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Women's Experience of Incivility in Professional Occupations: The Roles of Gender Representation and Occupational Commitment

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Abstract

The aim of the current study was to examine the role of gender representation and occupational commitment in shaping women's experiences of workplace incivility, which was compared to men. Participants included 550 professional employees (45% female) who provided demographic information about their work units and completed a series of questionnaires including ones measuring workplace incivility, affective occupational commitment (AOC) and burnout. The analyses revealed that gender representation in the work unit predicted perceived overt incivility but not covert incivility or overall incivility for the females in the sample, but not for males. The predicted indirect effect of gender representation on burnout through incivility exposure for females was not supported. Opposite from predictions, an exacerbating effect of occupational commitment on the incivility-burnout relation was found and was stronger for women than for men. Still, there was a positive main effect of AOC. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: Incivility, Selective Incivility, Gender, Women, Occupational Commitment, Burnout, Gender Representation

Dedicated to my Mom and my Yiayia. You are incredible women. You are my pillars of strength.

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1. Introduction

As the landscape of the Canadian workplace evolves to become more inclusive of women in traditionally male-dominated occupations, there is a growing need to understand the experiences of women in these work contexts. Despite society's notable progress, stereotypes about the role of women in these job positions prevail in the modern workforce (Hyde, 2007; Dipboye & Halverson, 2004). Employees who are members of stigmatized groups may be subject to workplace discrimination – the behavioural manifestation of prejudicial attitudes (Whitley & Kite, 2006). Scholars have noted how acts of discrimination in the workplace have evolved from the traditional more overt forms such as the blatant endorsement of pejorative stereotypes to the modern subtler forms of interpersonal mistreatment such as alienation, rudeness, and condescension (Deitch et al., 2003; Brief & Barsky, 2000; Jones, Peddie, Gilrane, King, & Gray, 2016). This shift is largely due to anti-discrimination legislation, organizational policies and changing social and societal norms that have made blatant discrimination unacceptable in workplace contexts. Sexist attitudes are more likely to either intentionally or unintentionally manifest into covert hostile behaviours (Hebl, Foster, Mannix, & Dovidio, 2002). In addition, these behaviours are often ambiguous in intent – both to the target and to observers – making it more likely for this form of discrimination to be disguised as generally rude behaviour (Cortina, 2008). Subtle discriminatory behaviours overlap with behaviours that correspond to the workplace phenomenon of incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), and thus, under certain conditions, incivility is beginning to be used as an indicator of subtle discrimination.

1.1 Selective Incivility as Modern Discrimination

Incivility – the most commonly cited form of interpersonal mistreatment in work contexts – has traditionally been considered a general phenomenon but recently Cortina (2008) has argued

that “incivility, in some cases, is not ‘general’ at all but instead represents contemporary manifestations of gender and racial bias in the workplace” (p. 55). Cortina advances a theory of *selective incivility* by suggesting that targets of incivility are sometimes chosen systematically according to their social group membership rather than at random. As mentioned, the behaviours that are characteristic of incivility overlap with the behaviours that underlie conceptualizations of subtle workplace discrimination (e.g., disrespectful remarks, interrupting, questioning competence). These behaviours are described by Andersson and Pearson (1999) as “low intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviours are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others.” (p. 457).

Since Cortina’s (2008) theoretical paper presenting selective incivility as modern discrimination, scholars have begun to look at workplace incivility through a gender lens (e.g., Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013; Settles & O’Connor, 2014; Zurbrügg & Miner, 2016). Indeed, empirical evidence suggests that women are more likely to be targets of interpersonal mistreatment than men (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back, 1994; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Cortina et al., 2002; Cortina et al., 2013; Settles & O’Connor, 2014; Zurbrügg & Miner, 2016). Cortina et al. (2013) tested the relation between gender and incivility as well as the indirect effect of gender on turnover intentions through the experience of incivility in three different samples: 369 city government employees, 653 law enforcement agents, and 15,497 members of the U.S. military. Across all samples, women reported significantly more incivility than men and gender was a significant predictor of turnover through the experience of incivility. In the military sample, there was a significant interaction between gender and race on incivility exposure as well as an indirect effect of the interaction on

turnover intentions through incivility exposure. The main effect of gender, but not race, was significant above the moderated mediation effect.

1.2 The Role of Gender Representation

Interestingly, Cortina et al. (2013) also found an unexpected effect of gender *composition* on incivility exposure when gender was controlled for in the military sample. This finding suggested that the more skewed the gender composition of the work group was in favour of men, the more incivility the employees in that group reported. Because this finding was not hypothesized, not much theoretical rationale was provided but Cortina et al. proposed that “demographics of situations, in addition to the demographics of persons, should be considered in models of incivility risk.” (p.1597). As an answer to this call, the current study will investigate how gender composition of a work unit relates to incivility exposure and the subsequent consequences of this experience.

According to relational demography theory, gender dissimilarity – the individual-within-the-group-level translation of a group’s gender composition – is indirectly related to negative work outcomes via decreased social integration within the group (Riordan, 2000). In line with this theory, recent meta-analytic findings provide evidence that gender dissimilarity directly negatively related to social integration and indirectly negatively related to individual performance via levels of social integration (Guillaume, Brodbeck, & Riketta, 2012). These relationships are informed by social identity theory (SIT; Hogg & Terry, 2000) and social-categorization theory (SCT; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Individuals make sense of their environments through categorization of similar others into their in-group and dissimilar others into their out-group. This phenomenon is further explained by the similarity-attraction paradigm, which holds that people are attracted to others who they perceive to be similar to themselves and

that deep-level similarities (e.g., values, personality, attitudes) are often inferred through demographic similarity (Byrne, 1971). For high-status majority individuals, a strong establishment of an in-group leads to feelings of superiority over a less established out-group. This intergroup bias allows individuals to preserve a positive self-image by identifying as belonging to the “better” group, but it leads to increased stereotypes of the out-group and a decreased desire to integrate these perceived dissimilar others into the in-group. Intergroup biases, whether implicit or explicit, may behaviourally manifest as workplace incivility towards the out-group (Cortina, 2008). These effects may be compounded by the fact that the positions where women are most underrepresented (e.g., STEM, upper-management) are the ones where gender stereotypes continue to persist (Hyde, 2007; Moss-Racusin, Dovidio, Brescoll, Graham & Handelsman, 2012; Whitley & Kite, 2006).

Empirical research on relational demography theory has investigated several psychological mediators of the dissimilarity-outcome relationships in line with SIT and SCT (e.g., uncertainty reduction, social integration, status enhancement; Guillaume, Dawson, Otaye-Ebede, Woods, & West, 2015). Studies examining potential *behavioural* mediators are less common. In the current study, I will investigate how the percentage of women in a work unit relates to women’s experience of uncivil behaviours and subsequent burnout within the work units. Burnout is chosen as the outcome measure of choice because it is a common measure that reflects the experience of work-related strain in response to work stressors (e.g., Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) and has robust associations with turnover, job performance and health outcomes (Alarcon, 2011; Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004).

Based on the logic that a smaller representation of females in a job position is synonymous with more males in that position and thus a more established male in-group and likelihood for intergroup biases that may manifest into selective incivility, I propose the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a negative relation between gender representation and incivility for women such that the less they are represented in their work units, the more incivility they will report.

Based on the argument that a greater exposure to uncivil treatment will be a source of stress and the empirical and meta-analytic findings that workplace bullying is related to the experience of burnout (e.g., Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012), I also propose the following mediation hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a negative indirect relation between gender representation and burnout for women, via a greater frequency of experienced incivility.

1.3 The Role of Occupational Commitment

As previously noted, the negative psychological experience of being a target of selective incivility at work is a type of work stressor and, as such, it is associated with elevated levels of strain (e.g., burnout; Jones et al., 2016). This relationship is contingent on levels of other work-related variables, which may either buffer or exacerbate the negative effects of work stressors. For example, organizational commitment has been proposed as a moderating variable that may function in either of two ways (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). One perspective is that highly committed employees are more sensitive to negative events because of their heightened level of investment and identification with the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Individuals who are more affectively committed to their organization are more likely to want to perform well in that organization (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). The implication of a negative

event will be more threatening for a highly committed employee than for an uncommitted employee and this is most likely to be the case when the individual attributes the source of stress to the organization. In this perspective, organizational commitment is an intensifier that makes individuals more receptive to the ramifications of work stressors.

The alternative perspective is that highly committed employees will use affective organizational commitment as a psychological resource (Kobasa, 1982). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) describe affective organizational commitment as a stabilizing and binding force of an employee to an organization. In this view, organizational commitment serves a buffering function by allowing highly committed employees to rely on this stabilizing force as a psychological safeguard. These competing perspectives can be extended to another form of commitment – commitment to the occupation. Affective occupational commitment is an individual's desire to remain in their occupation, and their identification with that occupation (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). In the context of this study, what is particularly relevant is how the experiences of women in male-dominated work contexts who are targets of incivility are shaped by their affinity for and identification with their occupation. The identification of these moderating variables is imperative in order to understand the conditions under which selective uncivil treatment is more or less detrimental. More specifically, this study seeks to answer the question: does a strong commitment to the occupation (a) act as a resource to help to buffer the negative effects of selective incivility or (b) make the target more sensitive to acts of interpersonal mistreatment from colleagues therefore amplifying negative effects? In their review of the literature, Meyer and Maltin (2010) note that empirical investigations of the moderating role of organizational commitment have yielded inconsistent results. They conclude that, despite these mixed findings, the evidence seems to suggest a more consistent buffering effect of

affective organizational commitment on the work stressor-strain relation (e.g., Begley & Czajka, 1993; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Donald & Siu, 2001; Schmidt, 2007).

The limited studies that have investigated the moderating role of occupational commitment have also found mixed results. Some research has found that occupational commitment buffers the effect of job demands on emotional exhaustion (Nesje, 2017) as well as the effect of job stress on outcomes such as job performance, turnover intentions, and absenteeism (Jamal, 2014). Yet other studies have found that occupational commitment intensifies the relation between job stressors and emotional exhaustion (Reilly, 1994) as well as the relation between burnout and job satisfaction (Teng, Shyu, & Chang, 2007). The two latter studies found that, in addition to a moderating effect on the relation between stressors and strain, occupational commitment had a positive main effect on strain.

Because of the inconsistent nature of empirical investigations that test these competing predictions (exacerbating effect of commitment vs. buffering effect of commitment), both are mentioned here. However, based on the larger body of empirical support for the buffering role of organizational commitment, and expanding these predictions to commitment to the occupation, based on Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) argument that there is a *core essence* of commitment that can be applied to multiple foci, I propose the following moderation hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: Occupational commitment will buffer adverse experience of uncivil treatment, such that women in male-dominated positions who report experiencing incivility will report lower levels of burnout the more highly committed they are to their occupation (moderated mediation).

2. Method

2.1 Participants and Procedure

A total of 593 employed individuals were recruited using Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) to complete an online survey regarding work opinions and attitudes. Participants were required to work at a single organization full-time (outside of MTurk) in order to participate in the study. The recruitment poster used to advertise the study on the MTurk platform is included in Appendix A. Interested participants were provided a letter of information and consent form (See Appendix B). Participants qualified for the study if they worked full-time in a professional occupation (i.e., belonged to a professional association and/or was regulated by a professional body). They were told that their responses in the survey are both anonymous and confidential. Consenting participants received some general instructions and were asked to complete a variety of questionnaires that assessed their work-related experiences and attitudes and demographic information of themselves and their work units. Once the questionnaires were completed, participants rated the level of effort they exerted while answering the aforementioned questionnaires and were asked whether or not their data should be used in analysis (See Appendix C) in an attempt to identify careless responders. Participants were compensated \$1USD for their time.

2.2 Measures

2.2.1 Pre-Screening Questions. As an additional check that participants read and complied with the necessary qualifications for participation in the study, two pre-screening questions (see Appendix D) were included prior to the commencement of the focal study: (1) what is your employment status? (Full-time, part-time, temporary/seasonal, self-employed, other), (2) Do you work in an occupation that is considered an organized profession and is

regulated by a professional body (accounting, law, medicine, etc.) and/or has a professional association? (graphic design, human resource, surveyor, etc)? (Yes, No). Individuals who did not answer "full-time" to question 1 and "yes" to question 2 did not qualify to complete the study and were directed to the end of the survey. Three hundred and forty-two individuals did not meet these criteria and were filtered out of the study. The screening questions were embedded within two other employment-related questions that were irrelevant to the screening criteria in order to make the desired answers to the questions more ambiguous, thus minimizing deception.

2.2.1 Gender Representation in the Work Unit. Participants were asked to provide information regarding the demographic composition of their work unit (see Appendix E). To ensure that conceptualizations of the work unit were consistent across participants, an operational definition of work unit was provided prior to their responses. The definition provided read: “Your work unit consists of the group of individuals *whom you interact with at work* and who have a *similar job role as you*.” Gender composition of the work unit was measured using the item, “In your work unit, approximately what percentage are females?” and used a fill-in-the-blank response format. Items assessing work unit composition in terms of race and age as well as the size of the work unit were also included.

2.2.2 Incivility. Incivility was measured using the adapted Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS; Cortina et al., 2013; See Appendix F). Items on this measure are designed to assess the frequency that an individual experienced uncivil behaviours from coworkers or supervisors over the last year at work. Uncivil behaviours in this measure included “Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately” and “Accused you of incompetence” and responses to each item were measured on a 5-point scale: *never, once or twice, sometimes, often, many times*.

2.2.3 Occupational Commitment. Occupational commitment was assessed using Meyer et al.'s (1993; see Appendix G) Occupational Commitment Scales. Items on this scale measure three facets of occupational commitment: affective occupational commitment, normative occupational commitment, and continuance occupational commitment. Affective commitment reflects an individual's desire to remain in an occupation and their identification with that occupation. Normative commitment reflects an individual's sense of obligation to remain in their occupation. Continuance commitment reflects an individual who feels like the costs of leaving their occupation outweigh the costs of staying. The three components of commitment are theoretically distinct from one another and differentially predict outcomes. For this reason, only the affective occupational commitment (henceforth, AOC) scale is of interest in the current study. Items on this occupational commitment scale were kept general (i.e., they do not reference any specific occupation) in order for participants to make ratings based off their own occupation. For example, an item written as "Nursing is important to my self-image" was changed to "My occupation is important to my self-image" and was responded to on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 7 = *Strongly Agree*). Immediately prior to completing this scale, participants were primed to think about their occupation by typing it into a provided textbox.

2.2.4 Burnout. Burnout was assessed using the Oldenburg Burnout Measure (Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010). This scale measures two facets of burnout, namely, emotional exhaustion and disengagement. Psychometric assessments of this scale provide empirical support for this assertion (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Responses were measured on a 4-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 4 = *Strongly Agree*) with no neutral midpoint.

The burnout measure was included with a battery of six other measures included for exploratory purposes and future analyses (See Appendix H). These included Three-Component

Model of Organizational Commitment Scales (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993), The Organizational and Occupational Turnover Intentions Scales (Becker & Billings, 1993), Job Satisfaction (Judge & Klinger, 2008), and Organizational and Occupational Mobility. Organizational and Occupational Mobility scales were created for the purposes of this study were measured using the respective items “If necessary, it would be easy for me to find a comparable job in another organization” and “If necessary, it would be easy for me to change occupations”.

2.2.5 Demographic Information. Demographic information (e.g., age, gender, language proficiency, see Appendix I) was collected from the participants.

2.3 Data Cleaning Steps and Descriptive Statistics

Out of the 593 participants that completed the survey, 43 were excluded from analyses for not meeting pre-established data cleaning criteria. Of those excluded, 14 were removed for indicating on the purposeful responding measure that either their data should not be used or that they put forth less than ‘quite a lot’ of effort. Twenty participants were removed because they took less than 3.5 minutes to complete the survey, which was a natural cutoff point in the sample distribution. Data for three participants were removed because they did not identify as either male or female. Finally, data from six participants were removed because their responses for their work unit size were either below two or outliers in the distribution (i.e., greater than 500). After data cleaning, the final count of participants remaining was 550 (Males = 299, Females = 251). Participant ages ranged from 20 to 80 with an average of 37 for the females, and 20 to 64 with an average of 35 for the males. Thirty-six was the average age for the overall sample.

Means, standard deviations, scale reliabilities and correlations among study variables for the total sample, the female-only sample and the male-only sample are included in Tables 1, 2,

and 3 respectively. All predictor variables were centered around their grand means prior to performing any further analyses. Gender was coded as males = 0 and females = 1.

3. Results

3.1 Test of Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that women who are less represented in their work context are more likely to report experiences of incivility. This hypothesis was tested using a regression analysis where incivility was regressed on percentage of women in the work unit for the female-only sample. The regression analysis revealed that percentage of women in the work unit was not a significant predictor of overall incivility, Adjusted $R^2 = .011$, $F(1, 236) = 3.549$, $\beta = -.003$, $p = .061$.

For exploratory purposes, I split overall incivility into subtle and overt incivility as per the findings of Cortina, Lonsway, and Magley (as cited in Cortina, 2008) and Tarraf (2012). An exploratory factor analysis provided revealed a two-factor structure (see Table 4). Items generally loaded more highly on their respective dimensions, with the exception of two items (one on the overt incivility subscale and one on the covert incivility subscale) that loaded relatively equally on both scales. Percentage of women in the work unit was not a predictor of covert incivility, adjusted $R^2 = .000$, $F(1, 244) = 1.043$, $\beta = -.002$, $p = .308$, however, it was a significant predictor of overt incivility, adjusted $R^2 = .014$, $F(1, 237) = 4.371$, $\beta = -.003$, $p = .038$. Including age as a covariate did not affect the statistical significance of these results. In partial support of Hypothesis 1, greater representation of females in the work unit was related to lower levels of experienced overt incivility in the female sample.

To test the conjecture that gender representation predicts incivility for females but not for males, the same regression analyses were conducted for the male sample. Percentage of women

in the work unit was not a significant predictor of overall incivility, Adjusted $R^2 = -.003$, $F(1, 287) = .213$, $\beta = .001$, $p = .625$, covert incivility, Adjusted $R^2 = -.003$, $F(1, 287) = .172$, $\beta = .001$, $p = .678$, or overt incivility, Adjusted $R^2 = -.003$, $F(1, 293) = .133$, $\beta = .001$, $p = .716$ in the male sample. To test a possibility of reverse causality (i.e., gender representation is significantly related to overt incivility for women but not for men because women are more likely than men to leave their work unit due to uncivil treatment), a moderation analysis was conducted on the effect of overt incivility and turnover intentions as a function of gender. A significant interaction such that the relation between overt incivility and turnover intentions is stronger for females than for males would have been evidence of an alternative causal explanation for Hypothesis 1, but no such moderating was found, R^2 change due to interaction = .0023, $F(1, 524) = 1.625$, $p = .203$.

Hypothesis 1 concerned experiences of incivility as a function of gender representation in a work unit, specifically for women. For this reason, the prediction that gender representation would negatively predict experienced incivility was tested using only the females in the sample. I preformed the same analyses on the male sample to compare groups and it was found that percentage of females was a significant predictor of incivility for the female sample but not the male sample. However, to test whether the relation between percentage of females and reported overt incivility was stronger for females than males, a moderation analysis was conducted. The moderation analysis was not significant, R^2 change due to interaction = .002, $F(1, 536) = .984$, $p = .322$. Thus, although percentage of females was a statistically significant predictor of overt incivility for the female sample but not the male sample, it cannot be concluded that there is a statistical *difference* in the strength of the percentage of females-incivility relation between the groups.

As an additional analysis for exploratory purposes, an independent sample t-test was

conducted to determine whether there were gender differences in the frequency of uncivil treatment. Prior to the main analyses, a Levene's test for equality of variances was conducted and revealed that homogeneity of variance could not be assumed between genders for overall incivility, $F(1, 532) = 7.787, p = .005$, nor for covert incivility, $F(1, 532) = 7.322, p = .007$. Thus, results for these outcomes should be interpreted with caution. The analysis revealed significant gender differences in the frequency of experienced overall incivility such that males ($M = 1.576, SD = .753$) reported more overall uncivil treatment than females ($M = 1.439, SD = .650$), $t(531) = 2.25, p = .025$. Gender differences were also found in the frequency of experienced covert incivility such that males ($M = 1.460, SD = .752$) reported more covert uncivil treatment than females ($M = 1.329, SD = .647$), $t(531) = 2.165, p = .031$. There were no gender differences between males and females in the amount of overt uncivil treatment reported, $t(546) = 1.770, p = .077$.

3.2 Test of Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 proposed a mediation model, such that a greater percentage of women in the work unit predicts reduced burnout through the reduced level of incivility experienced. This hypothesis was tested in SPSS's PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) using a 5000-iteration bootstrap approach. An illustration of the mediation model for the female sample with unstandardized path coefficients is presented in Figure 1. The indirect effect of percentage of females in the work unit on burnout through overt incivility was $-.000$ and was not statistically significant, 95% CIs $[-.002, .000]$, and thus Hypothesis 2 was not supported. The direct link between percentage of women in the work unit and overt incivility was not statistically significant in the mediation model.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities and Correlations of Study Variables in Total Sample.

			1	2	3	4	5	6
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>						
1. % of Females	45.370	29.532	—					
2. Overall Incivility	1.514	.711	-.067	(.952)				
3. Overt Incivility	1.743	.822	-.040	.918***	(.944)			
4. Covert Incivility	1.401	.709	-.073	.973***	.803***	(.879)		
5. AOC	5.581	1.261	.020	-.479***	-.469***	-.454***	(.902)	
6. Burnout	2.153	.561	.029	.435***	.469***	.387***	-.704***	(.919)
7. Gender	.456	—	.318***	-.096*	-.076	-.092*	.088*	-.093*

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. $N = 550$.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities and Correlations of Study Variables in Female Sample.

			1	2	3	4	5	6
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>						
1. % of Females	55.61	29.497	—					
2. Overall Incivility	1.439	.650	-.122	(.950)				
3. Overt Incivility	1.675	.640	-.135*	.984***	(.943)			
4. Covert Incivility	1.329	.768	-.065	.916***	.849***	(.874)		
5. AOC	5.700	1.238	.053	-.433***	-.407***	-.467***	(.894)	
6. Burnout	2.095	.586	.035	.407***	.360***	.481***	-.705**	(.928)

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. $N = 251$.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities and Correlations of Study Variables in Male Sample.

			1	2	3	4	5	6
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>						
1. % of Females	36.76	26.722	—					
2. Overall Incivility	1.576	.753	.027	(.952)				
3. Overt Incivility	1.800	.862	.021	.918***	(.944)			
4. Covert Incivility	1.460	.751	.024	.974***	.804***	(.881)		
5. AOC	5.480	1.254	-.066	-.504***	-.466***	-.490***	(.907)	
6. Burnout	2.072	.494	.088	.438***	.445***	.401***	-.695***	(.909)

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. $N = 249$

Table 4

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of the Workplace Incivility Scale.

WIS Items	Factor Loadings	
	Overt Incivility	Covert Incivility
Paid little attention to your statements or showed little interest in your opinions.	-.027	.887
Doubted your judgement on a matter over which you had responsibility.	.034	.820
Interrupted or “spoke over” you.	.045	.736
Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie.	.499	.358
Gave you hostile looks, stares or sneers.	.706	.185
Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately.	.556	.322
Rated you lower than you deserve on an evaluation.	.391	.453
Yelled, shouted, or swore to you.	.948	-.143
Made insulting or disrespectful remarks about you.	.964	-.058
Accused you of incompetence.	.658	.184
Targeted you with anger outburst or “temper tantrums”.	.835	.021
Made jokes at your expense.	.813	.001

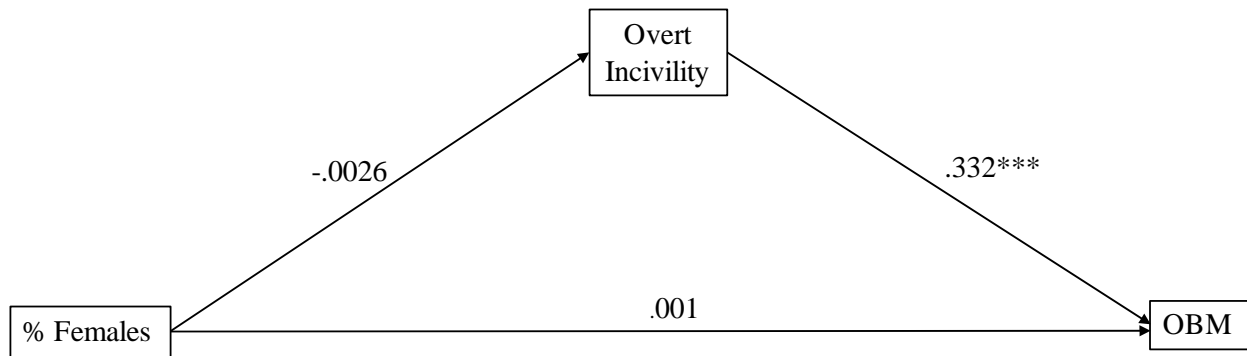


Figure 1. Unstandardized path coefficients for the mediation model of the female sample.

3.3 Test of Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 proposed a moderated mediation such that affective occupational commitment buffers the adverse effect of uncivil treatment and consequently reduces the indirect effect proposed in Hypothesis 2. Because Hypothesis 2 was not supported, the mediation was not included in the moderation analysis. Instead, the moderating role of affective organizational commitment on the relation between incivility and burnout was tested using PROCESS. Although I found differences between the incivility subscales in the previous analyses, Hypothesis 3 was tested using an overall incivility score to align with the original hypothesis.

First, because gender representation was not included in the model, the moderation was tested using the total sample (i.e., both males and females). Taken together, the predictors accounted for a significant proportion of the variance, $R^2 = .526$, $F(3, 498) = 184.182$, $p = .000$. AOC was a significant predictor of burnout, $b = -.284$, $t(498) = -18.360$, $p = .000$. Overall incivility was a significant predictor of burnout, $b = .186$, $t(498) = 5.400$, $p = .000$. Finally, the interaction term was created automatically by the PROCESS macro using centered predictor variables and significantly predicted burnout, $b = .078$, $t(498) = 4.124$, $p = .000$. The interaction term accounted for an additional 1.62% of the variance above and beyond the individual predictors.

A simple slopes analysis was conducted to determine the nature of the interaction effect. The slopes for incivility predicting burnout at three levels of AOC were tested. The three levels for AOC are 1 SD below the mean, the mean, and 1 SD above the mean. For low, average, and high AOC, incivility $b = .088$, $t(498) = 3.172$, $p = .002$; $b = .185$, $t(498) = 5.402$, $p = .000$, and $b = .285$, $t(498) = 5.436$, $p = .000$, respectively. Thus, the relation between incivility and burnout becomes stronger as the level of AOC increases but was significant at all levels of AOC.

To investigate whether the moderating effect upholds when incivility is broken down into covert and overt incivility, the same analysis was conducted with both of these types of incivility as predictors. These findings paralleled the moderating effect observed for overall incivility; that is, AOC exacerbated both the relation between overt incivility and burnout, $b = .041$, $t(509) = 2.844$, $p = .005$, and the relation between covert incivility and burnout, $b = .084$, $t(498) = 4.099$, $p = .000$.

Next, a three-way interaction with gender as an additional moderator was conducted to test whether combining the genders for the aforementioned moderation model was justified. This overall model was statistically significant, $R^2 = .536$, $F(7,494) = 81.538$, $p = .000$. Interestingly, a three-way interaction between incivility, AOC and gender significantly predicted burnout, $b = .149$, $t(494) = 3.161$, $p = .002$. The three-way interaction accounted for an additional .9% ($p = .002$) of the variance above the individual predictors and the two-way interactions. A simple slopes analysis revealed that the moderating effect of AOC was stronger for females, $b = .194$, $t(498) = 4.619$, $p = .000$, than for males, $b = .048$, $t(498) = 2.071$, $p = .039$. These findings remained when age and occupational mobility were included as covariates, indicating that interaction effect was not confounded with these variables. None of the two-way interactions

were statistically significant. An illustration of the three-way interaction can be found in Figure 2.

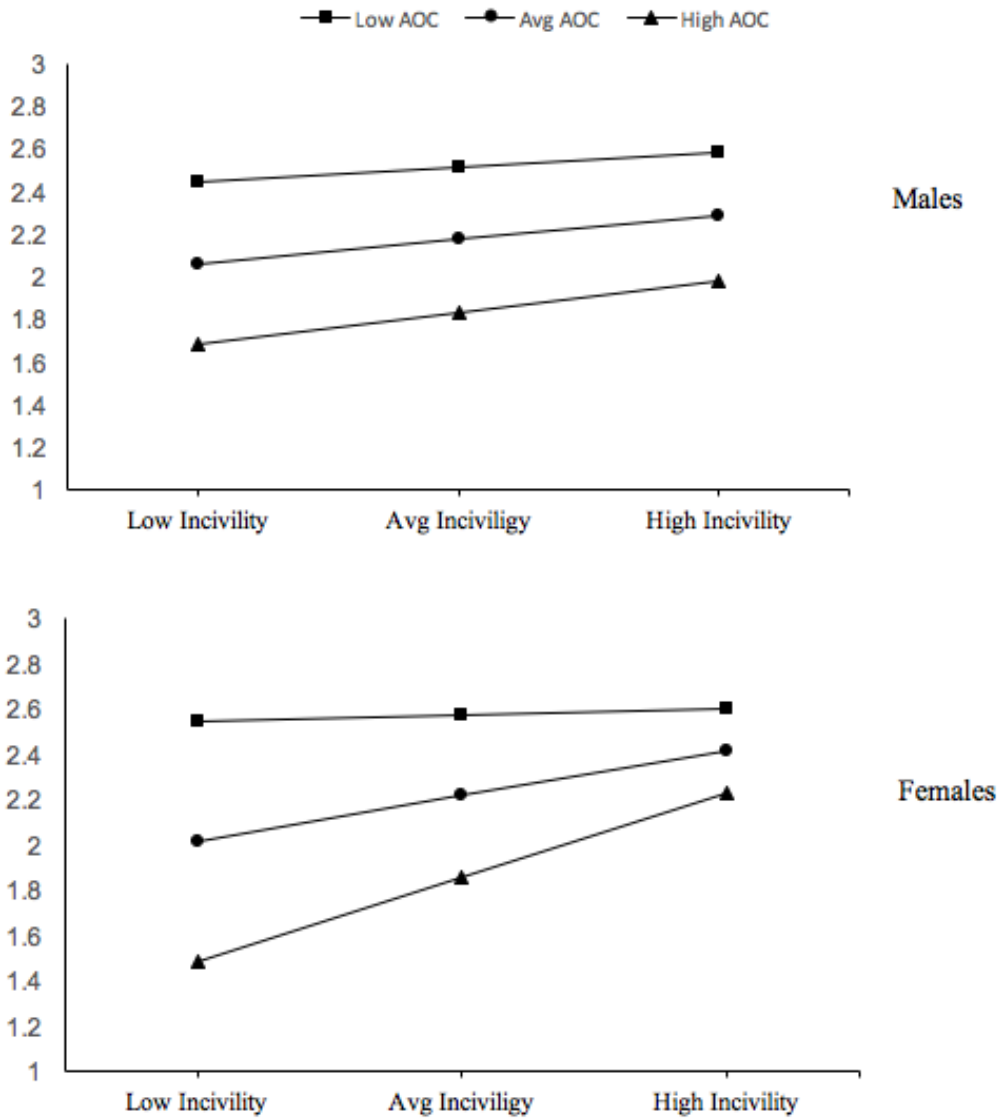


Figure 2. Graph of the moderating effect of AOC on the relation between incivility and burnout for men and women.

4. Discussion

The aim of the current study was two-fold. First, I sought to understand the influence of gender representation on women's experience of incivility at work. Second, I examined whether affective commitment to one's occupation buffers the negative consequences of uncivil treatment. In line with selective incivility theory and relational demography perspectives, I proposed that there would be a negative relation between gender representation and women's experience of incivility (Hypothesis 1) and that incivility would mediate the relation between gender representation and burnout (Hypothesis 2). I also predicted a buffering effect of AOC on the negative consequences of incivility (Hypothesis 3). Although females were the target sample for testing the predictions, data were collected from both males and females in order to make comparisons across genders.

There is some literature to suggest that the WIS may have two dimensions – overt incivility and covert incivility (Cortina, 2013; Tarraf, 2012). Overt uncivil behaviours are easily recognizable as rude or offensive (e.g., making insulting or disrespectful remarks) and covert uncivil behaviours are subtler forms of disrespect (e.g., interrupting; Tarraf, 2012). Although overt incivility is more aggressive in its nature, incivility in general is ambiguous in its intent and therefore both overt and covert incivility are considered to be modern forms of discrimination when systematically targeted at females and minorities (Cortina, 2008).

Still, there is some research to suggest that certain types of uncivil behaviours may be more likely to be manifestations of contemporary sexism than others. Cortina et al., (2004) found that, contrary to the findings in the current study, women reported more frequent experience of incivility than men when the incivility was covert rather than overt. The authors suggested that more covert uncivil behaviours are more likely to be associated with contemporary sexist

attitudes. They state that covert uncivil behaviours that are targeted selectively towards women stem from implicit gender stereotypes and they are harder to confidently attribute to the perpetrator's prejudice, thereby allowing the perpetrator to maintain a non-prejudiced self-image and social standing. For exploratory purposes, the relevant hypotheses were tested separately with these two dimensions. My post hoc prediction was that covert incivility would have a stronger relation with gender representation than overt incivility.

4.1 Gender, Gender Representation, and Incivility

The analyses revealed women who were less represented in their work context reported experiencing more incivility but only when the uncivil behaviours were overt rather than covert or overall. These findings provided partial support for Hypothesis 1 but were conflicting with the post hoc prediction that gender representation would have a stronger relation with covert incivility than with overt incivility. Because the empirical research on the dimensionality of the WIS is relatively scarce, it cannot be said with confidence that these findings contradict established theory. Men did not differ in their experience of overt, covert, or overall incivility as a function of the representation of men in their work unit.

It is also interesting to note that in this sample, males reported a greater frequency of uncivil treatment than females which is inconsistent with the findings of previous research (e.g., Bjorkqvist et al., 1994; Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina et al., 2002; Cortina et al., 2013; Settles & O'Connor, 2014; Zurbrugg & Miner, 2016). However, this finding is not necessarily in conflict with selective incivility theory. The intention of the current study was to investigate whether gender representation predicts the uncivil treatment of professional women; it was not designed to be a test of gender differences in uncivil treatment. A key difference between this study and previous gender-comparison studies is that the current study tested a sample of workers from a

variety of professional occupations with a range of demographic makeups. In other words, it was not solely a sample of females who worked in male-dominated occupations or other occupations where gender roles and stereotyping are most likely to be salient – a condition that would foster modern discrimination (Fiske & Lee, 2008; Whitley & Kite, 2006).

The partial support for Hypothesis 1 has some implications for relational demography theory. Indeed, the current study provides some evidence for the notion that demographic dissimilarity (i.e., gender dissimilarity) from a work group has consequences for the individual's experiences within those work groups. The current findings contribute to the small subset of studies that examine the effects of demographic dissimilarity on the treatment of the individual within the group rather than the individual's own behaviours or cognitive processes. This study also provided evidence to suggest that status matters – being a female in a male-dominated group may subject you to more interpersonal mistreatment (i.e., overt incivility). However, this effect was not found for males in female-dominated work groups. This finding is consistent with the social categorization perspective that being a part of a more highly established in-group may facilitate more negative attitudes towards the outgroup and this is especially true when the context makes the categorization more salient (i.e., women in traditionally male occupations; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Rydell, McConnell, & Beilock, 2009).

Hypothesis 2 was not supported – there was no indirect effect of gender representation on burnout through the experience of incivility in the female sample. Furthermore, the direct effect of gender representation on overt incivility was no longer statistically significant when it was included in a mediation model. This is likely due to additional parameters needed to estimate the mediation model but does cause some uncertainty as to the strength of the effect of gender representation on women's experiences of overt incivility. Given the current findings and the

lack of existing studies that have examined this relation, it cannot be concluded that gender representation predicts burnout in the female sample either directly or indirectly through incivility.

4.2 An Alternative Explanation – Gender Differences in Incivility Perceptions

The theoretical implications stated in the previous section are based on the presumption that a significant relation between gender representation and reported overt incivility for women (but not men) implies that in male-dominated work units, women, but not men, are more likely to be targets of incivility the more their work units skew towards “all men”. However, there is an alternative explanation to be considered – male-dominated contexts may facilitate more incivility in general, and women are more attuned to this incivility. Therefore, the differential predictability of gender representation for reported incivility across men and women may not reflect true differences in uncivil treatment between the genders, but rather, gender differences in the propensity to report uncivil treatment.

There is some evidence to suggest that men and women perceive incivility and related forms of interpersonal mistreatment in different ways. Young, Vance, and Ensher (2003) explored gender differences in sensitivity to disempowering acts in a sample of graduate students. Disempowering acts are ones that demean or belittle a person, are hostile and intimidating in nature, and are not necessarily enacted out of malicious intent. In these ways, disempowerment is akin to incivility. Young and colleagues presented participants with a series of video segments that illustrated actual footage of a target (either male or female) being subject to disempowerment while giving testimonies for the U.S. Senate. After each segment, participants were asked to rate the level of offensiveness they perceived in the video on a 7-point Likert scale. The authors found that women rated the treatment of the target by the Senate members as

more offensive than did men, irrespective of the target gender. Similarly, Montgomery, Kane, and Vance (2004) used the same video segments and found that females were more likely than males to report the Senators' behaviour as inappropriate.

These findings become more complicated when other factors such as social context and type of outcomes are taken into consideration. For example, Young, Vance, and Harris (2007) used a similar experimental paradigm to the studies discussed above and found that social context with regards to race played an important role in determining who would be most likely to report behaviours as offensive. The authors found that in contexts where African-Americans were the numerical majority and the target was an African-American female, men were more likely than women to rate disempowering behaviours as offensive, a finding that contradicted prediction.

Miner and Cortina (2016) asked a sample of males and females to rate the frequency with which they observed incivility towards female employees in their workplace over the past year, and tested the prediction that women would rate this incivility as more unjust and suffer greater psychological consequences as an observer than men. Contrary to these predictions, men reported greater injustice as a function of observed incivility towards female coworkers than women. There was also a stronger indirect effect of observed incivility towards females on job satisfaction, organizational trust, and turnover intentions through injustice perceptions for male observers than for female observers. Miner and Eischeid (2012) examined the roles of both target and observer gender on the relation between observed incivility and negative emotions. The researchers found that negative emotions were stronger when the target was the same gender as the observer. Conflicting with their hypothesis, men who observed same-gender incivility towards coworkers reported greater negative emotions (i.e., anger, fear, and anxiety) than women who observed same-gender incivility. Miner and Eischeid rationalized this finding by suggesting

that men may perceive a threat to the status and power of their group when observing same-gender incivility and members of high-status groups are more motivated to maintain their status (Berdahl, 2007). In contrast, women reported more feelings of demoralization with greater frequency of observed incivility toward same-gender coworkers, but this relation was not found for men.

The aforementioned studies provide evidence to suggest that men and women differ in their appraisals of observed uncivil treatment, however, the nature of this relationship is complicated and depends on a variety of factors such as the social context, the gender of the target, and the outcomes of interest. In addition, all of these studies explore the cognitive and affective responses that proceed the observation of uncivil treatment towards others. There is no empirical evidence to my knowledge that has explored gender differences in victims' propensity to report uncivil treatment. It is unclear whether gender differences would emerge in appraisals of experienced incivility, but because the WIS is a frequency measure with rather specific behaviours, the appraisal of the event (i.e., if it was hostile or not) should ideally be unrelated to scores. However, there is evidence to suggest that emotion and recall are often intertwined, such that when an event triggers a strong emotional response in the moment, it is more likely to be recalled at a later date (e.g., Bisby, Horner, Hørlyck, & Burgess, 2016); thus, if there are in fact generalizable gender differences in appraisals of experienced incivility this could affect the frequency responses. It is also worthy to reiterate here the finding that males reported more incivility than females in the current sample overall. Thus, although the alternative explanation that women have a greater sensitivity than men to uncivil treatment cannot be ruled out entirely, there is little existing evidence to support this notion. Still, it should be noted when considering the implications of the findings for research and practice.

4.3 The Exacerbating Effect of Occupational Commitment across Genders

Due to the lack of a significant mediation found in the previous analysis, I tested a simple moderation model rather than the moderated mediation model originally proposed in Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 was not supported – a moderating effect of AOC was found, but in the opposite direction than what was predicted. I originally tested the moderating role of AOC on the incivility-burnout relation for the total sample (both males and females) and found that there was a significant interaction such that the greater the level of commitment the individual had to their occupation, the greater the burnout they experienced as a result of uncivil treatment from colleagues and supervisors. This result was in contrast with expectations and previous empirical findings that have generally found support for the buffering effect of commitment on the stressor-strain relation (e.g., Schmidt, 2007; Schmidt & Diestel, 2012; Setti, Lourel, & Argentero, 2016) but aligned with research that found exacerbating effects of commitment. It is important to note that this effect was not a true exacerbating effect because the burnout resulting as a consequence of experienced incivility for employees with high AOC did not exceed the burnout experienced from the same level of incivility for employees with low AOC. Rather, the effect was what Meyer and Maltin (2010) describe as a *pseudo-exacerbating* effect; that is, there was a positive effect of AOC at low levels of the stressor and at high levels of the stressor, those with high and low levels of AOC experience the same amount of stress. Meyer and Maltin note that two of the four studies in their review that reported an exacerbating effect of commitment actually found a pseudo-exacerbating effect.

The most notable distinction between the current study and previous studies is that occupational commitment, as opposed to organizational commitment, was the moderator of interest. Both types of commitment share the same conceptual underpinning – they are the

binding force that ties an individual to some target (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), but perhaps the target could be a particularly important distinction in this case. An individual may feel some agency and choice with regards to the organization at which they work and there are often alternative organizations with similar job roles that the individual can consider. However, choosing to leave one's occupation requires more thoughtful consideration. Indeed, research on occupational turnover has found that leaving the occupation is seen as costlier and more difficult than leaving the organization, for reasons such as the need for additional education or training, as well as loss of professional connections, status within the occupation, and the education and/or training that was invested up until that point (Blau, 2000; Blau et al., 2009). Furthermore, the "occupation" is perceived as being highly interconnected with the "self" and informs how individuals see themselves and present themselves to the world (van Maanen & Barley, 1984).

The few existing studies that have investigated the moderating role of occupational commitment on the relation between workplace stressors and work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions have found mixed results (Nesje, 2017, Jamal, 2014, Reilly, 1994, Teng, Shyu, & Chang, 2007), so it is important to consider the idiosyncratic features of the current study that could have fostered the pseudo-exacerbating influence of occupational commitment. First, the type of stressor should be carefully considered. Out of the four studies that examined the moderating role of occupational commitment, none used an interpersonal mistreatment measure as the predictor (i.e., stressor) variable. The view that commitment is a "protective resource" that safeguards an individual from adverse work experiences may not hold when the adverse experiencing is relational in its nature and is thereby threatening the very sense of security and belongingness that commitment provides (Schmidt & Diestel, 2012). Another important thing to note is that, in this sample, individuals were required

to be employed in an occupation that is regulated by a professional body and/or has a professional association. These types of professions often provide opportunities to be a part of professional development networks, social clubs, and may contribute to a greater feeling of personal connection with the occupation.

If one accepts the premise that the exacerbating effect of occupational commitment stems from the victim perceiving the uncivil treatment to be threatening to their occupational belongingness, then it follows that this effect should be even stronger if they believe that the incivility is a product of their occupation's culture, is likely to persist, and selectively targets them for some systematic reason. This logic could help to explain the fact that gender emerged as a moderator of the exacerbating effect of AOC on the relation between incivility and burnout such that the exacerbating effect was stronger for women than for men. According to the selective incivility perspective, men can more easily attribute the cause of their victimization to factors unrelated to themselves (i.e., general perpetrator rudeness). Men may not see the incivility as threatening to their occupational identity if they do not feel like they are being selectively targeted. However, women may view incivility as a product of a general attitude towards women in the occupation, rather than the product of one or two individuals' rude demeanors. This selective targeting based on gender can be perceived as having implications that extend beyond just negative day-to-day work experiences to impediments on professional advancement and success. This could explain why a stronger commitment to one's profession is related to more negative psychological consequences of incivility, particularly for women.

4.4 Limitations and Future Directions

The present study is not without its limitations, and thus there are many avenues for future research on this topic. First, while the study yielded some interesting exploratory findings, the

rationalization provided was post-hoc and therefore only thoughtful speculation as to the theoretical underpinnings of the findings could be made. Inductive methods are useful for answering questions that are derived from curiosity rather than established theory, but theory-building processes should follow from statistical findings (Locke, 2007). Rigorous theory-driven research is needed to uncover the phenomena that underlie the exploratory effects found in this study. In particular, it would be interesting for future studies to more closely examine the three-way interaction between gender, incivility and AOC on burnout. Researchers should try to directly measure attributions and reactions to uncivil treatment as it is related to the occupation and see if they differ between the genders. Do women perceive incivility to be more threatening to their sense of occupational belongingness than men? What are the conditions that would foster these gender differences? What are the conditions – personal and situational – that would lead to within-gender differences in incivility attributions? Qualitative research would serve as a valuable starting point to answering these and similar questions. In addition, a more direct measure of occupational identification may be considered in future studies to determine the extent to which an individual perceives their occupation as being part of the self and whether personal identification with the occupation is an important piece of the puzzle.

Second, all data were gathered from self-report measures and were therefore vulnerable to subjectivity. For example, the item that measured gender representation asked individuals to estimate the percentage of women that worked in their work unit. This item allowed for a demographic makeup estimate without the need to gain access to organizational records but it was likely subject to human error, especially with larger work units. As explained in Section 4.2, there is a possibility that the WIS is vulnerable to perceptual biases despite its frequency response style. The use of objective (e.g., expert-rated) measures of incivility would be a

valuable contribution to the literature on gender differences in incivility exposure. In addition, although not an issue specific to self-report, there was no direct way to assess whether an individual was currently working in an occupation-relevant organization (e.g., an accountant working in an accounting firm) or in a non-relevant organization (e.g., a single accountant working in a manufacturing firm). However, prior to being asked to indicate the demographic composition of their work units, a definition of the work unit was described to individuals as consisting of the people whom they interact with at work and who have a similar job role as them.

Third, as with any cross-sectional study, causality could not be established. Indeed, it could be that women are more likely than men to self-select out of groups due to overt uncivil treatment. Although some additional analyses were conducted in order to address this issue (see Section 3.1), there is no way to confidently conclude causality without manipulation of the independent variables. A promising avenue for future studies would be to manipulate the demographic composition of task groups (i.e., female-dominated, gender-equal, male-dominated) in the lab (or, if possible, in the field), and determine the effects of this manipulation on female-targeted and male-targeted incivility as judged by experts. In this case, it would also be possible to determine whether or not the instigators of the incivility towards women in male-dominated contexts are male, female, or both. In situations where manipulation is not possible, longitudinal methodologies and experience sampling methods can paint a picture of the temporal timeline of work unit gender composition as well as occupational commitment as they relate to incivility and subsequent work-related outcomes.

Fourth, because the data were collected across a variety of organizations and occupations, it was not possible to examine gender differences in uncivil treatment within specific work units

and whether these unit-specific gender differences vary across occupations. Ideally, this study would have employed a multi-level sample where individuals were nested within work units, work units were nested within organizations, and organizations were nested within occupations but this was not realistic given the available resources. Future research could use a multi-level approach to testing the current study's predictions in order to have a better understanding of the effects at various levels of analysis (e.g., unit-level gender composition vs. occupational-level gender composition).

Last, the current study did not consider the effects of other demographic variables that are targets of modern discrimination (e.g., race, ethnicity, age) and how they may intersect with gender. The argument for intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1991) suggests that researchers should consider the intersecting patterns of racism and sexism when exploring individuals' experiences of discrimination. Indeed, empirical evidence suggests that gender and race interact to put racial-minority women at a disproportional risk of uncivil treatment (Cortina et al., 2013) and harassment (Berdahl & Moore, 2006). Research examining work-group composition based on different demographic characteristics would add valuable contributions to selective incivility theory. It would also be interesting to examine whether AOC interacts with other demographic variables to moderate the relation between incivility and burnout.

4.5 Practical Implications

The present study suggests that male-dominated contexts may foster uncivil treatment towards women in those contexts. Even just the act of observing incivility towards female coworkers has detrimental effects on both male and female observers' job satisfaction, organizational trust, turnover intentions (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004, 2007; Miner & Eischeid, 2012; Miner & Cortina, 2016). Therefore, managers and practitioners would benefit

from considering the gender composition of groups and how this may relate to the uncivil treatment of the individuals within those groups, particularly for women. In groups where composition based on gender is less realistic, strategies to encourage inclusivity across social categories can be applied. The *common in-group identity model* (Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000) posits that individuals can expand the range of individuals who they perceive as their in-group by using techniques that facilitate a team-like mentality (e.g., increasing interdependency, setting common goals and shared rewards systems, labelling a group of individuals as a team) and this mentality has been shown to lead to more positive evaluations of the outgroup and decreased intergroup threat (Riek, Mania, Gaertner, McDonald, & Lamoreaux, 2010). General civility training techniques would also be useful in this regard and managers should model civil behaviours (Pearson & Porath, 2009).

At the organizational level, policies and programs can be set in place to not only increase the representation of women in their workplaces (Zubrugg & Miner, 2016), but also to mitigate the differential treatment, standards, and status of male and female employees (Berdahl, 2007; Schultz, 2003) and to make expectations of civil conduct between employees clearly explicit and enforced (Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000). Organizations should also provide support for individuals who feel like they are targeted with uncivil behaviours from coworkers and/or supervisors. In organizations with a high climate of incivility, efforts to increase the occupational commitment of employees (especially women) may not be very effective. Assuming that women do, to some extent, perceive incivility as threatening to their professional careers, diversity and inclusion policies and programs as well as interpersonal skills training would be beneficial at both the organizational-level and the occupational-level. Existing programs tend to focus on prevention of obvious acts of discrimination yet rarely touch upon subtle, interpersonal

behaviours that can be perceived as discriminatory (Shih, Young, & Bucher, 2013). It is pertinent that organizations shift the way they think about selective incivility in the modern workplace if they hope to recruit and retain a diverse workforce.

5. Conclusion

The current study provided some support for selective incivility theory and relational demography perspectives. The finding that women's experiences of overt incivility were greater in more male-dominated work units suggests that considering the demographics of groups can add valuable prediction in models of selective incivility. However, there was no evidence to suggest that gender representation predicts burnout through the experience of incivility. The lack of a significant mediation necessitated the test of occupational commitment as a moderator of the bivariate incivility-burnout link rather than a moderator of the full mediation model.

Nonetheless, the analyses yielded interesting findings that were contrary to prediction – occupational commitment has a pseudo-exacerbating effect on the relation between incivility and burnout. Additional analyses revealed that the pseudo-exacerbating influence of occupational commitment was stronger from women than it was for men. This finding fits within the selective incivility framework because it may be an indication that incivility directed towards women is perceived as a product of occupational attitudes towards women and is thus threatening to their occupational success. Additional research is needed to empirically test these post hoc interpretations.

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Appendix A: MTurk Recruitment Poster

We are conducting an academic survey about people's experiences at work.

In this study, you will be asked to respond to a series of questions about your attitudes towards work-related areas of your life as well as your experiences in your current job. At the end of the study, you will be asked to give some demographic information about yourself and your organization.

The study will take approximately **30 minutes**.

In order to participate in this study, you must be enrolled in Amazon Mechanical Turk, be at least 18 years of age, and be fluent in English. **You must also be (a) currently employed FULL-TIME outside of your work with Mechanical Turk and this employment must not constitute self-employment and (b) in a PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATION (i.e., an occupation that has a regulatory body and/or professional association; e.g., accountant, nurse, graphic designer, etc.).**

You will be compensated with **\$1 USD** for completing the study. Your compensation will be prorated based on the amount of the survey you complete. For example, participants who complete a ¼ of the study will receive 0.25 USD, participants who complete ½ of the study will receive 0.50 USD, and so on.

If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact the researcher at [inserted email here] prior to giving your consent to participate.

Please note: your participation is voluntary and all information collected will be kept confidential.

General Instructions

Make sure to leave this window open as you complete the survey. When you are finished, you will return to this page to paste the code into the box.

This study will ask you to complete a series of surveys regarding your work-related feelings and experiences. Although some of the questions throughout this study may appear redundant, please respond to each question independently and as honestly and accurately as possible. The study should take no longer than 30 minutes to complete.

Appendix B: Letter of Information and Consent Form

Project Title: Work Experiences and Attitudes

Project Member: Christina Politis (Graduate Student) Psychology, Western University

Office: 8424D

Email: [inserted email here]

Principal Investigator: Dr. John Meyer (Professor) Psychology, Western University

Letter of Information

You are being invited to participate in this research study about people's experiences and attitudes at work. The purpose of this letter is to provide you with information required for you to make an informed decision regarding participation in this research. The purpose of this study is to investigate how employee's experiences at work as well as work unit demographic composition contribute to a variety of job attitudes, such as job stress and satisfaction. Individuals who are employed full-time, are in a professional/career-oriented occupation, and are fluent in English are eligible to participate in this study.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to respond to a series of questions pertaining to your job attitudes, job stress, turnover intentions and experiences at work. You will also be asked to give some demographic information about yourself and your work unit. None of these descriptors can be used to identify you. It is anticipated that the study will take approximately 30 minutes. There will be a total of 500 participants.

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study. You may not directly benefit from participating in this study but information gathered may provide benefits to society as a whole which include investigating the external and internal factors that contribute to job-related stress and dissatisfaction.

You will be compensated 1 USD for your participation in this study. If you do not complete the entire study, your compensation will be prorated based on the amount of the survey you complete. For example, participants who complete $\frac{1}{4}$ of the study will receive 0.25 USD, participants who complete $\frac{1}{2}$ of the study will receive 0.5 USD, and so on. Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide not to be in this study. Even if you consent to participate you have the right to not answer individual questions or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose not to participate or to leave the study at any time it will have no effect on your employment status. We will give you new information that is learned during the study that might affect your decision to stay in the study. You do not waive any legal rights by participating in this study. If you decide to withdraw from the study, the information that was collected prior to you leaving the study will still be used. No new information will be collected without your permission.

All data collected will remain confidential, anonymous and accessible only to the investigators of this study. If the results are published, your name will not be used. All information gathered in this study is used for research purposes only. Analyses will be conducted and results will be reported only for aggregate data – no individual's responses will be reported. No personal

identifiers will be linked to your responses. You will need to use your survey completion code to receive your compensation. Once the study is completed, the data will be securely stored for a minimum of five years in electronic form only. In accordance with university policy, the data will be stored electronically on a secure university network server and/or on encrypted and password protected personal devices (e.g., laptop, USB drive) of authorized research personnel only. Following completion of the survey, you will receive a more detailed description of the study objectives. Representatives of The University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may require access to your study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research.

If you require any further information regarding this research project or your participation in the study you may contact Christina Politis (graduate student), [inserted email here].

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of this study, you may contact The Office of Research Ethics [inserted phone number here], email: [inserted email here].

If you wish to participate in this study, click the next button below and on the next page you can officially give your informed consent to participate by clicking “yes”.

Appendix C: Purposeful Responding Measure

Meade, A. W., & Craig, S. B. (2012). Identifying careless responses in survey data. *Psychological Methods*, 17(3), 437-455.

Participant Effort

Instruction: Lastly, it is vital to our study that we only include responses from people that devoted their full attention to this study. Otherwise years of effort (the researchers' and the time of other participants) could be wasted. You will receive compensation for this study no matter what, however, please tell us how much effort you put forth towards this study by clicking on the most appropriate circle in the response options.

- 1) I put forth ____ effort towards this study

Response: 1 = "almost no," 2 = "very little", 3 = "some", 4 = "quite a bit", and 5 = "a lot of."

Participant "Use Me"

- 1) In your honest opinion, should we use your data in our analyses in this study?

Response: 1 = "yes", 0 = "no"

Appendix D: Pre-Screening Demographic Questionnaire

- Created for the purposes of this study
- 1) What is your current employment status?
Responses: Full-time, Part-time, Temporary/Seasonal, Self-Employed, Other
 - 2) Have you received a performance evaluation within the last **six months**?
Responses: Yes, No
 - 3) Does your job involve physical manual labour?
Responses: Yes, No
 - 4) Do you work in an occupation that is regulated by a professional body (accounting, law, medicine, etc.) and/or has a professional association (graphi design, human resources, surveyor, etc.)?
Responses: Yes, No

Note: Questions 2 and 3 are irrelevant to the study and are only used to make the desired answers to the pre-screening questions more ambiguous, thus minimizing deception. Data collected from these items will not be used in analysis.

Appendix E: Work Unit Demographic Questionnaire

- Created for the purposes of this study.

Description: Your work unit consists of the group of individuals **whom you interact with at work** and who have a **similar job role as you**. The following questions pertain to the demographics of your work unit. Please complete the following questions by typing your answers into the boxes below.

1. Approximately how many individuals are in this work unit?
Response: Fill-in-the-blank
2. In your work unit, approximately what percentage are females?
Response: Fill-in-the-blank
3. In your work unit, approximately what percentage are racial or ethnic minorities?
Response: Fill-in-the-blank
4. In your work unit, approximately what percentage are in each age categories?
 - a. Under 25
 - b. 25 – 34
 - c. 35 – 44
 - d. 45 – 54
 - e. 55 +Response: Fill-in-the-blank for each category

Appendix F: Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS)

Cortina, L. M., Kabat-Farr, D., Leskinen, E. A., Huerta, M., & Magley, V. J. (2013). Selective incivility as modern discrimination in organizations: Evidence and impact. *Journal of Management*, 39(6), 1579-1605.

Instructions: Using the scale provided, please click on the most applicable circle for each statement.

During the PAST YEAR, were you ever in situations in which any of your supervisors or co-workers...

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

Response: five-point Likert scale (1 = never, 2 = once or twice, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = many times).

Appendix G: Occupational Commitment Scales

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

Added Item for Priming:

What is your current occupation (e.g., nurse, engineer, accountant, etc.)?

Response: Fill-in-the-blank

Affective Occupational Commitment

- 1) My occupation is important to my self-image.
- 2) I regret having entered my occupation. (R)
- 3) I am proud to be in the occupation.
- 4) I dislike being in my occupation. (R)
- 5) I do not identify with my occupation. (R)
- 6) I am enthusiastic about my occupation.

Normative Occupational Commitment

- 1) I believe people who have been trained in an occupation have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period of time.
- 2) I do not feel any obligation to remain in this occupation. (R)
- 3) I feel a responsibility to this occupation to continue in it.
- 4) Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave this occupation now.
- 5) I would feel guilty if I left this occupation.
- 6) I am in this occupation because of a sense of loyalty to it.

Continuance Occupational Commitment

- 1) I have put too much into this occupation to consider changing now.
- 2) Changing occupations would be difficult for me to do.
- 3) Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my occupation.
- 4) It would be costly for me to change my occupation now.
- 5) There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions. (R)
- 6) Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice.

Response: Seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, to 7 = strongly agree)

Note: Slightly adapted to apply to broadly across occupations.

Appendix H: Outcome and Control Measures

Oldenburg Burnout Measure

Demerouti, E., Mostert, K., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). Burnout and work engagement: A thorough investigation of the independency of both constructs. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 15*, 209-222. doi:10.1037/a0019408

Instructions: Below you find a series of statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the scale provided, please indicate the degree of your agreement by selecting the number that corresponds with each statement.

- 1) I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.
- 2) There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.
- 3) It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.
- 4) After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.
- 5) I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.
- 6) Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically.
- 7) I find my work to be a positive challenge.
- 8) During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.
- 9) Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work.
- 10) After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.
- 11) Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.
- 12) After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.
- 13) This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.
- 14) Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.
- 15) I feel more and more engaged in my work.
- 16) When I work, I usually feel energized.

Response: Four-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly Agree)

Affective Organizational Commitment

Affective Organizational Commitment

- 1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- 2) I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- 3) I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)
- 4) I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
- 5) I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
- 6) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Response: Seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, to 7 = strongly agree)

Organizational and Occupational Mobility

- Created for the purposes of this study.

Organizational Mobility

- 1) If necessary, it would be easy for me to find a comparable job in another organization.

Occupational Mobility

- 1) If necessary, it would be easy for me to change occupations.

Response: seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

Organizational and Occupational Turnover Intentions

Becker, T. E., & Billings, R. S. (1993). Profiles of commitment: An empirical test. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14(2), 177-190.

Instructions: Please consider the following statements. Using the scale provided, please click on the most applicable circle for each statement to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement.

Organizational Turnover Intentions

- 1) It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year.
- 2) I often think about quitting this organization.
- 3) It would take very little change in my present circumstances to leave this organization.
- 4) There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.

Occupational Turnover Intentions

- 1) It is likely that I will actively look to change occupations in the next year.
- 2) I often think about quitting my occupation.
- 3) It would take very little change in my present circumstances to quit my occupation.
- 4) There's not too much to be gained by sticking with my occupation indefinitely.

Response: seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

Job Satisfaction

Abridged version of Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) job satisfaction scale

Judge, T. A., & Klinger, R. (2008). Job satisfaction: Subjective well-being at work In M. Eid, & R. J. Larsen (Eds.), *The science of subjective well-being* (pp. 393-413). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

- 1) I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.
- 2) Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
- 3) Each day at work seems like it will never end.(R)
- 4) I find real enjoyment in my work.
- 5) I consider my job to be rather unpleasant. (R)

Response: seven-point Likert Scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree)

Appendix I: Demographic Information

Instructions: Below are some questions about your demographic information. Please complete the information below by filling in the blanks and clicking on the appropriate circles.

Gender:

- Response options:
 - Male
 - Female
 - (fillable blank box for participants to self-identify)

Age:

- Fill in the blank

Ethnicity:

Instructions: People in Canada come from many racial and cultural groups. You may belong to more than one of the groups listed below. Are you... (select all that apply)

- Response options: “Caucasian”, “Filipino”, “Chinese”, “Latin American”, “Korean”, “Black”, “Arab”, “Japanese”, “South Asian (e.g., East Indian, Sri Lankan, etc.)”, West Asian (e.g., Iranian, Afghan, etc.)”, Aboriginal (that is, North American Indian, Metis, or Inuit)”, “Don’t Know”, “Other (lease specify)”

Language Proficiency:

Is English your first language

- Response options: “Yes”, “No”

If English is not your first language, what is your first language?

- Response option: Fill in the blank

English reading skills: How proficient do you feel with the English language?

- Response options: 1 = Moderate to 5 = Very Strong

Employment:

Are you employment status at your organization?

- Response options: Full-time, part-time, temporary/seasonal, self-employed, other

How long (in months) have you been working in your current *organization*?

- Response: [Fill-in-the-blank] months

How long (in months) have you been working in your current *occupation*?

- Response: [Fill-in-the-blank] months

Curriculum Vitae

CHRISTINA POLITIS

Western University, London, ON, Canada

EDUCATION

Western University, London, ON, Canada
Master of Science, Industrial-Organizational Psychology (in progress) 2017
Executive member of Western's Psychology Graduate Student Association.

Western University, London, ON, Canada
Bachelor of Arts, Honors Specialization in Psychology 2015

AWARDS & CERTIFICATIONS

Canadian Graduate Scholarship – Master's 2016
Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada
\$17,500

Mini-MBA Certificate of Business and Consulting 2016
Graduate Management and Consulting Association

Dean's Honors List 2011 – 2015
Western University, London, ON

Global Opportunities Award 2014
Western University, London, ON
\$1000

TEACHING & RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Cross-Cultural Learner Centre (CCLC) – London
MITACS Intern – Research & Marketing – Cultural Competency Training Program 2016 - Present
Primary Investigators: Dr. Victoria Esses and Dr. Mark Cleveland in collaboration with the CCLC – a local non-profit organization.
Conducting both primary research (e.g., depth interviews, focus groups, quantitative surveys) and secondary research (e.g., literature review) to identify best practices for cultural competency training delivery, marketing and assessment.

Lab Instructor – “Research Methods in Psychology”, Western University 2015 - 2016
Taught research methodology and statistical analysis techniques, supervised student-led experiments, evaluated research papers.

Research Assistantships:
Organizational Behaviour Lab, Western University
Roommate Rating Accuracy, Western University 2014 - Present
The Teamwork Lab, Western University

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Espinoza, J. A., **Politis**, C., Vaters, C., Anderson, B. K., Zhang, I., Leonard, C., Meyer, J. P. (May 2017). *New Evidence for Multidimensionality of Ryff's Scales of Psychological Well-Being Using Exploratory Structural Equation Modelling*. Poster presented at Association for Psychological Science in Boston, MA.

Politis, C. (June, 2017). *Physical Perceptions of Moral Inconsistency: The "Reformed Bad Boy" Effect*. Poster presented at Canadian Psychology Association conference, Toronto, ON.

Leonard, C., **Politis**, C., Zhang, I., Vaters, C., Espinoza, J. A., Anderson, B. K., Meyer, J. P. (June 2017). *A Longitudinal Understanding of Personal Growth and Development: The Rich Get Richer*. Poster presented at Canadian Psychology Association conference, Toronto, ON.

Vaters, C., Anderson, B. K., Espinoza, J. A., **Politis**, C., & Meyer, J. P. (June, 2017). *Self-Determination Theory: A Test of Some Basic Assumptions*. Poster presented at Canadian Psychology Association conference, Toronto, ON.

RELEVANT COURSEWORK

Research Design and Statistical Modeling
Personnel Recruitment, Selection and Work Analysis
Test Construction
Work Attitudes and Behaviours
Research Methods in I-O Psychology

Qualitative Research Methods
Work Groups and Teams
Fundamental Competencies in I-O
Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)