7) shows an $R^2 = .04, p < .05$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .03$). Inclusion of the interaction terms accounted for an incremental change in R^2 of $.04, p < .01$, resulting in a total $R^2 = .07, p < .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .05$).

No main effect for source of overt incivility was found, $F(2, 301) = 0, p > .05$. There was a significant main effect of overt incivility though, $F(2, 301) = 9.17, p < .05$ and a significant interaction effect between source of overt incivility and overt incivility, $F(2, 301) = 4.33, p < .05$.

Like the previous analysis, the interaction comparing co-worker overt incivility to the combined group was significant, $b = .26, p < .01$. Figure 4 shows the relationship between overt incivility and source on job satisfaction.

Since there was a significant interaction term, *post hoc* tests were applied to test each of the three slopes against zero. The slope of supervisor overt incivility was not significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = -1.58, p > .05$ as was the slope of co-worker overt incivility, $t(2, 301) = -0.74, p > .05$. The slope of the unspecified condition was significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = -3.84, p < .01$. As such, when the source of the incivility is the unspecified version, job satisfaction declines significantly as incivility increases. The relations between overt incivility and job satisfaction when the source is the supervisor or coworker (measured separately), are not significant.

Turnover Intentions

Covert incivility, source, and turnover intentions. The regression of turnover intentions on covert incivility and the two effect coded variables (Table 6) shows an $R^2 = .03, p < .05$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .02$). Inclusion of the interaction terms accounted for an

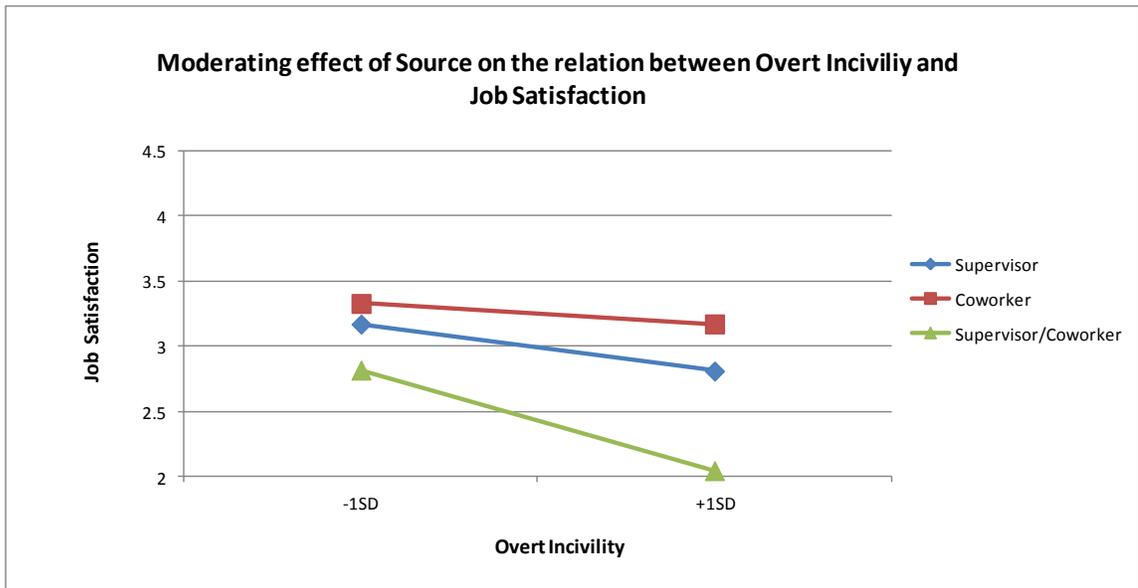
Table 7.

Heirarchical Regressions for Overt Incivility

	Affective Commitment			Job Satisfaction			Turnover Intentions					
	Model 1	S.E.	Model 2	S.E.	Model 1	S.E.	Model 2	S.E.	Model 1	S.E.	Model 2	S.E.
Overt Incivility	-.16**	.06	-.17**	.06	-.29**	.08	-.35**	.08	.09	.09	.31**	.09
Effect code 1	.05	.05	.06	.05	-.02	.08	-.00	.08	.08	.08	.03	.08
Effect code 2	-.10	.06	-.10	.06	-.01	.08	-.01	.08	.09	.09	-.01	.08
Overt Incivility × Effect code 1			.18	.09			.07	.12			-.30*	.13
Overt Incivility × Effect code 2			.00	.08			.26**	.11			-.23*	.12
R^2	.04** (.03)			.06 (.04)			.04** (.03)			.03* (.02)		
ΔR^2	.02			.07** (.05)			.04**			.07** (.06)		

Note. S.E. is standard error. Values in parenthesis signify adjusted R^2 's. Effect code 1 is the first recoded variable where supervisor incivility was coded as 1, co-worker incivility as 0, and supervisor/co-worker incivility as - 1. Effect code 2 is the second recoded variable where supervisor incivility was coded as 0, co-worker incivility as 1, and supervisor/co-worker incivility as - 1. Values listed under Model 1 and Model 2 are unstandardized b coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Figure 4.



incremental change in R^2 of .04, $p < .01$, resulting in a total $R^2 = .07$, $p < .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .06$).

No main effect for source of incivility was found, $F(2, 301) = 0.17$, $p > .05$.

There was a significant main effect of covert incivility though, $F(2, 301) = 5.33$, $p < .05$, indicating that as covert incivility increased so did respondents' intent to leave. A significant interaction effect between source of covert incivility and covert incivility was also found, $F(2, 301) = 7.33$, $p < .05$.

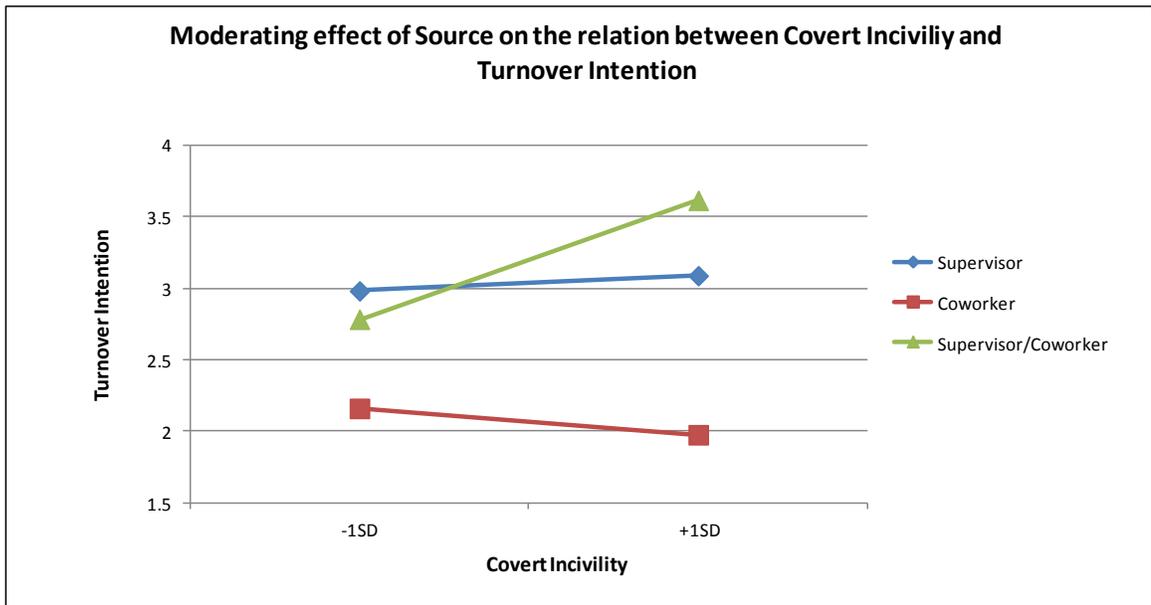
Of the two interaction terms, only the one comparing co-worker covert incivility to the unspecified group was significant, $b = -.42$, $p < .01$. Figure 5 shows the relationship between covert incivility and source on turnover intention. The relation between covert incivility and turnover intentions was strongest when the source of incivility was unspecified. *Post hoc* tests were applied to test each of the three slopes against zero. The slope of supervisor covert incivility was not significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = 1.96$, $p > .05$ as was the slope of co-worker covert incivility, $t(2, 301) = -0.89$, $p > .05$. However, the slope of the unspecified condition was significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = 3.42$, $p < .01$.

Overt incivility, source, and turnover intentions. The regression of turnover intentions on overt incivility and the two effect coded variables (Table 7) shows an $R^2 = .03$, $p < .05$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .02$). Inclusion of the interaction terms accounted for an incremental change in R^2 of .04, $p < .01$, resulting in a total $R^2 = .07$, $p < .01$ ($R^2_{adjusted} = .06$).

No main effect for source of overt incivility was found $F(2, 301) = 0.00$, $p > .05$.

There was a significant main effect of overt incivility though, $F(2, 301) = 6.33$, $p < .05$,

Figure 5.



indicating that as overt incivility increased so did the intent to quit. A significant interaction effect between source of incivility and incivility was also found, $F(2, 301) = 7.50, p < .05$.

Of the two interaction terms, both comparisons were significant. Comparing co-worker incivility to the unspecified group was significant, $b = -.23, p < .05$. The comparison between supervisor incivility and the unspecified group was also significant, $b = -.30, p < .05$. Figure 6 shows the relationship between overt incivility and source on turnover intentions – the relation was strongest when the source of incivility was unspecified. *Post hoc* tests were applied to test each of the three slopes against zero. However, the slope of supervisor overt incivility was not significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = 0.09, p > .05$ as was the slope of co-worker incivility, $t(2, 301) = 0.64, p > .05$. However, the slope of the unspecified condition was significantly different than zero, $t(2, 301) = 4.47, p < .01$.

In general the pattern of results of the moderated multiple regressions (see Table 8 for a summary of results) suggests that source does moderate the relations between incivility and organizational outcomes, specifically job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Also, differential relations were observed between overt incivility, covert incivility, and a single index of incivility. As such, these findings further support Hypothesis 2.

Discussion

Summary of findings and implications

This thesis had two main goals. The first goal was to examine whether the source of incivility affected the relations between incivility and organizational outcomes. The

Figure 6.

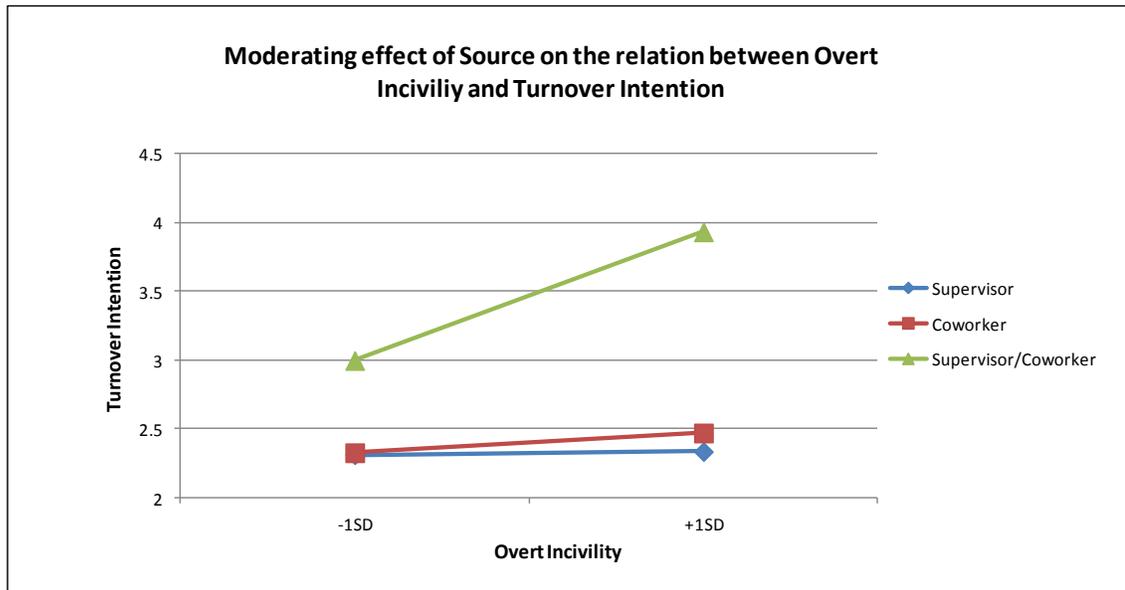


Table 8.

Summary of Moderated Multiple Regression Analyses for Covert and Overt Incivility

	Covert			Overt		
	Affective commitment	Job satisfaction	Turnover intentions	Affective commitment	Job satisfaction	Turnover intentions
Main effect of incivility	<i>sig</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>sig</i>
Main effect of source	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Overall	<i>ns</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>sig</i>
interaction test						
Contrast 1	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>sig</i>
Contrast 2	<i>ns</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>sig</i>	<i>sig</i>

Note. *Sig* indicated tests are significant, *ns* indicates tests were not significant.

second goal was to critically assess the dimensionality of the Workplace Incivility Scale. The study found support for both goals.

Source of incivility. Workplace incivility is usually assessed without regard to the instigator. The WIS generally asks if one has experienced incivility from *someone* at work or from a *supervisor and/or co-worker*. Failure to distinguish the source of incivility could lead researchers to overestimate or underestimate organizational outcomes. The main findings of the study show support for the moderating role of source in the relation between incivility and organizational outcomes. Although workplace incivility did not interact with source to influence affective commitment, moderated multiple regression analyses demonstrated that source moderated the relation between workplace incivility and job satisfaction and workplace incivility and turnover intentions. In each case, the interactions presented differential relations between the independent variable – workplace incivility and the outcome variable of interest – job satisfaction and turnover intentions. While the increments in R^2 due to the inclusion of the interactions terms are notably small, Aguinis (2004) has suggested that even increments in R^2 of .01 may have considerable practical importance and are worthy of serious consideration.

The study showed that when the source of incivility was from ratings of the unspecified condition, the relation between incivility and job satisfaction decreased at higher levels of incivility. A similar relation was found when the source was one's supervisor, although the slope was not as steep. When the source of incivility was from a co-worker, there was virtually no impact of the level of incivility on job satisfaction (see Figure 1 for a graphical representation).

A significant interaction between source and incivility was found when turnover intentions were examined. The pattern of data showed that when the source measured unspecified incivility intentions to quit increased as incivility increased (see Figure 2).

According to bivariate correlations, differential relations between incivility and the outcome variables included in this study were observed when the source of incivility was unspecified or when it was specified as a supervisor of a co-worker (s)

Failing to specify the instigator of incivility can lead researchers to grossly overestimate the effects of incivility in the prediction of organizational outcomes. Clearly, incivility from supervisors or incivility from co-workers differs in magnitude, and thus, should be studied separately. The moderated multiple regressions demonstrate that incivility from a supervisor related differentially to outcomes than incivility instigated by a co-worker.

The impact of the supervisor-sourced incivility might lead to lower job satisfaction in comparison to co-worker-sourced incivility because targets of incivility might be more likely to perceive a violation of interpersonal treatment norms if there is a power asymmetry. Keltner et al. (2003) as well as Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) showed that employees are more attuned to the treatment they receive from their supervisors because individuals in higher positions have a greater influence on organizational outcomes. Therefore, employees might be more sensitive to incivility from their supervisor since it may be related to more serious consequences. As Hershcovis and Barling (2010) mention, failing to distinguish the source may lead to theoretical, methodological, and practical issues since different sources of incivility may be

associated with differential outcomes. These results therefore support the argument for a multi-foci approach put forward by Hershcovis and Barling.

Dimensionality of the WIS. The second goal of this study was to assess the dimensionality of the WIS, one of the most widely used measures of incivility. So far researchers have assumed a unidimensional scale. This study looked at the possibility of a two-dimensional scale. Fox and Spector (2005) argued that mistreatment research would benefit from a finer-grained analysis, as it may reveal differential relations. Evidence from SMEs and results of CFAs both support this study's hypothesis that a multidimensional model is a better fit than a singular one.

This study showed that the WIS could be broken down into two components: covert incivility and overt incivility. While both forms of incivility involve rude and discourteous treatment, items that correspond to the covert incivility scale are more ambiguous in nature and intentions to harm the victim are less visible. In line with the study's predictions, covert incivility was associated with more negative outcomes than overt incivility. Further, depending on the source, covert and overt incivility showed differential magnitudes of relations across outcomes.

One possible explanation for why covert incivility might be associated with worse outcomes is due to its hidden and ambiguous nature. If an employee is not able to decipher the intentions of his or her supervisor or co-workers it might be more worrisome than knowing their true intentions. Constantly trying to interpret someone's behavior may be perceived as more stressful and as such may relate to worse outcomes such as decreased job satisfaction. Another possible explanation is that if a supervisor or co-worker was to yell or shout, an employee could attribute it to a bad day or a general

negative disposition. However, if a supervisor or co-worker was to doubt an employee's judgment or ignore him or her it might be more difficult to attribute those actions to external characteristics. Thus in the case of covert incivility, an employee would be more likely to regard such actions as heavily veiled attacks on his or her own competence and will lead to more negative outcomes.

Supervisor covert incivility was associated with strong relations with job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intentions. A possible explanation is because supervisors might be more likely to engage in such forms of incivility because they are cautious about their behavior and wary about openly treating their subordinates rudely. Covert incivility makes it easier for a supervisor to disguise his or her intent to harm the target. This would enable supervisors to dismiss the victim as being too sensitive or not being able to take a joke if a subordinate were to confront them.

In contrast to supervisor-sourced incivility, the only outcome variable co-worker incivility correlated with was affective commitment. Research generally posits that a supervisor represents the organization and would thus be more likely to affect a change in affective commitment (i.e., Vadenberghe, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004). On the other hand, this study suggested that co-workers might be an important component of the basis of affective commitment towards the organization. Nevertheless, there may be theoretically-sound reasons for why co-workers might have an impact on affective commitment. An antecedent of affective commitment is an employee's work experiences which would include interactions with co-workers (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Employees also interact more frequently with their co-workers than their supervisor. According to Hershcovis and Barling (2010), co-workers possess social

power, which means they are able to influence the presence and quality of work relationships. Being treated uncivilly by co-worker(s) would signify to the victim that they are not a part of the social group. Perceivably, these negative work experiences might alert them to the possibility that they cannot identify with, or belong to, the organization thus, decreasing their affective commitment to the organization.

Furthermore, as this sample consisted of undergraduate students that may be more attuned to the attitudes of their peer group and thus might be more likely to be affected by treatment they receive from their peers rather than treatment they receive from a supervisor. Although this study suggested that co-workers are important in determining affective commitment, it might be wise to replicate these findings in another sample.

Combining supervisor and co-worker incivility increased the magnitude of all the correlations between incivility and outcome variables. In the unspecified source condition, both forms of incivility demonstrated moderately strong correlations with affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Failing to distinguish between sources can lead to overestimation of the magnitude and significance of correlations. To further emphasize this point, moderated multiple regression were used to assess the effect of source on the relationship between each type of incivility and organizational outcomes.

The results of the moderated multiple regression analysis of source on the relation between covert incivility and job satisfaction showed that when covert incivility comes from a coworker job satisfaction is generally higher and unaffected by the degree of covert incivility (Figure 3). When the source of covert incivility was from the unspecified condition or from just the supervisor increasing incivility leads to lower job

satisfaction. On the other hand, the results of the moderated multiple regression of source on the relation between overt incivility and job satisfaction demonstrated that when the source was not identified, employees reported lower levels of job satisfaction at higher levels of overt incivility. When the source was measured separately, job satisfaction did not change at varying levels of overt incivility (Figure 4).

A significant interaction between source and covert incivility was found when turnover intentions were used as the criterion (Figure 5). The pattern of data showed that intentions to quit were greater when the source of the covert incivility was the supervisor than when it was the coworker instigating the incivility, but importantly intent to quit was not related to incivility when the source of incivility was identified. In contrast, when the source was based on unspecified incivility, employees who had experienced more covert incivility reported greater intentions to quit. In regard to overt incivility, results were similar, except that turnover intentions were not greater when the sources of incivility were separated.

Clearly, researchers and practitioners must take the effects associated with incivility – either cover or overt – seriously, as they can prove costly to the individual and the organization. These results suggest that the examination of two subscales is better since it reveals differential relations among outcome measures that would otherwise be overlooked when using a single, overall measure. Uncivil behavior could be just an oversight on the part of the instigator but it can also be a heavily veiled attack. While both instances can affect the victim's attitude towards his or her work, separating the two scales might reveal different antecedents and outcomes that in turn may provide

researchers with a more thorough understanding of the effects of incivility in the workplace.

Coping with incivility. Although only preliminary evidence was presented in this study, it suggested that incivility from different sources also impacts the way in which victims chose to cope with incivility. Both forms of co-worker incivility failed to correlate significantly with job satisfaction and turnover intentions. There was, however, a weak to moderate strength correlation with avoidance coping styles. That is, employees were more likely to engage in avoidance-coping strategies when he or she has been the victim of incivility from a co-worker(s). One possible explanation for why both forms of incivility were significantly related to avoidance is that employees might find it easier to avoid their co-workers than their supervisor. Employees could easily avoid the lunch room whereas it might be harder to avoid a meeting set up by a supervisor.

Organizations should attempt to foster a work environment and climate where rude and discourteous behavior is unacceptable. Leiter, Laschinger, Day, and Gilin-Oore (2011) proposed a Risk Management model of workplace civility where organizations try to reflect that incivility at work makes for a hazardous social environment. An uncivil environment at work weakens an employee's sense of psychological safety. By promoting civility at work, organizations can improve both organizational outcomes and the quality of workplace relationships.

Limitations and future directions

There are several limitations to this study that should be kept in mind. The first limitation to this study is the use of a student sample. Even though participants had to

have had work experience in order to participate, one might question the quality of their work experience since their experience is likely to be limited.

An undergraduate would usually hold a summer job for around three to four months. This raises concern about whether or not it is appropriate to ask them questions about their affective commitment towards their organization. An individual cannot be expected to identify with an organization when they know from the beginning that they are only there for a short duration of time. Additionally, does intent to leave mean the same thing when the work is only temporary? Since a summer job and part-time work are only temporary, experiences of incivility might not have the same effects on permanent employees. Also, students responding to the survey might have already quit their jobs, thus rendering questions about their turnover intentions null. Job satisfaction therefore might show the strongest relations with incivility as it is the most appropriate dependent variables for this sample. Finally, the rating scale of the incivility scale may not be appropriate for part-time workers. That is, respondents were asked to rate how frequently they experienced incivility on a scale that included daily, weekly and yearly. Given that the students might only work a couple of shifts a week, it is probably difficult for them to determine how to respond. Future research should ensure the scale endpoints are applicable for the sample being surveyed.

Future research could also consider several other moderating variables that might influence the relation between incivility and organizational outcomes. For example, the length of time the victim expects to be working with the instigator may be an important future consideration. If the working relationship was to last for a short time then the victim might not be too concerned or affected by any experience of incivility. The

consequences of uncivil behavior in a more long-term working relationship might, however, be stronger. A related variable that could also play an important role is task interdependence. The more interdependent the tasks, the more employees might be affected by rude and discourteous treatment because they rely on each other to complete tasks. Another possible avenue for future research would be to investigate the effect of context on the relation between incivility and outcomes. Does the context change the way employees determine whether a given behavior is uncivil? For example, construction workers might have a different standard of what constitutes uncivil behavior than elementary school teachers since each of these jobs have their own workplace norms for respect.

Another possible limitation to this study is the use of self-report measures which may increase the likelihood of common method bias. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) posited that method biases are problematic and researchers should avoid using only self-reported data. Conway and Lance (2010) however, argued against the negative impact of common method variance and noted that there are times when self-report measures are appropriate. Self-report data may be the most accurate source of data when researchers are interested in internal processes and evaluations. For instance, job satisfaction and affective commitment are private events and even well-acquainted others may not have the most accurate information available. Only the individual employee has access to his or her private thoughts regarding his or her own satisfaction or commitment. In these instances, self-report measures are the most theoretically relevant measurement method (Conway & Lance).

Experiences of incivility could be reported by a third party observer, but I would argue that the most accurate report would be from the victim. It is the victim's perception of incivility that is important, not whether someone else saw it. Further, it is possible that others might not see incivility, particularly covert incivility. Conway and Lance (2010) also suggested that impact of common method variance can be reduced if the measures used are valid. As described in the Method section of this study, the choice of measures used in this study was based on strong evidence of reliability and construct validity. Thus, although I recognize that method variance may be a problem, there are arguments to suggest that it is not as troublesome as previously thought, and should not detract substantially from this study's findings.

A third limitation of this study that may potentially limit the impact of my findings is low statistical power. Statistical power warrants concern in moderated multiple regressions analyses (Aguinis, 2004). Due to the lack of findings (i.e., failing to detect an interaction effect of affective commitment on source and incivility) a program called MMRPOWER (Aguinis, Boik, & Pierce, 2001) was used in a retrospective fashion to conduct power analyses on each of the regressions. The analyses from the MMRPOWER (Aguinis et al.) showed that the power associated with some of the regression analyses was too low to detect a significant interaction effect, if one existed (i.e., Type II error). Average power to detect a significant overall interaction test across all moderated multiple regression analyses in this study was .718 and ranged from .294 to .946. The moderated multiple regressions involving affective commitment had the lowest power which may be why those analyses were problematic. Power for each of the two contrasts showed that for contrast one (which involved comparing the supervisor

condition against the combined condition) the average power was .441 and ranged from .047 to .937 which may be why no significant comparisons were found. For contrast two (which involved comparing the co-worker condition against the combined condition) the average power was .711 and ranged from .244 to .969. To this end, Cascio and Aguinis (2011) have noted that moderated multiple regressions with categorical moderators are often affected by low statistical power to detect an interaction effect. As such, one should be cautious about interpreting null results and concluding that there is no difference in the slopes between supervisor incivility and supervisor and/or co-worker incivility or that no overall interaction exists between source and incivility in the prediction of affective commitment. For substantial differences to be detected between the slopes of each condition larger sample sizes (in the order of several hundred subjects in each group; Cascio & Aguinis) may be required.

Conclusion

This study contributes to the literature by providing evidence of source effects of workplace incivility, thus supporting a multi-foci approach for future investigations into workplace incivility. This project also assessed the dimensionality of the WIS and found support for a two-dimensional scale made up of covert incivility and overt incivility subscales. Each scale showed differential relationships with organizational outcomes.

With these contributions, the present study suggests a number of new directions for workplace incivility research. Future research can investigate the different antecedents and outcomes that are associated with different sources and forms of workplace incivility. Moreover, future investigations can study additional moderators that

might uniquely influence the relations between a specific source or form of incivility on individual and organizational outcomes.

Research has identified that workplace incivility is an important issue associated with negative employee and organizational outcomes. However, despite this study's advances, future research should attempt to understand the processes and relational issues in which incivility interactions occur to better understand how to reduce incivility and improve outcomes for employees and organizations.

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Appendix A

Ethics Approval Form



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Use of Human Subjects - Ethics Approval Notice

Review Number	12 02 19	Approval Date	12 02 22
Principal Investigator	Joan Finegan/Rima Tarraf	End Date	12 08 31
Protocol Title	Examining employees' reactions to work situations		
Sponsor	n/a		

This is to notify you that The University of Western Ontario Department of Psychology Research Ethics Board (PREB) has granted expedited ethics approval to the above named research study on the date noted above.

The PREB is a sub-REB of The University of Western Ontario's Research Ethics Board for Non-Medical Research Involving Human Subjects (NMREB) which is organized and operates according to the Tri-Council Policy Statement and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario. (See Office of Research Ethics web site: <http://www.uwo.ca/research/ethics/>)

This approval shall remain valid until end date noted above assuming timely and acceptable responses to the University's periodic requests for surveillance and monitoring information.

During the course of the research, no deviations from, or changes to, the protocol or consent form may be initiated without prior written approval from the PREB except when necessary to eliminate immediate hazards to the subject or when the change(s) involve only logistical or administrative aspects of the study (e.g. change of research assistant, telephone number etc). Subjects must receive a copy of the information/consent documentation.

Investigators must promptly also report to the PREB:

- a) changes increasing the risk to the participant(s) and/or affecting significantly the conduct of the study;
- b) all adverse and unexpected experiences or events that are both serious and unexpected;
- c) new information that may adversely affect the safety of the subjects or the conduct of the study.

If these changes/adverse events require a change to the information/consent documentation, and/or recruitment advertisement, the newly revised information/consent documentation, and/or advertisement, must be submitted to the PREB for approval.

Members of the PREB who are named as investigators in research studies, or declare a conflict of interest, do not participate in discussion related to, nor vote on, such studies when they are presented to the PREB.

Clive Seligman Ph.D.
 Chair, Psychology Expedited Research Ethics Board (PREB)

The other members of the 2011-2012 PREB are: Mike Atkinson (Introductory Psychology Coordinator), Rick Goffin, Riley Hinson Albert Katz (Department Chair), Steve Lupker, and Karen Dickson (Graduate Student Representative)

Appendix B

Demographic Questions

Please respond to the following questions:

1. How old are you? _____
2. Please indicate your gender. M _____ F _____
3. Have you had work experience? _____
4. Are you still employed? _____
5. What sort of work did you do? _____
6. How long have you worked (or did you) for your organization? _____

Appendix C

Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001)

Please indicate your answer by circling the appropriate number beside each question.

Use the following format:

<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Once or twice a year</i>	<i>Once or twice a month</i>	<i>About once a week</i>	<i>Several times a week</i>	<i>Everyday</i>

During the past year while employed at your organizations, have you been in a situation where your supervisor/co-workers

1. Put you down or was condescending to you in some way
2. Paid little attention to a statement you made or showed little interest in your opinion
3. Made demeaning, rude, or derogatory remarks about you
4. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately
5. Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie
6. Doubted your judgment in a matter over which you have responsibility
7. Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters
8. Ignored you or failed to speak to you
9. Made jokes at your expense
10. Yelled, shouted, or swore at you

Appendix D

Ways of Coping Scale (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980, 1985)

This section asks about the coping strategies that you generally use when dealing with incivility. Read each statement carefully and decide the extent to which it describes you.

Indicate your answer by circling the appropriate number beside each question.

Use the following format:

<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree or disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>

To cope with incivility, I...

1. Just concentrated on what I had to do next – the next step
2. Made a plan of action and followed it
3. Knew what had to be done, so I doubled my efforts to make things work
4. Drew on my past experiences; I have had similar encounters before
5. Came up with a couple of ways of handling the situation
6. Practiced confronting the person with family, friends, others
7. Accepted sympathy and understanding from someone
8. Asked a relative or friend I respected for advice
9. Took my anxiety out on other people
10. Talked to someone about how I was feeling
11. Got professional help
12. Talked to someone who could help me with the situation

13. Hoped a miracle would happen
14. Went on as if nothing had happened
15. Slept more than usual
16. Had fantasies or wishes about how things would turn out
17. Didn't let it get to me, refused to think about it too much
18. Tried to make myself feel better by eating, drinking, using drugs or medication,
etc
19. Tried to forget the whole thing
20. Avoided being with people in general
21. Looked for the silver lining, so to speak, tried to look on the bright side of things
22. Went along with fate; sometime I just have bad luck
23. Wished that the person would go away or the situation would someone be over
with
24. Refused to believe that is was happening
25. Watched movies or television to keep my mind off the situation

Appendix E

Affective Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

Use the following format:

<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree or disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>

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

* Indicates that an item is reverse-scored.

Appendix F

Job Satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

Use the following format:

<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree or disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>

1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.
2. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do on this job.
3. Most people on this job are generally satisfied with the job.

Appendix G

Turnover Intentions (Hanish & Hulin, 1991)

Please answer the following questions considering your current job.

Use the following format:

<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Once or twice a year</i>	<i>Once or twice a month</i>	<i>About once a week</i>	<i>Several times a week</i>	<i>Everyday</i>

1. How often do you think about quitting your job?

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

Use the following format:

<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree or disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>

2. Leaving my job would be very desirable.
3. It is very likely that I will leave my job.

