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WHY DID MY COWORKER TREAT ME THIS WAY?
EXAMINING THE MEDIATING EFFECTS OF ATTRIBUTIONS ON THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN INCIVILITY AND WORKPLACE OUTCOMES

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A THESIS APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

BY

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Abstract

Workplace incivility has previously been linked to detrimental outcomes, such as decreased job satisfaction and increased burnout and turnover intentions. The purpose of this study is to extend the current research on incivility to include causal attributions that may help illuminate how the harmful effects of incivility are transmitted to key work outcomes. Specifically, this study examines the role of four different attributions to internal, external, relational, and discrimination sources, in explaining the relationship between workplace incivility and four work outcomes: job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, and turnover intentions. Data collected via online surveys from 210 alumni of a large public university in the Southcentral U.S. were used to test the hypotheses. Results showed that external, relational and discrimination attributions consistently mediated the relationship between uncivil behaviors and job satisfaction, perceived social worth, and burnout. However, none of the attributions studied significantly explained the relationship between incivility and turnover intentions. Further, internal attributions did not significantly mediate any of the relationships investigated. Additionally, results testing the theories of selective incivility and intersectionality were not supported in the sample studied. Significance and implications of these results are discussed.

Keywords: incivility, discrimination, attributions, internal, external, relational

Introduction

Similar to many everyday behaviors and events people experience, the cause of uncivil behavior in the workplace is inherently ambiguous because it is up to the target to interpret the meaning or intent of the instigator's behavior based only on external clues (i.e., they do not know what the perpetrator/instigator was actually thinking or what his/her intention was; Sliter, Withrow, & Jex, 2015). While some people may think the behavior occurred because the instigator does not like them (Eberly, Holley, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2011), some may blame themselves for causing the behavior, some may blame the instigator (Brees, Mackey, Martinko, 2013; Kelley & Michela, 1980; Schmitt & Branscombe, 2002), and yet others may think the instigator's attitudes toward their group are to blame (Cortina, 2008; Crocker & Major, 1989), or they may attribute the behavior to a combination of these causes (Eberly et al., 2011).

Previous research has shown that how people interpret events, that is, what attributions they make, affects how an event impacts them, which has typically been measured in terms of only affective variables (Brees et al., 2013; Burton, Taylor, & Barber, 2014; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Kelley & Michela, 1980) because such mistreatment threatens individuals' basic psychological needs of feeling like they belong and that they are a worthy individual (Aquino & Thau, 2009). However, there has been little research exploring how targets of incivility make attributions regarding the causes of these experiences.

Therefore, in order to further extend understanding on the mechanisms behind the deleterious effects of workplace incivility, the primary purpose of this study is to examine whether attributions mediate the impact of incivility on key workplace

outcomes, such as job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, and turnover intentions (Research Question 1) as well as investigate what types of attributions employees make after experiencing workplace incivility and how these attributions are related (Research Question 2). However, I will also explore whether previous findings about the disparate impact of incivility on minorities and women holds true in our sample (i.e., selective incivility) in Hypotheses 1 and 2, and examine whether incivility has a harmful effect on some novel (e.g., perceived social worth) and established workplace outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, burnout, turnover intentions) for our post-college sample, after controlling for pre-existing negative affect and general self-efficacy, in Hypothesis 3. In the current study, I tested these ideas using survey data from a group of recently- graduated students from a large university in the Southcentral U. S.

Incivility, and Its Causes & Effects

Porath and Pearson (2010) described incivility as "the seemingly inconsequential inconsiderate words and deeds that violate norms of workplace misconduct" (p. 64). Examples of incivility may include responding rudely to an email, talking down to others, withholding information, taking credit for others' work, criticizing someone publicly, or making sarcastic remarks about another employee (Pearson & Porath, 2005; Porath & Pearson, 2010). Similarly, Andersson and Pearson (1999) defined workplace incivility as "*low-intensity* deviant behavior with *ambiguous intent* to harm the target" (p. 457). The high prevalence of workplace incivility makes it a particularly important behavior to study. Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout, (2001) found that 71% of employees in the public sector reported experiencing

incivility at work in the previous five years. Replicating the incidence rates for incivility in three separate studies, Cortina and Magley (2009) found that 75% of university employees reported experiencing incivility at least once in the prior year, 54% of attorneys reported experiencing incivility at least once in the previous five years, and 71% of court employees reported experiencing incivility at least once in the previous five years. Overall, Porath and Pearson (2010) state that 96% of the employees they have surveyed reported experiencing incivility at some point.

Are some groups being singled out?

Cortina (2008) posited one possible cause of incivility among particular populations: selective incivility. *Selective incivility theory* (Cortina, 2008; Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013) suggests that incivility may function as a way for those with power, authority, or social resources (e.g., high-level employees, males, whites) to assert their power over those who do not have power (e.g., low-level employees, females, ethnic minorities, underrepresented groups; Cortina et al., 2001). Furthermore, based on theories of *intersectionality* (Crenshaw, 1991) and the *double jeopardy hypothesis*, (Beal, 1970), Cortina and colleagues (2008; 2013) hypothesized that a member of multiple, intersecting marginalized group identities (e.g., a person who is a female and an ethnic minority) would experience more negative treatment than a member of one marginalized group, in a type of "double whammy" effect. Given today's legal and organizational climate and explicit prohibitions against overt discrimination, Cortina and colleagues (2008; 2013) hypothesized that incivility is one way that employees act out their explicit, or implicit, biases. This is because perpetrators can reasonably attribute their incivility (or other forms of mistreatment) to

non-discriminatory causes, thereby maintaining the façade of impartiality.

Incivility is especially worrisome because of the unequal rates at which groups are targets of incivility, making it an example of covert modern discrimination in the workplace (Cortina, 2008; Cortina et al., 2013). Cortina (2008) called this "selective incivility" because she hypothesized that the targets are "selectively targeted" by perpetrators based on either explicit or implicit biases. It is important to note, however, that perpetrators may not be consciously choosing their targets, rather they may be selecting their targets based on their implicit, or subconscious, biases toward the person's group, or due to an environment that normalizes discrimination.

However, there are mixed findings on the main effects of gender and ethnicity and their interaction on the amount of incivility experienced. While some studies have found support for selective incivility theory and the double jeopardy hypothesis among females and African-Americans (Buchanan & Fitzgerald, 2008; Berdahl & Moore, 2006; Cortina, Lonsway, Magley, Freeman, Collinsworth, Hunter, & Fitzgerald, 2002; Cortina et al., 2013; Krings, Johnston, Binggeli, & Maggiori, 2014; Rodriguez-Calcagno & Brewer, 2005), Welbourne, Gangadharan, and Sariol (2015) found no main effects of either ethnicity or gender on the amount of incivility experienced, when controlling for job type. Although they did find a significant interaction between gender and ethnicity, it did not support the idea of a double jeopardy hypothesis. In fact, while Welbourne et al. (2015) found that among university employees, Hispanic males reported more incivility than White males, Hispanic females reported less incivility than White females (and Hispanic males). Thus, the interaction between ethnicity and gender may not always occur in the hypothesized directions based on selective incivility

theory.

One reason for these findings may be due to differences in perception of uncivil events, rather than actual uncivil events experienced. Indeed, Welbourne et al. (2015) noted that the lack of support for selective incivility theory in their sample may reflect a higher expectation of respect among Hispanic males, and therefore a lower threshold for perceived incivility, than Hispanic Females. Therefore, I include this hypothesis as a way of investigating whether the selective incivility theory and double jeopardy hypothesis hold up in a sample of Native American, White, and Asian American college alumni.

> Hypothesis 1: Participants who are members of marginalized groups (Ethnic Minorities, women) will experience more incivility than their majority counterparts (Whites, men)
>
> Hypothesis 2: Participants who are members of two marginalized groups (e.g., Minority women) will report experiencing more incivility than members of a single marginalized group.

The harmful effects of "seemingly inconsequential" behaviors

Although incivility is described as a low-intensity behavior, its effects are not benign. Past research demonstrates that incivility is related to *decreased* job performance (Porath & Erez, 2007; Porath & Pearson, 2010), time at work (Porath et al., 2010), work effort (Porath et al., 2010), productivity (Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001), work quality (Porath et al., 2010), motivation (Kane & Montgomery, 1998), creativity (Porath & Erez, 2009), commitment (Miner, Settles, Pratt-Hyatt, & Brady, 2012; Porath et al., 2010; Smith, Andrusyszyn, & Spence-Laschinger, 2010), job satisfaction (Bunk & Magley, 2013; Cortina & Magley, 2003; Cortina et al., 2001; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Pearson & Porath, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2003), psychological well-being (Cortina et al., 2001; Lim et al., 2008), and *increased* state

negative affect (Pearson et al., 2001; Porath & Pearson, 2012), job withdrawal (Cortina et al., 2001; Sliter, Sliter, & Jex, 2012), burnout (Jiménez, Dunkl, & Peißl, 2015; Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010; Laschinger, Leiter, Day, & Gilin, 2009; Taylor, Bedeian, Cole, & Zhang, 2014) and turnover intentions (Jiménez et al., 2015; Johnson & Indvik, 2001; Laschinger et al., 2009; Lim et al., 2008; Taylor et al., 2014). Indeed, a meta-analysis by Hershcovis (2011) found that incivility was moderately related to job satisfaction (r = -.40), turnover intentions (r = .36), psychological well-being (r = -.33), affective commitment (r = -.31) and weakly correlated with physical well-being (r =-.17). Moreover, contrary to her hypotheses, Hershcovis (2011) found that incivility had stronger relationships with some outcomes than other types of mistreatment often assumed to be more damaging, including bullying and interpersonal conflict. Thus, the effects of incivility are anything but "inconsequential," despite being characterized as "*seemingly inconsequential* inconsiderate words and deeds" (Porath et al., 2010, p. 64).

Further, Porath and Pearson (2010) stated that experiencing rude or uncivil behavior is a drain on employees' cognitive resources because it causes employees to be distracted and worried about why they were mistreated, which detracts from employees' job performance. In fact, 80% of employees reported losing work time worrying about incidents of incivility and 63% reported losing work time avoiding the perpetrator (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Porath et al., 2010). Confirming the previously stated quantitative findings, a qualitative study of employees' experiences with incivility at work found that targets of incivility reported that incivility caused negative psychological and emotional states (such as dread, shame, regret, surprise, embarrassment), increased tension in their workplace relationships (coped with by

avoiding and minimizing contact with the perpetrator), and decreased productivity (they spent time talking to other coworkers about the situation, thinking about how to respond, as well as ruminating on the experiences; McCarthy, 2016). Due to absenteeism, lost productivity, and turnover, the annual costs of incivility for Fortune 500 companies is in the millions of dollars, as illustrated by Cisco Systems, Inc. Despite being described as an "exemplary workplace," Cisco estimated the cost of incivility to be $12 million a year for their company, which suggests that companies with more toxic workplaces/higher levels of incivility can expect the financial impact of incivility to be much higher (Porath & Pearson, 2013, p. 121). However, this may be an underestimate due to additional costs of incivility that were not considered in Cisco's estimate such as impacts on teamwork, cooperation, trust, psychological safety, and motivation (Porath et al., 2010).

Consistent with the established detrimental relationship of incivility with various work outcomes, I hypothesize that

Hypothesis 3: Greater experience of incivility at work will be related to:

a. Lower job satisfaction,
b. Lower perceived social worth,
c. Higher burnout, and
d. Higher turnover intentions.

Attributions about Incivility and Their Role as a Mediator

The central tenet of attribution theory is that people seek to make sense of the events that occur around them by determining their causes, especially when an event is important, unexpected, or negative (Weiner, 2000). A general framework of

attributional processes, proposed by Weiner (2000), posits that after an event occurs (e.g., uncivil behaviors at work), a general affective reaction follows, after which an individual may engage in a cognitive process in which he or she makes attributional inferences regarding the likely causes of the event. He argued that all causal attributions share three underlying dimensions on which they can be quantitatively described: locus of causality, stability, and controllability. Further Weiner (2000) proposed that the types of attributions that people make determine their affective and behavioral responses to the situation and the person based on their underlying dimensions.

While the importance of cognitive appraisal has been neglected in previous research on workplace mistreatment, Bowling and Beehr (2006) noted in their meta-analysis that attribution processes could be an important explanatory variable in the link between workplace harassment and outcomes and that attribution processes deserve further testing. I therefore build on Peeters, Buunk, and Schaufeli's (1995) suggestion that researchers should consider the intervening process of cognitive appraisal when studying stressful events, by exploring the potential mediating effects of attributions on the relationship between incivility and work outcomes.

Four types of attributions may be relevant to perception of the causes of incivility at work: internal, external, relational, and discrimination. Internal attributions focus on a cause originating from the self (internal locus of causation), while external attributions focus on a cause existing outside the self (external loci), for example something or someone in the environment, and relational and discrimination attributions can have both internal and external causal loci (Brees, Mackey, & Martinko, 2013; Schmitt & Branscombe, 2002). Kelley (1967) delineates three major factors that

influence whether a person makes an internal or external attribution: consensus (happens to others), consistency (happens across time), and distinctiveness (unique to a specific situation and/or individual).

Although the effect of incivility on individual and organizational outcomes has been well-established (Estes & Wang, 2008), the role of attributions in mediating these relationships has generally been uninvestigated. Research in other areas of psychology indicates the importance of attributions to mistreatment events.

Based on attribution theories (Weiner, 2000) and affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), appraisal of a stressor is a key process by which a stressor exerts its effects. Bunk and Magley (2013) further proposed that appraisals (either cognitive or affective) of incivility mediate the effect of incivility on affective outcomes (such as attitudes and "affect-driven behaviors") and that these work attitudes then mediate the effect of appraisals on more distal outcomes (such as "judgment driven behaviors," like turnover).

In their cognitive relational theory of emotions, Smith and Lazarus (1990) argued that emotions evolved as an adaptational system for humans to respond to the complex (and sometimes subtle) set of conditions in life that can result in harms and benefits to them. Examples of harm include any threat to one's well-being, with modern examples being "subtle and concealed disapproval, [or] patronizing statements" (p. 614). These examples by Smith and Lazarus (1990) sound quite similar to experiences of incivility. In fact, the authors describe these events or situations as "requir[ing] considerable social experience and intelligence to interpret" because they "barely reveal a true attitude" (p. 614), which corresponds to the definition of incivility as having

ambiguous intent to harm the victim. Thus, it is not just the occurrence of an event per se that generates emotional reactions, rather it is the "person's *interpretation* or *evaluation* of what an encounter signifies for [his/her] well-being" (Smith & Lazarus, 1990, p. 615, italics in original). In other words, one's emotions, attitudes, and general well-being depend on one's cognitive appraisal of the person-environment relationship.

Therefore, I propose that the different types of attributions made about incivility will help explain the effect of incivility on job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, and turnover intentions, with the different types of attributions having potentially differential effects on outcomes.

Research Question 1. Do the four types of attributions mediate, or help explain, the effect of incivility on job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, turnover intentions?

Is it my fault?

Per Burton, Taylor, and Barber (2014), *internal attributions* "occur when individuals believe their personal characteristics or behaviors influence their perceived [experience]" (p. 874). According to Eberly, Holley, Johnson, and Mitchell (2011), internal attributions are most likely when an individual perceives low consensus, high consistency, and low distinctiveness. In other words, employees are most likely to blame themselves for the mistreatment when they see that they are the only ones mistreated (low consensus), they are mistreated routinely (high consistency), and past supervisors have also mistreated them (i.e., this has happened before; low distinctiveness). Examples of internal attributions might include believing the negative event was due to your personality.

Is it your fault?

Conversely, *external attributions* "reflect employees' beliefs that [another person] is chiefly responsible for the abuse they perceive" (p. 874) and are most likely when an individual perceives high consensus, high consistency, and high distinctiveness in the outcome they received (Burton et al., 2014; Eberly et al., 2011). When an employee sees that a supervisor or coworker treats many employees uncivilly (high consensus), he/she is likely to attribute the cause of the behavior externally, such that the supervisor or coworker is primarily responsible for the abuse. Similarly, if an employee is routinely mistreated by the supervisor or coworker and expects it to continue (high consistency) and he/she has not been mistreated before from previous supervisors or coworkers (high distinctiveness), he/she is also likely to attribute the cause externally—i.e., blame the mistreatment on the supervisor or coworker. Examples of external attributions include believing the negative event was because your boss or coworker is just a rude person (McCarthy, 2016).

Are we both to blame?

Relational attributions were proposed by Eberly, Holley, Johnson, and Mitchell (2011), because they believed attributions needed to extend beyond internal and external causes to encompass an important contextual variable: one's relationships. Eberly et al. (2011) described relational attributions as "those explanations made by a focal individual that locate the cause of an event within the relationship the individual has with another person" (p. 732). Relational attributions for perceptions of abusive supervision are likely to occur when an individual believes the dyadic relationship between him/her and a supervisor or coworker is chiefly responsible for the abuse

experienced. According to Burton et al. (2014), relational attributions are most likely when there is low consensus, high consistency, and high distinctiveness. In other words, employees are most likely to think the relationship they have with their supervisor or coworker is responsible for the mistreatment when they see the mistreatment is exclusive to them (low consensus), they are routinely mistreated (high consistency), and this has not happened before (i.e., past supervisors have not mistreated them; high distinctiveness). Examples of relational attributions include believing the negative event was because you and your boss "don't have a positive relationship" or "dislike each other…" (Eberly et al., 2011, p. 733).

Is there another reason you are treating me this way?

Beyond external, internal, and relational attributions, some researchers have proposed that *attributions to prejudice or discrimination* may be one way individuals of stigmatized groups protect their self-esteem (Crocker & Major, 1998; Cortina, 2008). According to Crocker and Major (1989), attributions to discrimination are when an individual "attribut[es] negative feedback or relatively poor outcomes to the prejudiced attitudes of others toward their group" (p. 612). Major, Quinton, and Schmader (2003) demonstrated that one of the difficulties of making attributions to discrimination involves attributional ambiguity. They defined attributional ambiguity as "uncertainty about whether the outcomes you receive are indicators of something about you as an individual, or indicators of social prejudices that other people have against you because of your stigma" (p. 220). While attributions to prejudice or discrimination may seem like a specific type of external attribution, researchers argue that they are actually a combination of internal and external attributions. This is because although individuals

may acknowledge that another person's prejudicial beliefs are at fault for the treatment they received, when they make an attribution to prejudice/discrimination, they are also acknowledging that an internal aspect of themselves, their group membership, is also partly to blame for the treatment (Major et al., 2002; Schmitt & Branscombe, 2002).

Depending on the ambiguity of the situation, people make different attributions, and may have different underlying motivations. The *discounting hypothesis* (Crocker & Major, 1989) suggests that individuals may be more motivated to make attributions to discrimination when there are clear cues that potential discrimination occurred, because these attributions allow individuals to 'discount' the negative event or mistreatment, as unrelated to themselves or their performance.

Similarly, the *minimization-of-personal-discrimination hypothesis* (Taylor, Wright, Moghaddam, & Lalonde, 1990) suggests that members of marginalized groups may be motivated to avoid making attributions to discrimination when there are not clear cues that potential discrimination has occurred, because explaining negative events that occur to them individually as discrimination would make them feel like a victim or that they lacked control over their outcomes (versus negative events that occur to other people or their group as a whole). Based on these two theories, higher levels of ambiguity (i.e., a lack of clear cues) should be related to lower levels of attributions to discrimination and higher levels of internal attributions in order to maintain a sense of control (Major, Quinton, & Schmader, 2003; Ruggiero & Taylor, 1995). Indeed, Ruggiero and Taylor (1995) found that when women were not certain that they were being discriminated against, they were more likely to attribute their poor performance internally, to the quality of their answers, than to attribute their failure to discrimination

on the part of the evaluator. Therefore, since incivility is a form of subtle, or ambiguous, discrimination, I am interested in investigating whether participants are more likely to make internal attributions than attributions to discrimination in the current study.

Eberly et al. (2011) proposed that relational, internal, and external attributions were separate categories and not on a continuum. Because each of these attributions are independent, individuals can make multiple attributions at once and can have different levels of belief about each attribution. For example, an individual may simultaneously believe he or she was mistreated due to having a disagreeable personality (internal), because the offender is a mean person (external), because he or she does not get along very well with the offender (relational), and because the offender does not like members of his or her group (discrimination) (McClure, 1998). Thus, the extent to which these attributions operate independently or in unison is unclear. As a result, Eberly et al. (2011) have called for more research to be conducted regarding the relative frequency and strength of each type of attribution for mistreatment alone and in combination with each other.

Research Question 2: What is the relative frequency of each attribution for incivility and how are the attributions related to each other?

Controlling for Preexisting Traits

Generalized Self-Efficacy as a Covariate

Making certain types of attributions in different situations has previously been shown to be beneficial in preserving positive affective states. The self-serving bias hypothesis (Bradley, 1978) states that people have an inherent bias when interpreting

events to attribute positive outcomes to internal sources and negative outcomes to external sources, which protects their self-esteem and ego. Individuals with higher generalized self-efficacy are more likely to make self-serving attributions (attributing their failure to external, unstable causes), while individuals with lower generalized self-efficacy are more likely to make self-effacing attributions (attributing their failure to internal, stable causes; Silver, Mitchell, & Gist, 1995). Empirical results support this relationship within the realm of incivility; Sechrist, Swim, and Stangor (2004) found that people who made internal attributions reported lower self-efficacy beliefs on average, believing they were less creative and less able than those who made external attributions to discrimination. Based on these studies, I predict that individuals in my study that have high generalized self-efficacy will be more likely to endorse external attributions (compared to internal attributions). Because there is reason to expect generalized self-efficacy to impact attributions to incivility, it was included as a covariate in the current study.

Negative Affect as a Covariate

Per Shavit and Shouval (1977), individuals with high Negative Affect (NA) are more likely to focus on the negative aspects of their environment, others, and themselves and may interpret so much as slightly negative events or even ambiguous events as harmful. Accordingly, Bowling and Beehr (2006) found that the only individual difference variable related to workplace harassment was Negative Affect. They found that Negative Affect was significantly related to more reports of incivility, rho = .25, but its counterpart, Positive Affect (PA), was not significantly related to fewer reports of incivility. However, contrary to the previous authors' findings, Sliter,

Withrow, and Jex (2015) found that individuals with high NA were not significantly more likely to perceive incivility; rather it was individuals with high PA who were more likely to perceive incivility. Post hoc, Sliter et al. (2015) suggested that this relationship may be due to the unrealistic expectations or high standards that people with high PA have, making them more sensitive to uncivil behaviors.

Method

Procedure

This study collected data on post-graduation outcomes for alumni of a large public university in the central plains who had participated as an undergraduate student in a longitudinal study investigating the interplay between interests, self-efficacy, choice of major, persistence, and academic outcomes over the course of their undergraduate tenure. The purpose of the larger study was to study these factors for several cohorts of Native American undergraduate students, as well as for two comparison groups: several cohorts of Asian American and White students.

To protect the validity of the data from careless responders, four attention check items were embedded into various scales in my survey. An example attention check item includes "If you are not randomly responding, please choose 'Strongly Disagree,' so that I know you are reading the items." As an incentive for participants to carefully complete my survey, participants who fully (i.e., answered more than 50% of the survey) and validly (i.e., passed at least 50% of my attention-check questions) completed the survey each semester received a $20 gift card to Amazon.com in exchange for their participation. See Appendix B: Example Attention Check Warning for an example of warning message participants received for not passing an attention

check item.

Furthermore, based on recommendations from Dillman and Melani's (2009) Tailored Design Method, recruitment and reminder emails were designed to show positive regard for participants, asking them for their help in understanding various issues that students encounter at the university in order to help improve the university for future students, emphasizing the importance of collecting basic information via this survey before any interventions could be designed, providing social validation by creating a Facebook page and Twitter account that they could follow and keep up-to-date with my findings, and giving tangible rewards in the form of bookmarks, post-it notes, and gift cards.

Participants

Due to the purpose of the larger study, Native American and Asian American students were oversampled in order to have adequate sizes for group comparisons. Over the course of four years, approximately 10,502 students (44% White, 37% Native American, 19% Asian American) were recruited for the initial study based on the ethnic/racial groups they reported during the admissions process to the University.[1] Participants for the current study were recruited from the group of 2,689 students (43% White, 32% Native American, 21% Asian American, 4% Other) who participated in the original study, via emails sent to their university and alternate email addresses each semester one to three semesters after they graduated, and one to six semesters after their first survey participation. After excluding anyone who did not graduate with a degree

[1] I obtained special permission from the IRB and completed training on the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) before accessing students' demographic information from the university's records.

and/or was not currently working (56% of respondents; 32% were attending graduate school, 9% graduated but did not currently have a job, 9% transferred to another university, 6% did not graduate with a degree from the university), there were 227 participants left who had graduated with a degree and were currently working. Of these, eight (3%) did not get at least 50% of the attention-check questions correct and nine (3%) were not Native American, Asian, or White. The final sample consisted of 210 participants, of which 176 (84%) were employed full-time, 123 (60%) were females; 101 (48%) were White, 66 (31%) Native American, 43 (21%) Asian, which had a similar demographic composition to the original pool from which I recruited.

Counteracting Common Method Bias

Common method variance can be defined in different ways (Lance, Baranik, Lau, & Scharlau, 2009; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012) and can be due to various sources such as within-person response biases (common rater effects), item characteristic effects, item context effects, and measurement context effects (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common method variance is considered to be detrimental in research studies because it can erroneously inflate estimates of scale reliability and validity and can bias parameter estimates in multiple regression models due to the conflation of method variance with trait variance (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

One way I sought to avoid common method bias in this study was by designing the study to include several procedural remedies to mitigate the effect of common method bias. To avoid potential response biases or stylistic responding from participants by using different response formats (1 (*Not at all true*) to 4 (*Exactly true*), 1 (*Never or almost never*) to 7 (*Always or almost always*), 1 (*Never*) to 6 (*Several times per day*))

and different scale anchors (e.g., 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*), 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*)) across measures, which increase the amount of effort required to respond stylistically (Podsakoff et al., 2012), using different item structures both within and across measures, avoiding repetitive words and phrases in the items, and by randomizing the order of items and measures within the survey in order to counterbalance any potential order effects the variables might have on one another (see Appendix A for an example of what the participant would have seen while answering). Also, of note, is that the measures included in the current study were not the only measures in the survey—they were embedded among 10-15 other measures of various constructs which also had various scales, instructions, and response formats.

However, this variety can increase the length of time it takes to process these materials and complete multiple measures. As Podsakoff et al. (2012) noted: another particularly insidious cause of method biases and stylistic responding is a participant's lack of motivation to provide accurate answers or inability due to fatigue or lack of knowledge. I also sought to counteract this by using a procedural remedy: I emphasized the importance of the study to the overall university community and specifically to future Native American students who may benefit from increased focus and attention in various recruitment emails. To decrease the difficulty of responding accurately that participants might have, every scale had a specific label for each point, not just the endpoints. Furthermore, we offered $20 gift cards for successfully completing our survey and passing our various attention check questions, which should have increased their motivation to accurately and attentively complete the measures (see Appendix B for the example prompt for participants that exhorts them to pay attention or take a

break after they missed an attention check question). Another potential source of "method" or within-source bias that may have inappropriately influenced our results is the systematic way that participants may respond to questions, also known as common rater effects. I sought to counteract any common rater effects, specifically participants' mood state and negative self-beliefs, by covarying out any shared variance with negative affect and generalized self-efficacy before conducting my analyses.

However, the impact of common method variance on biasing reliability, validity, and other parameter estimates may be overstated, according to some researchers. Specifically, Spector (2006) called common method variance an "urban legend" because despite being based on truth, it has become so "distorted and exaggerated" (p. 222) that many think it monolithically applies to all studies and all constructs, most especially to those studies that use all self-report measures. Spector (2006) argued that the prevalence of common method bias may be overestimated because if it were true, researchers would expect to find significant and strong correlations between the majority of their variables, when using one method versus multiple methods, but that is not being evidenced in journal articles, which are already known to have a non-null publication bias.

Measures

For all the items, instructions, and response scales described in the below measures, as they appeared to participants who took the survey, see Appendix A: Screenshots of Survey Measures.

Demographics

Ethnic/racial group was measured using a single item from Phinney's (1992) Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) that I adapted to have 6 response options. The item asked participants to respond to the statement "In terms of ethnic group I consider myself to be:" by choosing only one of the following options: Black or African-American, Asian, White, Native American or Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, and Hispanic or Latino/a. The instructions stated for participants to choose the option with which they most identified. See Appendix A for the specific set of instructions that preceded this item.

Gender was measured using a single item asking about the respondent's gender with three response options: male, female, and other.

Incivility

To measure (selective) incivility, the independent variable in this study, I used an 18-item measure developed by Snyder, Carmichael, Blackwell, Cleveland, and Thornton (2010). This measure was developed based on Benokraitis and Feagin's (1986) description of subtle discrimination, which includes lower intensity, versions of the rude behaviors and experiences associated with acts of incivility. While the intention was to explore demographic group differences in the experience of uncivil events at work, the items do not reference discrimination or any source of possible unequal treatment. Example items from Snyder et al.'s (2010) scale include: "I have been included in informal social interactions at work" (reverse scored), "Others share their resources to help me complete my work" (reverse scored), and "I have been ignored in a group or meeting." Participants rated the frequency with which they had

experienced each behavior from their supervisor and then from their coworkers in the past year on a six-point scale from 1 (*Never*) to 6 (*Several times per day*). Based on 210 responses, this measure was highly correlated with Cortina and colleagues' (2001) measure of incivility, $r = .50$, $p < .001$. The internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale in Snyder et al. (2010) was 0.88. In the present study, I combined the supervisor (α = .84) and colleague items (α = .85) into one scale which had an excellent internal consistency of α =.91.

Attributions

To measure attributions about the incivility experiences listed above, I revised the four attribution measures (internal, external, relational, and gender discrimination attributions) used in Hershcovis and Barling (2010). General revisions included adding the word supervisor in addition to colleague to relevant items and changing the verb tenses from the singular "has" to the plural "have" to be consistent with the plural subject. Participants rated the items on a Likert-type scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*).

Internal Attributions

The Internal Attributions scale was composed of four items based on Hershcovis and Barling (2010). Example items include "I might blame myself for the behavior I experienced" and "I might question whether my personality is faulty." The internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of this scale in Hershcovis and Barling (2010) was .80. In the present study, the internal consistency was good (α =.81).

External Attributions

The External Attributions scale was composed of three items based on Hershcovis and Barling (2010). Example items include "My supervisor/colleagues don't like me" and "My supervisor/colleagues are to blame for this." The internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of this scale in Hershcovis and Barling (2010) was .68. In the present study, the internal consistency was good (α =.88).

Relational Attributions

The Relational Attributions scale was composed of four items based on Hershcovis and Barling's (2010) personal attribution subscale. To be consistent with items from other subscales, I changed the pronouns of the items that had the third person "Your" or "you" to the first person "My" or "me". For example, I changed the item "Your colleague has it out for you personally" to "My supervisor/colleagues have it out for me personally." The internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of this scale in Hershcovis and Barling (2010) was .85. In the present study, the internal consistency was good (α =.89).

Discrimination Attributions

For the Discrimination Attributions scale, I revised the five items that Hershcovis and Barling (2010) developed to measure gender discrimination attributions in to be broader and describe discrimination in general, rather than only gender-based discrimination. For example, I changed the gender attribution item "My colleague probably behaves this way only towards members of my gender" to "My supervisor/colleagues probably behave this way only towards members of my race/ gender/ national origin/ religion/ age group." The internal consistency (Cronbach's

alpha) of this scale in Hershcovis and Barling (2010) was .86. In the present study, the internal consistency was excellent (α =.95).

Generalized Self-Efficacy

To measure Generalized self-efficacy, I used Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) General Self-Efficacy (GSE) scale, which included 10 items that participants rated on a scale from 1 (*Not at all true*) to 4 (*Exactly true*). Example items include "I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough" and "I can usually handle whatever comes my way." Previous cross-cultural studies have found that GSE has an internal consistency between .76 and .90 (Schwarzer et al., 1995). In the present study, the internal consistency was good (α = .87).

Negative Affect

To measure Negative Affect (NA), I used the 10-item NA subscale from Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) Positive and Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS). Example items from the NA subscale include "distressed," "upset," "hostile," and "irritable." Participants were asked to "indicate to what extent [they] generally feel this way—that is, how [they] feel on average and across all situations" on a scale of 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*). These instructions measure a more stable or trait-like version of negative affectivity, which is desirable when NA is being used as an individual differences covariate. The NA subscale of the PANAS has previously been shown to have good internal consistency, as demonstrated by a Cronbach's Alpha of .87 for the "general" trait-based instructions, and good across-time stability, as demonstrated by an 8-week test-retest reliability of .71 (Watson et al.,

1988). In the present study, the internal consistency for trait negative affectivity was good (α = .88).

Job Satisfaction

To measure job satisfaction, I used Spector's (1985; 1994) 36-item Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Participants were instructed to "indicate the response that comes closest to reflecting your opinion on the following questions" with regard to their current job, on a Likert-type scale from 1 (*Disagree very much*) to 6 (*Agree very much*). Example items include "I like the people I work with," "I sometimes feel my job is meaningless" (reverse-coded), and "My supervisor is unfair to me" (reverse-coded). Spector (1985) found that the JSS demonstrated good reliability with an internal-consistency coefficient of .91. In the present study, the internal consistency was excellent (α = .94).

Perceived Social Worth

To measure perceived social worth, I used three items, two from Grant (2008) and one I developed. The two items Grant (2008) used to measure Perceived Social Worth were "I feel that others appreciate my work" and "I feel that other people value my contributions at work," which he adapted from Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, and Rhoades (2002). In addition to these two items, I developed an additional item "The effort I put forth at work is appreciated by others." Participants were instructed to indicate to what extent they agreed with each item on a Likert-type scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). In the present study, the internal consistency was excellent (α = .94).

Burnout

To measure burnout, one of the dependent variables in my study, I used the 14-item Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM) which has three subscales designed to measure the depletion of energetic coping resources: physical fatigue (6 items), emotional exhaustion (3 items), and cognitive weariness (5 items). An example item for the physical fatigue subscale includes "I feel physically drained," for emotional exhaustion includes "I feel I am not capable of emotionally investing in others," and for cognitive weariness includes "I have difficulty thinking about complex things." Participants were asked to indicate how often they have felt each of these feelings at work in the past 30 days on a scale from 1 (*Never or almost never*) to 7 (*Always or almost always*). The SMBM has previously been found to be reliable and valid. Shirom and Melamed (2006) found that the SMBM had superior construct validity, as indicated by a better fitting confirmatory factor structure (factorial validity) and stronger relationships for the interactive effects of job demands and job control (predictive validity), than the Maslach Burnout Inventory–General Survey (MBI-GS). Additionally, the SMBM has shown excellent internal consistency with a Cronbach's Alpha of .92 for the combined scale, and adequate test-retest reliability, with a 3- to 5-year across-time stability correlation of .52 (Shirom et al., 2006). In the present study, the internal consistency for the combined scale was excellent (α = .94).

Turnover Intentions

To measure turnover intentions, I used Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham's (1999) four-item measure of Turnover Intentions developed to measure employees' thoughts about leaving, job search intentions, and future plans. Participants were instructed to

indicate their agreement with each statement with regard to their current job on a Likert-type scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). Example items include "I am thinking about leaving this organization" and "I am planning to look for a new job." In Kelloway et al.'s (1999) sample, the internal consistency was .92. In the present study, the internal consistency was excellent (α = .91).

Results

To empirically investigate whether trait negative affectivity and generalized self-efficacy should be used as covariates when examining reports of incivility, an intercorrelation matrix was calculated between negative affectivity and generalized self-efficacy and the following variables: incivility, internal, external, relational, and discrimination attributions, job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, and turnover intentions. Table 1 reports the means, standard deviations, and correlation matrix between all study variables.

Based on the significant correlations between generalized self-efficacy, negative affect, and incivility reported in Table 1, negative affect and generalized self-efficacy were included as covariates for Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3, which all used incivility as an outcome. Analogously, negative affect and generalized self-efficacy were included as covariates for research question 1 because they were significantly correlated to the predictor variable, incivility, and although not correlated to each of the outcome variables, it was theoretically significant to include them as covariates.

Hypotheses 1 and 2

To test hypotheses 1 and 2, that individuals who were members of one or more marginalized groups would experience more incivility than individuals who were not a members of a marginalized group, a 3 (Ethnic Group; White, Asian, Native American) X 2 (Gender; Male, Female) two-way Analysis of Variance (ANCOVA) on frequency of uncivil events experienced was conducted, controlling for negative affectivity and generalized self-efficacy. Table 3 reports the mean incivility scores, standard deviations, and sample sizes for each of the groups.

The results for the between-persons two-way ANCOVA indicated there was no significant main effect for either gender (F (1, 200) = .36, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .002$; $m(sd)_{female} = 2.45$ (.62), $m(sd)_{male} = 2.48$ (.66)) or race (F (2, 200) = .33, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .003$; $m(sd)_{Asian} = 2.53$ (.68), $m(sd)_{White} = 2.44$ (.58), $m(sd)_{Native\ American} = 2.46$ (.68)) on incivility. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported; there were no differences in the amount of incivility reported based on participants' gender and race.

In addition, the interactive effect of gender and race on incivility for the two-way between-persons ANCOVA was also not significant (F (2, 200) = 1.80, $p = .17$, $\eta^2 = .018$; see Table 3 for mean incivility scores, standard deviations, and sample sizes for each of the subgroups). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported; there were no interactive effects of gender and race on incivility.

Hypothesis 3

To test hypothesis 3, which explored whether incivility is positively related to increased burnout and turnover intentions, and negatively related to decreased job satisfaction and perceived social worth, partial correlations were calculated for incivility

with each of the outcome variables, using negative affect and generalized self-efficacy as control variables. Table 2 reports the means, standard deviations, and correlation matrix after controlling for negative affect and generalized self-efficacy.

Partial correlations indicated that incivility was negatively and significantly related to job satisfaction (r = - .59, p < .01), and perceived social worth (r = - .48, p < .01). Additionally, incivility was positively and significantly related to burnout (r = .31, p < .01), and turnover intentions (r = .42, p < .01). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported; incivility was significantly and detrimentally related to relevant work attitudes in the hypothesized directions, even after controlling for negative affect and generalized self-efficacy.

Research Question 1

To test research question 1, which asked whether attributions mediated the effect of incivility on outcomes, the regression coefficients were calculated for each of the paths shown in Figure 1, controlling for generalized self-efficacy and negative affect, calculating the indirect effect, and Sobel's *z*-tests were used to determine the significance of each indirect effect.

The total effect (path *c* in Figure 1) was calculated by regressing incivility onto each of the four work outcomes (job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, turnover intentions), after controlling for relevant covariates, to demonstrate that the predictor variable (X) predicted the outcome variable (Y). Regression path coefficient *a* was calculated by regressing incivility onto each of the four mediators (e.g., internal, external, relational, discrimination attributions) after controlling for covariates to show that the IV predicted each mediator. Regression path coefficient *b* was calculated by

regressing each mediator (e.g., internal, external, relational, discrimination attributions) onto each of the four work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, turnover intentions), to determine whether the mediator variable (M) was still significantly correlated to Y, after controlling for the effect of covariates and incivility on the work outcome. Table 6 shows the results of the hierarchical regression analyses conducted on each attribution used to calculate path *a*, while Table 7 shows the results of the hierarchical regression analyses conducted on each work outcome used to calculate path *b* and path *c*.

As shown in Table 6, incivility significantly predicted each attribution variable, (path *a* in Figure 1) which is an essential first step to establishing mediation. However, each mediator did not significantly predict each job outcome after including As Further regression results showed that were significant, another precursor to conducting mediation analyses.

After calculating each of the paths in Figure 1, eleven Sobel's Tests were conducted using Winnifred's Mediation Program (WIMP), a series of excel equations (Figure 2 reports the equation for the Sobel test) based on Preacher and Leonardelli's interactive Sobel test calculator. Sobel's *z* tests were used to determine whether the associations between incivility and job outcomes were significantly reduced when including the indirect effect of incivility through the each attribution. To determine whether indirect effect was significant, and mediation supported, critical values recommended by MacKinnon et al. (2002) were used. Each indirect effect was calculated in excel by multiplying path *a* by path *b*, and the direct effect was calculated by subtracting the indirect effect from the total effect. Table 8 reports the results of

these calculations, each path in the causal steps model of mediation, the Sobel's z-value, and the effect size of the indirect effect for each mediation model.

Specifically, Sobel's Tests indicated that the association between incivility and job satisfaction was significantly mediated by external (Sobel's z = - 2.80, p <. 01), relational (Sobel's z = - 3.79, p < .01), and discrimination attributions (Sobel's z = - 2.98, p < .01), while internal attributions were not a significant mediator of the relationship (Sobel's z = - 1.38, p = .17). The association between incivility and perceived social worth was significantly mediated by external (Sobel's z = - 2.04, p <. 01), relational (Sobel's z = - 3.77, p <. 01), and discrimination attributions (Sobel's z = - 3.03, p <. 01). No Sobel's test was conducted for the indirect effect through internal attributions on perceived social worth because path b was not significant (b = -.02, p = .71). The association between incivility and burnout was significantly mediated by relational attributions (Sobel's z = 3.59, p <. 01) and discrimination attributions (Sobel's z = 2.43, p <. 05), but was not significantly mediated by internal (Sobel's z = 1.70, p = .09) or external attributions (Sobel's z = 1.76, p = .08), although they appeared to be approaching statistical significance. Sobel's tests for the indirect effect of incivility on turnover intentions through any type of attribution were not calculated because none of the proposed mediators significantly predicted turnover intentions.

Thus, there were mixed findings for research question 2 on the mediating role of attributions for the incivility-job outcomes relationship. Specifically, relational and discrimination attributions significantly mediated the relationship between incivility and three outcomes: job satisfaction, perceived social worth, and burnout. External attributions significantly mediated the relationship between incivility and one outcome:

job satisfaction, and internal attributions did not significantly mediate any of the relationships studied. Further, no Sobel's tests were conducted for turnover intentions, because none of the attributions significantly turnover intentions.

Research Question 2

To test research question 2, which explored the relative frequency of each incivility attribution as well as how incivility attributions are related to each other, first, the means, standard deviations, and correlations between each of the attributions were computed (as reported in Table 1). Then, a one-way within-person ANOVA on the four types of attributions was conducted to determine if people endorsed the different types of attributions at different rates.

Table 5 reports the results of the within-person repeated measures ANOVA I conducted on the four types of attributions. Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity (equivalent variances between the six pairwise differences) had been violated (X^2 (5) = 181.45, p <.001), therefore degrees of freedom for the one-way within-person ANOVA were corrected using Huynh-Feldt estimates of sphericity (ε = .77; Huynh & Feldt, 1976). The Huynh-Feldt corrected results showed that there was a significant effect of type of attribution on the level of attribution reported (F (2.30, 480.75) = 62.97, p < .001, η^2 = .232). Post-hoc pairwise comparisons, using Bonferroni-adjusted confidence intervals due to the increased Type I error rate for multiple comparisons, indicated that there were significant (p < .001) differences between attributions. Internal attributions (M =1.94, SE = .06) and external attributions (M = 1.96, SD = .07) were significantly more likely to be endorsed than relational attributions (M = 1.44, SE = .05) or discrimination attributions (M = 1.37, SD = .05).

However, there were no significant differences between internal and external attributions (D = - .02) or between relational and discrimination attributions (D = - .07).

Furthermore, the most highly related attributions were relational and discrimination attributions, which were very strongly correlated (r = .84, p < .01). The most weakly correlated attributions were internal and discrimination attributions (r = .18, p < .01). The intercorrelations among the other attributions were also small to medium in size, ranging from r = .38, p < .01 between external and discrimination attributions to r = .18, p < .01 between relational and external attributions.

Discussion

The current study did not find support for the theory of selective incivility (Cortina et al., 2008), which proposed that members of disadvantaged groups, such as women and ethnic minorities, may experience more uncivil behaviors at work due to unconscious biases held by their coworkers (Hypothesis 1). There were no differences in frequency of incivility experienced by males and females, or between Asian, Native American, or White alumni in our sample. Similarly, for Hypothesis 2, the double jeopardy hypothesis (Beal, 1970) and theories of intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1991) were not supported, which proposed that individuals of two or more marginalized identities are subjected to more negative, or uncivil, treatment than are individuals of single marginalized identities and individuals without marginalized identities. There were no differences in the amount of incivility reported among Asian males, Asian females, Native American males, Native American females, White males, or White females. Although some studies have found differences in the reported frequencies of incivility between majority and minority ethnic groups (Cortina et al., 2013), and men

and women (Cortina et al., 2013; Sliter et al, 2015), findings have been equivocal. Of note, Cortina et al. (2001) found that only gender and job position were significant predictors of incivility and that ethnicity, marital status, age, and representation were not significant predictors of incivility.

One potential reason no relationship between incivility and marginalized group membership was found may be because the sample consisted of young, recent college graduates who did not have much work experience, while Cortina and colleagues' research surveyed large groups of older, more-experienced employees with a variety of education levels. Also, it is possible that had Native Americans and Asian Americans been aggregated into one group called "ethnic minorities" (n = 107) and compared to Whites, or "ethnic majorities" (n = 99), the statistical power of the ANOVA to detect any significant group differences would have increased due to a larger and more comparable sample size group size. However, I chose not to test the hypothesis in this way because I did not want to obscure any potential differences between Asian Americans and Native Americans by combining them into one group.

Previous research had suggested that we include generalized self-efficacy and negative affect as covariates in our study to control for any potential biasing influences negative self-beliefs might have on peoples' reports of negative events and their attributions regarding their causes. Generalized self-efficacy and negative affect were both related to the independent variable (incivility) and some of the dependent variables in this study (both: job satisfaction, burnout; generalized self-efficacy: perceived social worth), but neither variable was significantly correlated with the dependent variable turnover intentions or with any of the mediators (type of attributions) studied. This

pattern of relationships, as evidenced in Table 1, suggests that higher generalized self-efficacy was associated with more beneficial outcomes, while negative affectivity was associated with more harmful outcomes in my sample. Specifically, my research finding that negative affect is correlated with incivility, $r = .22$, $p < .01$, $n = 196$, such that higher negative affect is related to more reports of uncivil events experienced, almost exactly mirrors the meta-analytic relationship reported between incivility and negative affect (*rho* = .25) by Bowling and Beehr (2006). Further, as seen in Table 6, negative affect did not significantly predict any of the attributions when both incivility and generalized self-efficacy were also included as a predictors, however it was significant for two of the attributions (relational and discrimination) when incivility was excluded as a predictor. Conversely, generalized self-efficacy did not significantly predict any of the attributions when incivility was excluded as a predictor in addition to negative affect, however it turned significant for three of the foru attributions (external, relational, and discrimination) .

Although positive affect was not included as a covariate in the current study (due to a lack of evidence about its relationships with key study variables), it was measured in the larger, initial study. Post-hoc, exploratory analyses showed that the relationship between positive affect and incivility was approaching significance ($r = -.14$, $p = .056$, $n = 198$), such that higher positive affect was weakly correlated with reporting fewer uncivil events experienced in the past year. This exploratory finding counters Sliter et al.'s (2015) unusual finding that positive affect was significantly correlated to more frequent reports of uncivil events ($r = .13$, $p < .01$, $n = 708$). This finding that positive affect was related to noticing and reporting more negative events

by Sliter et al. (2015) was uncommon and while it is the same magnitude as my finding, it is in the opposite direction. It is possible that since they were studying undergraduates' perceptions of incivility in a vignette, whereas my study was asking how often they actually experienced different uncivil behaviors, that recognition and perception of an uncivil event in a lab setting functions differently than recognition, perception, storage, and retrieval of uncivil events in a field setting, and that there are more intervening factors that inhibit people from reporting that they themselves have experienced incivility (c.f., discounting hypothesis, Crocker & Major, 1980; minimization of personal discrimination hypothesis, Taylor et al., 1990).

Further, while I had thought that generalized self-efficacy would be related to the types of attributions people endorsed, none of those correlations were significant (*r*s = -.02 to .03), suggesting that the participants' general view of themselves and their competency did not bias the attributions they made (e.g., feeling ineffective was not related to blaming yourself more for workplace mistreatment), contrary to the self-serving bias hypothesis proposed by Bradley in 1978, and previous research which had found that people with low generalized self-efficacy were more likely to internalize failures or negative feedback (Sechrist et al., 2004; Silver et al, 1995). Again, it is possible that since we measured incivility and attributions using a cross-sectional design in a field-setting, whereas most other researchers used a quasi-experimental design in a lab setting, that there are significant differences between perceiving and reporting incivility in a vignette, versus perceiving, storing, retrieving, and labeling uncivil behavior in one's own life from the course of the past year.

For Hypothesis 3, incivility was significantly and adversely related to job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, and turnover intentions, as hypothesized (see Table 1), even after controlling for generalized self-efficacy and negative affect which were significantly correlated with both incivility and several of the work outcomes (see Table 2). The fact that these theoretically suggested covariates did not meaningfully change the strength, direction, or significance of these relationships, suggests that the relationship between incivility and negative work outcomes is not explained by pre-existing personality traits that predispose people to notice, interpret, or be more affected by acts of uncivil behavior. Further, confirming a direct relationship between incivility and work outcomes was a necessary first step before we could attempt to establish any potential mediating relationships via type of attribution in Research Question 1.

For Research Question 1, there was a significant indirect effect of incivility on job satisfaction via external, relational, and discrimination attributions, a significant indirect effect of incivility on perceived social worth via discrimination attributions, a significant indirect effect of incivility on burnout via relational attributions, and no significant indirect effects of incivility on turnover intentions via any of the attributions, after controlling for relevant covariates.

Based on these results, internal attributions are not a significant mediator of the incivility-work outcomes relationship for job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, or turnover intentions. This suggests that if individuals conclude that their personal characteristics are the cause of incivility there is little indirect effect on job-

related outcomes, although it is possible that other detrimental results may be affected, such as negative health outcomes.

Based on the Sobel's tests, the greatest impact of incivility on negative job outcomes occurs via relational and discrimination attributions. Thus, employees who conclude that discriminatory reasons or relational conflict are the reason behind mistreatment transmit the impact of incivility to affective job outcomes (job satisfaction, perceived social worth, and burnout) indirectly via these attributions. While minimizing uncivil treatment is always a preferable intervention, in cases where that is not feasible, it may be helpful to make employees aware that a variety of causes of incivility may exist beyond relational conflict and discrimination.

Further, results failed to show any significant mediation by any of the attributions for the relationship between incivility and turnover intentions. Thus, the relationship between incivility and turnover intentions was not explained by how someone interpreted the cause of the incivility. One reason for this might be because turnover intentions are a more distal work outcome compared to the other outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout). This lack of mediation suggests that employees' intentions to quit are a more complex process that is affected by factors beyond just affective or attributional ones, such as cognitive, behavioral, financial, and consequential factors, among other considerations.

For Research Question 2, on average within-people, when making attributions regarding their experiences of incivility, individuals endorsed internal and external attributions more strongly than relational and discrimination attributions. They endorsed external attributions and internal attributions at equivalent levels, and they endorsed

relational attributions and discrimination attributions at equivalent levels (See Table 5). Types of attributions were differentially related to each other such that discrimination and relational attributions were very highly associated (r = .84), to the point of potentially representing the same construct. This should be explored in future research. In addition, internal and external attributions were associated at r = .44. This is a noteworthy finding because previously it was thought that internal and external attributions were different ends of the same concept and that you would not simultaneously blame yourself for the negative interpersonal treatment (internal attribution) and blame the other person for the negative interpersonal treatment (external attribution; Eberly et al., 2011).

Despite not making a formal hypothesis, descriptive statistics confirmed the expectation that discrimination attributions would be the least endorsed attribution due to the ambiguity of the mistreatment and the difficulty of assigning blame, or determining causation, as described by Kelley (1967) in his description of the principles of covariation and Barrett and Swim (1998) in their application of signal detection theory to cognitive appraisals of discrimination. However, it is also possible that attributions to discrimination were the least endorsed not because of people's difficulty with attributing negative outcomes to discrimination (Ruggiero & Taylor, 1997; Taylor et al., 1990), but because the available information indicated to the target that discrimination was not occurring. Further, these results show the importance of including more than just internal and external attributions in studies of people's causal attributions. Moreover, although also not an explicit hypothesis of this study,

correlations showed that levels of incivility were also significantly and positively correlated with higher endorsement of all four attributions.

Thus, this study answers Eberly et al.'s (2011) call for additional research regarding the intercorrelations, interrelationships, and observed strength and direction of those relationships among different types of attributions. However, future researchers should conduct more advanced statistical analyses on attributions using the multiple mediation approach recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2008) with nonparametric bootstrapping procedures (c.f., Bunk & Magley, 2013), which would allow them to simultaneously test whether internal, external, personal, or discrimination attributions mediate a relationship with multiple dependent variables.

Limitations

Beyond the specific limitations listed when discussing the specific results from this study, there are several potential general limitations that should be considered when evaluating the results of this research study.

First, all of the measures used in this study were collected using self-report data, so there is the possibility that the relationships evidenced here may be influenced due to common method variance. However, as discussed previously in the methods section, there are various reasons why this monomethod bias may not be as detrimental to study findings as is widely believed (Spector, 2006).

Second, this data is primarily cross-sectional, so it cannot definitively support any causal directions of the relationships found. For example, it is possible that the outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, perceived social worth, burnout, turnover intentions) lead people to either discount, magnify, or better remember negative

experiences at work, rather than negative experiences at work leading people to feel less satisfied, less important, more exhausted, and less likely to remain with their organization.

Third, the findings may not be generalizable due to the sample from which they were derived. The sample consisted of very young adults, who were freshly-graduated, and new to working. Furthermore, they were recruited from a non-representative sample of undergraduate students who had participated in a previous study based on the race/ethnicity that they reported to the university. Therefore, the findings from this study may be limited to this specific group of people.

Fourth, the current study asked participants to estimate how frequently they experienced various uncivil events during the past year, instead of asking them to recall a specific time when someone acted uncivilly to them and then having them make attributions regarding the cause of the uncivil behavior. Therefore, it is possible that the results are biased due to including peoples' attributions for events that they reported not happening very frequently because they might not have been able to not recall the specifics of the situation or might not have had a specific instance in mind when responding "once or twice per year" on the measure of incivility. Further, because participants were not asked about a singular, specific event of uncivil behavior they experienced while working, the measure of attributions may be a more general measure of how they typically attribute negative experiences at work. This lack of specificity in my measurement model may have caused me to underestimate the true causal relationships between incivility, attributions, and work attitudes, if studied for a singular event of incivility.

Moreover, the majority of respondents included in these correlational, regression analyses reported infrequent incivility and did not strongly agree with the majority of the attribution statements. For example, the majority of respondents (55%) reported experiencing incivility somewhere between "once or twice a year" and "once or twice per month" (between response options two and three), 25% of my sample reported experiencing incivility on average "once or twice a year" or less (the second lowest response option available, on a scale from 1 (never) – 6 (several times per day)), and slightly fewer than 20% of people reported experiencing incivility "once or twice per month" or more (the midpoint of the scale; response option three and above). Similarly, the majority of participants scored below the midpoint on the various measures of attributions. Therefore, the description of the relationships among incivility, attributions, and work outcomes in this study may be affected by the positive skew of these variables.

Practical Implications

Despite the aforementioned limitations, several implications may be drawn from the results of this study. First, selective incivility may not be as widespread as previously thought, so organizations should investigate the presence of differential treatment or experiences with uncivil behaviors among employees, and to whom they are occurring, rather than assuming that employees and/or members of marginalized groups are experiencing more uncivil behaviors than other groups.

Second, given the consistent negative impact that experiencing incivility has on employees, organizations would be wise to consider ways of reducing the negative impact of the seemingly common occurrence of uncivil behavior at work. One way they

could do this is by creating a formal code of conduct that makes unstated workplace norms (e.g., make more coffee if you drink the last 1-2 cups of coffee, do not make informal plans at work unless it involves everyone) explicit and by also posting them in relevant areas that the uncivil behaviors may occur the most frequently (or online), and communicating explicit expectations regarding civil behavior to employees, so it is clear when a workplace norm is violated (Leiter, Laschinger, Day, & Gilin Oore, 2011).

Porath and Pearson (2010; 2013) offer several other practical tactics for managing incivility in an organization that can be used by both leaders and organizations. To curb incivility, Porath and Pearson (2010; 2013) suggest having leaders model good behavior, ask for feedback from subordinates and coworkers, be mindful of their behaviors, and pay attention to their progress. Organizations could also hire employees for their civility (or screen applicants out based on their incivility), teach civility to employees through role-playing or videos, create group norms or expectations of polite, respectful behavior, reward employees for their good behavior, penalize employees for their bad behavior, and conduct post-departure interviews around six months after employees leave.

Third, attributions matter; although internal attributions do not explain the effects of incivility on outcomes, external, relational and discrimination attributions have the strongest indirect effect of transmitting incivility on outcomes. Therefore, organizations should take care to make employees aware that there are other possible causes of incivility outside of interpersonal conflict or prejudiced beliefs; specifically, training should inform employees that the behavior may not have been intentional. Indeed, changing causal attributions has been shown to positively alter the effects of

occupational stress as shown by research on Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT; Hoffman, Asnaani, Vonk, Sawyer, & Fang, 2012). In fact, in a meta-analysis on the efficacy of various job stress management interventions, Kim (2007) found that CBT, an individual worker-focused intervention, was more effective than other interventions such as relaxation techniques, exercise, or organization-focused therapies, in reducing psycho-social outcomes in employees. Further, Wu, Zhang, Chiu, Kwan and He (2014) found that the tendency to assign blame to others and to perceive behavior as hostile, even when it may not be, was related to increased interpersonal deviance (a counterproductive work behavior) after experiencing incivility. Additionally, Wu, Zhang, Chiu, Kwan and He (2014) found that the relationship between incivility and interpersonal deviance was moderated by attribution style and reciprocity decision making. Specifically, they found that the combination of a hostile attribution bias (the tendency to assign blame to others and perceive behavior as hostile even when it may not be) and endorsement of negative reciprocity beliefs (the belief that mistreatment deserves mistreatment in-kind) resulted in the strongest relationship between incivility and interpersonal deviance. Based on their findings, Wu et al. (2014) suggested that organizations should provide training to increase employees' "understanding that not all uncivil behaviors are intentional" in an attempt to decrease the frequency of hostile attributions and prevent the spiraling effects of incivility that Andersson and Pearson (1999) described.

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Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Response Scale, Reliabilities, and Correlations among Study Variables

		M (SD)	Range	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Incivility	2.47 (0.64)	1-6	(.91)										
2	Internal Attributions	1.94 (0.89)	1-5	.18**	(.81)									
3	External Attributions	1.96 (0.97)	1-5	.43**	.44**	(.88)								
4	Relational Attributions	1.44 (0.70)	1-5	.54**	.42**	.62**	(.89)							
5	Discrimination Attribution	1.37 (0.70)	1-5	.53**	.38**	.52**	.84**	(.95)						
6	Job Satisfaction	4.32 (0.79)	1-6	-.62**	-.20**	-.41**	-.52**	-.47**	(.94)					
7	Perceived Social Worth	4.10 (0.72)	1-5	-.51**	-.10	-.31**	-.46**	-.42**	.61**	(.94)				
8	Burnout	2.96 (1.12)	1-7	.36**	.23**	.26**	.40**	.33**	-.52**	-.46**	(.94)			
9	Turnover Intentions	2.55 (1.23)	1-5	.40**	.07	.24**	.28**	.28**	-.58**	-.34**	.38**	(.91)		
10	Generalized Self-Efficacy	3.16 (1.07)	1-4	-.27**	.03	.03	.00	-.02	.16*	.22**	-.16*	.05	(.87)	
11	Negative Affect	3.34 (0.39)	1-5	.22**	.10	.10	.13	.13	-.20**	-.11	.29**	.08	-.34**	(.88)
12	Gender	1.60 (0.49)	1-2	-.02	-.18*	.06	-.09	-.12	.04	-.02	-.06	-.09	-.13	.04

Note. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients are listed in parentheses along the diagonal, where appropriate. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female. Ns range from 196 to 210 due to pairwise deletion. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 2

Partial Correlations among Study Variables After Controlling for Negative Affect and Generalized Self-Efficacy

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Incivility	—							
2	Internal Attributions	0.19**	—						
3	External Attributions	0.45**	0.43**	—					
4	Relational Attributions	0.56**	0.41**	0.61**	—				
5	Discrimination Attributions	0.54**	0.37**	0.51**	0.84**	—			
6	Job Satisfaction	-0.59**	-0.19**	-0.41**	-0.52**	-0.47**	—		
7	Perceived Social Worth	-0.48**	-0.10	-0.33**	-0.47**	-0.42**	0.60**	—	
8	Burnout	0.31**	0.22**	0.25**	0.39**	0.32**	-0.49**	-0.45**	—
9	Turnover Intentions	0.42**	0.05*	0.23**	0.27**	0.27**	-0.60**	-0.36**	0.39**

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01. N = 194

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Amount of Incivility Reported by Gender and Race/Ethnicity Subgroups

	m	*sd*	*n*
Gender			
Males	2.48 $_a$	0.66	83
Females	2.45 $_a$	0.62	123
Race/Ethnicity			
Asians	2.53 $_a$	0.68	41
Native Americans	2.46 $_a$	0.68	66
Whites	2.44 $_a$	0.58	99
Race/Ethnicity and Gender			
Asian Males	2.69 $_a$	0.75	19
Native American Females	2.53 $_a$	0.74	39
White Males	2.47 $_a$	0.65	37
White Females	2.43 $_a$	0.54	62
Asian Females	2.39 $_a$	0.59	22
Native American Males	2.35 $_a$	0.58	27

Note. Within each category, variables with the same letter subscript ($_a$) are not significantly different from each other. Subgroups are listed in descending order of incivility. *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation, *n* = sample size for each subgroup. N = 206.

Table 4

Between-Persons ANCOVA Examining Effects of Gender and Race/Ethnicity on Amount of Incivility Reported Controlling for General Self-efficacy and Negative Affect

	SS	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	η^2
Corrected Model	1.67	5	.33	.84	.52	.020
Intercept	1082.80	1	1082.80	2707.41**	.00	.93
Gender	.14	1	.14	.36	.55	.00
Race/Ethnicity	.26	2	.13	.33	.72	.00
Gender*Race Interaction	1.44	2	.72	1.80	.17	.02
Error	79.99	200	.40			
Total	1333.58	206				

Note. Type III Sum of Squares was used to calculate the F-ratios. *SS* = Sum of the Squares (of the Mean Deviation Scores), *df* = degrees of freedom, *MS* = Mean Square, *F* = F-ratio, *p* = significance level, η2 = partial eta squared. R^2 = .020, adjusted R^2 = -.004. *N* = 206. *p < .05, **p < .01

Table 5

Within-Person Repeated Measures ANOVA on Type and Level of Attribution Endorsed

	Internal *M(SD)*	External *M(SD)*	Relational *M(SD)*	Discrimination *M(SD)*	*df*	*MS*	*F* (3, 207)	*p*	η^2	*Bonferonni*
Corrected Model					3		47.56**	0.001	0.408	
Intercept					1	2365.95	1390.26**	0.001	0.869	
Attributions	1.94_{a} (0.89)	1.96_{a} (0.97)	1.44_{b} (0.70)	1.37_{b} (0.70)	2.3	27.44	62.97**	0.001	0.230	1, 2 > 3, 4
Error Attributions					480.75	0.44				
Total Error					209					

Note. Variables with the same letter subscripts ($_{a,b}$) are not significantly different from each other. Huynh-Feldt correction was used to correct the degrees of freedom. *Wilk's Lambda* = .592 was used to calculate the values for the corrected model. *df* = degrees of freedom, *MS* = Mean Square, *F* = F-ratio, *p* = significance level, η^2 = partial eta squared. *N* = 210. *p < .05, **p < .01

Table 6

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Model Analyses Examining the Effect of Incivility (X) on Attributions (M) After Controlling for Generalized Self-Efficacy and Negative Affect (Calculating path 'a' for mediation models)

Model	Outcome Variable (M)																					
	Internal						External						Relational						Discrimination					
	B	*(SE)*	β	*t*	*p*	R^2	*B*	*(SE)*	β	*t*	*p*	R^2	*B*	*(SE)*	β	*t*	*p*	R^2	*B*	*(SE)*	β	*t*	*p*	R^2
Step 1						.012						.013						.020						.017
GSE	.11	(.17)	.05	0.68	.50		.15	(.19)	.06	0.81	.42		.11	(.14)	.06	0.77	.44		.06	(.14)	.03	0.45	.66	
NA	.09	(.06)	.12	1.51	.13		.11	(.07)	.12	1.58	.12		.10	(.05)	.15	1.98	.05		*.09*	*(.05)*	*.14*	*1.81*	*.07*	
Step 2						.033						**.200**						**.307**						**.297**
GSE	.19	(.17)	.09	1.13	.26		.42	(.18)	.17	2.37	.02		**.34**	**(.12)**	**.19**	**2.89**	**.00**		**.29**	**(.12)**	**.16**	**2.47**	**.01**	
NA	.08	(.06)	.09	1.22	.22		.05	(.06)	.06	0.80	.43		.05	(.04)	.07	1.07	.28		.04	(.04)	.06	0.89	.37	
Incivility (*a*)	.21	(.10)	.16	2.08	.04		**.70**	**(.10)**	**.45**	**6.73**	**.00**		**.63**	**(.07)**	**.56**	**8.97**	**.00**		**.62**	**(.07)**	**.56**	**8.79**	**.00**	

Note. GSE = Generalized self-efficacy. NA = Negative Affectivity. (*a*) = the effect of incivility on each attribution controlling for GSE and NA. B = unstandardized regression coefficient. *SE* = standard error. β = standardized regression coefficient. *t* = test that the regression coefficient is different from zero, *p* = the probability of obtaining a regression coefficient equal to or more extreme than the one shown, if the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between each predictor variable and outcome variable were true. Due to rounding, *p*-values < .005 are shown as *p* =.00. *Italicized*: $p < .10$, Underlined: $p < .05$, **Bold**: $p < .01$.

Table 7

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Model Analyses Examining the Mediating Effect of Attributions (M) on Incivility (X)-Work Outcome (Y) Relationship Controlling for Generalized Self-Efficacy and Negative Affect (Calculating path 'b' for mediation models)

Model	Outcome Variables (Y)																			
	Job Satisfaction					Perceived Social Worth					Burnout					Turnover Intentions				
	B (SE)	β	*t*	*p*	R^2	*B (SE)*	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*B (SE)*	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*B (SE)*	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Step 1					**.047**					**.050**					**.087**					.012
General Self-Efficacy	.19 (.15)	.09	1.22	.23		**.39 (.14)**	**.21**	**2.78**	**.01**		-.18 (.21)	-.06	-0.83	.41		.25 (.24)	.08	1.04	.30	
Negative Affect	-.13 (.06)	-.17	-2.27	.02		-.03 (.05)	-.04	-0.53	.60		**.29 (.08)**	**.27**	**3.68**	**.00**		.12 (.09)	.11	1.38	.17	
Step 2					**.395**					**.264**					**.178**					**.203**
General Self-Efficacy	-.11 (.13)	-.05	-0.87	.39		.18 (.13)	.09	1.40	.16		.04 (.21)	.01	0.19	.85		**.59 (.22)**	**.19**	**2.65**	**.01**	
Negative Affect	-.06 (.05)	-.08	-1.34	.18		.02 (.05)	.03	0.45	.65		**.24 (.08)**	**.22**	**3.19**	**.00**		.05 (.08)	.04	0.57	.57	
Incivility (*c*)	**-.79 (.08)**	**-.62**	**-10.55**	**.00**		**-.56 (.08)**	**-.49**	**-7.52**	**.00**		**.58 (.12)**	**.32**	**4.65**	**.00**		**.91 (.13)**	**.46**	**6.83**	**.00**	
Step 3					**.405**					**.265**					**.213**					.203
General Self-Efficacy	-.09 (.13)	-.04	-0.72	.47		.18 (.13)	.10	1.42	.16		-.01 (.21)	.00	-0.05	.96		**.59 (.23)**	**.19**	**2.63**	**.01**	
Negative Affect	-.05 (.05)	-.07	-1.18	.24		.02 (.05)	.03	0.48	.63		**.22 (.07)**	**.21**	**2.98**	**.00**		.05 (.08)	.04	0.57	.57	
Incivility	**-.77 (.08)**	**-.60**	**-10.23**	**.00**		**-.56 (.08)**	**-.48**	**-7.37**	**.00**		**.52 (.12)**	**.29**	**4.26**	**.00**		**.91 (.14)**	**.46**	**6.74**	**.00**	
Internal Attributions (*b*)	*-.10 (.05)*	*-.11*	*-1.87*	*.06*		-.02 (.05)	-.02	-0.38	.71		**.25 (.09)**	**.19**	**2.93**	**.00**		.00 (.09)	.00	-0.02	.99	
Step 3					**.423**					**.281**					**.192**					.207
General Self-Efficacy	-.04 (.13)	-.02	-0.35	.73		*.22 (.13)*	*.12*	*1.75*	*.08*		-.03 (.21)	-.01	-0.12	.90		.56 (.23)	.17	2.45	.02	
Negative Affect	-.05 (.04)	-.07	-1.19	.24		.03 (.05)	.04	0.58	.56		**.23 (.07)**	**.22**	**3.10**	**.00**		.04 (.08)	.04	0.52	.61	
Incivility	**-.68 (.08)**	**-.53**	**-8.36**	**.00**		**-.49 (.08)**	**-.42**	**-5.91**	**.00**		**.47 (.14)**	**.26**	**3.42**	**.00**		**.84 (.15)**	**.43**	**5.73**	**.00**	
External Attributions (*b*)	**-.16 (.05)**	**-.19**	**-3.10**	**.00**		-.11 (.05)	-.15	-2.13	.03		*.16 (.09)*	*.13*	*1.83*	*.07*		.09 (.09)	.07	0.96	.34	

Note. (*c*) = the total effect of incivility on each job outcome controlling for GSE and NA. (*b*) = the effect of each attribution on each job outcome controlling for the effects of X, GSE, and NA on Y. B = unstandardized regression coefficient. *SE* = standard error. β = standardized regression coefficient. *t* = test that the regression coefficient is different from zero, *p* = the probability of obtaining a regression coefficient equal to or more extreme than the one shown, if the null hypothesis were true. Due to rounding, *p*-values < .005 are shown as *p* =.00. *Italicized*: $p < .10$, Underlined: $p < .05$, **Bold**: $p < .01$.

Table 7 cont'd

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Model Analyses Examining the Mediating Effect of Attributions (M) on Incivility (X)-Work Outcome (Y) Relationship Controlling for Generalized Self-Efficacy and Negative Affect (Calculating path 'b' for mediation models)

Model	Outcome Variables (Y)																			
	Job Satisfaction					Perceived Social Worth					Burnout					Turnover Intentions				
	B (SE)	β	*t*	*p*	R^2	*B (SE)*	β	*t*	*p*	R^2	*B (SE)*	β	*t*	*p*	R^2	*B (SE)*	β	*t*	*p*	R^2
Step 3					**.446**					**.325**					**.239**					.206
General Self-Efficacy	.00 (.12)	.00	-0.03	.98		.28 (.12)	.15	2.27	.02		-.12 (.21)	-.04	-0.60	.55		.56 (.23)	.17	2.43	.02	
Negative Affect	-.05 (.04)	-.06	-1.07	.29		.04 (.04)	.05	0.79	.43		**.22 (.07)**	**.20**	**2.99**	**.00**		.04 (.08)	.04	0.51	.61	
Incivility	**-.60 (.09)**	**-.47**	**-6.96**	**.00**		**-.37 (.09)**	**-.32**	**-4.32**	**.00**		.28 (.14)	.15	1.94	.05		**.84 (.16)**	**.43**	**5.30**	**.00**	
Relational Attributions (*b*)	**-.31 (.07)**	**-.27**	**-4.21**	**.00**		**-.31 (.07)**	**-.30**	**-4.18**	**.00**		**.48 (.12)**	**.30**	**3.90**	**.00**		.11 (.14)	.06	0.80	.42	
Step 3					**.425**					**.302**					**.205**					.206
General Self-Efficacy	-.04 (.13)	-.02	-0.32	.75		.25 (.13)	.13	1.98	.05		-.05 (.21)	-.02	-0.26	.80		.56 (.23)	.17	2.45	.02	
Negative Affect	-.05 (.04)	-.07	-1.17	.24		.03 (.04)	.04	0.67	.50		**.23 (.07)**	**.21**	**3.06**	**.00**		.04 (.08)	.04	0.51	.61	
Incivility	**-.64 (.09)**	**-.51**	**-7.44**	**.00**		**-.41 (.09)**	**-.36**	**-4.78**	**.00**		**.38 (.14)**	**.21**	**2.64**	**.01**		**.83 (.16)**	**.42**	**5.29**	**.00**	
Discrimination Attrib. (*b*)	**-.24 (.08)**	**-.21**	**-3.17**	**.00**		**-.24 (.08)**	**-.23**	**-3.25**	**.00**		**.32 (.13)**	**.19**	**2.54**	**.01**		.12 (.14)	.07	0.91	.37	

Note. (*c*) = the total effect of incivility on each job outcome controlling for GSE and NA. (*b*) = the effect of each attribution on each job outcome controlling for the effects of X, GSE, and NA on Y. B = unstandardized regression coefficient. *SE* = standard error. β = standardized regression coefficient. *t* = test that the regression coefficient is different from zero, *p* = the probability of obtaining a regression coefficient equal to or more extreme than the one shown, if the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between each predictor variable and outcome variable were true. Due to rounding, *p*-values < .005 are shown as *p* =.00. *Italicized*: $p < .10$, Underlined: $p < .05$, **Bold**: $p < .01$.

Table 8

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Model Analyses Examining the Mediating Effect of Attributions (M) on Incivility (X)-Work Outcome (Y) Relationship Controlling for Generalized Self-Efficacy and Negative Affect

Predictor Variable	Mediating Variable	Outcome Variable	Effect of X on M		Effect of M on Y		Total Effect of X on Y		Direct Effect of X on Y		Indirect Effect of X on Y via M				
(X)	(M)	(Y)	*a*	(s_a)	*b*	(s_b)	*c*	(s_c)	*c'*	($s_{c'}$)	*ab*	(s_{ab})	Sobel's *z*	*p*	*Effect size*
Incivility	Internal	Job Satisfaction	.21	(.10)	*-.10*	*(.05)*	**-.79**	**(.08)**	**-.77**	**(.08)**	-.02	(.01)	-1.38	.17	-.02
	External		**.70**	**(.10)**	**-.16**	**(.05)**	**-.79**	**(.08)**	**-.68**	**(.08)**	**-.11**	**(.01)**	**-2.80**	**.01**	-.09
	Relational		**.63**	**(.07)**	**-.31**	**(.07)**	**-.79**	**(.08)**	**-.60**	**(.09)**	**-.19**	**(.01)**	**-3.79**	**.00**	-.15
	Discrimination		**.62**	**(.07)**	**-.24**	**(.08)**	**-.79**	**(.08)**	**-.64**	**(.09)**	**-.15**	**(.01)**	**-2.98**	**.00**	-.11
	Internal	Perceived Social Worth	.21	(.10)	-.02	(.05)	**-.56**	**(.08)**	**-.56**	**(.08)**	-.00	(.00)			
	External		**.70**	**(.10)**	**-.11**	**(.05)**	**-.56**	**(.08)**	**-.49**	**(.08)**	-.08	(.01)	-2.04	.04	-.07
	Relational		**.63**	**(.07)**	**-.31**	**(.07)**	**-.56**	**(.08)**	**-.37**	**(.07)**	**-.19**	**(.01)**	**-3.77**	**.00**	-.17
	Discrimination		**.62**	**(.07)**	**-.24**	**(.08)**	**-.56**	**(.08)**	**-.41**	**(.09)**	**-.15**	**(.01)**	**-3.03**	**.00**	-.13
	Internal	Burnout	.21	(.10)	**.25**	**(.09)**	**.58**	**(.12)**	**.52**	**(.12)**	*.05*	*(.01)*	*1.70*	*.09*	.03
	External		**.70**	**(.10)**	*.16*	*(.09)*	**.58**	**(.12)**	**.47**	**(.14)**	*.11*	*(.01)*	*1.76*	*.08*	.06
	Relational		**.63**	**(.07)**	**.48**	**(.12)**	**.58**	**(.12)**	*.28*	*(.14)*	**.30**	**(.01)**	**3.59**	**.00**	.17
	Discrimination		**.62**	**(.07)**	**.32**	**(.13)**	**.58**	**(.12)**	.38	(.14)	.20	(.01)	2.43	.02	.07
	Internal	Turnover Intentions	.21	(.10)	.00	(.09)	**.91**	**(.13)**	**.91**	**(.14)**	.00	(.01)			
	External		**.70**	**(.10)**	-.09	(.09)	**.91**	**(.13)**	**.84**	**(.15)**	-.06	(.01)			
	Relational		**.63**	**(.07)**	-.11	(.14)	**.91**	**(.13)**	**.84**	**(.16)**	-.07	(.01)			
	Discrimination		**.62**	**(.07)**	-.12	(.14)	**.91**	**(.13)**	**.83**	**(.16)**	-.08	(.01)			

Note. All regression coefficients are reported in their unstandardized form. Standard errors (*s*) are reported in parentheses. *a* = the effect of incivility (X) on each mediating variable (M) attribution controlling for GSE and NA. *b* = the effect of M on Y controlling for X, GSE, and NA. Total effect *c* refers to the linear relationship between X and Y controlling for GSE and NA and is equal to the direct effect (*c'*) + indirect effect (*ab*). Direct effect (*c*') refers to the linear relationship between the IV and the DV after subtracting the indirect effect of X on Y through the mediator (M) variable. Indirect effect (*ab*) refers to the relationship between X and Y via M controlling for GSE and NA. Sobel's z-tests were only conducted for variables where all three effects (a, b, c) were significant. **Bold variables** indicate that they partially mediate the X-Y relationship. **Bold and underlined variables** indicate that they fully mediate the X-Y relationship. Due to rounding, p-values < .005 are shown as p =.00. *Italicized*: p < .10, Underlined: p < .05, **Bold**: p < .01.

Figure 1

Example of a Path Diagram for a Mediation Model

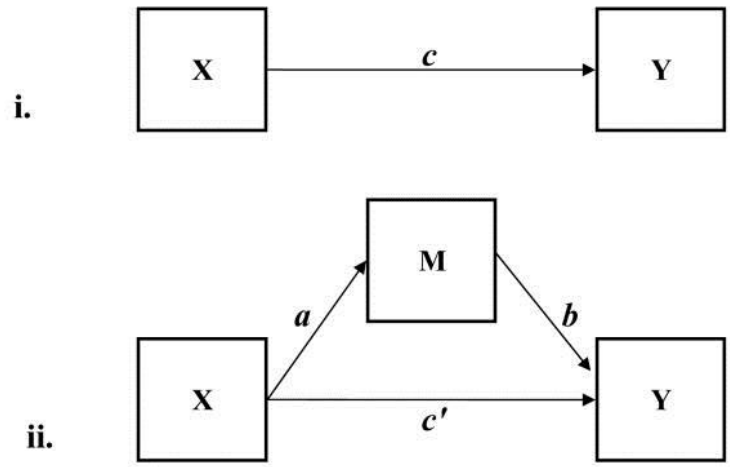


Figure 1. Path Diagrams for (i.) the Total Effect (*c*) of Independent Variable (X) on the Dependent Variable (Y) and (ii.) the Indirect Effect (*ab*) of X on Y through the mediator variable (M). Reprinted from "A Graphical Representation of the Mediated Effect", by M. S. Fritz, and D. P. MacKinnon, (2008). *Behavior Research Methods, 40*(1), p. 56. https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.40.1.55. Copyright 2008 Psychonomic Society, Inc.

Note.
c = total effect
ab = indirect effect
c' = direct effect
Total effect = direct effect + indirect effect; c = c' + ab

Figure 2
Sobel Test Equation

$$\text{Sobel test equation: } z\text{-value} = \frac{a*b}{\sqrt{b^2*s_a^2 + a^2*s_b^2}}$$

Figure 2. Formula for conducting Sobel's test. Adapted from *Statistics FAQ – University of Surrey – Guildford*, by C. Fife-Schaw, n.d., Retrieved from http://www.surrey.ac.uk/psychology/current/Statistics/18091_sobel_small.jpg. Copyright 2017 by University of Surrey, Guildford.

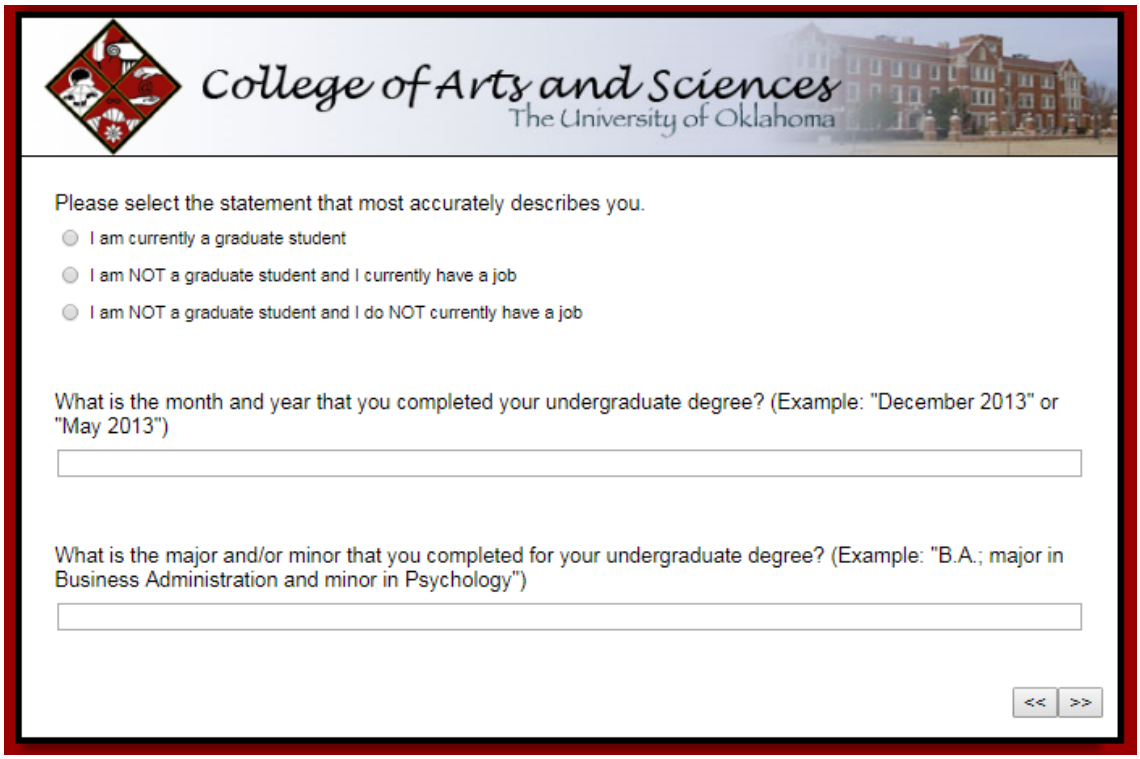
Note.
a = raw (unstandardized) regression coefficient for the association between IV and mediator.
s_a = standard error of a.
b = raw (unstandardized) regression coefficient for the association between the mediator and the DV (when the IV is also a predictor of the DV).
s_b = standard error of b.

Appendix A: Screenshots of Survey Measures

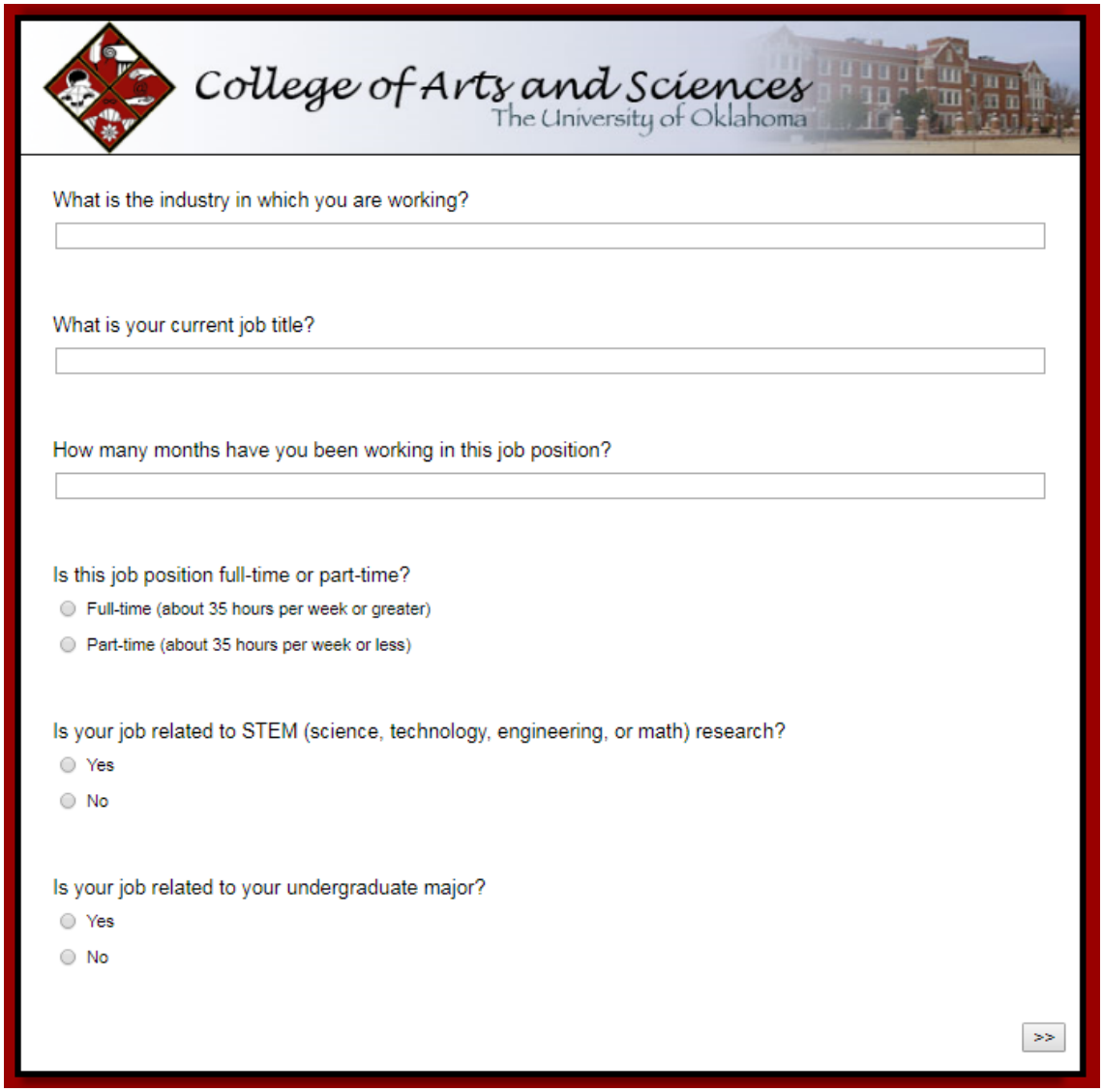
Note: There were other measures embedded in this survey. This only includes screenshots of the survey that show measures that I used in the current study. The following screenshots show what participants saw when they were completing the survey.

Filter information

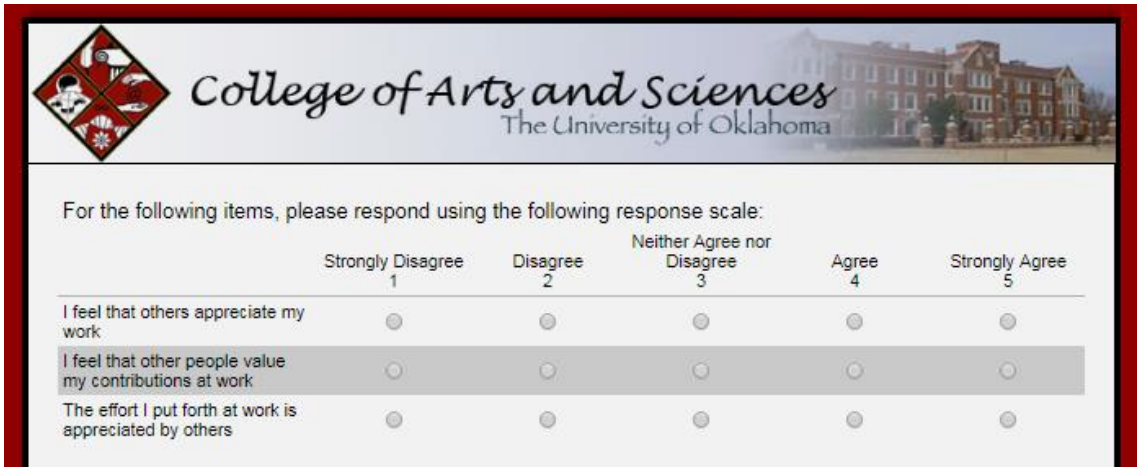




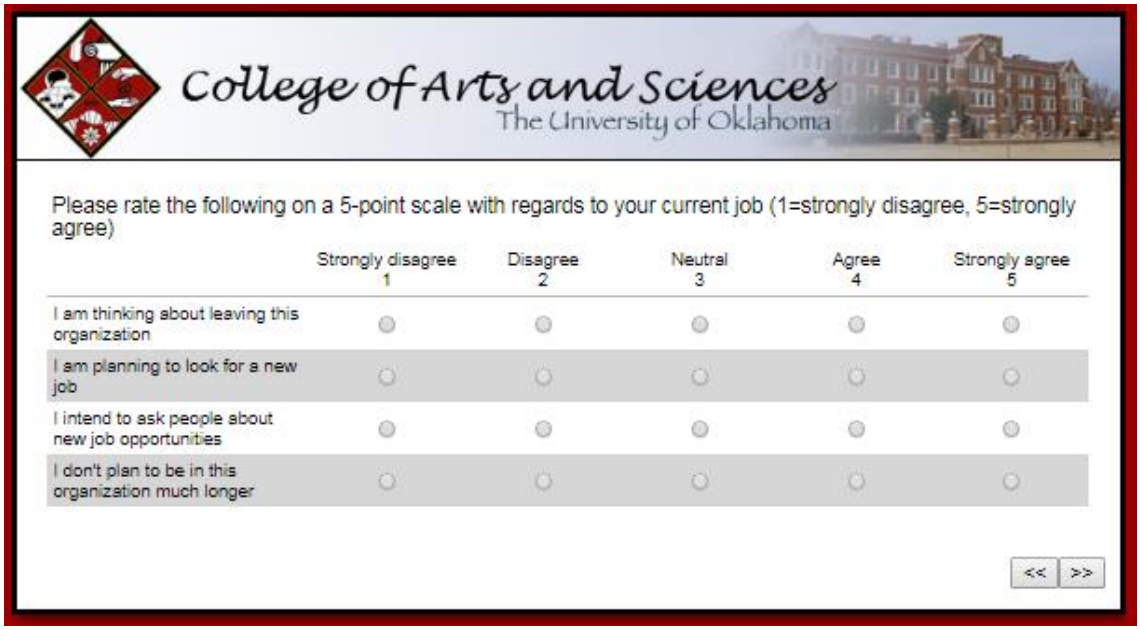
Background information



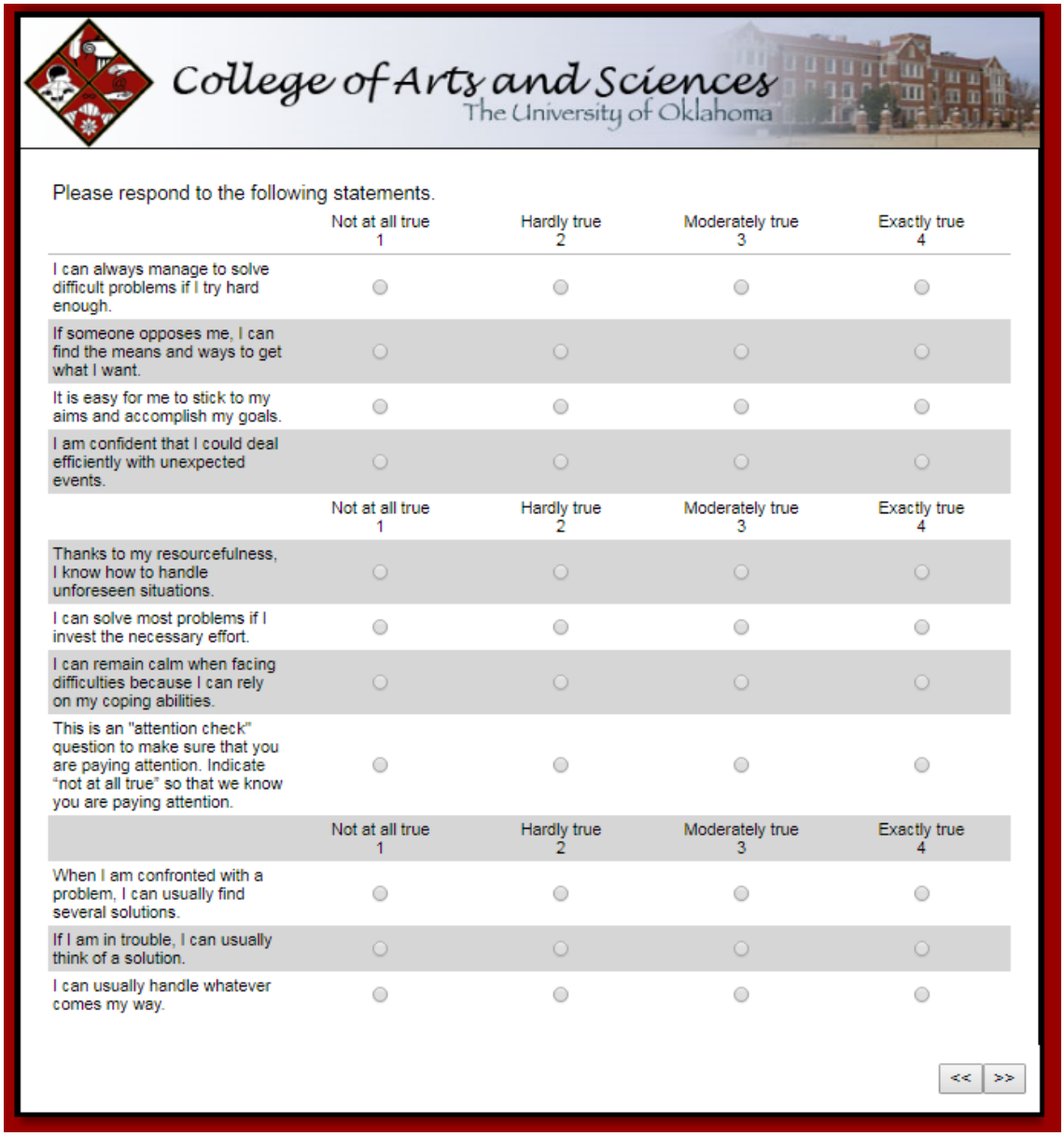
Adapted from Grant's (2008) Perceived Social Worth of Job items



Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham's (1999) Turnover Intentions



Schwarzer & Jerusalem's (1995) General Self-Efficacy scale


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Please respond to the following statements.

	Not at all true 1	Hardly true 2	Moderately true 3	Exactly true 4
I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	○	○	○	○
If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	○	○	○	○
It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	○	○	○	○
I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	○	○	○	○
	Not at all true 1	Hardly true 2	Moderately true 3	Exactly true 4
Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	○	○	○	○
I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	○	○	○	○
I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.	○	○	○	○
This is an "attention check" question to make sure that you are paying attention. Indicate "not at all true" so that we know you are paying attention.	○	○	○	○
	Not at all true 1	Hardly true 2	Moderately true 3	Exactly true 4
When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.	○	○	○	○
If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	○	○	○	○
I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	○	○	○	○

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Note. The eighth item in this measure is an example of one of the embedded attention check questions we used throughout the survey.

Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

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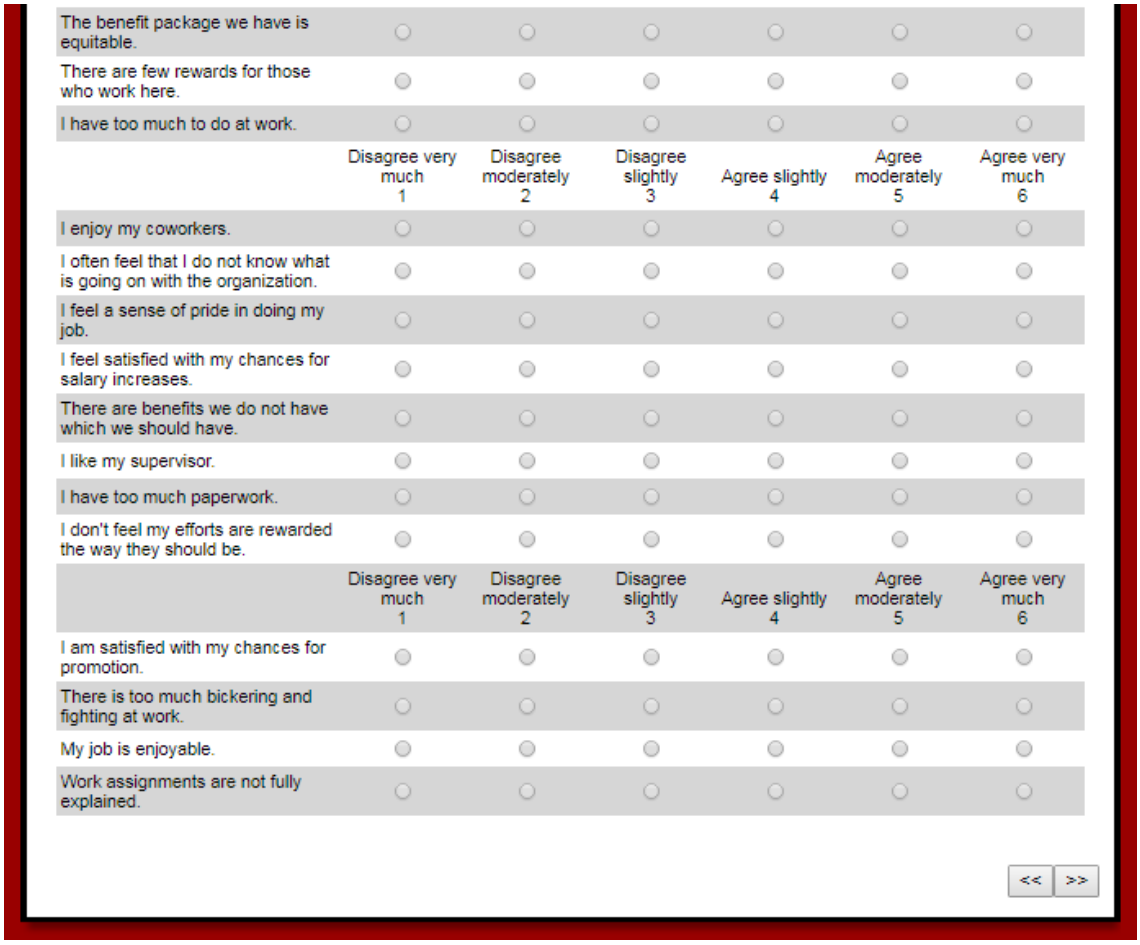
Please indicate the response that comes closest to reflecting your opinion on the following questions.
Please answer the questions with regards to your current job.

	Disagree very much 1	Disagree moderately 2	Disagree slightly 3	Agree slightly 4	Agree moderately 5	Agree very much 6
I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	○	○	○	○	○	○
There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	○	○	○	○	○	○
When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like the people I work with.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Disagree very much 1	Disagree moderately 2	Disagree slightly 3	Agree slightly 4	Agree moderately 5	Agree very much 6
Communications seem good within this organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Raises are too few and far between.	○	○	○	○	○	◉
Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor is unfair to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	○	○	○	○	◉	○
I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Disagree very much 1	Disagree moderately 2	Disagree slightly 3	Agree slightly 4	Agree moderately 5	Agree very much 6
I like doing the things I do at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	○	○	○	○	○	○

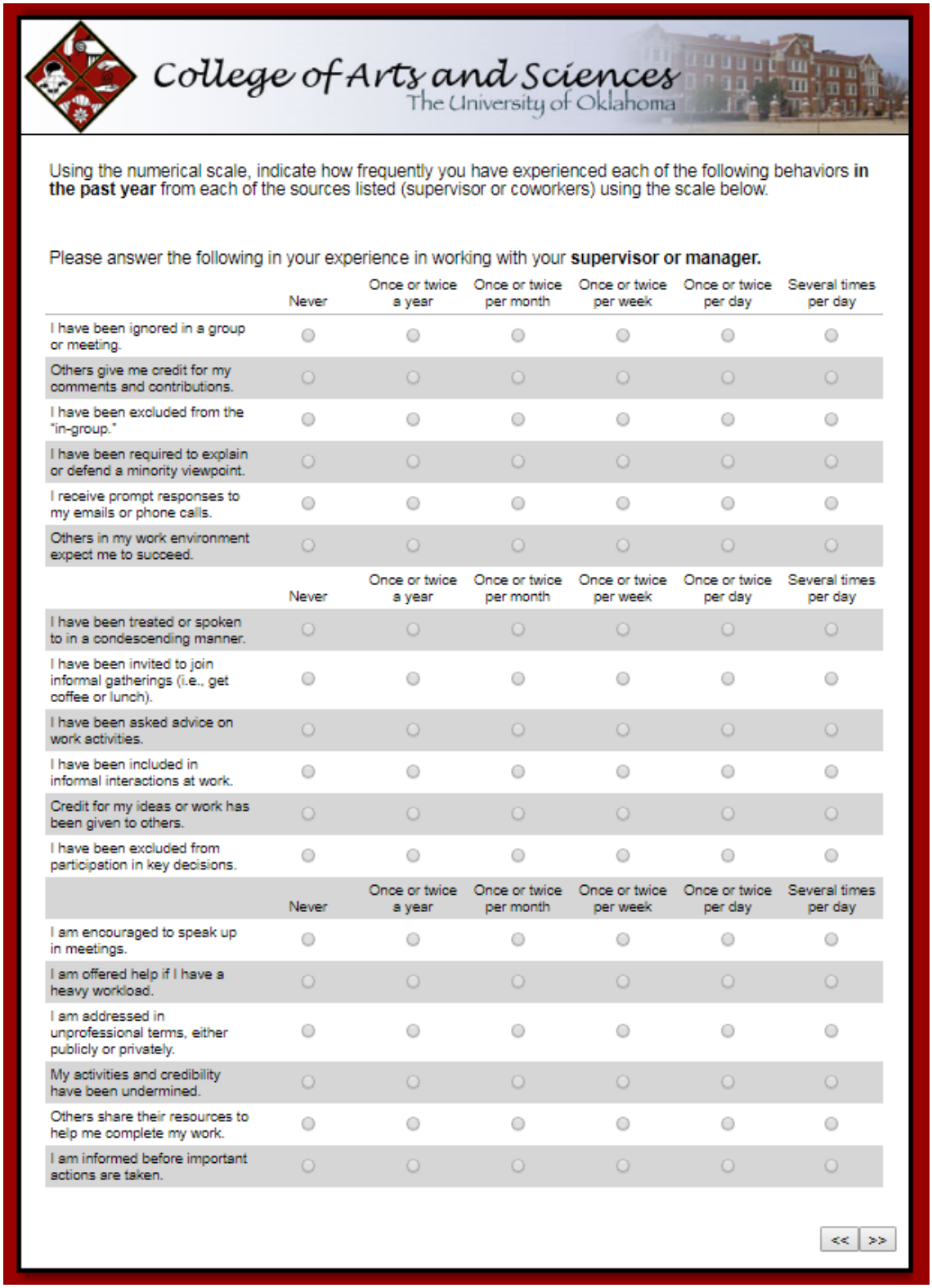
Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) cont'd



The benefit package we have is equitable.						
There are few rewards for those who work here.						
I have too much to do at work.						
	Disagree very much 1	Disagree moderately 2	Disagree slightly 3	Agree slightly 4	Agree moderately 5	Agree very much 6
I enjoy my coworkers.						
I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.						
I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.						
I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.						
There are benefits we do not have which we should have.						
I like my supervisor.						
I have too much paperwork.						
I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.						
	Disagree very much 1	Disagree moderately 2	Disagree slightly 3	Agree slightly 4	Agree moderately 5	Agree very much 6
I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.						
There is too much bickering and fighting at work.						
My job is enjoyable.						
Work assignments are not fully explained.						

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Snyder et al.'s (2010) Incivility from Supervisor or Manager scale



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Using the numerical scale, indicate how frequently you have experienced each of the following behaviors **in the past year** from each of the sources listed (supervisor or coworkers) using the scale below.

Please answer the following in your experience in working with your **supervisor or manager.**

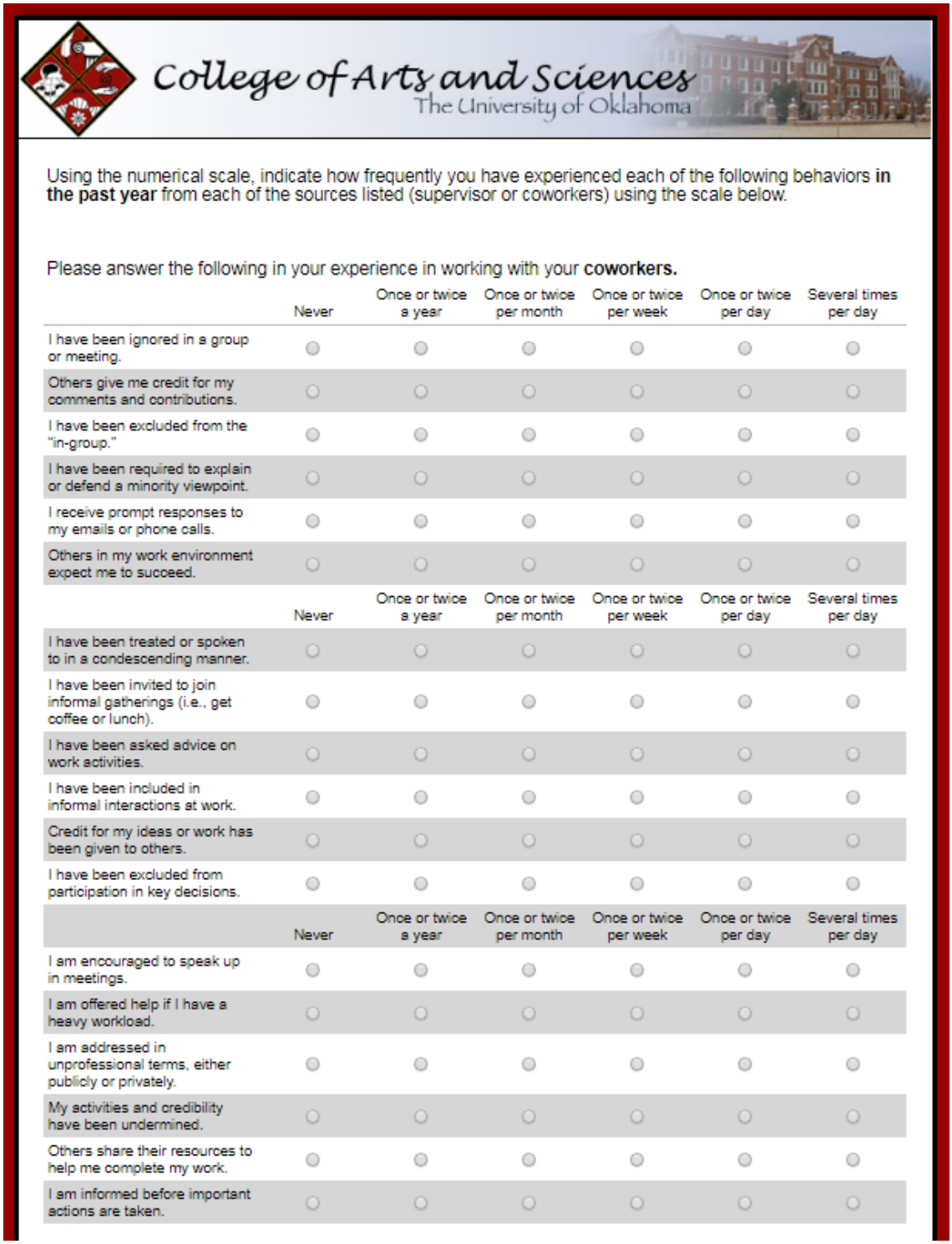
	Never	Once or twice a year	Once or twice per month	Once or twice per week	Once or twice per day	Several times per day
I have been ignored in a group or meeting.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Others give me credit for my comments and contributions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been excluded from the "in-group."	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been required to explain or defend a minority viewpoint.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I receive prompt responses to my emails or phone calls.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Others in my work environment expect me to succeed.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Once or twice a year	Once or twice per month	Once or twice per week	Once or twice per day	Several times per day
I have been treated or spoken to in a condescending manner.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been invited to join informal gatherings (i.e., get coffee or lunch).	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been asked advice on work activities.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been included in informal interactions at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Credit for my ideas or work has been given to others.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been excluded from participation in key decisions.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Once or twice a year	Once or twice per month	Once or twice per week	Once or twice per day	Several times per day
I am encouraged to speak up in meetings.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am offered help if I have a heavy workload.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am addressed in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My activities and credibility have been undermined.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Others share their resources to help me complete my work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am informed before important actions are taken.	○	○	○	○	○	○

<< >>

Snyder et al.'s (2010) Incivility from Coworkers scale



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Using the numerical scale, indicate how frequently you have experienced each of the following behaviors **in the past year** from each of the sources listed (supervisor or coworkers) using the scale below.

Please answer the following in your experience in working with your **coworkers.**

	Never	Once or twice a year	Once or twice per month	Once or twice per week	Once or twice per day	Several times per day
I have been ignored in a group or meeting.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Others give me credit for my comments and contributions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been excluded from the "in-group."	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been required to explain or defend a minority viewpoint.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I receive prompt responses to my emails or phone calls.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Others in my work environment expect me to succeed.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Once or twice a year	Once or twice per month	Once or twice per week	Once or twice per day	Several times per day
I have been treated or spoken to in a condescending manner.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been invited to join informal gatherings (i.e., get coffee or lunch).	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been asked advice on work activities.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been included in informal interactions at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Credit for my ideas or work has been given to others.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have been excluded from participation in key decisions.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Once or twice a year	Once or twice per month	Once or twice per week	Once or twice per day	Several times per day
I am encouraged to speak up in meetings.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am offered help if I have a heavy workload.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am addressed in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My activities and credibility have been undermined.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Others share their resources to help me complete my work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am informed before important actions are taken.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Adapted from Hershcovis & Barling's (2010) Attribution Measures

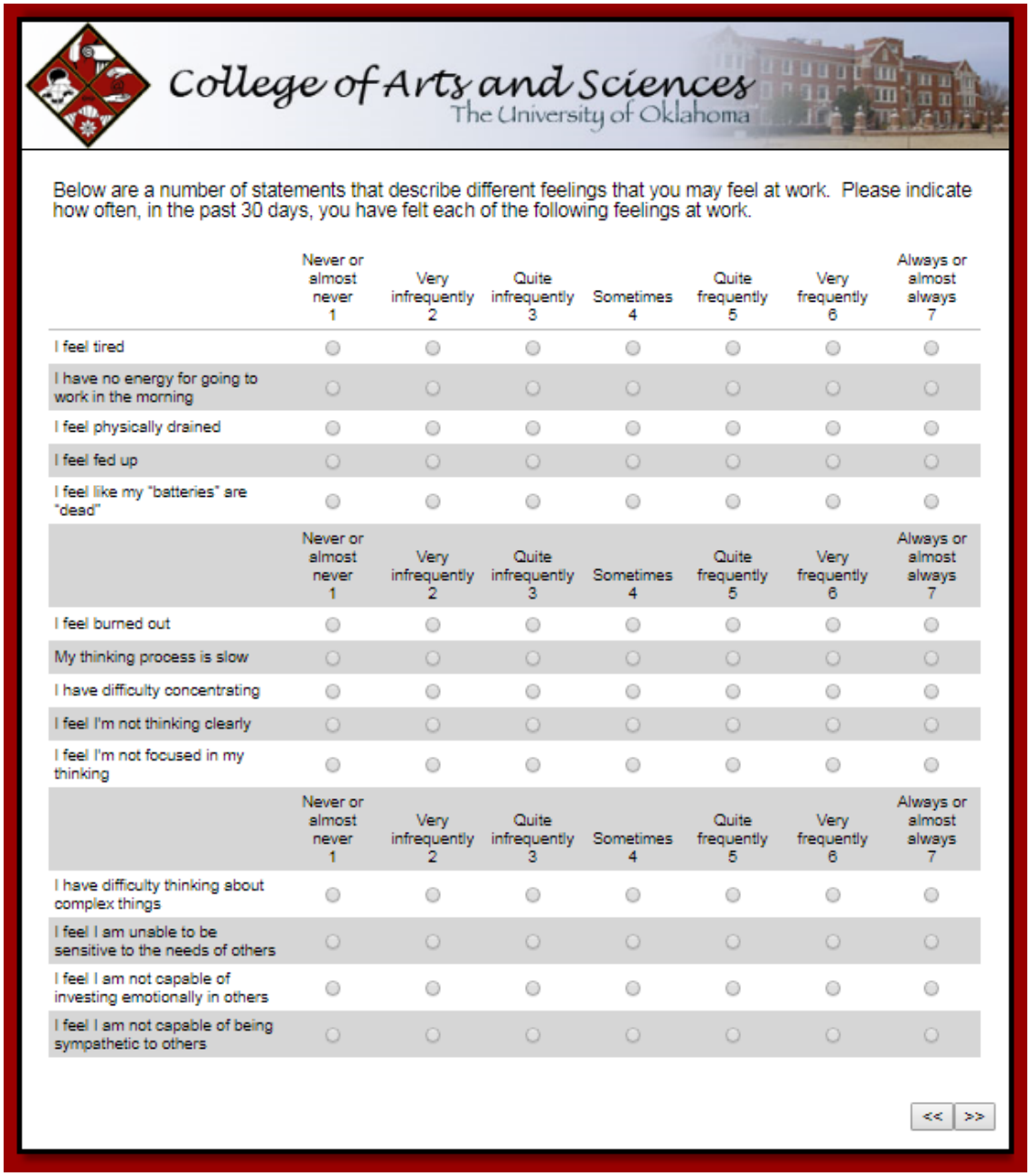
Below please indicate the extent to which you believe each reason explains the types of behaviors listed above that you experienced.

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
My supervisor/colleagues don't like me	○	○	○	○	○
I might blame myself for the behavior I experienced	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor/colleagues are to blame for this	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor/colleagues are responsible for what happened	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor/colleagues have no respect for members of my race/gender/national origin/religion/age group	○	○	○	○	○
This is an attack on me personally	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
I may have done something to deserve this behavior	○	◉	○	○	○
My supervisor/colleagues have it out for me personally	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor/colleagues probably behave this way only towards members of my race/gender/national origin/religion/age group	○	○	○	○	○
I am to blame for this behavior	○	○	○	○	○
This is personal	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor/colleagues are at fault for this behavior	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
My supervisor/colleagues have it out for my race/gender/national origin/religion/age group	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor/colleagues dislike members of my race/gender/national origin/religion/age group	○	○	○	○	○
I might question whether my personality is faulty	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor/colleagues are trying to attack my race/gender/national origin/religion/age	○	○	○	○	○

Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM)



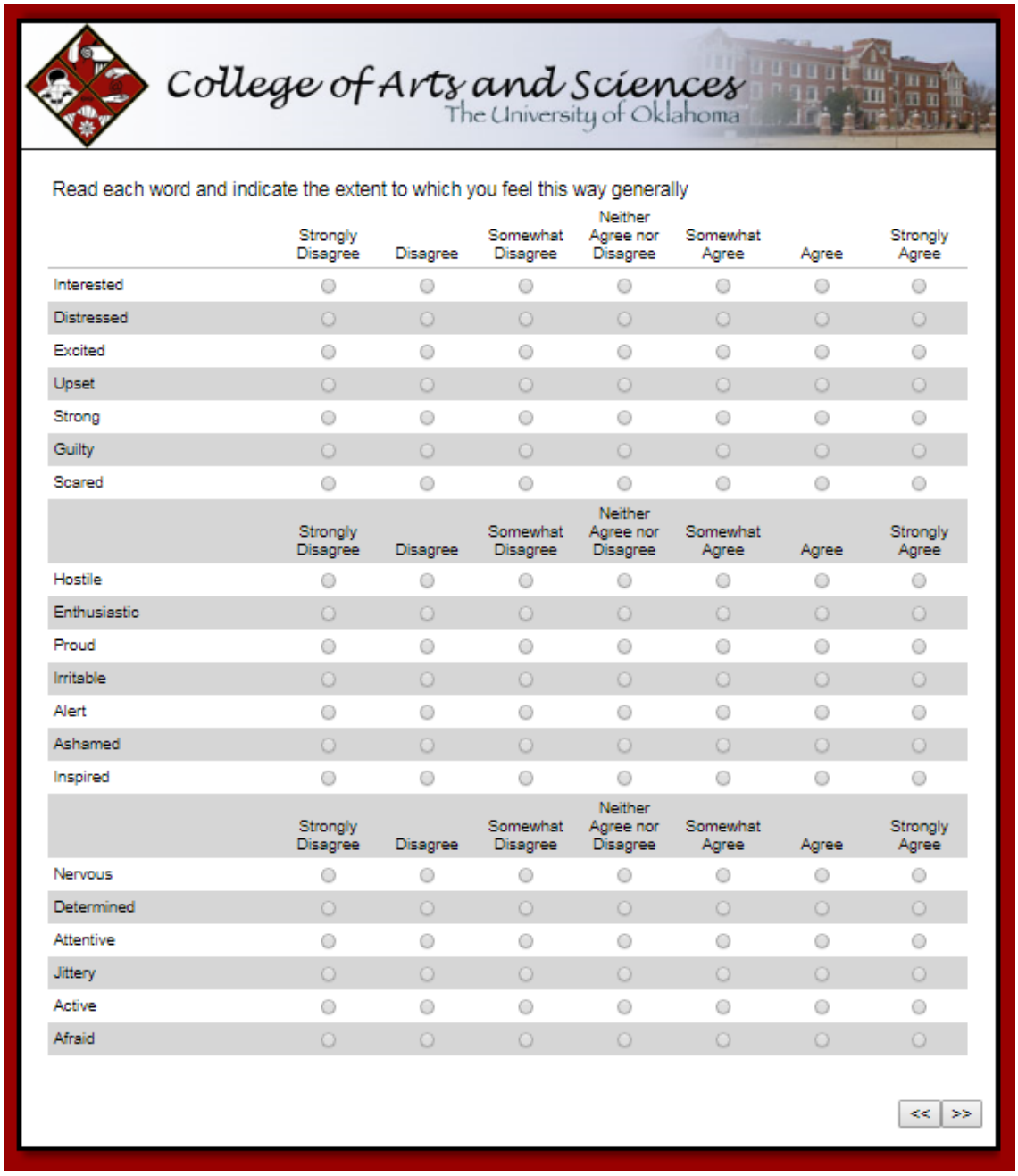
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Below are a number of statements that describe different feelings that you may feel at work. Please indicate how often, in the past 30 days, you have felt each of the following feelings at work.

	Never or almost never 1	Very infrequently 2	Quite infrequently 3	Sometimes 4	Quite frequently 5	Very frequently 6	Always or almost always 7
I feel tired	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have no energy for going to work in the morning	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel physically drained	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel fed up	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel like my "batteries" are "dead"	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
	Never or almost never 1	Very infrequently 2	Quite infrequently 3	Sometimes 4	Quite frequently 5	Very frequently 6	Always or almost always 7
I feel burned out	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My thinking process is slow	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have difficulty concentrating	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel I'm not thinking clearly	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel I'm not focused in my thinking	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
	Never or almost never 1	Very infrequently 2	Quite infrequently 3	Sometimes 4	Quite frequently 5	Very frequently 6	Always or almost always 7
I have difficulty thinking about complex things	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel I am unable to be sensitive to the needs of others	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel I am not capable of investing emotionally in others	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel I am not capable of being sympathetic to others	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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Watson, Clark, & Tellegen's (1988) Positive and Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS)



Read each word and indicate the extent to which you feel this way generally

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Interested							
Distressed							
Excited							
Upset							
Strong							
Guilty							
Scared							

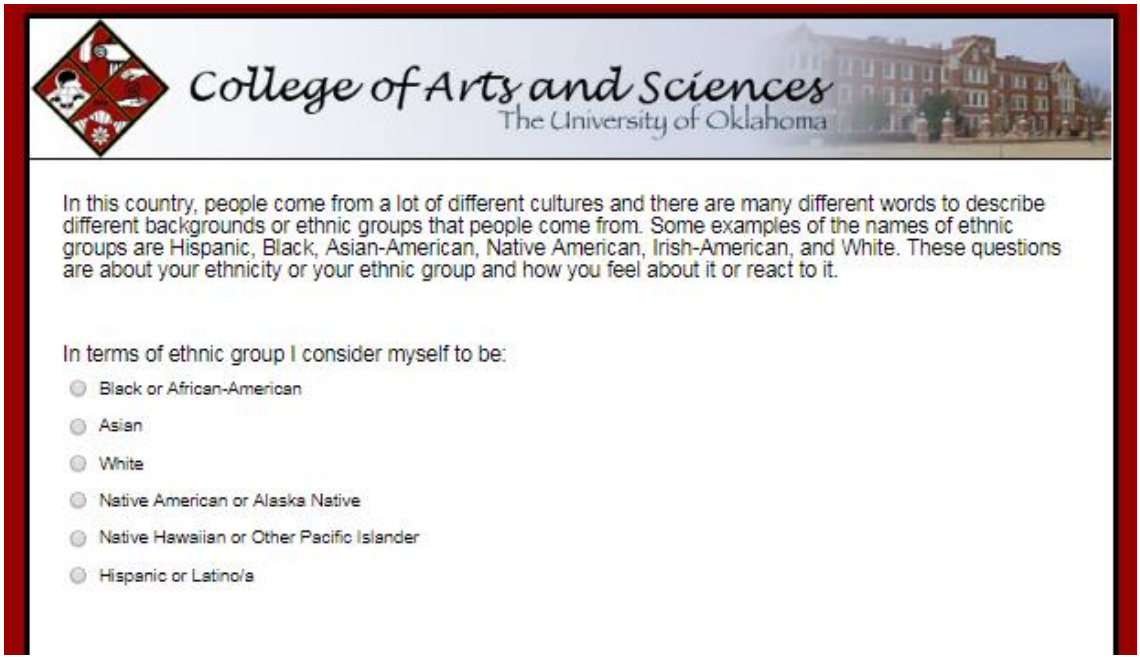
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Hostile							
Enthusiastic							
Proud							
Irritable							
Alert							
Ashamed							
Inspired							

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Nervous							
Determined							
Attentive							
Jittery							
Active							
Afraid							

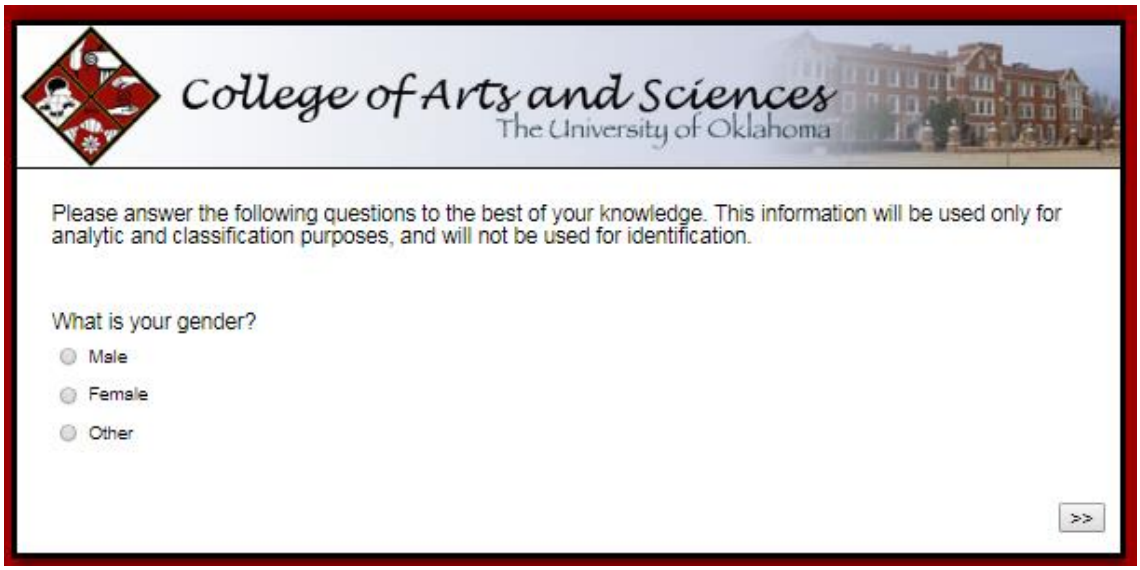
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Note: The following three measures (PANAS, ethnic/racial group, and gender) were measured during a previous survey administration, while the participants were still undergraduates.

Adapted from Phinney's (1992) Ethnic/racial group Item



Gender



Appendix B: Example Attention Check Warning

