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Investigating Individual Difference Among Workplace Incivility and its Organizational Outcomes in the Chinese Context

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FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

INVESTIGATING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE AMONG WORKPLACE

INCIVILITY AND ITS ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOMES IN THE CHINESE

CONTEXT

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of

the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

ADULT EDUCATION

AND

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

by

Yuejia Chen

2021

To: Dean Michael R. Heithaus
       College of Arts, Sciences and Education

This dissertation, written by Yuejia Chen, and entitled Investigating Individual Difference among Workplace Incivility and its Organizational Outcomes in the Chinese Context, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

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Thomas G. Reio, Jr., Major Professor

Date of Defense: June 29, 2021

The dissertation of Yuejia Chen is approved.

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Dean Michael R. Heithaus
College of Arts, Sciences and Education

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Andrés G. Gil
Vice President for Research and Economic Development
and Dean of the University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2021

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

INVESTIGATING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE AMONG WORKPLACE

INCIVILITY AND ITS ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOMES IN THE CHINESE

CONTEXT

by

Yuejia Chen

Florida International University, 2021

Miami, Florida

Professor Thomas G. Reio Jr., Major Professor

The prevalence of workplace incivility is on the rise. As a workplace stressor, workplace incivility is linked with detrimental outcomes for both individuals and organizations, such as increased intention to turnover, reduced job performance, and job dissatisfaction (Milam et al., 2009; Pearson et al., 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005). The current study gains fresh insights about how targets of incivility interpret and respond to this uncivil behavior as an occupational stressor (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Mao et al., 2019).

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between targets' perceptions of workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as moderated by personality traits (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness) in the context of China. Additionally this study plans to investigate the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention) as mediated by specific coping styles (e.g., active coping, disengagement). Moderation analyses were conducted to test

the possible moderating role of personality on the relationship between targets'

perceptions of workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance

and turnover intention); and mediation analyses were performed on complete models

above with active coping and disengagement coping as mediators ($N =370$). Findings

suggest there is a significant and negative relationship between workplace incivility and

job performance after controlling for each separate personality trait (i.e., agreeableness,

neuroticism, conscientiousness, and extraversion); and there is a significant and positive

relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention after controlling for

three of the aforementioned personality traits (agreeableness, neuroticism, and

conscientiousness), but not extraversion. Only conscientiousness moderated the

relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance. Further, the

data did not provide evidence that any of the personality traits moderate the relationship

between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention. Additionally, findings

suggest full mediation for the effects of incivility on the job performance-in role behavior

domain through the mediator of active coping. Furthermore, the relationship between

workplace incivility and the job performance – organizational citizenship behaviors

directed at the organization domain was partially mediated by active coping. Lastly, the

relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention was partially mediated

by disengagement coping. Future research was proposed to test the models examined in

this study in different settings, with more moderators and mediators involved. The

practical findings suggest that HRD professionals should provide effective trainings to

reduce the frequencies of incivility.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins with the background to the problem, followed by the problem statement, purpose of the study, and conceptual framework. Next follows, the significance of the study, delimitations, and definition of terms.

Background to the Problem

In the last two decades, interpersonal mistreatment has become the center of interest in the Human Resource Development (HRD) literature (Cortina & Lim, 2005; Cortina & Magley, 2003; Harlos, 2010; Rahim & Cosby, 2015; Reio & Ghosh, 2009; Schilpzand et al., 2014; Tepper & Henle, 2011; Trudel & Reio, 2011). Interpersonal mistreatment, a specific kind of antisocial organizational misbehavior, is a broad term that ranges from mild forms of psychological mistreatment, such as workplace incivility, to more severe acts such as harassment, bullying and physical violence (Cortina et al., 2001; Jex, 2015; Holm et al., 2015; Reich & Hershcovis, 2015). Among these different forms of interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace, workplace incivility, a relatively milder form of interpersonal mistreatment, has been found to be prevalent and increasing with detrimental outcomes for both individuals and organizations (Milam et al., 2009; Pearson et al., 200; Pearson & Porath, 2005).

As a relatively new addition to the area of interpersonal mistreatment, workplace incivility has become a key concern for HRD researchers and practitioners throughout the past two decades (e.g., Anderson & Pearson, 1999; Leiter, 2012; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005; Rahim & Cosby, 2016). One possible reason it has become a

major concern is its high frequency of impacting harm on organizations and targeted individuals (Felblinger, 2008; Ghosh et al., 2011; Pearson et al., 2000; Pearson & Porath, 2005). Workplace incivility, or uncivil behaviors in the workplace, is defined by Andersson and Pearson (1999) as "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. These uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (p. 457).

Examples of workplace incivility include ignoring others' opinions, failing to respond effectively, addressing people in an unprofessional manner, and making rude comments. Workplace incivility is not necessarily intentional or malicious, and it even occasionally seems unproblematic and harmless (Pearson & Porath, 2009; Torkelson et al., 2016). Due to its unclear and perhaps unconscious intention, some uncivil behaviors can be ascribed to instigators' ignorance, or they can be attributed to misinterpretation or hypersensitivity from targets (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Sometimes, incivility might describe a covert form of racism and sexism (Byrd, 2016). Cortina and associates (2008) found that people of color are more likely to experience this "selective incivility" (p.1580), which echoes the similar finding from Sue and associates' (2007) studies of "racial microaggressions" (p. 271). Especially in the context of the coronavirus outbreak, thousands of people of Asian descent are victims of racial microaggressions/selective incivility every day. One example of this rude behavior delivered via verbal expression would include for instance a non-Asian individual speaking out loud within earshot of a Chinese-American that "if not for China, we wouldn't have to wear masks." Another example of this misbehavior delivered via non-verbal expression would include

passengers on a subway who shift away in their seats or place a hand over their mouths when an Asian person comes aboard. Such uncivil behaviors may be subtle and indirect; sometimes they do not last long. Negative outcomes of workplace incivility include decreased job performance and job dissatisfaction, higher burnout, and higher turnover intention (Cortina et al., 2001; Johnson & Indvik, 2001; Porath & Erez, 2007). Workplace incivility therefore deserves serious attention from human resource researchers (Estes & Wang, 2008; Pearson & Porath, 2004) due to its detrimental effects on both individuals and organizations.

Given its association with negative work-related outcomes, it is not surprising that workplace incivility represents a pervasive workplace phenomenon which organizations should seek to address (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Cortina and colleagues' (2008) study which assesses incivility prevalence in various work settings in the U.S. has shown, for example, that 75 percent of employees in higher education (Cortina & Magley, 2007), and 79 percent of law enforcement employees (Cortina et al., 2004) indicated that they had experienced some form of uncivil behavior in the workplace over recent years. Additionally, according to Porath and Pearson (2013), 98 percent of polled workers in America experience incivility, and 50 percent reported that they were treated rudely at least once a week. In a different sample of 696 newly hired nurses from another cultural setting (China), 60.7% reported experiencing some level of workplace incivility in the past year (Zhang et al, 2018).

The costs of incivility are rising, too. In a national study on diverse managers and employees in the U.S., Porath and Pearson (2013) found that 38 percent of targets intentionally decreased work quality, 47 percent of targets intentionally decreased their

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work efforts, 78 percent said their commitment to the organization declined, 80 percent of targets lost work time worrying about the incidents, and 12 percent said they left the organization due to their uncivil treatment. Furthermore, Mao and associates (2019) found in their sample of 384 Chinese employees that experienced incivility predicted lower performance and higher counterproductive behavior, while Liu and associates (2019) found that supervisor incivility had a significant negative correlation on employee's creativity in their sample of Chinese millennials. These effects indicated that organizations were losing productivity and personnel. Workplace incivility also comes with significant financial cost (Reio & Ghosh, 2009). Porath and Pearson (2013) estimated that the cost of incivility for a small technology firm can be around twelve million dollars per year. Similarly, the cost of stress-related illness resulting from bullying (i.e., intentional pattern of uncivil behavior) in the workplace is estimated to be 1.3 billion euros annually (Reio & Ghosh, 2009; Yeung & Griffin, 2008). In the healthcare industry, workplace incivility creates a substantial financial burden--estimated at $23.8 billion annually in the United States--to cover the direct and indirect costs associated with uncivil and violent workplace behaviors (Cummings, 2014). Specifically, Brewer and associates (2011) estimated the cost of newly licensed registered nurse turnover to be $856 million for all organizations in the United States and ranges between $1.4 and $2.1 billion in total expenditures made in the US healthcare system. Across the U.S. fast-food industry, White (1995) estimates annual costs exceed $4.3 billion to retrain employees with each employee turnover costing between $500 and $3,600.

Considering the severe financial burden of turnover, it is vital to reduce employee's turnover before it occurs. Turnover intention is used in this study instead of

turnover because intention is seen as one of the dominant outcomes in the context of workplace incivility (Azjen, 1991; Trudel & Reio, 2007), and represents the final step prior to actual quitting (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009). Due to the complexity and impracticality of tracking actual employee turnover in longitudinal studies, scholars instead prefer to investigate the intention to turnover (Poon, 2012); also, the intention itself can be extrapolated to give more detailed information about quitting behavior (Firth et al., 2004). Thus, workplace incivility has a significant effect on turnover intentions, and employees who have experienced incivility are more likely to be planning to leave their jobs (Dion, 2006; Morrison, 2008; Trudel & Reio, 2009).

Workplace incivility is a social interactive event, in which two or more parties are involved; the instigator, the target, the observer, and the social environment all play a significant part and are affected by the uncivil encounter (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Research suggests that being the target of such behaviors is associated with increased turnover intention, decreased job performance, and other negative outcomes in the workplace (Chen et al., 2013; Cortina et al., 2001; Lim et al., 2001; Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010; Oyeleye et al., 2013; Reio & Trudel, 2013). By examining the incidents, targets, instigators, and impact of incivility, Cortina and colleagues (2001) revealed that up to 71% of respondents experienced acts of mistreatment at work over a five-year period. The detrimental outcome of workplace incivility can be perceived not only by targets, but also by onlookers (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). A survey conducted by Pearson and Porath (2005) showed that 10 percent of 800 American employees witnessed incivility at work on a daily basis, and 20 percent were targets of workplace incivility at least once a week. Specifically, those who witness unfair behaviors in the workplace tend

to punish the instigator, even if these actions may involve self-sacrifice (Fehr & Gächter, 2002; O'Gorman et al., 2005). By exploring turnover intention, Pearson and associates (2000) found that nearly 50 percent of targets thought about quitting and 12 percent actually quit. Due to its costly consequences on organizations and individuals, workplace incivility deserves serious research and organizational attention (Cortina et al., 2001).

When uncivil behavior occurs in the workplace, employees may respond by disengaging from assigned tasks (Taylor et al., 2012) or by decreasing their commitment to work (Pearson et al., 2000). Pearson and Porath (2005) found that employees who suffered from workplace incivility tend to reduce work efforts, their quality of work, and their overall effectiveness (Spencer Laschinger et al., 2009; Pearson & Porath, 2005). Two of the negative outcomes of workplace incivility which have been discussed previously include decreased job performance and increased turnover intention (Lim & Tai, 2014; Spencer Laschinger et al., 2009; Taylor et al., 2011).

A distinguishing feature of workplace incivility is the ambiguous intent to harm. From the target's perspective, sometimes it is hard to tell whether the instigator was intentionally ill-mannered or accidentally rude (Sliter & Jex, 2014). For example, if a coworker slams the door in front of a second coworker, the second coworker might think the first coworker is acting uncivilly or being intentionally rude. However, a third coworker, placed in the exact same scenario, might not perceive the event as uncivil. These seemingly trivial interactions with ambiguous intent may lead to escalating patterns of uncivil behavior, bullying, and even physical assault (Ghosh et al., 2011). This example demonstrates the impact of both a target's identity and individual perception on the overall interpretation of workplace incivility (Sliter et al., 2015). However,

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researchers seem reluctant to investigate this area because results might confirm a tendency to accuse targets – i.e., results might support "victim blaming" (Bowling & Beehr, 2006, p. 999; Keashly & Nowell, 2002, p. 342). Meanwhile, far less attention has been paid to the relationship between targets' personality traits and workplace incivility.

One study conducted by Coyne and associates (2000) examined personality traits as they relate to workplace victimization; the findings suggests that targets (victims) tended to be less independent or extraverted, less stable, and more conscientious than non-victims. Penney and Spector (2005) explored the moderating effect of a personality variable, negative affectivity, on job stressors and counterproductive work behavior (a similar construct). The Big Five and other personality trait variables, in particular Agreeableness, have been shown to impact workplace incivility awareness (Naimon et al., 2013).

The five-factor taxonomy, commonly referred to as the Big Five, includes Neuroticism (e.g., anxious, upset), Extraversion (e.g., sociable, talkative), Openness (e.g., imaginative, artistically sensitive), Agreeableness (e.g., good-natured, trusting), and Conscientiousness (e.g., responsible, persistent) (Goldberg, 1981; McCrae & Costa, 1997). In a study investigating individual differences in workplace incivility, Milam and her colleagues (2009) found that people who are either high in neuroticism or low in agreeableness, are more likely to experience workplace incivility, while others who experience the same scenario, may perceive it differently. Prior studies have not found a statistically significant relationship between the Big Five personality trait of openness and the perception of workplace incivility (Klebig et al., 2016; Naimon et al., 2013). Furthermore, in the meta-analytic investigations of the relationship between personality

traits and organizational outcomes, openness tends to the weakest predictor among the

Big Five Factors (Alarcon et al., 2009; Berry et al., 2007; Judge et al., 2002; Nielsen et

al., 2017). Thus, openness will not be examined as a factor in this study. Therefore, to

uncover the relationship of workplace incivility, this study will focus on agreeableness,

neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness because these traits have been shown to

be related to incivility (e.g., Burke et al., 1993; Milam et al., 2009; Sliter et al., 2015).

Personality Variables and Job Performance

The relationship between personality and overall job performance has been

independently studied in industrial psychology since the 1960s (Barrick et al., 2001;

Hogan & Holland, 2003; Reio & Sanders-Reio, 2006; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). Job

performance refers to employees' behavioral outcomes and actions that contribute to

organizational goals (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). In these studies, job performance was

conceptualized as job proficiency, training proficiency, and personnel data (Barrick &

Mount, 1991), technical and interpersonal performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter,

1994), and task and contextual performance (Reio & Sanders-Reio, 2006).

In 1998, Hurley verified that extraversion and agreeableness are positively related

with employees' service performance rating from mangers' perspectives. Later, in a

meta-analysis, Frei and McDaniel (1998) find that personality traits such as

agreeableness, emotional stability (i.e., the opposite pole of neuroticism), and

conscientiousness are predictive of positive supervisory ratings of job performance.

Vinchur and associates (1998) concluded that extraversion and conscientiousness predict

job performance in various occupations.

Barrick and Mount (1991) and Salgado (1997) found conscientiousness

significantly predicted overall job performance across occupational groups in both

European and American communities. In another study conducted in China,

conscientiousness significantly predicted adaptive performance ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < 0.05$), and

nonlinearly (i.e., equation does not meet the criteria above for a linear equation) predicted

overall job performance ($\beta = 0.18$, $p < 0.05$) and contextual performance ($\beta = 0.19$,

$p < 0.05$) (Zhang et al., 2012). Extraversion seems to predict performance for jobs

involving social interaction, such as management and sales (Crant, 1995). Stewart (1996)

found extraversion is positively correlated with high performance in sales, while Barrick

and Mount (1993) found extraversion was significantly related with job performance in

managers. Yet, the links between neuroticism and job performance are still ambiguous.

Barrick and Mount (1991) found an insignificant relationship between neuroticism and

job performance in a meta-analysis, while in another meta-analysis in the European

Economic Community (EEC), Salgado (1997) found a positive, but weak relationship

between emotional stability (i.e., the opposite pole of neuroticism) and job performance

($\rho = .19$).

While there has been limited research into workplace incivility conducted in

Western societies, even less research has been discussed and studied in Asia.

Additionally, there is little published data on personality traits and other work-related

outcomes in Chinese society (e.g., Jin et al., 2009; Liao & Lian, 2002; Tang & Wang,

2010). Similar to western studies, Tang and Wang (2010) found conscientiousness has

the strongest correlation with job performance in Chinese organizations. In that same

study, neuroticism had a negative correlation with organizational performance;

neuroticism is more negatively related with contextual performance than with task performance. This is in line with the existing literature which has found that as the counterpart of neuroticism, emotional stability is one of the most important personality traits in employment contexts (Barrick & Mount, 2000), and is positively related to different aspects of contextual performance (Hogan & Holland, 2003; Hough, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Morgeson et al., 2005; Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Personality Traits and Turnover Intention

Turnover indisputably leads to organizational problems in the workplace (Anvari et al., 2014; Hom et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2017). Companies consider it time-consuming and stressful to find new talented candidates to hire or to prompt employees to be more engaged at work, which eventually leads to long-term stability in organizational operations (Suttle, 2011; Tulgan, 2018). High turnover rates can be detrimental to a firm's profitability due to losses of ideal employees, wasted budgets spent finding replacements, and/or declines in customer satisfaction (Horn & Griffeth, 1995). The intention to turnover is the final cognitive factor which has a direct effect on turnover (Bedeian et al., 1991), and Mobley and associates (1978) suggested that intentions provide better explanation of turnover because they include an individual's perception and judgement. Substantial studies have also linked the Big Five traits with turnover intention (e.g., Chen et al., 1998; Choi & Lee, 2014; Smith & Canger, 2004). For example, extraverts make friends more easily and are less likely to break bonds of friendship via leaving their jobs (Choi & Lee, 2014. Further, emotional stability (i.e., the opposite pole of neuroticism) is linked to reduced turnover intention through helping employees deal effectively (through positive or active coping strategies, such as trying to see the good aspects of a situation or

talking with others about a problem) with stress and negative emotions in the workplace

(Cai et al., 2008; Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). Likewise, agreeableness has a negative

relationship with employees' intention to quit (Zimmerman, 2008), and highly

conscientious employees are less likely to exit their organizations too because they are

more likely to have feelings of obligation and responsibility to stay in their organizations

(Maertz & Griffeth, 2004).

Coping with Incivility

Coping is defined as cognitive and behavioral efforts used by an individual in an

attempt to manage stressors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p.141). Applied to a workplace

context, Lazarus (1991) contends that coping can alleviate negative outcomes related

with workplace stressors (e.g., incivility), and later Welbourne and associates (2016)

suggest that employees' coping styles may impact the organizational outcomes of

workplace incivility such as job performance and turnover intention. Their mixed results

demonstrate that when employees adopted avoidant coping (i.e., disengagement) it

weakened the impact of incivility. Lewin and Sager (2010) also found that emotion-

focused coping (i.e., a similar construct to disengagement) significantly increased

employees' turnover intention in stressful situation. Another form of coping, problem-

focused coping (i.e., active coping), was found to be positively related to better task

performance in stressful events (Parker et al., 2014). This research seeks to examine the

role of employees' coping styles on the organizational outcomes of workplace incivility

(i.e., job performance and turnover intention).

Problem Statement

Workplace incivility tends to be examined from the perceptions of the target, the instigator, and any observers of the incident (Pearson et al., 2000; Reio & Ghosh, 2009). Following Andersson and Pearson's (1999) research on workplace incivility, a series of researchers including Cortina et al., 2001, Pearson et al. (2000), Lim and Cortina (2005), Porath and Pearson (2009), Totterdell et al. (2012), Meier and Semmer (2013), and Trudel and Reio (2011) have focused on the antecedents of incivility from the observer or instigator's perspective; however, research on broader, more comprehensive consequences of workplace incivility is still lacking. Specifically, additional research is needed that examines the possible link between experiencing workplace incivility and important organizational outcomes like job performance (Miner & Cortina, 2016) and turnover intention, as well as its possible relation with the Big Five personality traits as possible moderator variables.

Plenty of fruitful research has surfaced which provides convincing evidence for the robustness of the 5-factor model (Barrick & Mount, 1991). However, little attention has been paid to how personality traits may shape the understanding of workplace incivility. One of the few studies concerning personality traits was written by Milam and associates (2009) and focused on how personality traits contribute to determining who becomes a target of workplace incivility. However, this study failed to address the potential moderating role that personality traits play in the relationships between incivility and its organizational outcomes. Inasmuch as the Big Five personality traits of a target (such as neuroticism, agreeableness, etc.) might affect the way in which a target reacts to being treated uncivilly, the relationship between incivility and job performance

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and turnover intent may be moderated significantly (i.e., dampened or strengthened). This study addresses the possible link between target workplace incivility, personality traits (as moderator variables), and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention) to broaden knowledge of workplace incivility and contribute possible new insights into how it can be managed through innovations offered by researchers and practitioners in the HRD community (Estes & Wang, 2008; Reio & Ghosh, 2009).

In order to better understand how employees perceive and react to workplace incivility, the current study investigates whether coping styles serve as a mediator between incivility and its organizational outcomes. This research question is based on the Transactional Stress and Coping model described by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), which explains how individuals gauge the stressful situation, evaluate coping options, and execute their plan. This research also contributes to occupational stress literature by investigating whether individuals' choice of coping styles offsets the negative effects of workplace incivility. Optimally this research will provide insight into understanding why coping with a phenomena as ambiguous as incivility is so complicated (Cortina, 2008; Welbourne et al., 2016).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between targets' perceptions of workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as moderated by personality traits (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness) in the context of China. Additionally this study plans to investigate the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational

outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention) as mediated by specific coping styles (e.g., active coping, disengagement). This research adds to the existing knowledge of the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes, and how both personality traits and coping styles may strengthen or dampen the relationship between workplace incivility and this study's two dependent variables.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In light of the main purpose of this study, research questions and sub questions are addressed.

Research question 1: What is the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention)?

Hypothesis 1: After controlling for the Big Five personality traits, workplace incivility will be negatively related to job performance.

Hypothesis 2: After controlling for the Big Five personality traits, workplace incivility will be positively related to turnover intention.

Research question 2: What is the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as moderated by personality traits?

Hypothesis 3: The negative relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by neuroticism, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be stronger for employees high in neuroticism.

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Hypothesis 4: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by neuroticism, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be stronger for employees high in neuroticism.

Hypothesis 5: The negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by extraversion, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be weaker for employees high in extraversion.

Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by extraversion, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be weaker for employees high in extraversion.

Hypothesis 7: The negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by conscientiousness, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be weaker for employees high in conscientiousness.

Hypothesis 8: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by conscientiousness, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be weaker for employees high in conscientiousness.

Hypothesis 9: The negative relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by agreeableness, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be weaker for employees high in agreeableness.

Hypothesis 10: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by agreeableness, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be weaker for employees high in agreeableness.

Research question 3: What is the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as mediated by coping styles?

Conceptual Framework

In this study, the conceptual framework will combine three theoretical approaches: the spiraling effects of incivility in the workplace (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), the Big Five personality model (Costa & McRae, 1990), and the transactional model of stress and coping strategies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987) to understand the relationships among workplace incivility, job performance, turnover intention, the moderating role of the Big Five personality traits, and the mediating role of the coping style. Workplace incivility, or deviant behavior, may seem subtle and innocuous, but it can also evolve to negative outcomes. Andersson and Pearson (1999) referred to this as an "incivility spiral" (p.101). The general concept of spirals has been used to explain other important phenomena in organizations at varying levels of analysis. For example, scholars have used spirals to explain the relationship between efficacy and performance (Lindsley et al., 1995), and between efficacy and organizational decline (Hambrick & D'Aveni, 1988; Masuch, 1985). This incivility spiral can be described as the negative actions of one party leading to the negative actions of a second party, resulting in increasingly counterproductive behaviors (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Masuch, 1985).

When uncivil behavior in the workplace occurs, there will be an emotional reaction

through which individuals attempt to make sense of behaviors that violate norms of

respectful interpersonal behaviors (Pearson, 2010). A spiraling effect may take place with

a series of counter incivilities between the instigator and the target when facing attacks on

self-worth (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Once spiraling escalates to attacks, more

aggressive acts may result (Estes & Wang, 2008). Pearson and associates (2000)

concluded that when incivility is left uncurbed, it may become more widespread

throughout the entire organization. When experiencing workplace incivility, targets will

also have emotional responses such as anger, fear, and sadness, which may invoke

feelings of poor efficacy, or behaviors associated with withdrawing or avoiding (Frijda et

al., 1989). Workplace incivility has detrimental effects on the behavior, health, and

attitude of targets. Specifically, workplace incivility has been shown to be significantly

and positively related to turnover intention (Dion, 2006; Lim et al., 2008), and decreased

job performance (Cortina et al., 2001; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003; Pearson et al., 2000;

Pearson & Porath, 2004, 2005).

Figure 1

An Adapted Version of Incivility Spiral Example.

Uncivil Behavior

Perception of
negative emotions

Desire for revenge
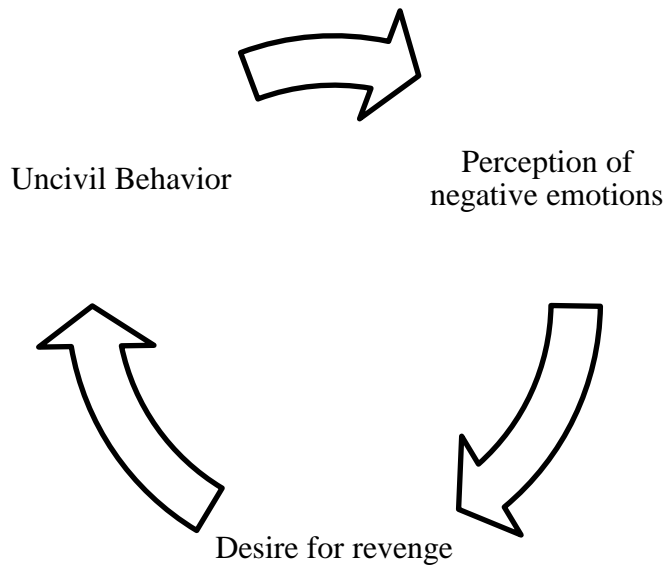
The Big Five Factor model will be used to understand how personality traits can moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes. The five-factor taxonomy is a broad categorization of personality traits, commonly referred as the Big Five, which includes neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Goldberg, 1981; McCrae & Costa, 1997). Among these five broad factors, more detailed personality traits are represented. In short, neuroticism represents traits associated with anxiety, sadness, and nervous tension. Extraversion describes individuals as energetic, outgoing, and assertive. Openness describes the depth of an individual's mental and experiential life. Agreeableness consists of characteristics such as altruism and trust, while conscientiousness represents motivation control that boosts task- and goal-directed behavior. In a study investigating individual differences in workplace incivility, Milam and her colleagues (2009) found

that agreeableness related negatively to the perception of workplace incivility (i.e.,

individuals with low levels of agreeableness were more likely to be disrespectful which

also caused coworkers to react differently towards these individuals), while neuroticism

related positively to the perception of incivility. Milam and associates (2009) also note

that individuals high in extraversion, who tend to view events positively, might be less

likely to notice or be offended by uncivil behaviors in the workplace. Sliter and

associates (2015) found that conscientiousness positively related to perceived incivility,

and emotional stability (i.e., the opposite pole of neuroticism) negatively related to the

perception of incivility (i.e., neuroticism related positively to the perception of incivility).

Personality traits are linked to employees' job performance and turnover intentions. For

example, conscientiousness has the strongest and most consistent validities over three

distinct broad performance domains (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001),

extraverted employees are associated with greater training proficiency (Mount & Barrick,

1998), and employees with higher levels of agreeableness have better contextual

performance (McManus & Kelly, 1999). Only a weak correlation ($\rho = .08$) was found

between job performance and emotional stability (i.e., the opposite pole of neuroticism)

in Barrick and Mount's (1991) meta-analysis; yet, neuroticism positively predicted

employees' intentions to quit, while both conscientiousness and agreeableness negatively

predicted employees' turnover intention (Tett et al., 1991; Zimmerman, 2008).

Figure 2

The Five-Factor Model of Personality (FFM)

Openness

Conscie-
ntiousne
ss

Neuroti-
cism

Big Five
personality

Conscie-
ntiousne
ss

Extrave-
rsion
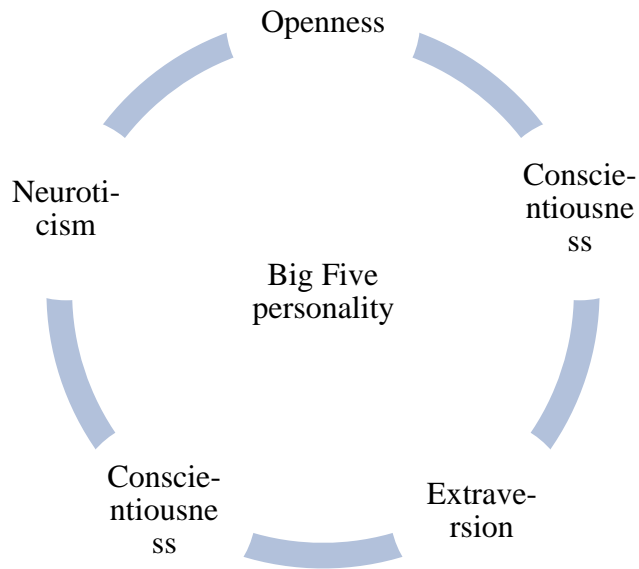
The transactional model of stress and coping strategies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987) is suitable for this study because it enhances the understanding of both the moderating role of personality traits and the mediating role that coping styles play in the relationship between workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes. According to this model, when individuals encounter stressful events in the workplace, they gauge each situation to determine its level of potential harm, threat, or challenge in two distinct and parallel routes (Gaudioso, et al., 2017; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987; Porath & Pearson, 2012). For example, when employee experienced incivility at work, this person may evaluate the significance of the events (i.e., primary appraisal), and decide what can be done to cope with this event (i.e., secondary appraisal) (Park & Ono, 2017). In secondary

appraisal, Folkman and Lazarus (1980) outlined the structural differences between problem-focused coping (i.e., dealing with problem to alter the stressful situation) and emotion-focused coping (i.e., managing or reducing the emotional strain resulting from a stressful situation) (Carver et al., 1989). Another widely used dimension of coping is engagement (active) versus disengagement (avoidant), which emphasize the inclination towards or away from stress (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). Engagement coping and problem-focused coping correlated with better psychological adjustment (e.g., problem solving, emotional expression, or seeking social support); while disengagement coping correlated with reactions that distance the stressor or one's emotions or thoughts (e.g., withdrawal or denial) (Compas et al., 2001; Downey et al., 2010). These coping strategies together unfold the moderating role that personality traits (neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion) play in the relationship between targets' perception of incivility and its organizational outcomes. For example, Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) found that individuals high in neuroticism tend to make efforts to escape or avoid the current stressful situation (such as turnover intention) when dealing with stress; Penny and Spector (2005) found that a similar trait, negative affectivity, which correlates highly with neuroticism, moderated the relationship between incivility and a broad job performance dimension (i.e., counterproductive work behavior). Likewise, when encountering daily stressors, individuals high in extraversion tend to adopt problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies, and are less likely to avoid the stressful situation (Costa & McCrae, 1990; Kardum & Krapić, 2001; McCrae & Costa, 1986; Watson & Hubbard, 1996). Bell and Luddington (2006) found that individuals high in positive affect (PA; a trait correlated with extraversion) were not as

negatively affected by incivility as those with lower levels of positive affect. It stands to

reason that conscientiousness should also moderate the relationship between incivility

and job performance. When people high in conscientiousness encounter incivility or other

misbehavior in the workplace, they tend to adopt problem-based coping strategies to

manage the situation, rather than adopting disengagement coping strategies such as

avoiding from the stressor (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007; Watson & Hubbard,

1996). Nandkeolyar and his associates (2014) found that conscientiousness moderated the

negative relationship between abusive supervision (i.e., a more intense form of workplace

misbehavior as compared to incivility) and a target's job performance. When employees

have higher levels of conscientiousness they are less likely to quit their jobs due to the

costs of turnover (Erdheim et al., 2006). Studies also support that employees high in

agreeableness are more likely to cope with work-related conflict utilizing problem-

focused strategies (Selvarajan et al., 2016; Vickers et al., 1989), and are less likely to use

avoidance strategies (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010; Hooker et al., 1994; Watson &

Hubbard, 1996). Besides, these coping styles, such as active coping, and disengagement,

could potentially serve as mediators between incivility and its organizational outcomes.

For example, active coping served as a workplace stress offset in the relationship between

stress and negative organizational outcomes (e.g., Cox et al., 2015; Koeske et al., 1993;

Lu et al., 2010). When stressed employees adopted active coping, their workplace self-

efficacy increased, therefore reducing their intention to turnover (Lai & Chen, 2012).

And active coping was positively related to better performance in both school and

workplace (Parker et al., 2014; Lu et al., 2010). Another coping style, disengagement

coping was found to increase employees' turnover intention (Wash, 2011). Employees'

use of disengagement coping strategies was found to mediate the relationship between perceiving psychological contract violation (i.e., a significant predictor of incivility) and turnover intention (Azeem et al., 2020). Similarly mental disengagement coping strategies fully mediated the indirect relationship between performance-related anxiety (i.e., a negative emotion related to workplace incivility) and turnover intention (Lin et al., 2017).

Figure 3

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping Strategies
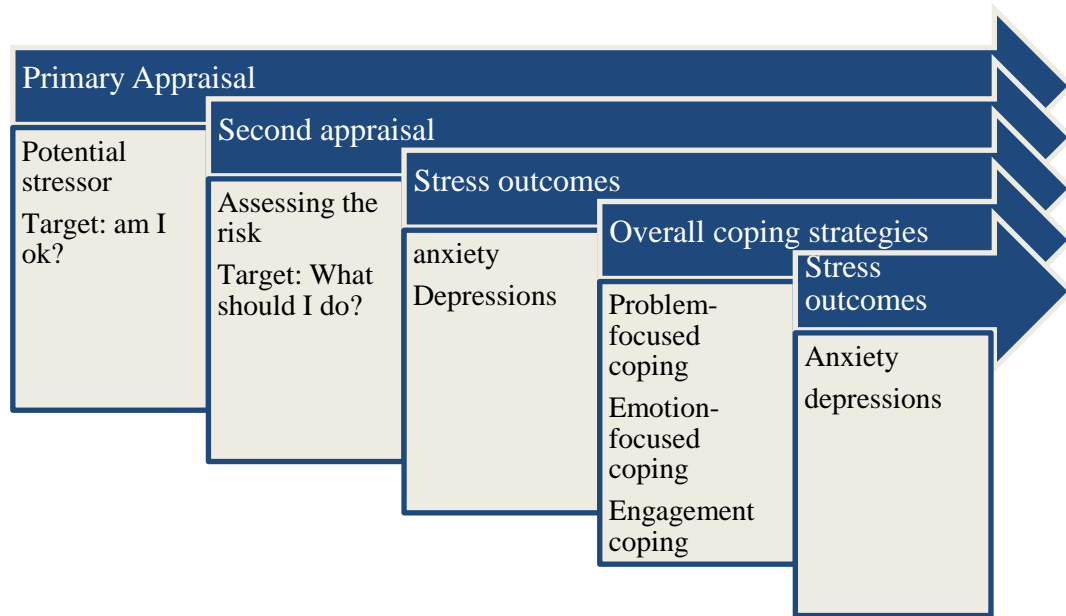
To sum, workplace incivility theory predicts that experiencing incivility has important negative linkages to important organizational outcomes. In this study, then, incivility should be linked negatively to job performance and positively to turnover intent. Big Five personality trait theory propounds that traits can serve as moderators of relationships between organizationally relevant constructs, such the incivility-job performance and incivility-turnover intent relationship. These personality traits work as

moderators because they are related to the kinds of coping strategies one uses when confronted with incivility. An extraverted worker uses active coping strategies to handle being affronted, while those high in neuroticism tend to use disengagement strategies. Those coping strategies could also serve as mediators of relationships between organizationally relevant constructs, such the incivility-job performance and incivility-turnover intent relationship. The unique combination of these three theories will allow for enhanced understandings about how these variables are linked theoretically, empirically, and practically.

Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between workplace incivility and two organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as well as the moderating role of the Big Five personality traits, and potential mediating role of coping style in the context of China (i.e., various researchers have posited that Chinese react different than their western counterparts and will more easily tolerate mild behaviors. This is theorized due to the Chinese principles of collectivism and power distance orientation which are inherent in the Chinese workplace) (Zhan et al., 2019). Investigating the moderating role of targets' personality traits under the transactional model of stress will provide insights about how targets of incivility interpret and respond to this uncivil behavior as an occupational stressor (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Mao et al., 2019). Moreover, this study sheds lights on how coping styles effect the process by which workplace incivility impacts organizational outcomes for targets (Hershcovis et al., 2017), as well as answers calls for research by Cortina and Magley (2003) seeking to determine whether coping strategies alleviate or worsen the impact of workplace

incivility. The exploration of organizational outcomes at the level of individual employees, namely job performance and turnover intention, also extends understanding of how incivility may have a major effect on the economic feasibility of the organization (Batista & Reio, 2017; Reio & Ghosh, 2009). Furthermore, investigating the personality traits as moderators of the relationships between workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes will better explain the significance of experiencing incivility in the workplace. Prior research has been confined to exploring which personality traits are associated with more frequently reported workplace incivility (Leiter et al., 2010; Milam et al., 2009; Schilpzand et al., 2016). This research takes the concept one step further by investigating the relationship of incivility frequency with its impact on specific organizational outcomes.

In terms of the research setting, most workplace incivility research has been conducted in the U.S.; only a few studies have examined incivility in other cultures despite its prevalence, such as in China (e.g., Chen et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014; Yeung & Griffin, 2008). Distinct from America, the preoccupation with social relationships in Asian society, especially Eastern Asian society, comes from the principles of Confucianism (Yum, 1988). Confucian values advocate forgiveness, which when practiced in the workplace may curb any negative reaction targets would have towards instigators (Liu et al., 2010). Moreover, Ting-Toomey (1994) supported that most Chinese will try their best to seek compromise for the sake of social harmony. Mao and associates (2019) contended that even when collectivist-oriented Chinese perceive incivility, they tend to avoid hurtful emotion, and act with normal and appropriate behavior. Accordingly, class, kinship, and nepotism might impact how targets react to

incivility (Ghosh, 2017). This study draws on data from Chinese working adults, thus offers a unique angle to explore how country-specific constructs impact the relationship between incivility and its organizational outcomes. The findings are anticipated to inform HRD professionals about the distinctive Chinese workplace phenomenon and enlighten them of the need to address these issues proactively.

There is also a scarcity of research on how personality traits are linked to the perception of uncivil behavior in China. Additionally it is not clear whether previous findings can be generalized to Asian countries. The current study is expected to fill the gap by investigating the role of the Big Five traits in forming targets' perceptions of workplace incivility, as well as how experiencing workplace incivility is associated with job performance and turnover intention. A cross-cultural study demonstrated the success of this model with acceptable reliability and factor structure across 56 nations in 10 world regions including China (Schmitt et al., 2007). Examining these factors will be helpful for HRD researchers and practitioners to understand the nature of workplace incivility and better develop strategies to restrain the growth of incivility, improve employees' job performance, and decrease turnover intent. This study's proposed findings about personality traits are expected to help employers evaluate the suitability of job applicants for positions across various setting in the workplace, and will support or refute existing theories about turnover intention and job performance.

A better understanding of the nuanced role that personality traits plays in the linkages between incivility and organizational outcomes can provide valuable insights for HRD researchers and practitioners. Rude behavior in the workplace should not be written off as innocuous acts. Seemingly trivial acts can foment an insidious workplace where

employees are not responsible for their uncivil behavior and later may unduly engage in more intense acts of workplace violence (Ghosh et al., 2011). Giving more clarity to the role of personality traits in the workplace can explain why employees do not react to mistreatment in a uniform manner. Based on their analysis, Coyne and associates (2000) believe that employees' personality traits have the potential to be strong predictors of perceiving incivility. Therefore, this information could be utilized by company managers to identify potential targets of incivility before victims actually experience incivility. It is the job of managers to illuminate ways to minimize the detrimental effects of incivility to their employees. Leiter and associates (2012) recommended an intervention for use by HRD professionals which involves social interaction on a weekly basis between employees of all levels. In these weekly meetings employees are asked to talk about incivility and its effects on their life. Current findings may provide insightful methods for HRD professionals to mitigate incivility via personality tailored interventions, thereby providing assistance to managers in forestalling targeted employees' potential negative reactions (Taylor et al., 2011).

Delimitations of the Study

To increase the external validity of findings, it would be optimal to explore the incivility-trait-organizational outcomes link in multiple organizations across a number of geographic regions. However, this study will focus solely on the context of China.

Figure 4

Hypothesized Mediation and Moderation Model of Perceived Incivility.

Neuroticism

Extraversion

Active
Coping   H6   H5

H3   H4

Job Performance

H1

Workplace Incivility

H2

H7   H8   H9   H10

Disengagement

Conscientiousness

Agreeableness

Turnover Intention
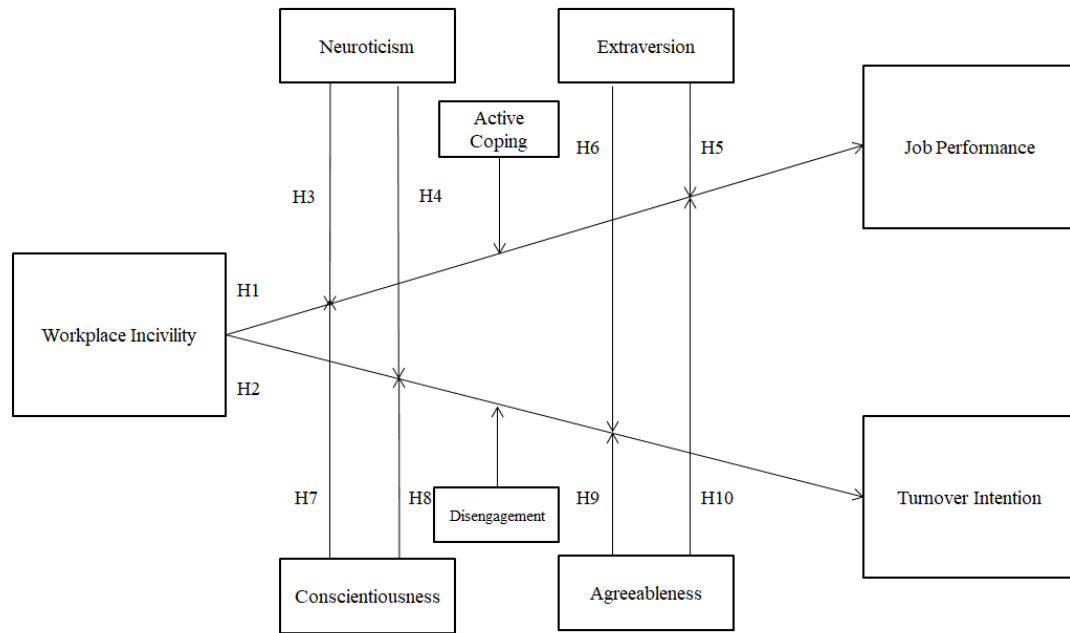
H1 & H2 : direct model
H3 – H10 : moderation model
Active coping and Disengagement: mediation model

Structural model

Definition of Terms

Big Five model: The Big Five model is a broad classification of personality that proposes personality is composed of five major factors: neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, and conscientiousness (Costa & McRae, 1990).

Coping: This term is defined as cognitive and behavioral efforts used by an individual in an attempt to manage stressors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p.141).

Instigator: This term refers to a person who brings about or initiates uncivil behavior in the workplace (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Job performance: This term refers to scalable actions, behavior and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals (Reio & Wiswell, 2000).

Onlooker: This term refers as a person who observed workplace incivility being perpetrated against another (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Target: This term refers as a person who was selected to be the target of uncivil behavior (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Turnover intention: This term refers to the phenomena of employees intending to leave an organization voluntarily (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Workplace incivility: This term means that incivility is "low intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. These uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter II begins with an overview of workplace incivility, followed by a review of the Big Five personality traits and organizational outcomes of workplace incivility.

Workplace Incivility Overview

The theme of rising interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace is both widely prevalent and a universal experience of human life (Smith et al., 2011). Interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace also poses an increasingly difficult challenge for the human resource development (HRD) professionals because these minor forms of aggression can pile up into more intense forms of aggression such as bullying (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Interpersonal mistreatment is a particular, antisocial workplace deviance, which referred to as "a situation in which at least one organizational member takes counter-normative negative actions - or terminates normative positive actions - against another member" (Cortina & Magley, 2003, p. 247). Limited research had been conducted in this field until Robinson and Bennett (1995) raised awareness for common misbehaviors such as aggressive shouting, spreading rumors, purposely withholding information, and untimely replying to e-mails. Now these misbehaviors are investigated under a series of labels known as "bullying," "social undermining," "emotional abuse," and "incivility" accordingly.

Over the last 20 years, the burgeoning organizational research on interpersonal mistreatments has been focused on direct, aggressive, or hostile behavior; actions which can be clearly linked with intent to harm (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Edwards &

Greenberg, 2010). Data has indicated that these behaviors occur frequently in the American workplace. According to Namie and Namie's (2009) research on the outcomes of workplace bullying on the general population, workplace bullying is a "silent epidemic" (p.9), with 37 percent of American employees having been bullied in the workplace, and 49 percent of adult Americans having been impacted by either experiencing or witnessing it (p. 293). Duffy and associates (2002) conducted an empirical study about social undermining in the workplace and found that higher levels of undermining from supervisor are associated with more negative individual and organizational outcomes. For example, supervisor undermining negatively relates to organizational commitment ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$). Similarly, supervisor undermining negatively relates to self-efficacy ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .05$). However, supervisor and coworker undermining positively relate to somatic complaints, with relationships of ($\beta = .19$, $p < .05$) and ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$) respectively. There have been numerous studies focused on emotional abuse in various job settings. In one study, clinical nurse managers reported a 77 percent rate of emotional abuse, and staff nurses reported experiencing emotional abuse at a rate of 82 percent (Braun et al., 1991). Other studies have found that 60 percent of workers in the retail industry (Ellis, 2000) and 23 percent of faculty and university staff (Spratlen, 1995) have experienced emotional abuse. These findings have revealed the expanding prevalence of interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace which can have a detrimental effect on organizations and individuals alike.

Defining Workplace Incivility

Interpersonal mistreatment is becoming surprisingly common in today's workplaces (Cortina et al., 2001). Thus far, researchers have focused on the

mistreatments previously discussed; i.e., bullying, social undermining, and emotional

abuse. Less research has examined workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999;

Neuman & Baron, 1997). Bullying, as a form of mostly non-physical violence, is

different from incivility. According to Namie (2003), on a 10-point scale of

organizational disruption, incivility ranges from 1 to 3, while bullying varies from 4 to 9

depending on the amount it interferes with the "accomplishment of legitimate business

interests." (p.1) People involved in workplace incivility can be onlookers (who witness

it); targets (who experience it); or instigators (who perpetrate it). Common examples of

workplace incivility include: Two employees are talking during another employee's

presentation (i.e., the presenter may perceive this as disrespectful behavior); or a group of

colleagues leave for lunch together but leave another behind (i.e., the left-out employee

might take this as an affront); or some colleagues ask for another employee's input on a

project and then neglect to share the credit (i.e., the contributor might perceive this as

unfair).

Prevalence of Workplace Incivility

Workplace incivility, as a subtle form of mistreatment, is currently on the rise

(Pearson et al., 2000; Porath & Pearson, 2013; Taylor et al., 2016). Early in 2000, 327

front-line customer service employees were surveyed in a national poll, and more than

half of them reported that they experienced incivility during the preceding three years

(Pearson et al., 2000). In 2011, half of respondents said they were treated badly at least

once a week which is up from a quarter of the respondents in 1998. Over the past 20

years, thousands of U.S workers were surveyed by Porath & Pearson (2013) with 98

percent of respondents reporting having experienced uncivil behavior and 99 percent

reporting having witnessed it (Porath & Pearson, 2013; Porath, 2016). A study of 2,191 Japanese employees and 1,071 Canadian employees indicated that at least one form of workplace incivility were experienced by 52.3 % of Japanese respondents and 86 % of Canadian respondents in the previous month (Tsuno et al., 2017). Furthermore, Rosenstein and O' Daniel (2008) surveyed 133 hospital employees of incivility in nurses, certified RN anesthetists, and surgical technologist and 74 percent of nurses, 80 percent of surgical technologists, and 100 percent of anesthetists have witnessed uncivil behavior by registered nurses (McNamara, 2012).

At first, the majority of the research into workplace incivility sampled populations predominantly in the United States, but now incivility literature has begun emerging with samples from non-US populations including the U.K. (Hanson, 2001; King et al., 2011); Canada (Spencer Laschinger et al., 2009; Leiter et al., 2012; Van Jaarsveld et al., 2010); South Korea (Hong et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2013; Shim, 2010); Japan (Jacobs et al., 2016; Tsuno et al., 2017); Indonesia (Handoyo et al., 2018) and China (Yeung & Griffin, 2008). The fact that there are now a multitude of studies from a variety of countries suggests that workplace incivility is not confined to one geographic area but an increasingly common phenomenon worldwide which merits considerable research and organizational attention.

Incivility research was also reported across a variety of industries, including the legal sector (Cortina et al., 2002; Cortina & Magley, 2009); universities (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Nordstrom et al., 2009), real estate (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Miner et al., 2012); healthcare (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Laschinger et al., 2009; Trudel & Reio, 2011); government (Reio, 2011); finance (Blau & Andersson , 2005; Lim & Teo, 2009);

retail (Kern & Grandey, 2009; Walsh et al., 2012) and military (Doshy & Wang, 2014; Kabat-Farr & Cortina, 2012). The research represents considerable participants across different industries, yet few HRD practitioners recognize the hidden cost of workplace incivility (Porath & Pearson, 2013).

Cost of Workplace Incivility

Workplace incivility is a growing phenomenon (Barlett, 2008; Pearson & Porath, 2005; Porath & Pearson, 2010), and past research on incivility has linked this behavior with various adverse organizational outcomes that affect targets and observers. In a study of 1,180 public employees, Cortina et al. (2001) found that incivility negatively predicted job satisfaction (with satisfaction always declining when incivility rose) and that the frequency of incivility increases along with turnover intention. Through sampling 800 managers and employees across 17 industries, Porath and Pearson (2013) found that 48 percent of employees intentionally decreased their work effort; 38 percent consciously reduced the quality of their work; 66 percent admitted their performance declined; 78 percent said that their commitment to the organization declined, and 12 percent eventually left the company due to uncivil treatment.

From the observers' perspective, research is scarce. Reich and Hershcovis (2015) conducted two experiments on how witnessing incivility impacts observers' reactions towards instigators and victims and found that observers of incivility intend to punish instigators subsequently. Miner-Rubino and Cortina (2004) reported that observers who witnessed uncivil behavior towards female employees exhibited lower health satisfaction. Miner and Eischeid (2012) studied 453 restaurant employees and found that employees

who witnessed incivility towards same gender co-workers tended to report more negative emotionality. Decreasing job performances, declining commitment to organizations, turnover intention, and other negative outcomes exhibited by employees all take a psychological, emotional, mental, and physical toll in the workplace (Porath, 2015).

It is challenging to estimate the inclusive price of incivility case-by-case. Workplace incivility may escalate to aggressive forms of workplace behavior, such as workplace violence (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson et al., 2001; Porath & Erez, 2007). The estimated financial losses associated with the most severe cases of workplace violence range from $17,000 to $24,000 which amounts to a total cost of $23.8 billion annually when extrapolated for 1.4 million employees who are regularly abused at work (i.e., cost stemming from turnover, reduced productivity, absenteeism, as well as legal actions) (Ghosh et al., 2011; Sheehan et al., 2001; Tepper et al., 2006). Due to the prevailing negative effect of workplace incivility, organizations must pay the price in various ways such as losses in employee productivity and employee turnover (Porath, 2015).

The Construct of Workplace Incivility

The construct of workplace incivility was only just introduced to organizational literature during the past two decades (Greenberg, 2010). As a mild form of interpersonal mistreatment, workplace incivility is included in the domain of workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Andersson and Pearson (1999) first introduced the term "workplace incivility" to categorize a new group of negative workplace behavior (Schilpzand et al., 2014, p. 58).

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The authors (1999) contrasted this misbehavior with workplace civility – which is the act of showing consideration and courtesy that is consistent with workplace norms for respect. According to the literature regarding civility and politeness, incivility can be defined as disrespecting or ignoring others in a way which violates norms for respect in interpersonal relations (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Morris, 1996). According to crime and delinquency literature, incivilities were introduced as "low-level breaches of community standards that signal an erosion of conventionally accepted norms and values" (Lagrange et al., 1992, p. 312). Contrary to misbehavior, civil behavior is considered by researchers to be an expected behavior that frequently goes unnoticed, while uncivil behavior is conspicuous (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Pearson et al., 2001).

Another significant defining component of workplace incivility is workplace norms. Workplace norms refer to unspoken and shared moral standards established from tradition and culture in the workplace (Pearson et al., 2000). There are no universally recognized norms across organizations, but Andersson and Pearson (1999) contend that norms do exist for consideration among colleagues as "a shared moral understanding and sentiment among the members of the organization that allow cooperation" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 455; Hartman, 1996; Solomon, 1998). Incivility is confirmed as a violation of these norms (Feldman, 1984; Hartman, 1996, Pearson et.al, 2001).

Constructs Relevant to Workplace Incivility

In the last two decades, HRD researchers and practitioners have studied mistreatment in the workplace (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Porath 2015). This body of research examining mistreatment in the workplace has developed various constructs

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including workplace deviance (e.g., Robinson & Bennett, 1995); counterproductive workplace behavior (Mikulay et al., 2001); workplace aggression (e.g., Baron & Neuman, 1996); and interpersonal mistreatment (e.g., Lim & Cortina, 2005). Some of these concepts are serious forms of harmful behavior in the workplace, while others represent milder forms of mistreatment. This research will address how workplace incivility is distinct from these misbehaviors, yet overlaps with these conceptualizations in the workplace.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) defined employee deviance as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms, and in doing so threatens the well-being of the organization, its members, or both" (p. 556). Furthermore, they developed a taxonomy using multidimensional scaling which includes four major forms of deviant behavior: property deviance, production deviance, political deviance, and personal aggression. Property deviance represents serious forms of organizationally threatening behaviors; production deviance is minor forms of organizationally threatening behavior; political deviance is minor forms of interpersonally threatening behaviors whereas personal aggression is serious forms of interpersonally threatening behavior (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). These major forms of deviant behavior include both people and property involved in organizations (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), while workplace incivility as an integral part of workplace deviant behaviors, only deals with deviance directed at other individuals (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Greenburg, 2010). In particular, when physical aggression or violence are not measured in the scales of interpersonal deviance, and organizational deviance (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000), incivility is interchangeable with deviance (Reio & Ghosh, 2009). Additionally, the construct of workplace deviance

addresses only purposeful, intentional or voluntary behavior (Robinson & Bennet, 1995),

voluntary behavior (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), yet the acts of workplace incivility can

be unconscious or accidental (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998).

Another similar construct is counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Robinson

and Bennett (1995) defined this behavior as intentional behaviors performed by

employees that are intended to harm the interests of the organization. These behavioral

acts include theft, alcohol use, sabotage, sloppy performance, and absenteeism. Similar to

how workplace incivility overlaps with workplace deviance, yet is distinct from

workplace deviance, workplace incivility also overlaps with CWB, yet has qualities

which are separate from CWB. CWB is a behavior in which individuals commonly intend

to cause harm to another person or to the organization itself, whereas incivility is a less

deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to cause harm. Incivility's intent can be easily

denied or overlooked. For example, an instigator may explain their poor e-mail etiquette

was due to a target's overthinking or over-analyzing (Andersson & Pearson, 1999;

Cortina et al., 2001). Further, workplace incivility represents behaviors that are milder

forms of CWB. Some forms of CWB such as misuse of time, may be recognized as

workplace incivility, but alcohol use, theft, or sabotage cannot be recognized as such. On

the other hand, when a coworker is absent-minded during another co-worker's

presentation, this may be perceived as incivility, but nobody would categorize this as

CWB. Third, acts of workplace incivility can be considered as social job stressors that

can cause CWBs (Penney & Spector, 2005). The results of one U.S. longitudinal study of

663 individuals who were assessed 5 times over an 8-month period indicated that CWB

positively relates to experienced incivility (Meier & Spector, 2013). Using a sample of

307 public university students, Penney and Spector (2005) indicated that the frequency of incivility incidents is positively related to CWBs. Incivility is positively related to CWB as a stressor, yet incivility distinguishes itself from CWB through the absence of obvious intent and easily quantifiable damage.

Workplace microaggressions refer to unconscious misbehaviors in daily interactions, whether intentional or unintentional, that are targeted towards members of an "oppressed group" such as women or people of color (Torino et al., 2018, p.3). Similar to Cortina's (2008) theory of "selective incivility" (i.e., where the targets of incivility are women or people of color), this overlooked misbehavior is detrimental to targets and can cripple their job performance via the creation of inequities (Kabat-Farr & Cortina, 2012; Sue, 2010, p.25). Microaggressions are still different from incivility in several ways: First, microaggression was proposed by Pierce's (1970) based on observations of everyday racism experienced by Black Americans, while workplace incivility was initially introduced as the potential precursor to workplace violence (Andersson & Perason, 1999; Ghosh et al., 2011). Second, Torino and associates (2018) posit that only when the perpetrator of the incivility comes from a historically privileged group (e.g., white people, men) and the target comes from a historically marginalized group (e.g., women, people of color) can these situations be considered microaggressions, yet when categorizing an action as incivility, these specific group dynamics need not apply. Take race as an example, microaggressions can occur and recur throughout a person of color's life, continually reinforcing the victim's secondary class in society (Sue, 2010). Whereas general incivility occurs less frequently compared to microaggression, and does not

represent the historical inequity of underprivileged groups (e.g., Jim Crow Laws, Chinese Exclusion Act).

Workplace aggression is defined as "efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organizations in which they are presently, or were previously, employed" (Neuman & Baron, 1998, p. 395). A distinction should be drawn between the term workplace violence, which is an extreme form of physical assault, and aggression, which includes a wide range of detrimental or ruinous behavior towards individuals or organizational targets (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Baron & Neuman, 1996; Baron, 2004; Neuman & Baron, 2005). Table 1 (Greenburg, 2010) presents examples of eight types of workplace aggression. Some verbal or indirect forms of aggressive behavior may overlap with workplace incivility, such as yelling or shouting. Other examples of workplace aggression such as sabotage, theft, assault and homicide are more significantly damaging and prone to cause more legal consequences (Greenburg, 2010). Further, acts of workplace aggression always involve harmful intent, which differs from acts of workplace incivility in which intent is always ambiguous (Pearson et al., 2000).

Table 1

Examples of Eight Types of Workplace Aggression

Type of aggression	Examples
Verbal-passive-indirect	Failing to refute false rumors about the target and failing to inform the target about important feedback

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Verbal-passive-direct	Intentionally failing to return phone calls and giving the silent treatment
Verbal-active-indirect	Spreading rumors, and attempting to turn others against the target
Verbal-active-direct	Yelling and making racist remarks
Physical-passive-indirect	Denying promotions without good reason
Physical-passive-direct	Exclusion and intentional work slowdown
Physical-active-indirect	theft
Physical-active-direct	Homicide and assault

Review of the Characteristics of Workplace Incivility

Based on Andersson & Pearson (1999) and Pearson et al. (2001), the first essential characteristic of workplace incivility is low intensity. Behaviors which are characterized as low intensity include rude, insensitive or disrespectful behavior toward others at work (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Morris, 1996; Pearson et al., 2001). Baron and Neuman (1996) describe these behaviors as verbal, passive, and indirect, whereas Sliter and colleagues (2010) refer to workplace incivility as daily hassles – the irritating, frustrating incidents experienced on a daily basis, that are detrimental or threatening to a person's well-being (Lazarus,1984). This uncivil behavior, which is commonly associated with lower intensity (Lim et al.,2008), does not lead to physical assault, which

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distinguishes it from bullying or other forms of workplace aggression such as workplace violence (Baron, 2004; Cortina & Magley, 2009; Felblinger, 2008). Notably, on a scale of 1 to 10 of organizational disruption, workplace incivility rates from 1 to 3, whereas bullying rates from 4 to 9, and battery or homicide rate as 10s (Namie, 2003). That is to say, workplace incivility represents the lowest end of the severity or intensity spectrum (Potipiroon, 2014; Schat & Kelloway, 2005). Nonetheless, incivility often starts out as a daily hassle, but these acts can potentially spiral into aggressive events or physical aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Muir, 2000).

Another characteristic of workplace incivility is the violation of workplace norms. Workplace norms refer to the rules that a group uses to explain its appropriate and inappropriate values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors in the workplace (Roesler, 2009). These are norms of respect for co-workers which represent a mutual "moral understanding and sentiment among members that allow cooperation in the workplace" (Hartman, 1996; Pearson et al., 2001, p. 1399; Solomon, 1998). Workplace incivility, as a specific form of employee deviance (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), is a violation of norms which includes norms that are established by either formal or informal policies or procedures in the organization (Feldman, 1984; Hartman, 1996; Pearson et al., 1999). This voluntary behavior threatens the well-being of both the organization and its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), and disrupts mutual respect in the workplace.

The third distinguishing feature of incivility is its ambiguity of intent. The intent to harm another, as perceived through the eyes of the instigator, the target, the bystanders, or any combination of these, is ambiguous (Pearson et al., 2001). According to Cortina and Magley (2009), it is unclear to any relevant parties that the instigator had harmful or

vicious objectives. This characteristic ambiguity of intent to harm distinguishes

workplace incivility from other misbehavior in the workplace. In contrast to acts of

workplace violence (e.g., physical assault or homicide) or acts of workplace aggression

(e.g., sabotage or vandalism) in which the intent to harm is explicit, the intent to harm is

not as straightforward to all related parties when acts of workplace incivility are

performed (Estes & Wang, 2008). For example, when targets perceive uncivil behavior as

intentionally malicious, instigators might blame the target for misinterpreting their true

intent. Likewise, observers may not be able to accurately gauge the situation without

being personally involved, and thus these observers might not perceive a truly malicious

action as having intent to harm. Instigators prefer to use this disguised form of

mistreatment because it reduces their risk of being blamed for intentionally harming the

victim. Cortina (2008) theorized that instigators often hide directly discriminatory actions

by attempting to pass their actions off as incivility towards everyone. Especially when the

instigator of the incivility comes from a privileged group, those actions might be

considered as a form of microaggression (Torino et al., 2018). Instances of incivility such

as these are challenging for both targets and managers to recognize.

Spiraling Effect

The detrimental effects of workplace incivility affect the target, as well as the

observer (Cortina et al., 2001; Montgomery et al., 2004; Reio & Ghosh, 2009).

Andersson and Pearson (1999) refer to an "incivility spiral" as the starting point of an

upward spiral that begins when incivility happens and later leads to more physical and

intense forms of employee misbehavior (p.101). An accumulation of a series of minor

mistreatments has the potential to become the "tipping point" when a seemingly minor

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injustice brings about violent actions (Cortina et al., 2001, p.65). In the same vein, when the misbehavior from party A is reciprocated by party B as a retaliation for the accumulation of uncivil actions, the potential spiral effect occurs (Milam et al., 2009; Pearson et al., 2005). A similar "popcorn model" of workplace aggression, proposed by Folger and Skarlicki (1998), also explains how the adverse influence of unwanted situational factors can aggravate and impact workplace aggression (Cortina et al., 2001; Folger & Skarlicki, 1998, p. 56; Harvey et al., 2010). Therefore, lesser forms of interpersonal mistreatment, which initially seem inconspicuous, can potentially intensify to aggressive workplace behavior.

Andersson and Pearson (1999) also apply the concept of a tipping point to personal level phenomena. For example, when a specific matter between two parties is not resolved in the early stages, it may have detrimental effects on future interaction and any single subsequent hostile action can provoke a vengeful reaction (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). In the workplace setting, an employee may experience a trivial event after a series of other injustices which activates a "snowballing effect" (Gallus et al., 2014, p. 151). That snowball effect might result in the employee bringing a gun to the workplace the next morning (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Kinney, 1995). Andersson and Pearson (1999) refer to these examples as the "straw that breaks the camel's back," meaning that when an individual feels violated by a hostile event, he or she accordingly loses the motivation to remain in control over his or her own actions (p. 462). These examples serve to show how minor forms of interpersonal mistreatment may give rise to organizational violence and impair individual psychosomatic functioning (Cortina et al., 2001).

Antecedents of Experiencing Workplace Incivility

The majority of past research on incivility focuses on the target. Some researchers have been investigating the predictors of becoming the target of workplace incivility. Those different variables are not only correlated with experiencing uncivil behavior, but also uncover how employees respond to incivility at work.

Gender is one of the major antecedents to workplace incivility. Research has demonstrated consistently that women tend to disclose overall more than men (Brody & Hall, 1993; Dindia & Allen, 1992). They disclose more about intimate or personal topics with each other, such as complaints about their relationships, their kids, etc. Additionally, personal norms of respects and propriety vary by gender due to women being more aware of the nuances of social behavior in general (Lim et al., 2008; Maccoby, 1990; Montgomery et al., 2004; Tannen, 1990). In the same vein, studies have supported that women are more likely to report uncivil conduct in the workplace as offensive, insulting or inappropriate (Konrad & Gutek, 1986; Montgomery et al., 2004). Cortina and her researchers (2013) collected data from three organizations including a city government, a law enforcement agency, and the U.S. military and found that female respondents reported significantly more experiences of incivility directed towards them on the job than male respondents. In another study on 1,180 public-sector employees, Cortina and her researchers (2011) also indicated that female employees experienced more incivility than their counterparts. Additionally, Montgomery et al. (2004) also found that female employees are more likely to assess uncivil behaviors as inappropriate through their research, which surveyed observers of workplace incivility.

Two personality traits are found to impact employee's reactions to incivility (Naimon et al., 2013). The Five-Factor model (FFM) of personality has been used in the literature pertaining to organizations and psychology to examine the relationship between personality and employment behavior (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge & Ilies, 2002). One of the dimensions in the Big-Five Model is agreeableness, which is linked with being cooperative, considerate, forgiving, helpful, and generous (Graziano et al., 2007; McCrae & Costa, 1987; Milam et al., 2009). McCrae and Costa (1987) claim that individuals who have a low-level of agreeableness accordingly experience low levels of well-being and are more distrustful and suspicious. Milam and collogues (2009) posit that individuals who have low levels of agreeableness experience more incivility than those who have higher levels of agreeableness. Naimon and his colleagues' (2013) findings also support that there is a negative relationship between agreeableness and perceiving incivility.

Another personality trait is neuroticism, which is defined as the inclination to experience negative emotions such as anxiety or depression (Dollinger, 1995). Therefore, as would be expected, neurotic individuals are more prone to experience negative feelings and are more responsive to annoying and incentive events and the other people involved in these events (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; McCrae & Costa, 1996). This personality trait is closely related to negative affectivity (NA) (Watson & Clark, 1984). Research has shown that when the victimization happens, high NA individuals are more prone to be victims due to their displayed insecurity and anxiety (Aquino et al., 1999). Evidence suggests that high NA individuals are more responsive towards negative environmental stimuli than their low NA counterparts (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Further,

high NA individuals tend to view punishment from supervisors as unjust more often than low NA individuals (Ball et al., 1994). Individuals who recognize themselves as high in neuroticism may have problems displaying the proper emotions when dealing with others (Milam et al., 2009). Based on Diefendorff and Richard's (2003) study on emotional display rule perceptions, Milam and her collogues (2009) indicated that neurotic individuals more frequently become annoyed with incidents that are interpreted by the neurotic individuals as negative and ambiguous actions towards them. Later, these individuals will react in an aggressive manner, thus allowing themselves to be categorized as "provocative targets," which eventually leads to them becoming frequent targets of incivility (Milam et al., 2009, p. 60). In this same study, Milam and associates (2009) surveyed 179 full-time employees and their coworkers and found that employees with higher levels of neuroticism experience more incivility than their counterparts.

Another antecedent which predicts experienced incivility is conflict management style, specifically the integrating/problem-solving style and the dominating style (Trudel & Reio, 2011). According to Weider-Hatfield and Hatfield (1995), integrating styles are positively related with interpersonal outcomes, while dominating styles are negatively related to interpersonal outcomes. When taking a closer look at a sample of school administrators, employees with less use of the integrating conflict management style reported increased uncivil behavior acted upon them (Bartlett, 2009). Trudel and Reio (2011) established that employees with an integrating conflict preference might be less likely to experience workplace incivility due to their openness and joint problem-solving orientation. Their findings support that individual with an integrating conflict management style will be less likely to experience incivility.

Counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB) refers to an employee's deviant workplace behaviors that threaten the wellbeing of an organization and its members (Maertinko et al., 2002; Robinson & Bennet, 1995). When employees engage in CWB, their actions motivate targets or observers of CWB to fight back with uncivil behavior (Meier & Spector, 2013). This is similar to how the targets of antisocial behavior also tend to react with uncivil behaviors towards their perpetrators (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Therefore, when employees engaged in CWB, they are more likely to experience workplace incivility. A longitudinal study on the reciprocal effects of CWB in 663 individuals also found that the observers or targets of CWB respond with uncivil behavior towards the perpetrators of CWB (Meier & Spector, 2013).

Individual Outcomes of Workplace Incivility

Incivility involves less intensity or antisocial behavior compared with other forms of deviance in the workplace (LaGrange et al., 1992). One single incident seems harmless in the workplace, but an aggregation of perceived incivility leads to negative outcomes for organizations (Estes & Wang, 2008; Kern & Grandey, 2009; Sliter et al., 2012). These outcomes include decreased job performance, reduction of job satisfaction, increased turnover intention, and eventually organizational exit.

As for job performance, when targets experienced workplace incivility, various performance-related outcomes were negatively affected, such as creativity, task performance, and organizational citizenship behavior (Chen et al., 2013; Giumetti et al., 2016; Porath & Erez, 2007; Sliter et al., 2012; Taylor et al., 2012). When targets experienced incivility, Pearson and Porath (2005) found that employees tended to

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decrease their work effort, their time spent on the job, and their performance. In a study

of 420 Chinese subordinates and their supervisors in a manufacturing company, Chen and

her colleagues (2013) reported that workplace incivility is negatively related with task

performance ($r = -.16$, $p \le .05$). Similarly, in a study of undergraduate students in the

U.S., Giumetti and his collogues (2013) found that incivility was associated with lower

task performance and lower engagement. Porath and Erez (2007) found in their study that

uncivil behavior significantly reduced task performance, even imagining a rude incident

reduced employees' flexible and creative performance. In a study of 394 southeastern

public sector company in the U.S., employees' experiences of workplace incivility were

significantly negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviors directed both

individual (OCBI) and to the organization (OCBO) (Scruggs, 2014).

Job satisfaction is also a common variable associated with workplace incivility

(Blau & Andersson, 2005). This variable has been referred to as a chronic stressor by

Keashly and Harvey (2005) based on its frequency and endurance. Furthermore, in a

study by Lim and associates (2008) this stressor negatively affected targeted individuals'

job satisfaction. In a study of 1,106 U.S. hospital employees, nurses' perceptions of

incivility were strongly related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The

results of a study by Spence and her colleagues (2009), which sampled 612 Canadian

staff nurses, supports the notion that targets' perceptions of supervisor incivility are

strongly related to both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Similarly, Bunk

and Magley (2013) found that higher incivility frequency is associated with greater

emotionality, which is sequentially associated with increased satisfaction (Bunk further

explained that the effect for work satisfaction is always positive no matter what predictor

variables are added in regression analysis). In a sample of 368 Australian employees, incivility was correlated with lower satisfaction in coworkers and supervisors and lower psychological well-being (Martin & Hine, 2005). Cortina and her colleagues' (2001) findings indicate that both men and women experienced the same negative effects on job satisfaction and career salience in response to uncivil behavior.

Turnover intention is a behavioral outcome of experiencing workplace incivility. This term refers to a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave one's organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). An employee's decision to leave his/her current position is costly at both an individual and an organizational level in the workplace (Lee et al., 2004). One study in a healthcare setting has reported that workplace incivility is significantly related with turnover intention among nurses (Oyeleye et al., 2013). In the same vein, another study demonstrated that nurses' reports of supervisor incivility were strongly related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (Spence Laschinger et al., 2009). In a moderated mediational model of workgroup incivility, Miner-Rubino and Reed (2010) found that when employees experienced workplace incivility from their workgroup, they began to have doubts about other organizational members, accordingly felt less satisfied with their job, and started to have turnover intentions. When taking a look at the mediation effect of job burnout on the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention, Rahim and Cosby (2016) found that workplace incivility cannot directly impact turnover, rather it correlated with decreased job performance, increased job burnout, and in turn positively related with turnover intention. Another study reported that 12 percent of employees actually quit their jobs because they experienced incivility from their coworkers or supervisors (Pearson, 1999).

One of the most hurtful outcomes following turnover intention is employee exit (Lim et al., 2008; Pearson & Porath, 2005). Organizations often fail to perceive the link between incivility and employee exit; Pearson and her colleagues (2000) gave two reasons: First, employee exit happens months or more after targets experience workplace incivility; second, targets often choose to leave without explanation because they fear a response by their original instigators if they are to speak out or because they do not want to be viewed as hypersensitive individuals or troublemakers by their former employers. Targets either fear that this type of reputation might find its way to their new places of work or that airing their grievances would make no difference. It is estimated that never learning an employee's reason for exit has an average organizational cost of about $50,000 per exiting employee across all jobs and industries in the United States (Sguera et al., 2016). Porath and Pearson (2010) found that low-level employee departures cost organizations 30 percent – 50 percent of employees' salary, and up to 400 percent for high-level employees. Furthermore, when employees experience workplace incivility, they may perceive that organizations have failed their expectations about interpersonal integration (Pearson et al., 2001). One of the participants from Pearson and her collogues' (2001) study revealed that when organizations do not punish instigators, especially those in higher level positions, it accordingly leads to ineffective work practices. As a result of such violations and potential discomfort, targets feel threatened, and leave organizations (DeBecker, 1997; Greenspan, 2014). Porath and Pearson (2012) found that when experiencing incivility, a target's fear was positively associated with a target's exit ($\beta = .37$, $p < .01$).

Research has shown the insidious nature of workplace incivility at the organizational level. These negative outcomes can erode individuals' wellbeing and make it even harder for the HRD practitioner to help manage personnel.

Emotional Outcomes of Workplace Incivility

Experiencing workplace incivility is found to have relationships with both emotional and health-related outcomes for targets. The major outcomes include anger, sadness, fear, and social ostracism.

Incivility has been found to be a leading source of anger in the workplace (Gibson & Callister, 2010; Grandey et al., 2002). Anger is an expected common response to stressful and unpleasant situations that is activated by a violation or an injury for which another is viewed as responsible (Greenspan, 2014; Lazarus & Lazarus, 1994; Porath & Pearson, 2012). The workplace has been recognized as one of the most frustrating settings for people (Allcorn, 1994; Bensimon, 1997), and the most common predictor of anger in the workplace is uncivil behavior (Domagalski, 1999). Porath and Pearson (2012) found that when experiencing incivility, the target is likely to experience anger. When employees feel continuously angry at work, they tend to decrease their efforts toward their work, which causes an overall decline in organizational productivity (Johnson & Indvik, 2001). Harlow (1998) posits that anger undermines productivity, prevents creativity, impedes the progress of initiatives, and destroys relationships. Porath and her collogues (2008) explored a specific form of incivility known as "status challenge" and found that targets experience anger when they perceive identity threats (p.1946). This may be due to a loss in self-respect or self-esteem after these their identity

is questioned. Targets who experienced more frequent uncivil treatment reported greater anger as measured by three items from positive and negative affect scales (PANAS) (β = .31, p < .001) (Watson et al., 1999).

Sadness is the emotional experience initiated by negative events that are perceived as unmanageable (Frijda et al., 1989; Porath & Pearson, 2012). In the scarce amount of existing organizational literature about sadness, discussions about this outcome have been limited to how organization should cope with death in the workplace (Stein & Winokuer, 1989) and how sadness is related with organizational powerlessness (Roseman et al., 1995). Far less research has explored the relationship between sadness and workplace incivility. Later Porath and Pearson (2012) argued that when targets perceive workplace incivility, their expectations are violated. Correspondingly, the levels of negative sentiment of the targets may be increased (MacKinnon, 1994, p.123), and targets feel emotional isolation and embarrassment (Pearson et al., 2001). As a result, the targets may feel helpless and sad (Porath & Pearson, 2012). Based on these arguments, Porath and Pearson (2005) found that targets who perceive higher level of incivility experienced higher level of sadness.

Fear is another emotional response to workplace incivility, which occurs when someone recognizes a threat or danger (Laundré et al., 2010). Organizational researchers linked fear with direct, physical assault or other overt misbehavior, such as workplace bullying, workplace violence, and sexual harassment (e.g., Barling, 1996; Keashly & Neuman, 2004; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1998). According to Barling (1996), experiencing workplace violence was associated with fear and turnover intention. In a study of 194 bank tellers, Rogers and Kelloway (1997) found that fear of

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future violence is a direct outcome of experiencing workplace violence. When targets of workplace bullying are attacked by their supervisors, the targets may perceive that their relationship with said supervisors is in jeopardy. Keashly and Neuman (2004) argue that subordinates will feel anxious, fearful, and other negative emotions when this supervisor-subordinate relationship is perceived to be declining. Workplace incivility as a milder form of mistreatment in the workplace may have the same negative impacts as related constructs of higher intensity behaviors (i.e., aggression, or bullying) (Hershcovis, 2011). Pearson and colleagues (2001) found that after uncivil behavior occurs in the workplace, employees may perceive that their expectations about interpersonal interaction were not met, as well as their assumptions about the "responsibilities of the organization to main those expectation" (p. 1408). Subsequently, failed expectations may lead to fear (MacKinnon, 1994). The findings of Porath and Pearson (2005) support the idea that people who perceive higher levels of incivility, accordingly sense higher levels of fear.

Another individual outcome worth notice is social ostracism, which has been used to describe the perception of being abandoned, ignored, or rejected by others (Williams et al., 2005). This perception damages people's sense of belonging and self-respect (Zadro et al., 2004), which Sommer and colleagues (2001) interpreted as a sense of social exclusion. In a workplace context, targets of the ostracism are usually unsure why they are being ignored (Sommer et al., 2001). Williams (1997) argue that this is due to the "attributional ambiguity" of the ostracism (p.146). A sample of 1,043 university students showed that both top-down and lateral incivility are positively linked to perceived ostracism, psychological distress, and academic disengagement (Caza & Cortina, 2010).

These emotional consequences associated with workplace incivility reveal its detrimental effects in the workplace which HRD managers should not ignore.

Individual Differences

Another issue address here with empirical support is the relationship between individual factors and the incidence of incivility (Burke et al., 1993; Klebig et al., 2016; Sliter et al., 2011; Milam et al., 2009). Individual differences refer to personality traits (e.g., extraversions) and other factors (e.g., occupation, gender, age) that influence individuals' responses (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Individuals have stable tendencies to engage in specific behaviors (Shoda & Mischel, 1993), and these varying tendencies affect the way an individual interprets specific social situations (Skarlicki et al., 1999). The present study broadens the literature on workplace incivility by exploring how individual personality differences predict the outcomes of workplace incivility.

Generally speaking, when workplace incivility occurs, both men and women have an equal opportunity to be the target, yet how they react towards the incivility varies (Pearson & Porath, 2005). According to Tannen (2012), male targets tend to be belligerent or fight back verbally against their instigators. Contrarily, based on a random sample of 4,608 practicing attorneys, Cortina and her associates (2002) found that female targets of workplace incivility were more likely to rely on coping strategies and recruit more social support than male targets.

When it comes to ethnic minority employees, workplace incivility is not equally distributed among all members of the workplace (Cortina, 2008). People of color are more likely to experience uncivil treatment from instigators of any race (Kabat-Farr &

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Cortina, 2012). One study by Roscigno and associates (2009) confirms that an employee's minority status is a significant determinant of managerial bullying. Specifically, Cortina and her associates (2013) examined the relationship between the race of the target and the exposure to workplace incivility in a sample of 653 employees, finding that minority members' average exposure to incivility was moderately higher ($M = 27.86$, $SD = 9.26$) than that of their white colleagues ($M = 25.87$, $SD = 8.40$).

Findings regarding the rates of experiencing workplace incivility also vary by occupation. From a sample of 1,662 U.S. federal court system employees, Cortina and her associates (2001) found that 71% of employees reported being the target of workplace incivility in the previous 5 years. In academia, Lampman and her associates (2009) demonstrated that 96% of female faculty and 99% of male faculty out of a sample of 399 professors from Alaska reported having experienced at least one act of student incivility-bullying. In the health care setting, Clark and associates (2013) found nearly 68% of nursing faculty in a sample size of 588 (95% women, 88% white) perceive faculty-to-faculty incivility to be a moderate (37.5%) or serious (30%) problem. When direct care staff in the hospital experienced workplace incivility, accordingly their productivity decreased (Hutton & Gates, 2008). In the customer service field, Sliter and his associates (2012) found that when bank tellers experienced incivility from coworker and customers, their sales performance tended to decrease correspondingly.

However, scarce research has been focused on trait-based constructs linked to workplace incivility (Milam et al., 2009). In one of the few studies, Sliter and his associates' HRD research (2014) demonstrated that emotional stability (i.e., the opposite pole of neuroticism) and openness related negatively with targets' perceptions of

incivility. Milam and his researchers (2009) found that targets low in agreeableness and those high in neuroticism experienced more incivility that their counterparts. This research seeks to gain a comprehensive picture of workplace incivility by evaluating how targets respond.

Being treated rudely, ignored, or excluded in the workplace can be more than a simply nerve-racking experience for the targets. Sadly, unless this misbehavior is charged with a discriminatory motive, the misbehavior might not warrant initiating a lawsuit with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) (Guerin, 2013; King et al., 2011). Even when cases are brought to court, subtle forms of discriminatory behavior, such as microaggressions (i.e., a covert form of discrimination similar to incivility), are unlikely to be used as evidence, because they may be inadequate to satisfy judges' criterion of racism and sexism except in circumstances where those behaviors are extreme or happen frequently (King et al., 2011; Torino et al., 2019). As of 2014, only two American states, California and Tennessee, had established laws dealing with a more intense form of interpersonal mistreatment; that is bullying in the workplace (Yamada, 2015). Thus, when targets experience a single act of a less intense form of workplace misconduct, such as, workplace incivility, organizations in the U.S. might overlook the negative outcomes it has on the workforce (Lim et al., 2008; Reio & Ghosh, 2009).

Substantial workplace incivility research in the United States has focused on its antecedents and outcomes at the individual level (Ghosh et al., 2011; Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010; Trudel & Reio, 2011), yet this seemingly trivial misbehavior has not been widely studied in Asia. One probable reason for this lack of research could stem from how perceptions of shared norms of respect vary across cultures, which may lead to

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varied thresholds of tolerance towards workplace incivility (Ghosh, 2014; Montgomery et al., 2004). For example, Americans often perceive personal questions (i.e., about age, relationship status, or salary) as an invasion of privacy, while in Asia, given the relational orientation of Asian society, Asians may perceive such questions as a way of showing concern or conversation starters. One study in Asia has examined the prevalence of workplace incivility, and how workplace incivility associates with employee engagement (Yeung & Griffin, 2008); another study explored the impact of workplace incivility on job burnout (Shi et al., 2018); and another study examined the moderating impact of narcissism on the relationship between incivility and job performance (Chen et al., 2013). However, these limited studies have failed to elucidate how targets' personality traits affect the overall experience of workplace incivility in Asian countries. Understanding how the personality traits of the targets of workplace incivility affect the frequency of experiencing workplace incivility would benefit organizations because it could lead to better methods of decreasing stress and improving the well-being of the workforce (Sliter et al., 2014).

Transactional Model of Stress and Coping

This transactional model of stress and coping strategies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) proposes that individuals' responses to a stressful event are the consequences of their cognitive appraisal process and subsequent coping behaviors (Noret et al., 2018). The commonly accepted model follows these steps: (1) the individual encounters with the stressful events; (2) then, the individual evaluates the situation and the available coping options (i.e., cognitive appraisal); (3) and finally, the individual executes the coping strategies (Carver et a., 1989; Guntert et al., 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Cognitive

appraisal is the assessment of the significance of the stressful situation for the individual's wellbeing (Honey et al., 2003; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This evaluation includes two appraisals, a primary and a secondary. In primary appraisal, the person gauges the events they encounter, and in secondary appraisals, the person evaluates what options can be taken to cope with the stressful situations (Folkman et al., 1986). The primary appraisal process varies across individuals; the same stressor may be interpreted as more or less threatening depending on the interpreter's judgement (Stewart & Nandkeolyar, 2007). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) categorized primary appraisal into three dimensions: (1) the appraisal of the encounter has no effect to impinge up the individual's well-being, (2) the appraisal of the encounter is not perceived as a threat, and the outcome of the encounter can help to maintain or improve an individual's wellbeing, and (3) the appraisal of the encounter is seen as threating, challenging, or harmful to the individual. Either a threat or a challenge in a situation, there will be responses to the situation. In secondary appraisals, either a positive or negative appraisal, in turn, initiates and influences how targets cope with challenges or threats with potential stressful situations (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987; Mawritz et al., 2014; Schilpzand et al., 2016). The secondary appraisal process is the construal of available resources to manage with the situation effectively (Eschleman et al., 2012). This process plays a decisive role in stressful situations because the final outcome relies on an individual's construal of available resources to manage with the situation effectively (Eschleman et al., 2012).

In the coping process, coping refers to the effort that an individual invests in order to handle the issue, thereby, alleviating or managing the stressful situation (Folkman et al., 1986; Scheck & Kinicki, 2000). Folkman and Lazarus (1980) classified two major

functions in coping: (1) problem-focused coping (i.e., active coping), referring to the use of strategies which seek to remove the stressor from the situation, such as carrying out steps to deal with problems; and (2) emotion-focused coping (i.e., disengagement), which aims to alleviate the negative feelings associated with the issue, such as seeking supports or trying to forget, avoid, or escape the problem. Folkman and Lazarus (1984) further explained that problem-focused coping occurs predominately when people appraise that something can be done to solve the stressful situation, whereas emotion-focused coping tends to occur when people appraise that nothing can be done to improve the stressful situation. Based on transactional model of stress and coping, we will further explain how personality traits, affect incivility and its organizational outcomes, furthermore both active coping and disengagement styles will be utilized to depict coping as a potential mediator between incivility and job-related outcomes in additional analysis.

Personality Traits Serving as Moderators

Building good interpersonal relationships in the workplace requires understanding others' feeling and how they conduct themselves in daily life (Chauhan & Chauhan, 2006). This is also a key aspect of personality, which is defined by Allport (1937) as the "dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment" (p. 48). Personality influences an individual's conduct in his/her daily life, especially in the workplace. Meanwhile, Nuttin et al. (1968) refer to traits as "direct perceptions representing definite aspects of the personality" (p. 212). Therefore, an individual's personality traits can predict individual differences in behavior (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hassabis et al., 2014). Previous studies suggest that an individual's function is impacted by whether he/she is an extravert or

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introvert; whether he/she understands and interprets information by being intuitive or

sensing; whether he/she appraises the environment by judging or perceiving; and whether

he/she makes decisions utilizing thoughts or feelings (Chauhan & Chauhan, 2006;

Lawrence, 1993; Kersey & Bates, 1984). Additionally, personality traits are considered

stable tendencies (Kreitler & Kreitler, 1990), and remain constant across a person's life

(Vernon, 1964).

The term, "personal traits," refers to characteristic patterns of people's thoughts,

behaviors and feelings (Pervin et al., 2005), which are of vital interest in organizational

research (e.g., Gou et al., 2014; Lounsbury et al., 2004). Previous empirical research has

linked personality traits with job performance, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and

career satisfaction (Barrick et al., 2001a; Barrick et al., 2001b; Judge et al., 2002;

Lounsbury et al., 2003). Research findings suggest that employee's personality traits have

varied impacts on behavior-related and job-related outcomes (Barrick & Mount, 2005).

Moreover, although personality traits played a vital role in interpreting incivility, few

trait-based studies have investigated workplace incivility. Exploring personality traits and

their correlations to related organizational outcomes and workplace incivility can provide

a more complete picture of workplace incivility.

Among various typologies of personality traits, the Five Factor model or Big Five,

has emerged as a powerful model which can be generalized across all cultures and has

remained stable over time (Barrick & Mount, 2005; Costa & McCrae, 1988; Judge et al.,

1999; McCrae & Costa, 1997; Pulver et al., 1995; Salgado, 1997). The Big Five is a

taxonomy for interpreting dimensions of personality (Kaiser & Hogan, 2011), including

extraversion (sociable and talkative), neuroticism (depressed and emotional),

agreeableness (forgiving and tolerant), conscientiousness (responsible and careful), and openness (curious and imaginative) (Norman, 1963). There have been only a limited number of trait-based studies which have explored workplace incivility (Bowling & Beehr, 2006), and even fewer studies have explored a target's perspective when experiencing workplace incivility. One of these studies sampled 179 employees and found that targets who are low in agreeableness and high in neuroticism report greater frequencies of incivility than their counterparts (Milam et al., 2009). Much uncertainty still exists about the relationship between the five-factor model and workplace incivility and its impact on organizational outcomes. This study will investigate the roles which four fundamental personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism) have on workplace incivility and subsequent work-related outcomes.

Agreeableness

Agreeableness or Likability (e.g., Costa & McCrae 1985; Goldberg, 1981; Norman 1963), refer to the act of being good-natured, gentle, cooperative, forgiving, and tolerant. Among the Big Five personality traits, this personality trait seems to be the most concerned with interpersonal relationships (Graziano et al., 1996). Hogan (1982) suggests that agreeableness allows people to deal with problems associated with living with groups of people. This characteristic of individuals might lessen the negative impact of conflicts (Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2011), and lower the incidence of perceived workplace incivility (Naimon et al., 2013). At a biobehavioral level, agreeableness is related to the regulation of frustration and anger (Ahadi & Rothbart, 1994). Individuals high in agreeableness may focus or prioritize on shared goals, and this focus prevents them from reacting with aggression as a response to their negative affect or disappointment with an

interaction (Meier & Robinson, 2004). Naimon and associates' (2013) findings also support the notion that individuals high in agreeableness are less likely to perceive incivility. They appear to see positive things in others and are less likely to be concerned by others' negligence (Skarlicki et al., 1999). Milam and associates (2009) also found that agreeableness plays a vital role in becoming a target of incivility. In the same study, they found that employees with low levels of agreeableness tend to report higher frequencies of perceived incivility than those who have higher levels of agreeableness. Agreeableness is also a significant predictor of job performance (Rothman & Coetzer, 2003), especially in the work context which requires high levels of interpersonal interaction and teamwork (Penney et al., 2011; Witt et al., 2002). Specifically, individuals who are low in agreeableness have been associated with lower contextual performance (McManus & Kelly, 1999; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Bettencourt and associates (2001) found that agreeableness predicted significant variance in service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors; while Penny and associates (2011) found that agreeableness predicted significant variance in contextual performance and counterproductive behaviors. There is also a negative relationship between agreeableness and intent to quit (Zimmerman, 2008).

Given their nature, agreeable individuals may be less likely to categorize specific behaviors as stress-inducing whereas others would recognize these same behaviors as intrusive. Thus, agreeable individuals will take longer to experience stress (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006). Even when made aware of a negative situation in the workplace, agreeable individuals were reluctant to engage in interpersonal aggression due to their nature of compliance and tolerance (Colbert et al., 2004). When experiencing workplace

incivility as a job stressor, people high in agreeableness tend to collaborate with their teammates and garner their support (Anand et al., 2001). The conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that people are motivated to gain, keep, and invest resources at work when they encounter a threat of loss. As a mild form of "daily hassle" (Cortina et al., 2001, p.65), when workplace incivility piles up over time, it drains employees' emotional and cognitive resources (Luria & Torjman, 2009). Employees might perceive the loss of these resources as stressful events and might use coping strategies as substitutes for these resources (Giumetti et al., 2013). Employees high in agreeableness are more likely to proactively employ workplace resources to better cope with work-related conflict (Selvarajan et al., 2016). For example, Vickers and associates (1989) examined coping styles in a sample of 551 military personnel, and agreeableness showed modest correlation with support seeking (i.e., sharing feelings to others or seeking companionship from others) ($r = .16$); and problem solving (i.e., making effort to analyze and solve problems) ($r = .15$). Furthermore, in a sample of 726 adults, Bowling and Eschleman (2010) found that agreeableness moderated the relationship between organizational constraint (i.e., a similar job stressor like incivility) and counterproductive work behaviors directed at the organization ($\beta = .05$, $p < .05$). O'Brien and DeLongis (1996) also found that those higher in agreeableness reported engaging in less confrontational coping strategies and more support seeking strategies compared with those lower in agreeableness. Additionally, in Carver and Connor-Smith's study (2010) agreeableness also predicted less overall disengagement (i.e., withdrawal or denial behaviors). Finally, in another study on spousal caregivers of patients with dementia, those high in agreeableness were less likely to adopt emotion-focused strategies (i.e.,

avoidance coping strategies or self-blame) (Hooker et al., 1994). Together for these

reasons and findings, this study also proposes that both a) the perception of workplace

incivility and job performance and b) the perception of workplace incivility and turnover

intention will be moderated by agreeableness, such that these relationships will be weaker

for employees high in agreeableness.

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness represents the individual differences in a person's will to

accomplish (De Raad, 2000), impulse control, conformity, organization, and

determination (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hogan & Ones, 1997). So far, very little attention

has been paid to the role of conscientiousness as a predictor of becoming the target of

workplace incivility (e.g., Sliter et al., 2015). Sliter and associates (2015) have published

a study which has quantified this relationship. In their study, conscientiousness positively

predicted that a target would perceive workplace incivility ($b = .10$, $p = .01$). Another

study by Taylor and associates (2012) provided evidence that the effect of workplace

incivility depends on an individual's conscientiousness when exploring moderated

mediation among workplace incivility, citizenship performance, affective commitment,

and employee's conscientiousness. Gartland and associates (2012) have shown that there

is a positive relationship between conscientiousness and "primary and secondary

appraisals of daily hassles," (p. 84), and workplace incivility can be considered a specific

type of daily hassles: workplace interpersonal hassles (Sliter et al., 2010). Therefore,

individuals with higher levels of conscientiousness who follow rules and obey norms,

might have more stringent standards in terms of interpersonal interaction, and tend to

perceive uncivil behavior more frequently. However, employees high in

consciousness are less likely to react in an aggressive manner compared with

employees low in conscientiousness (Berry et al., 2007; Berry et al., 2012). This is

because people high in conscientiousness tend to have appropriate self-control and stick

to formal and informal rules that could quench the desire to respond to abusive behavior

(Bowling et al., 2015). Because conscientious individuals are generally more goal-

oriented, they will possibly perceive workplace deviance (i.e., a more intense workplace

misbehavior) as a merely latent impeder of workplace achievement (O'Neill et al., 2011;

Pearson & Porath, 2005). Thus, they are capable of ignoring the workplace deviance in

order to accomplish their goals. Other research has also demonstrated that

conscientiousness shows a strong and consistently positive relationship with job

performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and a negative relationship with turnover intention

(Tett et al., 1991).

Conscientious employees are likely to anticipate stressors and restrain from

impetuous reactions that could result in financial or interpersonal problems (Carver &

Connor-Smith, 2010). This is consistent with the definition of continuance commitment

in the workplace, which refers to the commitment that employees associate with the costs

of leaving a company (Chang, 1999). For instance, conscientious victims may refrain

from leaving the organization in order to avoid a loss of income, a loss of access to health

insurance, or the opportunity costs of finding another position (Hamlin, 2019). Using a

sample of 183 automobile manufacturing employees, Erdheim and associates (2006)

found employees with higher levels of conscientiousness tend to have higher levels of

continuance commitment ($\beta = .31$, $p < .01$), meaning that they are less willing to leave an

organization due to the increased cost of turnover. Bowling and Eschleman (2010) argued

that highly conscientious employees are prone to focus on their job task despite encountering organizational constraints. Similarly, Watson and Hubbard (1996) posit that conscientious individuals come up with careful strategies to eradicate the issues they face, and they even give up other activities to focus more on the task of problem solving. To retain a high level of job performance, conscientious individuals may allocate their extra time and energy to deal with these constraints, which accordingly mitigates the adverse effects of stressors such as incivility (Lin et al., 2015). Similarly when they become aware of incivility or other types of misbehavior in the workplace, employees high in conscientiousness tend to respond with engagement coping (i.e., making efforts to manage the situation), and are less likely to respond with disengagement coping (i.e., staying away from the stressor or related feelings, such as withdrawal or avoidance) (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). Specifically, a study of 661 insurance claims processors in India found that conscientiousness moderated the negative relationship between abusive supervision (i.e., a more intense form of workplace misbehavior as compared to incivility) and victims' job performance only when these victims were low in conscientiousness (Nandkeolyar et al., 2014). Another study of 221 job incumbents in the southeastern USA found an indirect (weaker) effect of workplace incivility on citizenship performance through affective commitment (i.e., employees' perceptions of their emotional attachment to or identification with their organization) which was only shown in employees who were high in conscientiousness (Taylor et al., 2012). Fewer research has been focused on the association between disengagement coping and conscientiousness. One such study found that narrow disengagement coping (i.e., avoidance and withdrawal) was negatively associated with conscientiousness ($r = -.10$)

(Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). Thus, it is reasonable to believe that a) the perception of workplace incivility and job performance and b) the perception of workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by conscientiousness such that these relationships will be weaker for employees high in conscientiousness.

Extraversion

Extraversion describes individuals who are friendly, energetic, and talkative (Hirsh & Dolderman, 2007). Extraverted individuals are easygoing and sociable, prefer to engage in the unknown with confidence, and take an interest in interacting with people and things of the external world (Jung, 2016). Jung (2016) writes that extraverts tend to comprehend and interpret things with logic and seek harmony with the world, while introverted individuals perceive things based on their own criteria. Therefore, individuals who are highly extraverted might not acknowledge or be offended by uncivil behaviors and may be less likely to over-analyze incidents (Milam et al., 2009). So far, few studies have linked extraversion with targets of incivility (e.g., Milam et al., 2009; Sliter et al., 2015); and in these studies surprisingly no significant relationships were found. In addition, several organizational outcomes have been linked with extraversion. Barrick and Mount's (1991) meta-analysis of 22 studies reported a significant but modest relationship (true score correlation $\rho = .15$) between extraversion and sales performance. Stewart (1996) found employees with higher level of extraversion achieved better sales performance when rewards were given explicitly for new sales ($r = .15$, $p < .10$). As a result of their gregarious nature, extraverts also have demonstrated a strong, positive relationship with job embeddedness (Giosan et al., 2005). Extraverts make friends more easily, and in turn, are not as willing to break bonds of friendship in the workplace by

leaving their jobs (Choi & Lee, 2014). Zimmerman's (2008) findings also support the negative correlation between extraversion ($r = -.12$) and intention to quit.

Extraversion is also found to be highly correlated ($r = .66$) to positive affect (PA), which is the individual's positive emotions (e.g., joyful, confident, proud) (Rusting & Larsen, 1997; Watson & Clark 1997; Watson et al. 1999). Individuals high in PA tend to report higher levels of well-being, and see things in an enjoyable way (Hellgren et al., 1999; Milam et al., 2009; Roskies et al., 1993). Accordingly, people high in PA might not interpret or might even ignore environmental stressors, because they are less likely to perceive experiences as anxiety invoking or insecure (Marshall et al., 1992). Milam and associates (2009) posited that when uncivil actions are perpetrated to a high PA individual, he or she may not even interpret these actions as rude due to his or her own positive personality.

When encountering a stressful situation, such as incivility with the unclear intention to harm (Pearson et al., 2001), individuals high in extraversion also tend to respond with rational action, positive thinking, and use more direct (i.e., makes effort to change the stressful situation) emotion-focused and problem-focused (i.e., doing something to change the source of stress) strategies (Costa & McCrae, 1990; Kardum & Krapić, 2001; Watson & Hubbard, 1996), and are less likely to adopt avoidance coping strategies (i.e., intending to leave, or avoiding people in general) (McCrae & Costa, 1986). According to Gallagher (1990), extraverts perceive the stressful event as a challenge (e.g., hopeful) or an opportunity for reward, but not as a threat. Similarly, in a study among 432 retail service personnel, Bell and Luddington (2006) argued that employees with a higher level of positive affectivity (PA) tend to see customer

complaints as opportunities for improvement and choose more foresighted approaches for

coping with the stresses of such complaints. Their study found that positive affect

moderated the negative relationship between customer complaints (i.e., daily stressor)

and commitment to customer service, meaning that higher levels of positive affect have

the effect of reducing the negative impact of customer complaints on commitment to

customer service ($\beta = .11$, $p < .05$). More recently, another study on 220 undergraduate

students also found that positive affect moderated the relationship between incivility and

job performance, such that students with higher positive affect were not as negatively

impacted by incivility as students with lower levels of positive affect ($b = .08$, $p < .05$)

(Giumetti et al., 2013). Other research has found negative relationships between

Extraversion and avoidance coping (e.g., turnover intention) (Amirkhan et al., 1995;

Gomez et al., 1999). Thus, this study expects that both a) the perception of workplace

incivility and job performance and b) the perception of workplace incivility and turnover

intention will be moderated by extraversion, such that these relationships will be weaker

for employees who are higher in extraversion.

Neuroticism

Neuroticism refers to the emotional state of anxiety, insecurity, and worrying

(Mount et al., 1994). Neurotic individuals may have the inability to control their emotions

towards others; they tend to get nervous in unfamiliar environments or events and are

more likely to have feelings of dependence and helplessness (Wiggins, 1996). Ormel and

Wohlfarth (1991) argue that neurotic individuals are more likely to have unrealistic

beliefs and inefficient ways of coping with stress. Bolger and Zuckman (1995) found that

high-neuroticism individuals reported greater exposure and reactivity to interpersonal

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stress with more anger and depression than low-neuroticism individuals.

Correspondingly, when neurotic individuals experience displeasing events in the

workplace, they may interpret the events more negatively than other individuals would

interpret the events and are more likely to respond with confrontational coping strategies

(Suls & Martin, 2005). Additionally, some behavioral manifestations of neuroticism

(such as restlessness or fear of public speaking), may be seen as odd or annoying, and

later might turn neurotic individuals into a provocative target of incivility by their

colleagues. Some research also indicates that individuals with high negative affect (i.e., a

trait correlated strongly with neuroticism) are likely to translate ambiguous stimuli in an

aggressive and menacing way and might assume crises while others do not (Costa &

McCrae, 1990; Watson & Clark, 1984). Rather than focusing on situational demands,

neurotic employees tend to dwell in negative emotions (Rubino et al., 2012). When

individuals perceive the existence of frustration in the workplace; these emotions prevent

them from accomplishing work goals or achieving effective performance (Peters &

O'Connor, 1990). However, the link between neuroticism and job performance is still

ambiguous. Early in 1991, Barrick and Mount (1991) found no relationship between

neuroticism and job performance ($\rho < .10$), while Tett and associates (1991) found a non-

zero relationship between emotional stability (the opposite pole of neuroticism) and job

performance ($\rho = -.22$). Further, employees who have low levels of emotional stability

are more prone to quit their jobs. Zimmerman (2008) found that emotional stability ($r =$

$-.29$) has a stronger negative relationship with intent to quit compared with other traits.

When neurotic employees experience these emotional reactions, such as feelings

of frustration or anxiety in the workplace, it seems logical to consider this organizational

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frustration as a subdomain of the job stress area (Chen & Spector, 1992; Fox & Spector, 1999). One of the behavioral responses to frustration in the workplace includes effects on job performance (Spector, 1978). Cohen (1980) found that after experiencing frustration, employees perform less efficiently on tasks, and commit errors at an increased rate when performing complex tasks (Schmeck & Bruning, 1968). McCrae and Costa (1996) suggest that the influence of personality on behavioral response is impacted by the degree to which people adapt to their environments. One type of adaptation to the environment is the coping strategies that individuals employ to overcome, tolerate, or reduce stressful situation in their social environment (Nandkeolyar et al., 1992). When employees experienced constant frustration, Spector (1978) posited that individuals are likely to cope with the situation through turnover. Supporting this possibility, Bolger and Zuckerman's (1995) daily diary study of 94 students found that high-neuroticism participants engaged in significantly more escape – avoidance than did low-neuroticism participants. When taking a closer look at the measurement of this component, it includes wishful thinking and behavioral efforts to escape or avoid the current situation (i.e., intention to turnover). For example, in a study of 323 security firm employees, Beattie and Griffin (2014) found that neuroticism significantly moderated the relationship between the perceived severity of an uncivil event and ignore/avoid response ($b = .52$, $p < .05$), such that employees with higher neuroticism were more likely to ignore/avoid the instigator when perceiving an uncivil event. Thus, this study suggests that both (a) the relationship between perception of workplace incivility and job performance and (b) the relationship between perception of workplace incivility and turnover intention will be

moderated by neuroticism, such that these relationships will be stronger for employees high in neuroticism.

Coping Styles Serving as Mediators

Given the significant role of coping styles in the stress process, we have proposed that both a) the perception of workplace incivility on job performance and b) the perception of workplace incivility on turnover intention will be moderated by agreeableness, neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness. As discussed earlier, individuals often use different coping strategies when perceiving stressful events (e.g., Dijkstra et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2018) to buffer the negative outcomes of stressors (i.e., incivility), such as decreased job performance and increased turnover intention. Therefore, these two coping styles will be examined as possible mediating variables between incivility, and its outcomes.

Active Coping

Active coping strategy indicates efforts to alter perceptions of the stressor or qualities of the stressors (e.g., initiating actions, attempting to change the stressful situation, and avoiding negative thoughts) (Carver et al., 1989; Gopalan et al., 2021; Thompson et al., 2018). Individuals who hold this sense of control over adverse events are more likely to deal with stress effectively (Shields, 2001). Gopalan and her associates (2021) further argue the significance of the role that active coping plays to counteract the negative outcomes of stressors. Furthermore, Aspinwall and Taylor (1992) found active coping had a direct positive effect on adjustment to stress among 672 college freshmen. Similarly, individuals who adopted active coping strategies to cope with academic

stressors correspondingly experienced greater life satisfaction in a sample of 374

Argentinian medical students (Trucchia et al., 2013). Using a similar satisfaction scale,

multiple studies have found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover

(e.g., Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Mobley, 1977; Porter & Steers, 1973; Spencer & Steers,

1981). Likewise, research has shown a negative relationship between turnover intention

(i.e., the last step prior to turnover) and job satisfaction (e.g., Aydogdu & Asikgil, 2011;

Egan et al., 2004; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Koeske and associates (1993) further indicated

that active coping functioned as a workplace stress buffer in the relationship between

stress and adverse organizational outcomes. When stressed hotel employees engaged in

active coping, their workplace self-efficacy increased thereby correspondingly reducing

their intention to turnover (Huang et al., 2018; Lai & Chen, 2012). Cox and associates

(2015) found workers who engaged in social coping (i.e., active coping) experienced a

dampened relationship between perceiving community aggression (i.e., a more severe

form of misbehavior as compared to workplace incivility) and intention to turnover. Han

and associates (2015) later confirmed that active coping could help to reduce the

occurrence of work-family conflict (i.e., stressor event) as well as turnover intention.

Furthermore, active coping was positively related to job performance among 379 working

adults from a study conducted in three Chinese cities (Lu et al., 2010). Schiller and

associates (2018) found active coping was associated with higher performance in

stressful academic situations among 340 medical students in the United States. Similarly,

when employees were exposed to stressful working environments, increased use of active

coping strategies led to better task performance (Parker et al., 2014). Empirical research

has also investigated coping style as a mediator between stressors and negative outcomes

(e.g., Folkman et al., 1986a; Folkman et al., 1986b; Nandkeolyar et al., 2014). Thus, when individuals faced stressful situations, engaging in active coping accordingly offset the negative relationship between incivility and job performance, and enhanced the positive relationship between incivility and turnover intention. In other words, active coping mediates (i.e., alleviate) the negative relationship between workplace incivility and job performance and the positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

Disengagement Coping

Moreover, as discussed earlier, Hobfoll (1989) posited that stress results when people encounter a threat of resource loss at work. The accumulation of workplace incivility (i.e., a mild form of daily hassle) over a long period of time accordingly depletes employees' emotional and cognitive resources (Luria & Torjman, 2009). Giumetti and associates (2013) suggest that employees may interpret resource loss as stressful events and then adopt coping strategies as replacements for these resources. Following this theory, Walsh (2011) suggested that employees that engaged in disengagement coping styles are more likely to exhaust their psychological resources and thus increased their intention to quit in the workplace. Disengagement coping strategies refer to coping efforts that distract the person away from a stressor or its consequential emotions (e.g., avoidance, withdrawal, denial, escaping) (Carver et al., 1989; Waugh et al., 2020). Disengagement coping has been related to adverse outcomes such as increased burnout (Mitchell & Hastings, 2001; Shimizutani et al., 2008), increased anxiety (García-Alberca et al., 2012; Varni et al., 2012), and decreased psychological well-being (Dijkstra & Homan, 2016). More recently, disengagement coping was found to exemplify the

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indirect and adverse impact of frustration and anxiety on turnover intention (Lin et al., 2017; Ye & King, 2016). Emotion-focused coping (i.e., disengagement coping) significantly increased turnover intention among 495 sales workers for an industrial chemical manufacturer (Lewin & Sager, 2013). In the financial sector, individuals' use of disengagement coping strategies was found to mediate the relationship between perceiving psychological contract violation (i.e., a significant predictor of incivility) and turnover intention among 200 banking employees in Pakistan (Azeem et al., 2020). Similarly, in a sample of 356 Chinese banking industry employees, mental disengagement coping strategies fully mediated the indirect relationship between performance-related anxiety (i.e., a negative emotion related to workplace incivility) and turnover intention (Lin et al., 2017). Thus, when perceiving stressful situations, individuals who engaged in disengagement coping, accordingly experienced an enhanced positive relationship between incivility and turnover intention. In other words, disengagement coping mediates the positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

Job Performance

According to Rich and associates (2010, p. 619), job performance can be defined as "the aggregated value to an organization of the set of behaviors that an employee contributes both directly and indirectly to organizational goals" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, 1990). There are at least two broad domains across jobs including task performance and contextual performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Motowildo et al., 1997; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Task performance is defined as the activities associated with maintaining and servicing the technical core of an organization

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(Motowidlo, 2003; Reio, 1997), whereas contextual performance accounts for a set of interpersonal and volitional behaviors that support the social and motivational context in which organizational work is achieved (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Another domain similar to task performance is in-role behavior (IRB), which William and Anderson (1991) define as behaviors aimed at completing formal tasks, duties, or responsibilities that might formally be outlined in a job description. Job performance has also been recognized as multidimensional (Austin & Villanova, 1992; Reio, 1997; Schmidt & Kaplan, 1971), and some researchers (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000) propose that besides task performance, other two empirically distinct broad performance dimensions are: organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (i.e., counterproductive behavior is considered here as a facet of job performance) (Dalal, 2005). Organ (1988) was first to define organizational citizenship behavior as the individual behavior that is discretionary and non-rewarded, and later recognized that OCB plays a significant role in "the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (LePine et al., 2002; Organ, 1997, p.91). According to Organ (1988) there are six distinct sub-dimensions of OCB: altruism, courtesy, cheerleading, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. Williams and Anderson (1991) further summarized and proposed OCB as encompassing two broad forms: (a) organizational citizenship behavior towards an organization (OCBO) that ultimately benefits the company in general (e.g., sportsmanship, civic virtue) and (b) Organizational citizenship behavior directed towards individuals (OCBI) and ultimately benefits coworkers (e.g., altruism, courtesy). When exploring the relationship between job

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performance and counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB), Sackett (2002) found

that CWB consistently highly correlated to contextual performance. Sackett (2002) also

mentions in his conclusion that the relationship between task performance and CWB

varies across studies. This is due to differing conceptualizations of task performance.

When task performance is operationalized as task proficiency, i.e., what the employee

can do, it results in weaker relationships, yet when task performance is operationalized as

typical task performance, i.e., what the employee will do, it results in stronger

relationships (Sackett, 2002).

Big Five personality variables have differing relations with various dimensions of

job performance. Mount and Barrick (1998) found that one of the Big Five dimensions,

extraversion, was a valid predictor of training proficiency across various jobs, while

agreeableness had a positive relationship with contextual performance (slope coefficient

= .904, $t = 1.98$, $p < .05$) (Gellatly & Irving, 2001); on a sample of 116 insurance sales

representatives, Mcmanus and Kelly (1999) also found agreeableness significantly

predict the contextual performance; and agreeableness predicted significant variance in

counterproductive behavior (Penny et al., 2011). Conscientiousness has the strongest and

most consistent validities over three distinct broad performance dimensions (Barrick &

Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001; Berry et al., 2007; Borman et al., 2001; Hurtz &

Donovan, 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Salgado, 2002; Tett et al., 1991), while only a very

weak positive relationship ($p = .19$) was found between emotional stability (low

neuroticism) and job performance (Salgado, 1997; Tett et al., 1991).

Coping behaviors also have varying impacts on job performance. Briscoe and

associates (2012) found that active coping was positively associated with performance in

general. Similarly Shimazu and associates (2010) found active coping is positively

associated with job performance (i.e., overall work performance) ($\beta = .18$, $p < .001$).

Specifically, when perceiving stressful situations, active coping was positively related

with either higher task performance or better school performance (Parker et al., 2014;

Schiller et al., 2018).

Intention to Turnover

Turnover intention is defined as "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave

the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p.262), and serves as an important predictor and

strong cognitive precursor of employee turnover (e.g., Griffeth et al., 2000; Poon, 2012).

With respect to workplace incivility, intent to turnover has been determined as a

dominant outcome (Trudel & Reio, 2007), and represents the last step prior to quitting

(Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009). Turnover, as the final decision, is costly to

organizations, and has detrimental effects to the organizations (Glebbeek & Bax, 2004).

There are two types of turnover including voluntary and involuntary turnover (e.g.,

McElroy et al., 2001; Monks & Pizer, 1998; Stumpf & Dawley, 1981). Voluntary

turnover is when an employee decides to leave the organization (which is the concept of

focus in this study), whereas involuntary turnover is when an employer decides to end the

employment relationship (Shaw et al., 1998). Previous studies have shown the positive

relationship between turnover intention and personal experiences of incivility (Cortina et

al., 2001; Lim et al., 2008). Additionally, supervisor ratings of performance were strongly

related to turnover intention which means that a poor performer is more likely to leave a

company (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009). Furthermore, personality traits also impact

turnover intention: neuroticism positively predicted an employee's intention to quit,

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while conscientiousness and agreeableness both negatively predicted turnover intention (Tett et al., 1991; Zimmerman, 2008). Lastly, Han and associates (2015) found that active coping in stressful situations could help to reduce turnover intention, and Huang and associates (2018) found that stressed hotel employees who adopted active coping, had decreased frequency of turnover intention. Lewin and Sager (2013) also found that disengagement coping significantly increased sales workers' turnover intention, while Ford and associates (2013) found that disengagement significantly and positively related to employees' turnover intention (r = .72, p = .00).

Summary

The prevalence of workplace incivility is on the rise. Within the era of neoliberal globalization, it is important for HRD professionals to understand how Chinese employees interpret incivility. For example, LaGuardia and Oelke(2021) posited that neoliberal principles have encouraged the misapplication of power by allowing leaders to engage in abusive management style to "increase compliance and minimize complaints of employees" (p.4). As a workplace stressor, workplace incivility is linked with detrimental outcomes for both individuals and organizations, such as increased intention to turnover, reduced job performance, and job dissatisfaction (Milam et al., 2009; Pearson et al., 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005). Not surprisingly, workplace incivility also creates severe financial burden. For example, due to project delays and distractions from work, the annual monetary cost of experiencing incivility is estimated at $14,000 per employee (Pearson & Porath, 2009; Schilpzand et al., 2016). Additionally, Porath and Pearson (2013) calculated the cost of incivility to a $1 billion health-care organization as $71 million a year. These numbers represent how subtle misbehavior in

the workplace can take a huge toll. That detrimental effect is manifested through decreased work effort, decreased job performance, decreased organizational commitment, increased turnover intention, and actual turnover (Porath & Pearson, 2010).

Due to its unclear and perhaps unconscious intention, some uncivil behaviors can be attributed to instigators' ignorance, or they can be ascribed to misinterpretation from targets (Pearson et al., 2001). Andersson and Pearson (1999, p. 458) also introduced the concept of an "incivility spiral" to explain how negative actions from one party lead to negative actions by a second party, causing increasingly counterproductive behaviors or spiral into more aggressive acts in the workplace (Estes & Wang, 2008; Masuch, 1985). When experiencing workplace incivility, targets will have negative emotional responses that invoke feelings of poor efficacy or behaviors associated with withdrawing or avoiding (Frijda et al., 1989). Specifically, workplace incivility has been shown to be significantly and positively related to increased turnover intention (Dion, 2006; Lim et al., 2008) and decreased job performance (Cortina et al., 2001; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003; Pearson et al., 2000; Pearson & Porath, 2004, 2005).

As discussed above, from the target's perspective, workplace incivility is associated with its organizational outcomes (i.e., decreased job performance and increased turnover intention). The current study brings in further understanding of the incivility-turnover intention and incivility-job performance relationship by way of investigating both personality traits and coping styles. The Big Five Factor model (Goldberg, 1981; McCrae & Costa, 1997) and transactional model of stress and coping strategies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987) will be used to understand how personality traits and coping styles can moderate or mediate the relationship between workplace incivility

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and its organizational outcomes. The review of the literature indicates that the personality

variables and potential coping style variables in this study may affect the strength of the

relationship between workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter discusses the methodology used in this study. It begins by stating the purpose of the study and research questions, as stated in Chapter 1. This is followed by the research design, population, study sample size, variables and instrumentation, procedures and the data analysis. Lastly, this chapter will conclude with a summary of the methods presented in this chapter.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between targets' perceptions of workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as moderated by personality traits (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness) in the context of China. Additionally this study plans to investigate the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention) as mediated by specific coping styles (e.g., active coping, disengagement). This research adds to the existing knowledge of the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes, and how both personality traits and coping styles may strengthen or dampen the relationship between workplace incivility and this study's two dependent variables.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In light of the main purpose of this study, research questions and sub questions are addressed.

Research question 1: What is the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention)?

Hypothesis 1: After controlling for the Big Five personality traits, workplace incivility will be negatively related to job performance.

Hypothesis 2: After controlling for the Big Five personality traits, workplace incivility will be positively related to turnover intention.

Research question 2: What is the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as moderated by personality traits?

Hypothesis 3: The negative relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by neuroticism, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be stronger for employees high in neuroticism.

Hypothesis 4: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by neuroticism, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be stronger for employees high in neuroticism.

Hypothesis 5: The negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by extraversion, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be weaker for employees high in extraversion.

Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by extraversion, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be weaker for employees high in extraversion.

Hypothesis 7: The negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by conscientiousness, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be weaker for employees high in conscientiousness.

Hypothesis 8: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by conscientiousness, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be weaker for employees high in conscientiousness.

Hypothesis 9: The negative relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by agreeableness, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be weaker for employees high in agreeableness.

Hypothesis 10: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by agreeableness, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be weaker for employees high in agreeableness.

Research question 3: What is the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as mediated by coping styles?

Research Design

This study employs a nonexperimental, quantitative research design to investigate the relationships between workplace incivility, and two important organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance, turnover intention), as moderated by personality traits. Moreover, this study plans to investigate the relationship between perceived workplace

incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention) as mediated by specific coping styles (e.g., active coping, disengagement). This research design is appropriate for determining associations between variables and does not involve variable manipulation by researchers (Batista & Reio, 2019; Reio, 2016; Swanson & Holton, 2005). Additionally, nonexperimental quantitative designs are selected for their reliability and validity when researching variables, such as workplace incivility, alcoholism, or working hours due to the ethical inappropriateness of manipulating such variables (Reio, 2016). Because the aim of this research is to examine the hypothesized relationships among workplace incivility and its two significant organizational outcomes, therefore a nonexperimental research design will be employed.

Population and Sample Size

The target population of interest in this study consists of Chinese working adults (18-years old or older) who are full-time employees (i.e., employees who work no less than 40 hours per week) from either private sector or public sector organizations in the Hainan province of the People's Republic of China. This study used the convenience technique of snowball sampling to recruit a small sample of participants that best represents the target population. The convenience sampling technique targets the participants either known by the researchers, or are relatively available to the researchers (Özdemir et al., 2011). Snowball sampling is a sampling method that requests existing participants to forward the survey to their immediate social network to recruit additional respondents (i.e., colleagues, friends) (Branley et al., 2014; Honey & Wright, 2018; Perez et al., 2011). This simple and cost-effective sampling technique is beneficial to survey researchers because it can reach participants that may be difficult to reach using standard

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probability methods (Waters, 2015). Although snowball sampling is mostly found in qualitative studies, it has also been widely employed in quantitative studies which investigate workplace incivility (e.g., Harold & Holtz, 2015; Koon & Pun, 2018; Lewis & Malecha, 2011; Rosen et al., 2016), and personality traits (e.g., Aderka et al., 2009; Israelashvili & Karniol, 2018; Koutsos et al., 2008; Vannucci & Chiorri, 2018; Yaffe, 2020). Therefore, it is reasonable, based on prior organizational research with similar variables, to use a snowball sampling method to investigate the relationship between incivility and its organizational outcomes, as moderated by personality traits, as well as mediated by coping styles.

An adequate sample size is a necessary component for making valid study conclusions (Hinkle et al., 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Green (1991) suggested that a sample size of 5 to 50 participants per variable is adequate for regression analysis. An a priori analysis using G* Power (Faul et al., 2007) indicated that a sample size of 270 was required to detect an effect size of .15, with an alpha of .05 and a power of .80 in the most complicated analysis. Furthermore, Crockett (2012) suggests that more than 200 is an adequate sample size for SEM analysis. Thus this study will employ a sample size greater than 200.

Variables and Instrumentation

This study consists of five scales: the 7-item Workplace Incivility Scale (WIC; Cortina et al., 2001); 16 items of the International Personality Item Pool (Mini-IPIP; Donnellan et al., 2006); the 21-item job performance scale (Williams & Anderson, 1991); the 3-item turnover intention scale (Camman et al., 1979), and the 14-item Brief COPE scale (Carver, 1997), as well as a demographic questionnaire. All instruments for this

study were originally published in English, except for the Mini-IPIP scale, and Brief

COPE scale, for which Chinese versions were already available. Following Brislin's

(1980) translation-back-translation procedure, the original versions of the questionnaires

were translated into Chinese and then two bilingual translators (both certified

professional Chinese-English interpreters with master degree in translation) translated it

back from Chinese to English. Finally, the two English versions of all the scales were

evaluated, and then compared with each other for accuracy purposes.

Independent Variables - Experienced incivility

Cortina and her associates' (2001) 7-item Workplace Incivility Scale (WIC)

measure measured the frequency of participants' experiences of incivility (e.g, disrespect,

rudeness, condescension) from superiors or coworkers within the previous 5 years. Each

item is on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from *never* (1) to *very frequently* (6). Sample

items include statements such as "Put you down or was condescending to you" and

"Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?" The construct

validity of the WIC scale has been demonstrated by its negative correlation ($r = -.59$)

with Donovan and colleagues' (1998) Perception of Fair Interpersonal Treatment Scale

(PFIT). The Cronbach's alpha found for the scale was .89.

Independent Variables – Moderator

Personality

Conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism were assessed

using the Mini-IPIP, a 16-item short form of the 50-item International Personality Item

Pool-Five Factor Model measure (Donnellan et al., 2006; Goldberg, 1999). Each item is

on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *disagree strongly* (1) to *agree strongly* (7). Each

subscale consisted of 4 items of core traits which define each Big Five domain. A sample

item of extraversion is "Am the life of the party." A sample item of Agreeableness is

"Sympathize with others' feelings." A sample item of a Neuroticism item is "Have

frequent mood swings." A sample item of Conscientiousness is "Get chores done right

away." The authors provided the reliability estimate for each subscale as follows:

Agreeableness .88, Conscientiousness .92, Neuroticism, .93, Extraversion, .95.

Moreover, the Mini-IPIP scales demonstrated a reasonable convergent, discriminant, and

criterion-related validity with other Big Five measures (Donnellan et al., 2006). The

Chinese version of the Mini-IPIP translated by Li and associates (2012) has demonstrated

good test-retest reliability and discriminant, convergent, and criterion-related validities.

Dependent Variable - Job Performance

Williams and Anderson's (1991) 21-item self-reported scale, which measures 3

dimensions of job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the

organization (OCB-O) and at an individual (OCB-I), and employee performance of in-

role behavior (IRB) of employees. Each item is on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly

disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). The OCB-O, OCB-I, and IRB scales were used to measure

job performance, which has reliabilities of .75, .88, and .91, respectively. Chiaburu and

Baker (2006) demonstrated both convergent validity and discriminant validity for this

scale.

Dependent Variable - Turnover Intention

Camman and associates' (1979) 3-item job withdrawal scale measures turnover intention. Sample questions include: "it is very possible that I will look for a new job in the next year," and "if I could choose again, I would choose to work for the current organization." Each item is on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's alpha reported for this scale was .77.

Independent Variables – Mediator

Coping Strategies

Additional analysis was conducted which uses coping strategies as potential mediators. Coping strategies were assessed by Carver's (1997) 28-item self-reported brief COPE scale, which is an abbreviated version of the COPE inventory (Carver et al., 1989) that assesses the various behaviors that individual may use to respond to stressful events. Three subscales (i.e., 10 items) will be used in this study: active coping, using instrumental support, and behavioral disengagement. Each item is on a 4-point Likert scale (1 = *I haven't been doing this at all*, 4 = *I have been doing this a lot*). The Cronbach's alpha reported for this full scale was .87 (Cox et al., 2015) and the reliabilities of the sub-scales range from .64 to .73 (Carver, 1997). Cooper and associates' (2008) regression analyses demonstrated convergent and concurrent validity for this scale, meaning that the items measured are related to the same construct.

Demographic Variables

Aligned with prior incivility research (e.g., Cho et al., 2016; Cortina et al., 2001; Milam et al., 2009; Reio & Sanders-Reio, 2011), demographic information was collected to identify the characteristics of the sample. Examples of questions with categorical answers include age, gender, education, marital status, position, industry, working experience. The sample items include: (a) "Which category below includes your age," (b) "what is your gender," (c) "what is your highest academic level," (d) "what is your marital status," (e) "which of the following best describes your current occupation," (f) "What is your job title," (g) "How long have you been working for your current job," (h) "Which category below includes your age."

<div align="center">

Procedures

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An internet-based self-reported survey was used for data collection. Compared with traditional data collection, such as paper/pencil surveys, an internet-based survey helps researchers to achieve a larger sample size, eliminates tedious data entry, and decreases the costs of survey administration (Shuck, 2010; Weigold et al., 2013). Internet surveys may lead to potential self-selection bias (i.e., the situation that individuals select themselves for the survey) (Bethlehem, 2010), yet previous studies have found that paper/pencil and Internet survey methods generate equivalent results (Epstein et al., 2001; Weigold et al., 2013).

Pilot Study

Prior to conducting the online survey, a pilot study was conducted on six individuals whose first language was Chinese. Pilot studies are useful for clarifying a

survey's intent and estimating the time taken to complete the survey (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). Following Dillman et al.'s (2014) guidelines for conducting internet-based research, this study chose six individuals who fit the qualifications of the main study (Chinese working adults) to participate in the pilot study. These individuals provided valuable information on the time required to complete the survey and the adequacy of the questionnaire. This information aided researchers in further perfecting the research protocol.

First, the pilot study participants received a link to complete the sample survey. Each participant's completion time was recorded. The participants in the pilot study finished the instrument in about 18-21 minutes. Participants subsequently interviewed by the researcher to solicit feedback on the quality of the survey. Interview questions gauged each participant's understanding of the survey's instructions and asked participants to point out any particular elements of the survey which were difficult to understand. There were no problems reported through the pilot study.

One of the main limitations of snowball sampling is its known selection bias (Baltar & Brunet, 2011). However, when collecting data during the coronavirus pandemic (COVID-19), the most practical solutions must be considered. One potential complication includes the difficulty of obtaining access to specific participants who qualify for the targeted population. This complication is mitigated by snowball sampling (Abaker et al., 2019). Moreover, given the sensitivity of studying incivility and turnover intention among employees, many may be reluctant to take part in such research (Kashif et al., 2017). Snowball sampling eliminates this issue because participation is purely voluntary.

This study utilized both snowball sampling and Social Networking Sites (SNS) to recruit participants. Social networking sites (SNS) have been found to be an efficient tool for snowball sampling because they can efficiently expand a study's sample size (Benfield & Szlemko, 2006). For example, Baltar and Brunet (2011) looked at the use of an SNS (Facebook) with traditional snowball sampling and found that the response rate from SNS snowball sampling (77%) was significantly higher than the traditional snowball technique (42%). Therefore, a starter sample of an initial 50 participants (i.e., "seeds") was recruited via the researcher's social network that fits the criteria of having more than 500 contacts on Wechat (i.e., a Chinese social networking sites, which is a messaging application similar to WhatsApp); these seeds were working adults from all different industries who have varied demographic traits (e.g., age, job position, and academic level). The seeds received a message invitation from WeChat that includes a short description of the study, instructions and a confidentiality notice, and a link to the survey which was uploaded on wenjuan.com (i.e., a Chinese website similar to Qualtrics, which uses Transport Layer Security to ensure data security and data integrity). The initial 50 participants were then be requested to identify more participants (i.e., "alters") that fit the population criteria from their own social networks (Kumar et al., 2013), such as their friends or colleagues from Wechat. Every seed received an invitation that contains a copy of the survey and a cover letter that explained the aim of the study: to investigate the relationship between targets' perceptions of workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes, as moderated by personality traits, as well as mediated by coping styles. In an effort to assure the full participant quota, each of the seeds were be asked to leverage their connections in the workplace and give a conservative estimation

of how many alters that reasonably be guaranteed to fill out the survey within two weeks

of receipt. More seeds were recruited for this study when the seeds could not promise at

least six alters or did not respond in two weeks. By adding the estimated numbers of

alters to the seeds the expected sample was fulfilled (*N* was 370, which is 100 more than

the minimum).

<div align="center">**Data Analysis**</div>

Data Processing

Following data collection, the dataset was screened to ensure the appropriateness

of the data. The invalid questionnaires were excluded based on the following criteria:

repeated IP address or cell phone number in the response will not be retained; inattentive

or dubious responses will not be retained (e.g., same answer for all items or missing

responses in the survey); surveys with excessively short total response times will also not

be retained (i.e., response time of the survey is shorter than 4 minutes to complete the

survey will be eliminated, as it was unrealistic they allocate enough time to consider their

answers).

Analytical Procedures

To test the hypotheses, this study employed structural equation modeling (SEM).

As a second-generation multivariate analysis technique, SEM yields several advantages

over first-generation multivariate techniques (i.e., factor analysis, multiple regression

analysis, and discriminant analysis) (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). For example, SEM

can incorporate both unobserved (i.e., latent) and observed variables while first-

generation multivariate analysis can only incorporate observed measurements (Lowry &

Gaskin, 2014). One of the prominent advantages of SEM is the ability to conduct

simultaneous analysis (i.e., running more than one analysis at a time) of direct and

indirect effects (i.e., moderators, mediators) with multiple exogenous variables (i.e.,

variables that are independent from the other variables in the system, such as personality

traits, and marital status) and endogenous variables (i.e., variables in the system whose

values are determined by other variables, such as perceptions of incivility or turnover

intention) (Stage et al., 2004). SEM also allows for an interaction term to be included in

the theoretical model to test main and moderating effects (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

Another advantage of SEM is that it can adjust for measurement error, thereby decreasing

the likelihood of Type II error in this study (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). This makes SEM a

superior technique when compared to first-generation multivariate techniques which

ignore measurement errors (Crockett, 2012). To specifically test hypotheses and analyze

both direct and moderating effect, the current study employed Partial Least Square path

modeling (PLS-PM). The PLS-PM method is appropriate for the current study for two

reasons: firstly, PLS-PM's predictive nature is appropriate for prediction-oriented

research (e.g., predictions of employees' job outcomes); secondly, PLS-PM allows

researcher to estimate and examine complex structural relationships with lower sample

requirements (Ali et al., 2019; Lowry & Gaskin, 2014; Wong, 2013). To test potential

mediating effect, PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) was used to perform hierarchical regressions

on the complete models with active coping and disengagement coping as mediators, and

turnover intention and job performance as the outcomes of perceiving incivility.

The main software for measurement model and structural model analyses in the

study are SmartPLS v.3.2.8. Software (Ringle et al., 2017), IBM SPSS statistics package

V22., AMOS V27., and LISREL 8.80 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006). Following Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-stage analytical approach, the analysis of the current study consisted of two phases: an evaluation of the measurement model, followed by an evaluation of the structural model.

Measurement Model Assessment

Multicollinearity Assessment. The multicollinearity assessment was examined in a structural model analysis. This step checked if any of the variables had potential collinearity problems (i.e., as a rule of thumb, correlations between variables must be less than .8, and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) must be less than 5 to be sufficient), which may introduce path bias into the study (Sarstedt et al., 2014).

Internal Consistency Reliability. To determine the reliability of the constructs of the research, this study followed Hair and associates' (2014) guidance by first analyzing composite reliability values (Cronbach's alpha) for all constructs. Hulland (1999) recommended that an acceptable reliability level was .70 or higher.

Convergent Validity. Convergent validity assesses the degree to which different measures correlate with each other positively within the same construct (Cunningham et al., 2001). Convergent validity was evaluated by examining Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for all items related with each construct. The Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommended acceptable value of Average Variance Extracted is over .50.

Discriminant Validity. Discriminant validity ensures that a construct is distinct empirically from other constructs in the path model (Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2014). This study evaluated discriminant validity following Fornell and Larcker's (1981)

recommendation: when the square root of AVEs of each construct is greater than its absolute value of correlation with other constructs, then the construct exhibits adequate discriminant validity.

Model Fit. To ensure whether the final data fits the proposed model, this study applied confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS V27. The Chi-square, normed fix index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) will be calculated to estimate model fit. Following Meyers and associates' (2006) suggestion, a lower Chi-square will indicate a preferable model for this study; both NFI and CFI should achieve a value greater than or equal to .95 for an acceptable model. According to Loehlin (2004, p.69), an acceptable RMSEA value of at least less than .08 indicates a good fit model; RMSEA value which is lower than .05 indicates a very good fit.

Structural Model

After determining an acceptable measurement model, structural model analysis was performed. Following Hair and associates' (2014) standard guidelines, the structural model evaluating procedure included: the collinearity among constructs; the path coefficients; the predictive relevance (Q^2); the coefficient of determination (R^2); and the effect size (f^2). The variance inflation factor (VIF) value was employed, such that when all values of VIF are below a threshold value of 5, collinearity problems are ruled out. (Hair et al., 2014). To determine the significance of path coefficients (β), a bootstrap approach procedure ($n = 5000$) that generates standard errors and t-value was employed (Chin, 1998). Stone-Geisser's Q^2 will be used to examine the model's predictive

relevance, which is obtained by employing a blindfolding procedure with an omission distance of 7 (Hair et al., 2014). As a rule of thumb, Q^2 values greater than zero indicates the model has predictive relevance (Chin, 1998). Chin (1998) suggests R^2 values above .67 can be considered as a substantial level of explanatory power. Furthermore, to check the strength of the relationships among the latent variables, the total effect size (f^2) was evaluated. Levels higher than .15 were considered as acceptable effect size (Roldán & Sánchez-Franco, 2012).

For H1 and H2, this study aimed to explore if there are significant correlations between workplace incivility and its outcome variables (i.e., job performance and turnover intention). Outputs of path coefficient, *t*-value, effect size and *p*-value were reported as measures of the direct effects.

Moderation Analysis

For H3 to H10, moderation analysis was performed to test whether Big Five traits (i.e., Neuroticism, Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness) moderated the relationships between workplace incivility and its outcome variables previously discussed above. Following the guidance of Lowry and Gaskin (2014), a hierarchical process was applied to check whether moderators existed in this study. Two models (i.e., one with the moderator relationship, and one without) were compared using the product-indicator (PI) approach suggested by Chin and his associates (2003). The PI approach seems to yield ideal results when estimating interaction effects, especially in complex path models. *T*-values, *p*-values, standard deviation (*SD)*, R^2, and f^2 were evaluated to determine the interaction effect.

To further validate the moderation analyses, PROCESS syntax version v3.5 of SPSS (Hayes, 2017) will also be employed to strengthen the understanding of the moderating effect on the links between workplace incivility and its two organizational outcomes. To investigate the moderated relationships, several conditions will be examined: (1) any observed significant positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention; (2) any observed significant negative relationship between workplace incivility and job performance; (3) any observed significant moderating role of neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness. The variable scores obtained from SEM analysis will be used in PROCESS syntax. The moderating effect of the four personality traits on the relationship between workplace incivility and job performance and the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention will be analyzed via p-value and β-value. Next, each personality trait will be categorized at three levels (low, medium, or high) to determine whether these relationships between workplace incivility and its two organizational outcomes vary at different levels of each personality traits. The mean score, standard deviation (SD), p-value, and β-value at three levels of each trait were examined.

Additional Mediation Analysis

For research question 3, additional mediation analysis was performed to test whether coping styles (e.g., active coping style, disengagement coping style) mediated the relationships between workplace incivility and its outcome variables (i.e., job performance and turnover intention). PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) was used to perform hierarchical regressions on the complete models with coping styles as mediators, and turnover intention and job performance as the outcomes of perceiving incivility. Indirect

effects were calculated using 5,000 bootstrap samples to construct 95% bias-corrected

confidence intervals as recommended by Hayes (2013).

Summary of the Chapter

Chapter 3 presented the methods and procedures in detail for the proposed study.

This presentation included the research question and hypotheses, the research design, the

population, the sample size, the variables and instrumentation, the procedures, and the

data analysis. The coming chapter presents the results of the data analysis.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter, the results of the data analyses are reported. Prior to the model estimation and testing, a series of procedures were performed for the sake of the quality and soundness of the data. The dataset downloaded from wenjuan.com initially was checked for potential coding errors, particularly as among the 61 overall items, there were 14 reverse-coded items (Vieira, 2011). Data examination was also performed with to find the extreme outliers that may impact the results of the analysis; z-scores were computed, and no extreme values were identified.

Background of the Sample

Using snowball sampling combined with multiple e-mailing and texting efforts, 370 participants were obtained (initial participants [i.e., seeds] = 17; referral participants [i.e., alters] = 353). Participants were dispersed across 27 regions in China including a province, autonomous regions, and special administrative regions (see Figure 5). The respondents' demographic information including gender, age, ethnicity, education level, job industry, position, and working years in current job are discussed as follows. And the overview of demographic information of the participants is presented in Table 2.

Gender, Age and Ethnicity

The frequency of participants by gender demonstrated that the sample was 37.8% ($n = 140$) male and 62.2% ($n = 230$) female.

The frequency of participants by age level indicated that 6.5% ($n = 24$) of the sample was in the 18-24 group, 24.1% ($n = 89$) in the 25-30 group, 42.7% ($n = 158$) in the 31-40 group, 18.6 % ($n = 69$) was in the 41-50 group, 7.6 % ($n = 28$) in the 51-60 group, and 0.5% ($n = 2$) in the age 61 and above group.

The Han Chinese represented the majority ethnic group with 92.4% ($n = 342$) of the sample, followed by 1.6% ($n = 6$) Hlai, 1.4% ($n = 5$) Hmong, 1.1% ($n = 4$) Mongolian, and 3.5% who identified themselves as "other" ($n = 13$).

Education

The frequency of participants by their highest educational level demonstrated that 9.5% ($n = 35$) of the participants had a high school diploma or attended trade school, 17.8% ($n = 66$) an associate's degree, 50.8% ($n = 188$) received a bachelor's degree, 20% ($n = 74$) a master's degree, and lastly, 1.9% ($n = 7$) had a doctoral degree or a post-doctoral degree.

Job Industry and Job Position

The frequency of participants by job industry indicated that 25.4% ($n = 94$) worked in manufacturing, 16.8% ($n = 62$) education, 11.4% ($n = 42$) construction, 8.9% ($n = 33$) banking, 7.3% ($n = 27$) technology, 6.2% ($n = 23$) government, 6.2% ($n = 23$) retail sales, 4.3% ($n = 16$) hospitality, 4.3% ($n = 16$) media, 3% ($n = 11$) listed their job industry as "other," 2.7% ($n = 10$) management, 1.6% ($n = 6$) medical field, 1.4% ($n = 5$) translation, and 0.5% ($n = 2$) legislation.

The frequency of participants by job position indicated that 25.4% ($n = 94$) of worked as office staff, 21.6% ($n = 80$) managers, 18.9% ($n = 70$) specialists, 13.5% ($n = 50$) technicians, 4.9% ($n = 18$) state employees or civil servants, 4.1% ($n = 15$) salespeople, and 4.3% ($n = 16$) as "other."

Work Experience in Current Job

The frequency of the participants by work experience in current job indicated that 31.4% ($n = 116$) worked in their current company for two years or less, 17.3 % ($n = 64$) three to five years, 17.8 % ($n = 66$) six to nine years, 14.6% ($n = 54$) ten to nineteen years, and 18.9% ($n = 70$) twenty to thirty years.

Figure 5

Respondent Distribution across Provinces

Table 2

Frequency Table of Demographic Variables

Category	Variable	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	140	37.8%
	Female	230	62.2%
Age	18-24	24	6.5%
	25-30	89	24.1%
	31-40	158	42.7%
	41-50	69	18.6%
	51-60	28	7.6%
	61 and over	2	0.5%
Ethnicity	Han Chinese	342	92.4%
	Hlai	6	1.6%
	Miao/Hmong	5	1.4%
	Mongol	4	1.1%
	Hui	3	0.8%
	Yi	3	0.8%
	Tujia	2	0.5%
	Bai	1	0.3%
	Chuanqing people (unrecognized ethnic groups)	1	0.3%
	Hani	1	0.3%
	Manchu	1	0.3%
	Zhuang	1	0.3%
Education	High School Diploma or Trade School Diploma	35	9.5%
	Associate's Degree	66	17.8%
	Bachelors' Degree	188	50.8%
	Master's Degree	74	20.0%
	Doctoral Degree or above	7	1.9%
Job Industry	Manufacturing	94	25.4%
	Education	62	16.8%
	Construction	42	11.4%
	Bank	33	8.9%
	Technology	27	7.3%
	Retail Sales	23	6.2%
	Government	23	6.2%
	Hospitality	*16*	4.3%
	Media	*16*	4.3%
	Others	11	3.0%
	Management	10	2.7%
	Medical field	6	1.6%

	Translation	5	1.4%
	Legislation	2	0.5%
	Office staff	121	32.7%
	Manager	80	21.6%
	Specialist (e.g., lawyer, Doctor, programmer)	70	18.9%
Position	Technician	50	13.5%
	States employee/civil servant	18	4.9%
	Other	16	4.3%
	Sales	15	4.1%
	0~2	116	31.4%
Years of working experience in current job	3~5	64	17.3%
	6~9	66	17.8%
	10~19	54	14.6%
	20~30	70	18.9%

Multicollinearity Tests

Current data were checked for possible collinearity problems among the independent and dependent variables; factor scores were imputed via factor analysis using SPSS V22. This technique helped to identify potential collinearity problem (Wong, 2013). No correlations were greater than .85, and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was below the threshold of 5, confirming that multicollinearity was not a significant concern in the current study, as reflected by the data analyses presented in Tables 3-6 (Sarstedt et al., 2014).

Table 3

Zero-order Correlations among Independent Variables

Variables	C-AC	C-SH	C-D	I	C	E-1	E-2	A-1	A-2	N
C-AC	-	.411**	-.378**	-.145**	.367**	.155**	-0.05	0.09	.235**	-.225**
C-US	.411**	-	0.02	-.135**	.166**	.152**	0.02	0.09	.228**	-0.02
C-D	-.378**	0.02	-	.131*	-.344**	0.03	0.10	-.150**	-.105*	.221**
I	-.145**	-.135**	.131*	-	-.203**	0.03	.108*	-0.02	0.04	.244**
C	.367**	.166**	-.344**	-.203**	-	0.06	-.209**	.107*	.177**	-.340**

	C-AC	C-US	C-D	I	C	E-1	E-2	A-1	A-2	N
E-1	.155**	.152**	0.03	0.03	0.06	-	.426**	.231**	.311**	-.202**
E-2	-0.05	0.02	0.10	.108*	-.209**	.426**	-	.353**	0.06	-0.04
A-1	0.09	0.09	-.150**	-0.02	.107*	.231**	.353**	-	.257**	-.165**
A-2	.235**	.228**	-.105*	0.04	.177**	.311**	0.06	.257**	-	-0.03
N	-.225**	-0.02	.221**	.244**	-.340**	-.202**	-0.04	-.165**	-0.03	-

Note. N=370. C-AC=Coping-Active Coping; C-US = Coping-Use of Instrumental Support; C-D= Coping-Disengagement; I = Incivility; C= Conscientiousness; E-1 = Extraversion-1; E-2 = Extraversion-2; A-1=Agreebleness-1; A-2=Agreebleness-2; N=Neuroticism. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4

Multicollinearity (First Set of Exogenous Constructs)

	Coefficients						
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1(Constant)	0.00	0.04		0.00	1.00		
C-AC	0.13	0.06	0.13	2.17	0.03	0.63	1.59
C-US	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.10	0.92	0.75	1.33
C-D	0.13	0.06	0.13	2.34	0.02	0.74	1.35
I	-0.12	0.05	-0.12	-2.45	0.01	0.89	1.12
C	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.92	0.36	0.70	1.43
E-1	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.98	0.33	0.69	1.45
E-2	-0.16	0.07	-0.13	-2.24	0.03	0.67	1.50
A-1	0.19	0.06	0.17	3.17	0.00	0.77	1.29
A-2	0.35	0.06	0.30	5.68	0.00	0.79	1.27
N	0.03	0.06	0.02	0.45	0.66	0.78	1.29

Note. N = 370. Dependent Variable: Job performance- Organizational Citizenship Behavior towards individuals. C-AC=Coping-Active Coping; C-US = Coping-Use of Instrumental Support; C-D= Coping-Disengagement; I = Incivility; C= Conscientiousness; E-1 = Extraversion-1; E-2 = Extraversion-2; A-1=Agreebleness-1; A-2=Agreebleness-2; N=Neuroticism. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 5

Multicollinearity (Second Set of Exogenous Constructs)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1(Constant)	0.00	0.05		0.00	1.00		
C-AC	0.20	0.06	0.20	3.29	0.00	0.63	1.59
C-US	-0.05	0.05	-0.05	-0.98	0.33	0.75	1.33
C-D	-0.03	0.06	-0.03	-0.51	0.61	0.74	1.35
I	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.62	0.54	0.89	1.12
C	0.28	0.07	0.24	4.27	0.00	0.70	1.43
E-1	.219	.073	.171	2.974	.003	.688	1.453
E-2	-.139	.075	-.107	-1.844	.066	.668	1.498
A-1	-.002	.063	-.002	-.030	.976	.774	1.293
A-2	.062	.064	.052	.964	.336	.790	1.266
N	.031	.060	.028	.513	.608	.777	1.287

Note. N = 370. Dependent Variable: Job performance- Organizational Citizenship Behavior towards individuals. C-AC=Coping-Active Coping; C-US = Coping-Use of Instrumental Support; C-D= Coping-Disengagement; I = Incivility; C= Conscientiousness; E-1 = Extraversion-1; E-2 = Extraversion-2; A-1=Agreebleness-1; A-2=Agreebleness-2; N=Neuroticism. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 6

Multicollinearity (Third Set of Exogenous Constructs)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	0.00	0.04		0.00	1.00		
C-AC	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	-0.16	0.88	0.63	1.59
C-US	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.99	0.32	0.75	1.33
C-D	0.12	0.05	0.11	2.11	0.04	0.74	1.35
I	0.22	0.05	0.22	4.61	0.00	0.89	1.12
C	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.12	0.90	0.70	1.43
E-1	-0.02	0.07	-0.02	-0.36	0.72	0.69	1.45
E-2	0.18	0.07	0.14	2.65	0.01	0.67	1.50
A-1	-0.17	0.06	-0.14	-2.84	0.00	0.77	1.29
A-2	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	-0.12	0.91	0.79	1.27
N	0.37	0.06	0.34	6.72	0.00	0.78	1.29

Construct Reliability Tests

For each scale, reliability coefficient was examined using Cronbach's alpha, Guttman Split-Half coefficient, and Spearman-Brown Coefficient, and displayed in Table 7. Three coefficient value were calculated and compared to confirm the reliability of each scale (Iwintolu & Afolabi, 2015). The reliability coefficient for each scale was acceptable, indicating good reliability for all measures (Hulland, 1999). Given the limited number of survey items in the Big Five subscales (i.e., Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism), reliability was assessed using the Spearman-Brown coefficient, as it is more precise and less biased as compared of Cronbach' alpha in subscales with less than five items (Eisinga et al., 2013).

Table 7

Reliability Coefficients for Measurement Model

Variable	Item	Cronbach's Alpha	Guttman Split-Half Coefficient	Spearman-Brown Coefficient
		.899	.908	.908
Job Performance - In Role Behavior	Q1			
	Q2			
	Q3			
	Q4			
		.846	.819	.845
Job performance- Organizational Citizenship Behavior towards individuals	Q9			
	Q10			
	Q11			
	Q12			
	Q13			

Construct	Item			
Big Five-Conscientiousness		.659	.72	.735
	Q24			
	Q29R			
	Q34			
	Q39R			
Big Five-Extraversion		.486	.599	.600
	Q22			
	Q27R			
	Q32			
	Q37R			
Big Five-Agreeableness		.532	.707	.708
	Q23			
	Q28R			
	Q33			
	Q38R			
Big Five-Neuroticism		.675	.72	.72
	Q25			
	Q30R			
	Q35			
	Q40R			
Turnover Intention		.722	.643	.684
	Q42			
	Q43			
	Q44R			
Coping-Active Coping		.901	.81	.812
	Q45			
	Q46			
	Q47			
	Q48			
	Q49			
	Q50			
Coping- Use of Instrumental Support		.915	.915	.916
	Q51			
	Q52			
Coping-Disengage		.786	.786	.789
	Q53			
	Q54			
Incivility		.863	.806	.846
	Q55			
	Q56			
	Q57			

Q58

Q59

Q60

Q61

Note. N = 370.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity Tests

As demonstrated in Table 8, the results of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) calculations indicated the majority of the latent variables in the measurement model met the acceptable AVE of over .5 criterion, leaving only the sub-domain of Extraversion slightly below the .50 threshold level. As recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981), the constructs' convergent validity may be considered adequate, even though "more than 50% of the variance is due to error" (p. 46). As the other constructs were well above the recommended level, the convergent validity was supported. Discriminant validity was evaluated using the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of the correlations (Voorhees et al., 2016). According to Henseler (2015), an HTMT value below the threshold value of .85 indicates that the constructs are conceptually distinct. The HTMT values of each construct thereby indicate adequate discriminant validity as demonstrated in Table 8 (Hair et al., 2019). CFA was also conducted to investigate the convergent and discriminant validity of the measures using LISREL 10.0 software (χ^2 = 3113.608, p < .001, χ^2/df = 2.28; RMSEA = .059) (see Table 8). The overall model fit statistics, in general, were within the acceptable level of thresholds and suggest an acceptable goodness-of-fit (Meyers et al., 2006)

Table 8

AVE and Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio of the Correlations

	AVE	AC	A-1	A-2	C	E-1	E-2	N	Dis	I	IRB	OCBI	SH	TI

110

AC	.78												
A-1	.69	.10											
A-2	.68	.30	.19										
C	.59	.50	.27	.30									
E-1	.46	.29	.25	.61	.29								
E-2	.66	.11	.62	.13	.41	.39							
N	.65	.32	.24	.16	.53	.41	.19						
Dis	.83	.34	.20	.14	.45	.07	.14	.27					
I	.74	.17	.06	.10	.28	.07	.18	.33	.16				
IRB	.85	.34	.06	.24	.48	.31	.15	.16	.20	.06			
OCBI	.75	.28	.24	.48	.32	.25	.12	.12	.08	.16	.37		
US	.89	.40	.12	.32	.24	.23	.06	.07	.03	.15	.11	.21	
TI	.74	.24	.22	.15	.36	.21	.20	.57	.27	.39	.22	.32	.07

Goodness of fit: χ^2 = 3113.608, p <,.001; χ^2/df = 2.28; RMSEA = .059; CFI = .8; GFI= .747; AGFI = .714

Note. N = 370. AVE = Average Variance Extracted, AC= Coping-Active Coping; A-1= Agreeableness-1; A-2 = Agreeableness-2; C= Conscientiousness; E-1= Extraversion-1; E-2=Extraversion-2; N= Neuroticism; Dis = Coping-Disengagement; I = Incivility; IRB= Job performance-In-role behavior; OCBI = Job performance- Organizational Citizenship Behavior towards individuals; US= Coping- Use of Instrumental Support; TI= Turnover Intention.

Adjustment to Each Hypothesized Models and Analyses

Before testing any hypotheses, this study conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using SPSS AMOS v.25.0 to ensure the convergent validity and discriminant validity of the measures. Measures from the initial battery of items were deleted in arriving at the final set of items for each construct (Bell & Luddington, 2006). Specifically the items that did not load heavily on primary factor (i.e., < .50) and items that had significant cross loading were removed (Bhuian et al., 2005).

In the Agreeableness-Incivility-Job Performance-Turnover Intention model, several items with lowest factor loading were removed from their respective latent factors (see Table 9). Several job performance items from job performance-organizational citizenship behavior-individual (OCBI) subscale (Q8, Q10 and Q14) and incivility items (Q58 and Q61) demonstrating low factor loadings were removed based on both AMOS

and SmartPLS suggestions (see Table 10). Besides, both two subscales from Job

performance: job performance - OCBO and job performance - IRB were removed due to

cross loading issue. The agreeableness trait did not produce the expected results

according to the standardized scales; therefore, two items were removed to improve the

fit of the model (Matzler et al., 2011). According to Renner (2002), this adjustment was

necessary as other personality scholars have reported similar findings in confirmatory

factor analyses. The Chi-square of the measurement model was statistically significant:

$\chi^2(70) = 115.109$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 1.64$. A significant Chi-square result, which is not

desirable, is common when there is a large sample size (due to the chi-square's

sensitivity); to manage this, Kline (2005) directs the researcher to use a number of

alternative fit indexes to evaluate the model, which was done in this study. The following

fit statistics indicated a good fit for the measurement model: GFI =.96, AGFI = .938, TLI

= .974, CFI = .98, and RMSEA = .042. After confirming this to be an acceptable

measurement model, the structural model analyses also were performed. The results of

the structural model analyses were reported in Table 10.

Table 9

CFA Factor Loadings of the Agreeableness Model (*N = 370*)

Factor and Item	Factor Loading
Incivility	
Q57- Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you	.866
Q55-Put you down or was condescending to you?	.845
Q60-Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility	.794
Q56-Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?	.770
Q59-Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?	.769
Q61-Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters	.579

Q58-Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?	.550

Job Performance-OCB-I

Q9-Helps others who have heavy work loads(OCBI-2)	.815
Q12-Goes out of way to help new employees(OCBI-5)	.805
Q13-Takes a personal interest in other employees(OCBI-6)	.798
Q11-Take time to listen to co-worker' problems and worries. (OCBI-4)	.674
Q10-Assist supervisor with his/her work (when not asked) (OCBI-3)	.655
Q14-Passes along information to co-workers (OCBI-7)	.595
Q8-Helps others who have been absent(OCBI-1)	.588

Turnover Intention

Q42-I often think of leaving the organization	.836
Q43-It is very possible that I will look for a new job in the next year	.815
R-Q44-If I could choose again, I would choose to work for the current organization	.646

Agreeableness

R-Q28-Am not interested in other people's problems	.844
R-Q38-Am not really interested in others	.827
Q23-Sympathize with others' feelings	.125
Q33-Feel others' emotions	-.008

Table 10

Bootstrapped Standardized Path Coefficients for Structural Model A

Path	Bootstrapped β	CI(2.5%)	CI(97.5%)	*t*-Value	*p* Values
A-> JP	.18	.10	.30	3.74	*.00
A -> TI	-.15	-.26	-.05	2.68	*.01
In -> JP	-.13	-.23	-.01	2.10	*.03
In -> TI	.33	.23	.42	6.66	*.00
Moderating Effect 2 -A -> JP	-.02	-.17	.08	.41	.68
Moderating Effect 3 -A -> TI	.07	-.02	.18	1.38	.17

Note. N=370. A = Agreeableness; JP = Job Performance; TI = Turnover Intention; In = Incivility; -> = Path *p <.05.*

In the Conscientiousness-Incivility-Job Performance -Turnover Intention model,

several job performance items from job performance-organizational citizenship behavior-

organizational (OCBO) subscale (Q15 and Q16), and incivility items (Q58 and Q61)

demonstrating low factor loadings were removed based on both AMOS and SmartPLS

suggestions (see Table 11). Besides, both two subscales from Job performance: OCBI

and IRB were removed due to cross loading issue. The Chi-square of the measurement

model was significant: χ^2 (112) = 299.038, p <.001, χ^2 /df = 2.67. As before, because

Chi-square tests are more sensitive to larger sample sizes, the researcher examined a

number of alternative fit indexes (Kline, 2005). Three of the fit statistics indicated an

adequate fit for the measurement model: GFI = .905, CFI = .911, RMSEA = .067, while

two were very close; that is, AGFI = .892, TLI = .920. Kline (2005) suggested that if at

least two of the fit indexes were adequate, as was the case here, then it would be feasible

to conduct CFAs. Besides, a cutoff of .80 for the AGFI is considered as an adequate fit

(e.g., Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Thus, after confirming this to be an acceptable

measurement model, the structural model analysis also was performed. The results of

structural model analyses were reported in Table 12.

Table 11

CFA Factor Loadings of the Conscientiousness Model (N = 370)

Factor and Item	Factor Loading
Incivility	
Q57-Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you	0.863
Q55- Put you down or was condescending to you?	0.853
Q60-Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility	0.822
Q56-Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?	0.813
Q59-Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?	0.742

Q61-Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters	0.624
Q58-Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?	0.500

Job Performance-OCB-O

Q16-Gives advance notice when unable to come to work(OCBO-2)	0.471
Q15-Attendance at work is above the norm(OCBO-1)	0.499
R-Q18-Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations (R-OCBO-4)	0.640
R-Q17-Takes undeserved work breaks(R-OCBO-3)	0.664
R-Q19-Complains about insignificant things at work(R-OCBO-5)	0.683
Q21-Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order(OCBO-6)	0.466
Q20-Conserves and protects organizational property(OCBO-7)	0.444

Turnover Intention

Q42-I often think of leaving the organization	0.912
Q43-It is very possible that I will look for a new job in the next year	0.830
R-Q44-If I could choose again, I would choose to work for the current organization	0.653

Conscientiousness

Q34-Like order	0.695
R-Q29-Often forget to put things back in their proper place	0.693
Q24-Get chores done right away	0.648
R-Q39-Make a mess of things	0.760

Table 12

Bootstrapped Standardized Path Coefficients for Structural Model C

Path	Bootstrapped β	CI(2.5%)	CI(97.5%)	t-Value	p Values
C-> JP	.44	.35	.54	8.92	*.00
C -> TI	-.21	-.32	-.10	3.71	*.00
In -> JP	-.13	-.24	-.03	2.48	*.01
In -> TI	.29	.20	.39	5.99	*.00
Moderator-C -> JP	.11	.04	.25	2.00	*.05
Moderator-C -> TI	.00	-.08	.10	.88	.91

Following the same rules that were previously discussed, to ensure the final data fits the hypothesized moderation model, incivility items (Q58 and Q61), and extraversion items (R-Q32 and R-Q37), which displayed low factor loadings, were removed based on both AMOS and SmartPLS suggestions (see Table 13). Upon further assessment, several job performance items including Q1 to Q4 from the subdomain In-Role Behavior and Q12, and Q13 from subdomain- Organizational citizenship behavior – individuals were saved. The Chi-square of the measurement model was significant: χ^2 (110) = 226.515, *p* <.001, χ^2 /*df* = 2.059, which is common with large sample sizes, but the following fit statistics indicated an adequate fit for the measurement model: GFI =.934, AGFI = .909, TLI = .950, CFI = .960, and RMSEA = .054. Consequently, after confirming this was an acceptable measurement model, the structural model analyses also were performed. The results of structural model were reported in Table 14 and 15.

Table 13

CFA Factor Loadings of the Extraversion Model (N = 370)

Factor and Item	Factor Loading
Incivility	
Q57- Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you	.869
Q55-Put you down or was condescending to you?	.848
Q60-Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility	.800
Q56-Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?	.782
Q59-Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?	.764
Q61-Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters	.586
Q58- Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?	.555

Job Performance

Q2-Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description(IRB-2)	.840
Q4-Meets formal performance requirements of the job(IRB-4)	.837
Q1-Adequately completes assigned duties(IRB-1)	.799
Q3-Performs tasks that are expected of him/her (IRB-3)	.795
Q13-Takes a personal interest in other employees(OCB-I-6)	.532
Q12-Goes out of way to help new employees(OCB-I-5)	.552

Turnover Intention

Q42- I often think of leaving the organization	.860
Q43- It is very possible that I will look for a new job in the next year	.836
R-Q44- If I could choose again, I would choose to work for the current organization	.580

Extraversion

R-Q37- Talk to a lot of different people at parties	.067
R-Q27- Am the life of the party	.090
Q32- Keep in the background	.839
Q22 - Don't talk a lot	.685

Table 14

Bootstrapped Standardized Path Coefficients for Structural Model E

Path	Bootstrapped β	CI(2.5%)	CI(97.5%)	t-Value	p Values
E-> TI	-.10	-.21	.01	1.862	.27
E -> JP	.26	.18	.34	6.17	*.00
In -> TI	.34	.26	.42	7.76	*.00
In -> JP	-.13	-.23	-.02	2.3	*.02
Moderator-E -> JP	.09	-.15	.22	.73	.47
Moderator-E -> TI	-.06	-.14	.02	1.42	.16

Table 15

*Bootstrapped Standardized Path Coefficients for Revised Extraversion Structural
Model E*

Path	Bootstrapped β	CI(2.5%)	CI(97.5%)	*t*-Value	*p* Values
E -> JP	.26	.17	.33	6.14	*.00
In -> TI	.34	.26	.43	7.61	*.01
In -> JP	-.13	-.23	-.01	2.4	*.02
Moderator-E -> JP	.09	-.17	.20	.76	.47

Note. N=370. E = Extraversion; JP = Job Performance; TI = Turnover Intention; In = Incivility; -> =
Path; *p <.05.

In the Neuroticism-Incivility-Job Performance -Turnover Intention model,

incivility items (Q58 and Q61), which displayed low factor loadings, were removed

based on both AMOS and SmartPLS suggestions (see Table 16). Upon further

assessment, several job performance items including Q17R, Q18R, and Q19R from the

subdomain, organizational citizenship behavior-organizational (OCBO), were saved.

Besides, both two subscales from Job performance: OCBI and IRB were removed due to

cross loading issue. The Chi-square of the measurement model was significant: $\chi^2(81) =$

184.938, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.283$, which is common with large sample sizes, but the

following fit statistics indicated an adequate fit for the measurement model: GFI = .934,

AGFI = .902, TLI = .935, CFI = .950, and RMSEA = .059. After confirming this

acceptable measurement model, the structural model analysis is also performed. The

results of structural model analyses were reported in Table 17.

Table 16

CFA Factor Loadings of the Neuroticism Model (N = 370)

Factor and Item	Factor Loading
Incivility	
Q57- Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you	.866
Q55- Put you down or was condescending to you?	.841
Q60- Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility	.784
Q56- Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?	.780
Q59- Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?	.755
Q61- Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters	.581
Q58- Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?	.532
Job Performance	
R-Q18- Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations(R-OCBO-4)	.757
R-Q17- Takes undeserved work breaks(R-OCBO-3)	.696
R-Q19- Complains about insignificant things at work(R-OCBO-5)	.650
Q16- Gives advance notice when unable to come to work(OCBO-2)	.078
Q15- Attendance at work is above the norm(OCBO-1)	.116
Q21- Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order(OCBO-7)	.032
Q20- Conserves and protects organizational property(OCBO-6)	.031
Turnover Intention	
Q43- It is very possible that I will look for a new job in the next year	.817
Q42- I often think of leaving the organization	.780
R-Q44- If I could choose again, I would choose to work for the current organization	.625
Neuroticism	
R-Q30- Am relaxed most of the time	.738
R-Q40- Seldom feel blue	.711
Q35- Get upset easily	.670
Q25- Have frequent mood swings	.527

Table 17

Bootstrapped Standardized Path Coefficients for Structural Model N

Path	Bootstrapped β	CI(2.5%)	CI(97.5%)	t-Value	p Values
In-> JP	-.17	-.29	-.07	2.99	*.00
In -> TI	.25	.11	.39	3.54	*.00
Moderator-N -> JP	.03	-.07	.12	.53	.58
Moderator-N -> TI	.00	-.07	.04	.16	.87
N -> JP	-.35	-.46	-.25	6.60	*.00
N -> TI	.35	.25	.43	7.54	*.00

Note. N=370. N = Neuroticism; JP = Job Performance; TI = Turnover Intention; In = Incivility; -> = Path; *p <.05.

Testing Research Hypotheses H_1 to H_{10}

The results from testing each hypothesis are presented next. The SEM moderation models with standardized coefficients are displayed in Figures 6-9.

H_1 hypothesized a significant and negative relationship between workplace incivility and job performance. The researcher controlled for each of the separate personality traits because prior research indicated a relationship between personality traits and the dependent variable (i.e., job performance) (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick & Mount, 1993; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003), while these traits have been shown also to influence people's reaction to workplace incivility (e.g., Taylor & Kluemper, 2012; Sliter et al., 2015). After controlling for agreeableness (A), workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and negatively related to job performance (JP) (OCBI domain) (β = -.13, p < .05, f^2 = .015), indicating that employees experiencing higher levels of workplace incivility, tend to report lower levels of job performance. β (-.13) indicates that for each

standard deviation (*SD*) increase in perceived workplace incivility, employees' job performance will decrease, on average, by .13 standard deviation (*SD*). Likewise, after controlling for conscientiousness (C), workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and negatively related to job performance (JP) (β = -.13, p < .05, f^2 =.019); indicating that when employees experience a higher level of workplace incivility, they tend to report lower level of job performance. The β (-.13) here indicates that for each standard deviation (*SD*) increase in perceiving workplace incivility, employee's job performance will decrease, on average, by .13 standard deviation (*SD*). Next, after controlling for extraversion (E), workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and negatively related to job performance (JP) (β = -.129, p < .05, f^2 =.013), indicating when employees experience a higher level of workplace incivility, they tend to report lower levels of job performance. This β (-.129) indicates that each standard deviation (*SD*) increase in perceived workplace incivility equates to a .129 standard deviation decrease in employee's job performance. And lastly, after controlling for neuroticism (N), workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and negatively related to job performance (JP) (β = -.17, p < .01, f^2 =.03), indicating that when employees experience higher levels of workplace incivility they tend to report lower levels of job performance. This β (-.17) indicates that for each standard deviation (*SD*) increase in perceived workplace incivility, employee's job performance will decrease, on average, by .17 *SD*. In each of the analyses, a standard deviation increases in incivility corresponded to a significant -.12.9 to -.17 standard deviation decrease in job performance. Therefore, these results supported H_1.

H_2 hypothesized a significant and positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. The researcher controlled for each of the separate

personality traits because prior research indicated a relationship between personality traits and the dependent variable (i.e., turnover intention) (e.g., Choi & Lee, 2014; Eckhardt et al., 2016). These traits have been shown to influence people's reaction to workplace incivility (e.g., Taylor & Kluemper, 2012; Sliter et al., 2015). After controlling for agreeableness (A), workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and positively related to turnover intention (TI) ($\beta = .33$, p < .01, $f^2 = .12$), indicating that employees who experience higher levels of workplace incivility tend to report higher levels of turnover intention. This β (.33) indicates that for each standard deviation (*SD*) increase in perceived workplace incivility, employees' turnover intention will increase, on average, by .33 standard deviation (*SD*). Second, after controlling for conscientiousness (C), workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and positively related to turnover intention (TI) ($\beta = .29$, *p* < .01, $f^2 = .08$), indicating that employees experiencing higher levels of workplace incivility tend to report higher levels of turnover intention. This β (.29) indicates that for each standard deviation (*SD*) increase in perceived workplace incivility, employees' turnover intention will increase, on average, by .29 standard deviation (*SD*). Third, after controlling for extraversion (E), workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly related to turnover intention (TI) ($\beta = .34$, *p* = .01), however, extraversion was not significantly related to turnover intention ($\beta = -.10$, *p* = .06); last, after controlling for neuroticism (N), workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and positively related to turnover intention (TI) ($\beta = .25$, *p* < .01, $f^2 = .08$), indicating that employees experiencing higher levels of workplace incivility tend to report higher levels of turnover intention. This β (.25) indicates that for each standard deviation (*SD*) increase in perceived workplace incivility, employees' turnover intention will increase, on average,

by .25 standard deviation (*SD*). In all but one of the analyses, a standard deviation increase in incivility would correspond to a significant .25 to .34 standard deviation increase in turnover intention. Therefore, these results partially supported H$_2$.
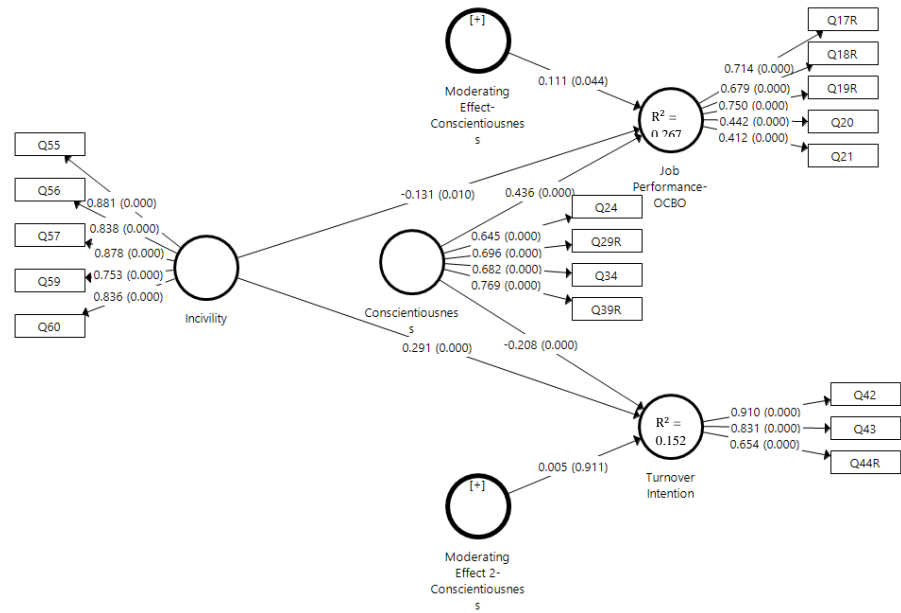
Figure 6

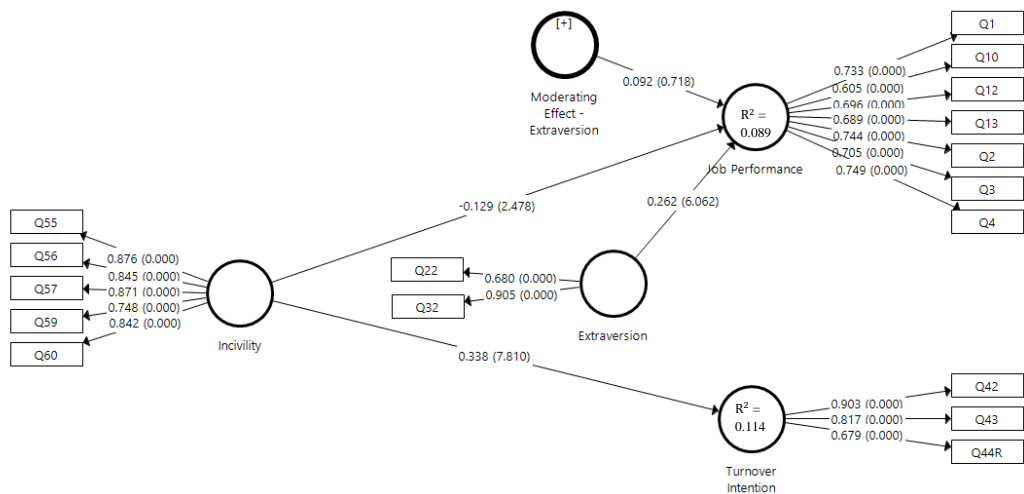*Moderation Model of Agreeableness* (all pathways were significant *p* < .05)
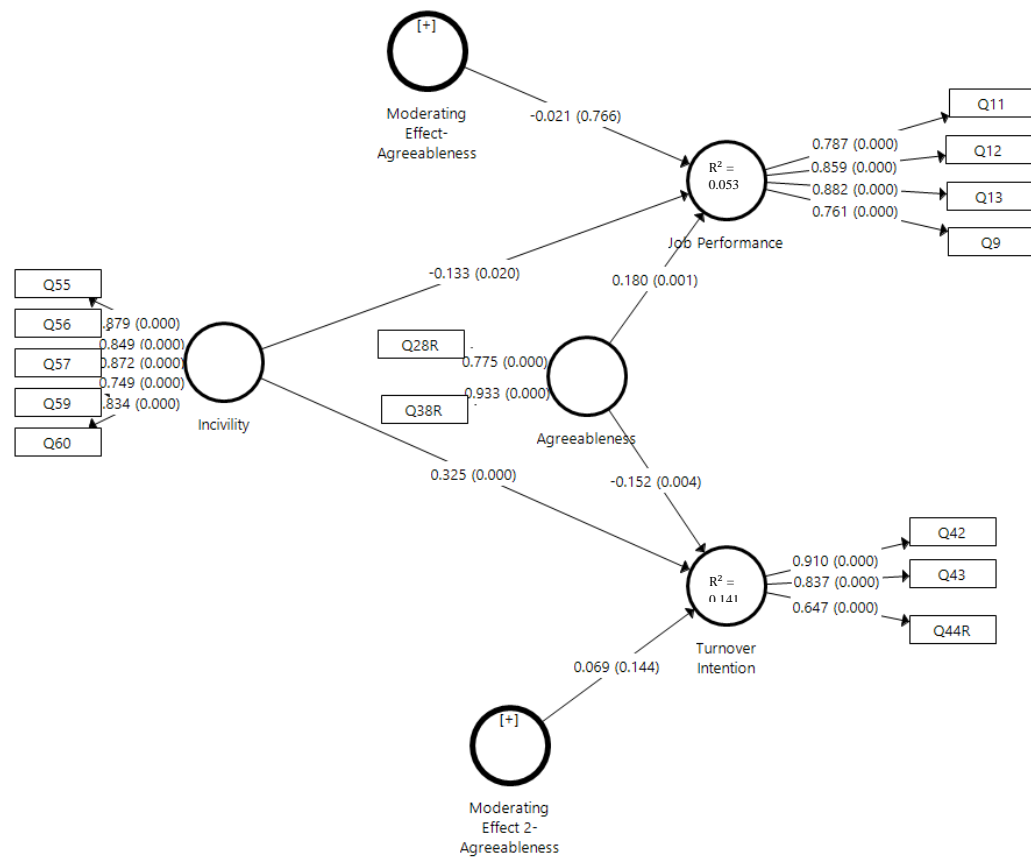
Figure 7

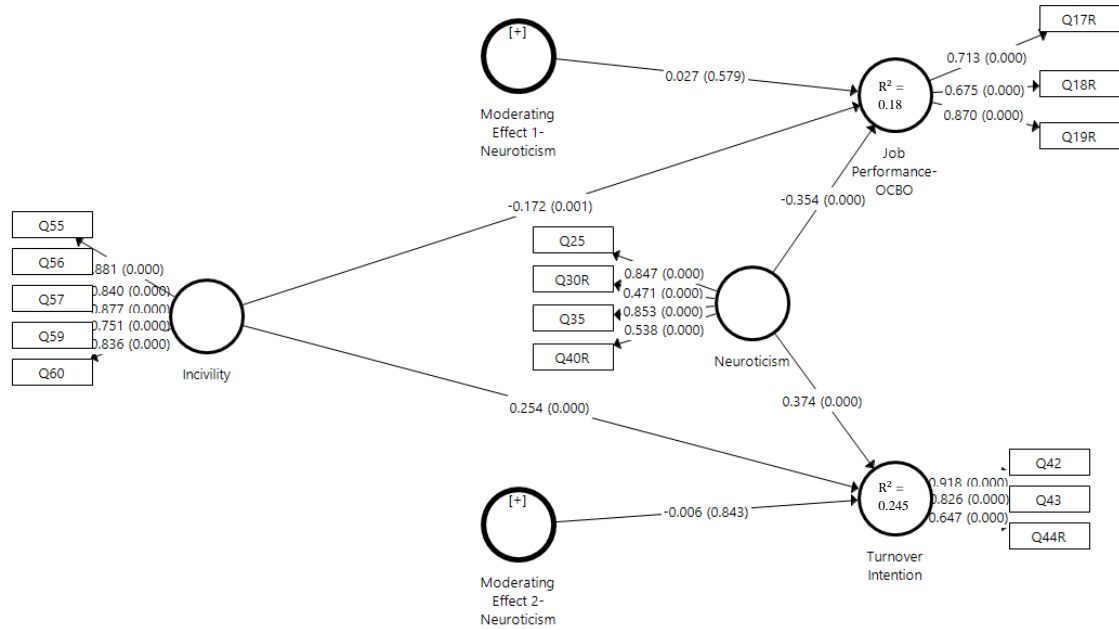*Moderation Model of Conscientiousness* (all pathways were significant *p* < .05)

Figure 8

Moderation Model of Extraversion (all pathways were significant *p* < .05)

Figure 9

Moderation Model of Neuroticism (all pathways were significant $p < .05$)

H$_3$ predicted the negative relationship between workplace incivility and job
performance will be moderated by neuroticism. As discussed previously, after controlling
for neuroticism (N), workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and negatively related to
job performance (JP) ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .01$). To test the significance of moderation effects,
interaction terms were created using the product-indicator approach (Hair et al., 2016).
As recommended by Lowry and Gaskin (2014), a hierarchical process was applied to
check whether moderators existed in this study. Two models (i.e., one with the moderator
relationship, and one without) were compared using the product-indicator (PI) approach
suggested by Chin and his associates (2003). However, neuroticism did not moderate the
relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and job performance ($\beta = .03$, p
$=.58$), thus not supporting H$_3$.

H_4 hypothesized the positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by neuroticism. As discussed previously, after controlling for neuroticism, workplace incivility (Inci) was indeed significantly and positively related to turnover intention (TI) (β = .25, p < .01); to test the significance of moderation effects, interaction terms were created using the product-indicator approach (Hair et al., 2016). However, neuroticism did not moderate the relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and turnover intention (TI) (β = .00, p =.87). Therefore, H_4 was not supported.

H_5 hypothesized that extraversion moderates the negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance. As discussed previously, after controlling for extraversion, workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and negatively related to job performance (JP) (β = -.13, p < .05). To test the significance of moderation effects, interaction terms were created using the product-indicator approach (Hair et al., 2016). However, extraversion did not moderate the relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and job performance (β = .09, p =.47), thus not supporting H_5.
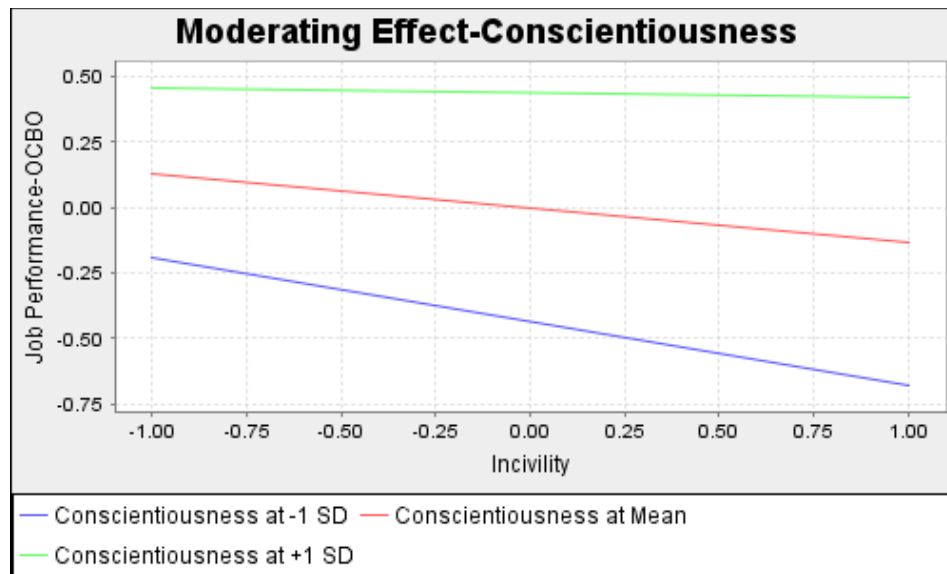
H_6 hypothesized that extraversion moderates the positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention. As discussed previously, after controlling for extraversion, workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and positively related to turnover intention (TI) (β = .34, p < .01). To test the significance of moderation effects, interaction terms were created using the product-indicator approach (Hair et al., 2016). However, extraversion did not moderate the relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and turnover intention (TI) (β = -.06, p =.16). Therefore, not supporting H_6.

H_7 hypothesized that conscientiousness moderates the negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance. As discussed previously, after controlling for conscientiousness, workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and negatively related to job performance (JP) ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .05$). To test the significance of moderation effects, interaction terms were created using the product-indicator approach (Hair et al., 2016). As predicted, conscientiousness moderated the negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance ($\beta = .11$, $p < .05$, $f^2 = .08$).

To facilitate interpretation of the moderation effect of the hypothesized incivility-job performance - OCBO relationship, a simple slope analysis was performed using Aiken and West's (1991) standard, which computes slopes one standard deviation above and below the mean of conscientiousness. Consistent with the hypothesized moderating effect of conscientiousness, the finding confirmed the prediction hypothesized in H_7. Figure 10 suggests a stronger negative relationship between workplace incivility and job performance among employees with a low level of conscientiousness, rather than among employees with a high level of conscientiousness. The regression slope is steeper among employees with a low level of conscientiousness than among employees with a high level of conscientiousness. Specifically, on the other hand, the positive β - coefficient of conscientiousness ($\beta = .11$) indicates that the negative relationship would be weaker for employees high in conscientiousness.

Figure 10

Workplace Incivility and Job Performance-OCBO (*N* = 370)-Moderation

H$_8$ hypothesized that conscientiousness moderates the positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention. As discussed previously, after controlling for conscientiousness, workplace incivility (Inci) was indeed significantly and positively related to turnover intention (TI) (β = .29, *p* < .01). To test the significance of moderation effects, interaction terms were created using the product-indicator approach (Hair et al., 2016). However, conscientiousness did not moderate the relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and turnover intention (TI) (β = .00, *p* =.91). Therefore, H$_8$ was not supported.

H$_9$ hypothesized that agreeableness moderates the negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance. As discussed previously, after controlling for agreeableness, workplace incivility (Inci) was significantly and negatively related to job performance (JP) (β = -.13, *p* < .05). To test the significance of moderation effects, interaction terms were created using the product-indicator approach (Hair et al.,

2016). However, agreeableness did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and job performance (β = -.02, p = .68); therefore H_9 was not supported.

H_{10} hypothesized that agreeableness moderates the positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention. As discussed previously, after controlling for agreeableness, workplace incivility (Inci) was indeed significantly and positively related to turnover intention (TI) (β = .33, p < .01). To test the significance of moderation effects, interaction terms were created using the two-stage approach (Hair et al., 2016). However, agreeableness did not moderate the relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and turnover intention (TI) (β = .07, p =.17). Therefore, the analyses did not support H_{10}.

Additional Findings

Although all the analyses necessary were run to test the hypotheses, further analysis was explored. As part of the current study, a coping style measure was part of the overall survey battery. While coping style was not a focus of this research, to improve the fit of the Coping-Incivility-Job performance -Turnover intention model, incivility items (Q58 and Q61) which displayed low factor loadings were removed based on both AMOS and SmartPLS suggestions (see table 18). Upon further assessment, several job performance items including Q17R, Q18R, and Q19R from the subdomain, organizational citizenship behavior-organizational, and items Q1 to Q4 from the subdomain, in-role behavior (IRB), were saved. Additionally, several coping style items including active coping (Q45, Q46, Q47, Q48), and disengagement (Q53, Q54), were saved. The Chi-square of the measurement model was significant: χ^2 (170) = 260.439, p

<.001, χ^2 /df = 1.53, and as previously discussed a *p* value less than .001 is appropriate

for Chi-square tests involving large data sets such as this (Kline, 2005). The following fit

statistics indicate an adequate fit for the measurement model: GFI =.936, AGFI = .913,

TLI = .972, CFI = .977, RMSEA = .038. After confirming this acceptable measurement

model, the mediation analysis is also performed, using AMOS 27 and Hayes' SPSS

PROCESS macro (model 4) (Hayes, 2013). The factor scores of the latent constructs

including independent variables Incivility; the three dependent variables TI, JP-IRB, and

JP-OCBO, and two mediator variables Active Coping (AC) and Disengagement (Dis)

were obtained via AMOS. Two mediators (AC, and Dis) were applied in order, with a

sample capacity of 5000 samples at a 95% confidence interval. The results of structural

model were reported in Table 19. And the SEM mediation model with standardized

coefficients is displayed in Figure 11.

Figure 11

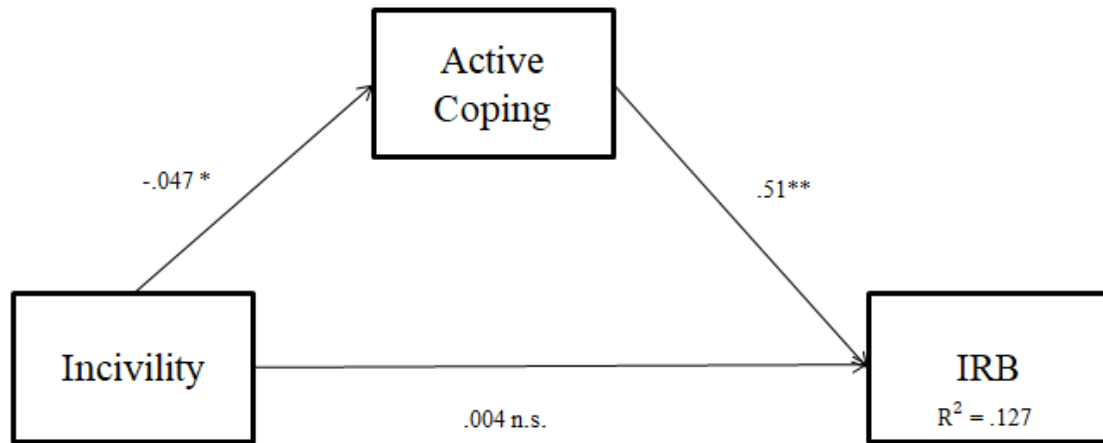*Mediation Model of Incivility-Job Performance, and Turnover Intention*
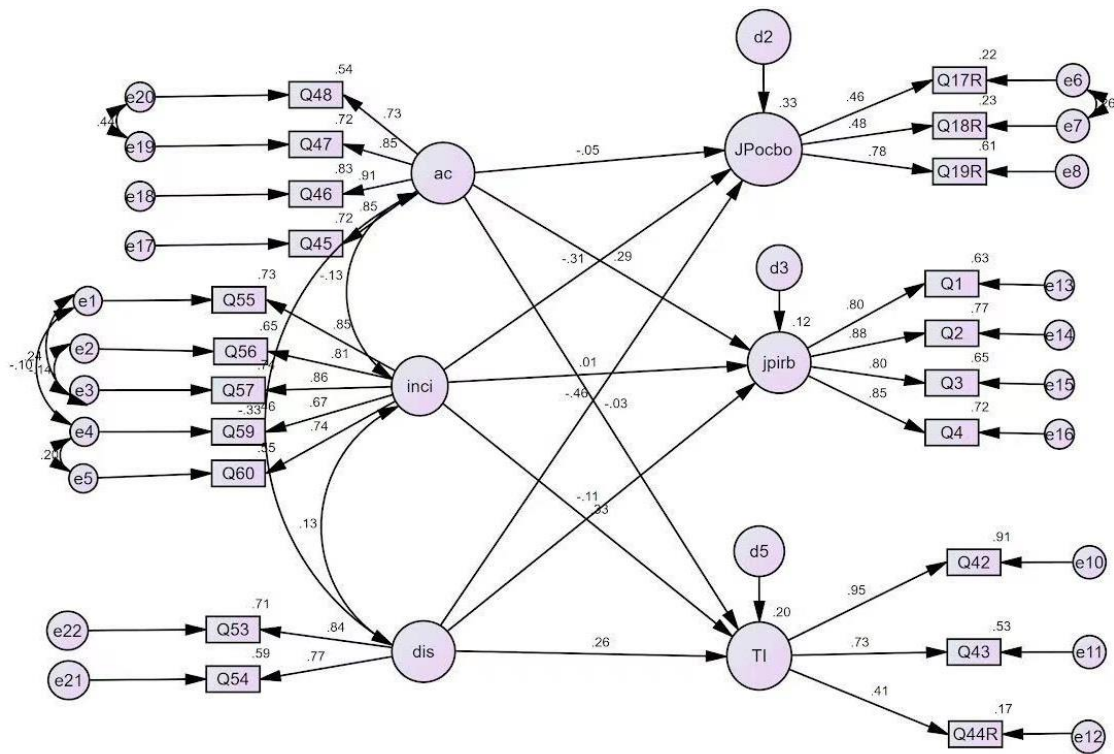
Note. ac = Active Coping, inci = incivility, dis = Disengagement, JP-IRB= Job
Performance: In-role-behavior; JP-OCBO = Job Performance: organizational citizenship
behavior-organizational; TI = Turnover Intention (*N* =370).

The first regression analysis was used to investigate whether active coping

mediates the effect of incivility (as independent variable) on job performance-IRB

domain (IRB) (as dependent variable). Results in Figure 10 indicated that incivility was a

significant predictor of active coping, *B* = -.047, SE = .02, 95%CI [-.08,-.007], β = -.12,

p = .01, and that active coping was a significant predictor of IRB, *B* = .51, SE = .07,

95%CI [.37,.64], β = .36, *p* = .00. These results support that incivility was no longer a

significant predictor of IRB after controlling for the mediator, active coping, *B* = .004, SE

= .03, 95%CI [-.05,.06], β = .0072, *p* = .88, consistent with full mediation (Baron &

Kenny, 1986). Approximately 12.7% of the variance in satisfaction was accounted for by

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the predictors ($R^2 = .127$). The indirect effect was tested using a percentile bootstrap

estimation approach with 5000 samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), implemented with the

PROCESS macro Version 3 (Hayes, 2017). These results indicated the indirect

coefficient was significant, $B = -.02$, SE $= .011$, 95%CI [-.08,-.0066], partially

standardized β $= -.04$. In other words, for each standard deviation (*SD*) increase in

perceived workplace incivility, employees' job performance-IRB domain will decrease,

on average, .02 units through the mediator (active coping).

Figure 12

Mediation Model 1

Note. IRB= Job Performance: In-role-behavior. $N = 370$. **$p<0.01$; *$p<0.05$; n.s.: non-significant.
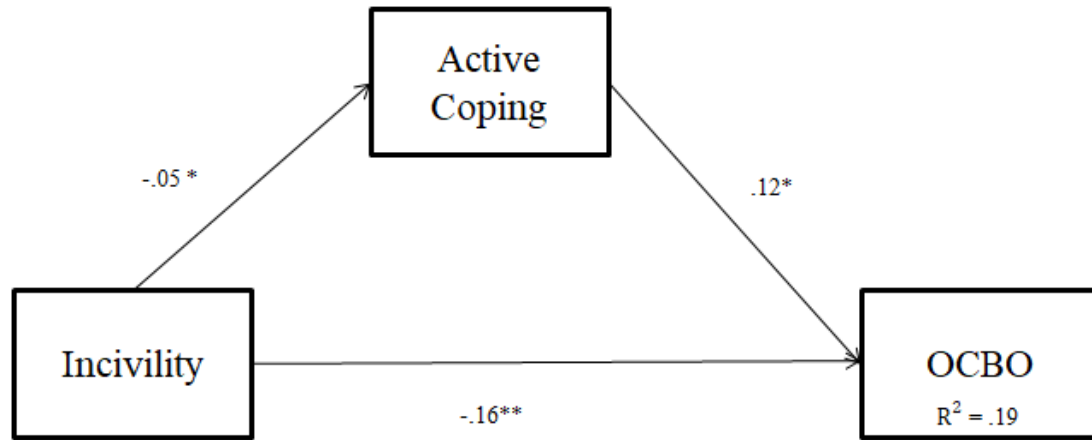
This second regression analysis was used to investigate whether active coping

mediates the effect the incivility (as independent variable) on organizational citizenship

behaviors directed at the organization (OCBO), which is in the domain of job

performance (as dependent variable). Results in Figure 13 indicated that incivility was a significant predictor of active coping, $B = -.05$, SE $= .02$, 95 % CI [-.09, -.007], $\beta = -.12$, $p = .02$, and that active coping was a significant predictor of OCBO, $B = .12$, SE $= .05$, 95%CI [.027, .213], $\beta = .12$, $p = .01$. Incivility was also a significant predictor of OCBO after controlling for the mediator, active coping, $B = -.16$, SE $= .05$, 95% CI [.03,.21], $\beta = -.41$, $p < .01$. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), both direct and indirect path were statistically significant, indicating of a partial mediation. Approximately 19% of the variance in job performance was accounted for by the predictors ($R^2 = .19$). The indirect effect was tested using a percentile bootstrap estimation approach with 5,000 samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), implemented with the PROCESS macro Version 3 (Hayes, 2017). These results indicated the indirect coefficient was significant but weak, $B = -.0056$, SE $= .0033$, 95%CI [-.0134,-.0006], partially standardized $\beta = -.01$. In other words, for each standard deviation (SD) increase in perceived workplace incivility, employees' job performance-OCBO domain will decrease, on average, .0056 units through the mediator (active coping).

Figure 13

Mediation Model 2

Note. OCBO = Job Performance: organizational citizenship behavior-organizational. N = 370. **$p<0.01$; *$p<0.05$; n.s.: non-significant.

The third regression analysis was used to investigate whether disengagement mediates the effect the incivility (as independent variable) on turnover intention (as dependent variable). Results in Figure 14 indicated that incivility was a significant predictor of active coping, $B = .09$, SE $= .03$, 95 % CI [.03, .16], $\beta = .15$, $p = .00$, and that disengagement was a significant predictor of turnover intention, $B = .52$, SE $= .08$, 95%CI [.36, .67], $\beta = .30$, $p = .00$. Incivility was also a significant predictor of turnover intention after controlling for the mediator, disengagement, $B = .36$, SE $= .05$, 95% CI [.26,.46], $\beta = .33$, $p < .01$. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), both direct and indirect path were statistically significant, indicating of a partial mediation. Approximately 23% of the variance in turnover intention was accounted for by the predictors ($R^2 = .23$). The indirect effect was tested using a percentile bootstrap estimation approach with 5,000

samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), implemented with the PROCESS macro Version 3

(Hayes, 2017). These results indicated the indirect coefficient was significant but weak, *B*

= .05, SE = .02, 95%CI [.01, .10], partially standardized β = .04. In other words, for each

standard deviation (*SD*) increase in perceived workplace incivility, employees' turnover

intention will increase, on average, .05 units through the mediator (disengagement).

Figure 14

Mediation Model 3
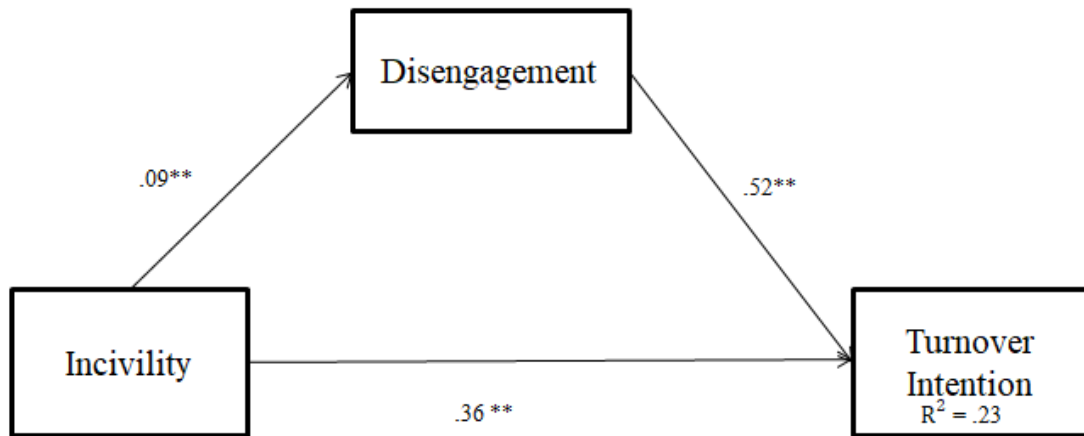
Note. *N* = 370. **$p<0.01$; *$p<0.05$; n.s.: non-significant.

Table 18

CFA Factor loadings of the Coping Model (N=370)

Factor and Item	Factor Loading
Incivility	
Q57- Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you	.881
Q55- Put you down or was condescending to you?	.869
Q56- Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?	.811

Q60- Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility	.801
Q59- Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?	.768
Q61-Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters	.586
Q58-Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?	.538

Active Coping

Q47-trying to come up with a strategy about what to do	.903
Q46- taking action to try to make the situation better	.874
Q48- thinking hard about what steps to take	.860
Q45-concentrating my efforts on doing something about the situation I'm in	.839

Disengagement Coping

Q54-giving up the attempt to cope	.851
Q53-giving up trying to deal with it	.836

Job Performance-In-Role Behavior

Q4- Meets formal performance requirements of the job(IRB-4)	.855
Q2- Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description(IRB-2)	.834
Q3- Performs tasks that are expected of him/her(IRB-3)	.818
Q1- Adequately completes assigned duties(IRB-1)	.808
Q5- Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation(IRB-5)	.621

Job performance- Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Organizational

R-Q18-Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations(R-OCBO-4)	.807
R-Q17-Takes undeserved work breaks(R-OCBO-3)	.721
R-Q19-Complains about insignificant things at work(R-OCBO-5)	.546

Turnover Intention

Q42-I often think of leaving the organization	.842
Q43-It is very possible that I will look for a new job in the next year	.831
R-Q44-If I could choose again, I would choose to work for the current organization	.586

Table 19

Bootstrapped Standardized Path Coefficients for Structural Model Coping

Path	Bootstrapped β	CI(2.5%)	CI(97.5%)	*t*-Value	*p* Values
AC -> JP-IRB	.28	.16	.40	4.62	**.00
AC-> TI	-.10	-.20	.01	1.82	.07
AC -> JP-OCBO	.02	-.08	.13	.35	.73
Dis -> JP-IRB	-.09	-.20	.01	1.78	.08
Dis -> TI	.15	.05	.26	2.85	**.00
Dis -> JP-OCBO	-.32	-.45	-.19	4.90	**.00
Inci-> AC	-.13	-.24	-.03	2.48	*.01
Inci -> Dis	.13	.01	.25	2.04	*.04
Inci -> TI	.30	.21	.39	6.39	**.00
Inci -> JP-OCBO	-.20	-.32	-.07	3.03	**.00

Note. N=370. AC = Active Coping; Dis = Disengagement; JP-IRB= Job Performance: In-role-behavior; JP-OCBO= Job Performance: organizational citizenship behavior-organizational**;** TI = Turnover Intention; In = Incivility; -> = Path; *p* <.05; **p* <.01.

Table 20

Mediation Model 1

	Bootstrapped β	Boot SE	CI(5 %)	CI(95%)	*p* Values
Total Effect	-.02	.03	-.077	.04	.49
Direct Effect	.00	.03	-.05	.06	.88
Indirect Effect	-.02	.01	-.05	-.00	**.00

Note. N=370. SE = Std. Error, CI = confidence interval; *p* <.05; **p* <.01.

Table 21

Mediation Model 2

	Bootstrappe d β	Boot SE	CI(5 %)	CI(95%)	*p* Values
Total Effect	-.163	.18	-.20	-.13	**.00
Direct Effect	-.158	.18	-.19	-.12	**.00
Indirect Effect	-.0056	.0033	-.013	-0.0008	**.00

Note. N=370. SE = Std. Error, CI = confidence interval; *p* <.05; ***p* <.01.

Table 22

Mediation Model 3

	Bootstrappe d β	Boot SE	CI(5 %)	CI(95%)	*p* Values
Total Effect	.41	.05	.35	.37	**.00
Direct Effect	.36	.05	.31	.33	**.00
Indirect Effect	.05	.02	.01	.09	**.00

Note. N=370. SE = Std. Error, CI = confidence interval; *p* <.05; ***p* <.01.

Summary of the Results

The analyses presented in this chapter supports H_1. There is a significant and

negative relationship between workplace incivility and job performance after controlling

for each separate personality trait (i.e., agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness,

and extraversion). H_2 was partially supported in that there is a significant and positive

relationship between work place incivility and turnover intention after controlling for

three of the aforementioned personality traits (agreeableness, neuroticism, and

conscientiousness), but not extraversion. Of all four personality traits, only

conscientiousness moderated the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and

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job performance. Further, the data did not provide evidence that any of the personality traits moderate the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention. Additionally, the relationship between workplace incivility and the *job performance – in role behavior domain* was fully mediated by active coping. Furthermore, the relationship between workplace incivility and the *job performance – organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the organization domain* was partially mediated by active coping. Lastly, the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention was partially mediated by disengagement coping.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Chapter 5 provides a brief summary of the study, followed by a discussion of the results, additional findings. Implications for theory, practice, and limitations and recommendations for future research are offered followed by a conclusion of the chapter.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between targets' perceptions of workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as moderated by personality traits (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness) in the context of China. Additionally this study plans to investigate the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention) as mediated by specific coping styles (e.g., active coping, disengagement). This research adds to the existing knowledge of the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes, and how both personality traits and coping styles may strengthen or dampen the relationship between workplace incivility and this study's two dependent variables.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In light of the main purpose of this study, research questions and sub questions are addressed.

Research question 1: What is the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention)?

Hypothesis 1: After controlling for the Big Five personality traits, workplace incivility will be negatively related to job performance.

Hypothesis 2: After controlling for the Big Five personality traits, workplace incivility will be positively related to turnover intention.

Research question 2: What is the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as moderated by personality traits?

Hypothesis 3: The negative relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by neuroticism, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be stronger for employees high in neuroticism.

Hypothesis 4: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by neuroticism, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be stronger for employees high in neuroticism.

Hypothesis 5: The negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by extraversion, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be weaker for employees high in extraversion.

Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by extraversion, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be weaker for employees high in extraversion.

Hypothesis 7: The negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by conscientiousness, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be weaker for employees high in conscientiousness.

Hypothesis 8: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by conscientiousness, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be weaker for employees high in conscientiousness.

Hypothesis 9: The negative relationship between perceived of workplace incivility and job performance will be moderated by agreeableness, such that the incivility-job performance relationship will be weaker for employees high in agreeableness.

Hypothesis 10: The positive relationship between perceived workplace incivility and turnover intention will be moderated by agreeableness, such that the incivility-turnover intention relationship will be weaker for employees high in agreeableness.

Research question 3: What is the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as mediated by coping styles?

Discussion of the Results

This study sought to investigate the possible moderating effects (i.e., personality traits) that translate the perception of workplace incivility into negative organizational outcomes: job performance, and turnover intention among working adults in mainland China, and also sought to clarify the role of coping styles in the relation between

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incivility and its organizational outcomes. The current study uniquely and comprehensively builds upon several theories including the incivility spiral (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), the Big five Factor model (Goldberg, 1981; McCrae & Costa, 1997), and the transactional model of stress and coping strategies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). These theories guide the following discussion on each hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1

H_1 proposed that (after individually controlling for each of the personality traits) workplace incivility was negatively related to job performance. Results from the SEM analysis were as follows: after controlling for agreeableness, there was a significant and negative relationship between workplace incivility and organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the organization (OCBO), which is in the domain of job performance; similarly, after controlling for conscientiousness, there was a significant and negative relationship between workplace incivility and OCBO. After controlling for neuroticism, there was a significant and negative relationship between workplace incivility and OCBO. While controlling for extraversion, there was a significant and negative relationship between workplace incivility and a combined job performance domain consisting of three items from the organizational citizenship behaviors directed at an individual (OCBI) domain, and four items from in-role behavior (IRB) domain (i.e., a similar construct as compared to task performance). The findings corroborate previous research which has found that individuals who experienced higher levels of workplace incivility tended to have lower levels of job performance in the organizational citizenship behavior domain (Porath & Eraz, 2009; Taylor et al., 2012). Similarly, the findings also broadly supported Dalal's (2005) meta-analysis about how counterproductive workplace

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behavior (another similar construct to incivility) leads to decreases in organizational citizenship behaviors (Schilpzand et al., 2016). However, one unexpected finding was that the in-role behavior (IRB) domain showed no statistically significant relationship with incivility despite having been demonstrated in previous research (Chen et al., 2013; Sliter et al., 2012). Interestingly, this lack of a significant relationship was also reflected in the findings of a Chinese study by Cheng and associates (2020). Cheng and associates (2020) further explained that this is because in-role behavior is formally recognized by organizational reward systems. For example, although employees may perceive workplace incivility, they still must satisfy job description requirements or else risk punishment or failure to achieve rewards (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Another possible explanation is that employees are more likely to adopt active coping strategies to handle workplace incivility, therefore making sure their task performance (i.e., in-role performance) will not be impacted due to workplace mistreatment (Hu et al., 2018).

Hypothesis 2

H_2 proposed that (after individually controlling for each of the personality traits) workplace incivility was positively related to turnover intention. Results from the SEM analysis were as follows: after controlling for agreeableness, workplace incivility was significantly and positively related to turnover intention; after controlling for conscientiousness, workplace incivility was significantly and positively related to turnover intention; after controlling for neuroticism, workplace incivility was significantly and positively related to turnover intention; and after controlling for extraversion, workplace incivility was indeed significantly and positively related to turnover intention, yet the direct path from extraversion to turnover intention was

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statistically insignificant, therefore only partially supporting H_2. These findings are consistent with similar positive and significant incivility-turnover relationships from the financial and banking industry in Singapore (Lim & Teo, 2009), the service industry in the U.S. (Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010; Wilson & Homvall, 2013), and in the medical industries of China (Hui et al., 2007) and the U.S. (Batista & Reio, 2019). Employees that are the target of workplace incivility are more likely to report greater turnover intentions (Shi et al., 2008). Incivility may seem innocuous, but individuals who perceive uncivil treatment may bring harsh monetary impacts for employers, such as turnover intentions or even actual turnover (Cortina, 2008).

Hypothesis 3

H_3 proposed the existence of a moderating effect of neuroticism on the workplace incivility-job performance relationship. Moderation analysis showed no support for H_3. Specifically, neuroticism did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and job performance. One potential explanation from Bowling and Jex (2013) is that the composite measures of neuroticism include a series of subdimensions (e.g., anxiety and impulsiveness), which may be more or less likely to moderate certain stressors. However, there was evidence of a significant and negative relationship between workplace incivility and job performance as discussed in Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 4

H_4 proposed the existence of a moderating effect of neuroticism on the workplace incivility-turnover intention relationship. Moderation analysis showed no support for H_4. Specifically, neuroticism did not moderate the relationship between

workplace incivility and turnover intention. As discussed earlier, the subdimensions of neuroticism may be more or less likely to moderate certain stressors. However, there was evidence of a significant and positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention as discussed in Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 5

H_5 proposed the existence of a moderating effect of extraversion on the workplace incivility-job performance relationship. Moderation analysis showed no support for H_5. Specifically, extraversion did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and job performance. Similar to Lucas and Diener's (2001) finding, researchers explained that this is due to negative events (i.e., workplace incivility) which may not have provoked variant responses based upon level of extraversion. However, there was evidence of a significant and negative relationship between workplace incivility and job performance as discussed in Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 6

H_6 proposed the existence of a moderating effect of extraversion on the workplace incivility – turnover intention relationship. Moderation analysis showed no support for H_6. Specifically, extraversion did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. However, there was evidence of a significant and positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention as discussed in Hypothesis 2 (extraversion was not significantly related to turnover intention).

Hypothesis 7

H$_7$ proposed the existence of a moderating effect of conscientiousness on the workplace incivility-job performance relationship. Results from the SEM analysis are as follows: after controlling for conscientiousness, workplace incivility was significantly and negatively related to job performance. As expected, conscientiousness moderated the negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance. The employees with higher levels of conscientiousness are more responsible and dutiful; with these traits, employees will buffer the negative effects of workplace incivility on job performance. This finding widely reflected Taylor and associates' (2012) findings that conscientiousness moderates the indirect effect of workplace incivility on the OCB domain of job performance in a sample of 404 subordinate– supervisor dyads in America. More directly, the results provide evidence that the moderating role of conscientiousness can influence employees' reactions to incivility (i.e., job performance).

Hypothesis 8

H$_8$ proposed the existence of a moderating effect of conscientiousness on the workplace incivility – turnover intention relationship. Moderation analysis showed no support for H$_8$. Specifically, conscientiousness did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. However, there was evidence of a significant and positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention as discussed in Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 9

H$_9$ proposed the existence of a moderating effect of agreeableness on the workplace incivility-job performance relationship. Moderation analysis showed no support for H$_9$. Specifically, agreeableness did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and job performance. Again, Bowling and Jex (2013) suggest that agreeableness may have a non-linear relationship with work stressors, rather than a linear causal relationship, "such that it yields beneficial effects only up to a point, after which negative consequences ensue.'' (p.703) However, there was evidence of a significant and negative relationship between workplace incivility and job performance as discussed in Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 10

H$_{10}$ proposed the existence of a moderating effect of agreeableness on the workplace incivility – turnover intention relationship. Moderation analysis showed no support for H$_{10}$. Specifically, agreeableness did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. However, there was evidence of a significant and positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention as discussed in Hypothesis 2.

Additional Findings

Contrary to the research hypotheses, conscientiousness was the only valid moderator on the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and job performance. The additional mediation analyses were tested to broaden understanding of how individuals cope with uncivil behavior, and how it might attenuate the negative

effects of incivility and job performance and positive effects of incivility and turnover intention. The results were as follows: active coping mediated the relationship between perceiving incivility and job performance –IRB domain; active coping partially mediated the relationship between perceiving incivility and job performance -OCBO domain; and disengagement partially mediated the relationship between perceiving incivility and turnover intention. Specifically, these results imply that when employees perceive workplace incivility, higher engagement in active coping will dampen the negative relationship of incivility and job performance. Additionally, disengagement coping promoted the positive relationship between incivility and turnover intention. These findings support the discussion of Lazarus and Folkman's research (1984) which posits that individual reaction towards stressful situations could affect consequences of workplace incivility.

Implications for Theory

This study aimed to investigate the negative relationship between incivility and job performance as well as the positive relationship between incivility and turnover intention as moderated by targets' personality traits (i.e., agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism). In accordance with Andersson and Pearson's (1999) spiraling effect theory and Folkman & Lazarus's (1985) transactional model of stress, this study supported individuals' perceptions of incivility were associated with lower levels of job performance and higher levels of turnover intention. This research utilized the Big Five model (Goldberg, 1981; McCrae & Costa, 1997) to test the potential moderating roles of personality traits. In this research, conscientiousness was found to have a significant moderating effect in the negative relationship of incivility and

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job performance. Specifically, the negative impact of workplace incivility is mitigated by higher levels of conscientiousness.

This research relies upon the transactional model of stress in order to support previous understandings from incivility research (e.g., Batista & Reio, 2019; Taylor & Pattie, 2014), and advance theories of how personality traits (i.e., conscientiousness) can attenuate the workplace incivility-job performance relationship in the context of China. One unanticipated finding was that none of these four traits significantly moderated the incivility-turnover intention relationships. While individually controlling each trait in the relationship of workplace incivility and two organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance, and turnover intention), the direct path from extraversion to turnover intention was not significant, while the rest of the paths were all significant.

Additionally, due to a lack of moderating effects on the relationships between incivility and organizational outcomes, and an insignificant relationship among the job performance-in-role-behavior domain and incivility, further investigation was performed to determine whether coping styles had indirect effects on these two relationships. Regression analysis indicated that active coping fully mediated the relationship between workplace incivility and job performance- IRB domain; active coping partially mediated the negative relationship between workplace incivility and job performance-OCBO domain; and disengagement partially mediated the positive relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. This additional analysis examined two coping styles as potential mediators linking workplace incivility and organizational outcomes, and the findings enriched prior work on both stress and coping (Lim & Tai, 2013). This research not only studied the mediating effect of active coping on the

relationship between incivility and in-role behavior (i.e., task performance), but also revealed how disengagement coping, as an avoidant strategy, may enhance the positive relationship between incivility and turnover intention. This current model demonstrates that when workplace incivility is perceived constantly it becomes a stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984); and this stressor determines employees' choice of coping strategies. Our findings further reveal that active coping strategies improved the job performance-in-role behaviors IRB domain and OCBO domain, while disengagement coping strategies increased turnover intention. These two coping strategies could potentially act as principal concepts which will allow researchers to better interpret incivility and its negative job outcomes (Gaudioso et al., 2017). Therefore, this study further contributes to the theory that individuals with different coping styles respond differently towards workplace incivility (Lim et al., 2008).

Implication for HRD Practice

To this date, incivility research has been primarily focused on American populations. This research, having sampled a Chinese population, reveals that individuals working in a country which is culturally distinct from the United States will experience workplace incivility as well (Schilpzand et al., 2016). In contrast with the limited number of previous incivility studies with Chinese study participants (e.g., Guo et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018)., this study samples more diversified job positions, educational levels, and industries, which offer several implications for organizations.

Maintaining interpersonal harmony with peers is a central characteristic of Chinese culture (Abbot, 1970), which is less emphasized in the United States (Liu et al.,

2017). Our finding, which is consistent with previous findings (e.g., Rahim & Cosby, 2016), suggests that Chinese employees with outwardly higher incivility tolerance levels react similarly to American employees (Yeung & Griffin, 2008). This finding illuminates a previously unspoken negative aspect of the general Chinese workplace culture such that the Chinese HRD community can take note. As Pearson and associates (2000) suggest, corporations should establish standards for social interaction that build civil relationships among employees. HRD professionals should provide effective orientation regarding social interactions that cause uncivil behaviors such as workplace incivility. One proposed method would be to show videos depicting workplace incivility followed by open-ended discussion to reinforce the importance of workplace incivility awareness.

Our findings draw on the link between incivility and personality traits by examining the moderating effect of conscientiousness: the negative effect of incivility on job performance, which is dampened linearly by the conscientiousness level. These findings are in accordance with Taylor and associates' (2012) findings that individual's responses towards stressful situation can be seen as a "boundary condition" through which incivility causes a negative effect (p. 597). Our results extend the same mindset which proves that working adults' conscientiousness levels work as a boundary condition that attenuates the adverse effects of incivility. As recommended by Taylor and Kluemper (2012), HR managers should concurrently take into account the stressful events that employees might encounter, along with potential targets' personality traits. In regards to our finding, lower levels of conscientiousness will have a stronger negative effect on decreasing job performance. When combining the weak but significant mediating role of active coping and disengagement, HR managers should proactively

monitor for stressed out employees exhibiting disengagement coping behaviors such as absenteeism or mood swings and introduce interventions that reduce employee tendencies to adopt disengagement coping behaviors (Nandkeolyar et al., 2014). Furthermore, HR managers can promote active coping training by teaching stress management, realistic cognitive appraisals of stress, and enhancing social support (Scott et al., 2004). Those managerial interventions can be modified by the big five traits and trainings can be conducted proactively during the orientation process for new employees (Nandkeolyar et al., 2014; Taylor et al., 2012).

Limitations and Recommendations for Future HRD Research

Of note, there were several limitations regarding the study's sample. First, the majority of the participants were female (62.2%) compared to male participants (37.8%). One potential explanation could be that female respondents were more likely to participate in the workplace incivility topic than their counterparts. Not surprisingly, previous research does support that female respondents usually cooperate and respond more frequently than male respondents (Crawford et al., 2001; National Center for Education Statistics, 2002). The association between gender and perceiving incivility shows contradictory findings. Cortina and associates (2013) found that female participants experience more uncivil behaviors than male participants, whereas Lim and Lee (2011) and Clark (2007) reported that male experience incivility greater than their counterpart. Although the frequency of perceiving incivility is not the focus of this study, a greater frequency may impact results. However, this greater frequency should not have a large impact on the finding of this study with relation to the moderating effect of conscientiousness on the relationship between incivility and organizational outcomes. That finding should hold true regardless of the

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frequency of incivility. A further study could address the gender differences with respect to incivility and whether there exists a potential moderating role of gender in the relationship between incivility and its two organizational outcomes.

Secondly, our study was a cross-sectional study of 370 working adults recruited in mainland China. Given the potential demographic bias and the nature of the correlational data, the sample size may be too small to accurately generalize the findings to the whole population of China (Koon & Poon, 2018), and the causal relationships between variables could not be accurately determined (Reio & Sanders-Reio, 2011; Wei et al., 2013). A recent study on workplace incivility suggests that using a longitudinal study or diary methods would help to overcome this limitation (Zhou et al., 2015). Specifically, a longitudinal, quasi-experimental design could help to study the directional influences between incivility and its organizational outcomes; as well as incivility and coping styles. Additionally, a qualitative study using thematic analysis and positivist research paradigms (e.g., semi-structured individual interviews, which ask about participants' experiences of incivility, coping styles, and reactions to incivility) will demonstrate in-depth analysis regarding Chinese employees' perceptions towards mistreatment (Pattani et al., 2018).

This study was conducted in fall 2020, when the pandemic-weakened Chinese economy left approximatively 80 million people out of work (He & Gan, 2020). Many employees were fortunate enough to keep their jobs yet average salaries have dropped more than 35 % (Feng & Cheng, 2020). The survey responses to turnover intention may have been affected by these factors. Given the pandemic situation in China, snowball sampling was the most ideal way for this researcher (who was located in the USA) to reach the study population. To enhance the understanding of how personality traits impact Chinese

working adult's reactions to incivility, a larger sample and a more robust sampling method is recommended in future research (Ryan & Tipu, 2013).

Conscientiousness was the lone moderating effect reported here on the negative relationship between incivility and job performance. There are also two weak yet statistically significant coping style mediators which were found for both the incivility-job performance relationship and incivility- turnover intention relationship. Another possible area of future research would be to investigate the moderated mediation model, such as testing the impact of the personality traits (i.e., moderator) on the mediated relationship on coping styles (i.e., mediator) between incivility and increased turnover intention and decreased job performance.

Another possible limitation of this study was common method variance bias because all data were collected through the use of a single data collection technique. Common method variance could have inflated or deflated the correlations among the research variables (Reio, 2010). The survey from this study asked employees to report their perceptions about incivility, job performance, and their personality traits. As such, social desirability bias would cause respondents to provide more socially desirable or acceptable answers (Shuck & Reio, 2014). In future research, the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) should be included to assure the research model is free from the confounding influence of social desirability (Brunetta & Reio, 2018).

However, self-reported measures are inevitably appropriate for this study due to the sensitivity associated with the incivility variable (Reio & Sanders-Reio, 2011). Several statistical steps were may have reduced the possibility of common method variance in this

study (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Reio, 2010). For example, the dependent variable was placed first in the survey to avoid the possibility that reminding participants of prior incivility experience may impact their perceptions of turnover intention, and job performance (Lim et al., 2008; Reio & Sanders-Reio, 2011). Prior to data collection, as Dillman and associates (2014) recommended, a pilot study was conducted to test the clarity of the instructions and procedures. During data collection, the anonymity and voluntary nature of this study also were maintained to reduce the risk of common method bias (Reio, 2010). Future research that collects data from multiple sources to avoid problems with common method bias is encouraged.

Lastly, this current study used the workplace incivility scale (Cortina et al., 2001), to measure the frequency at which respondents experienced discourteous behavior from both supervisors and coworkers. Incivility coming from different sources may have had varying impact (Schilpzand et al., 2014). For example, results from a study of 507 employees in America, showed that supervisor (β = -.28, p < .001) and coworker (β = -.20, p < .01) incivility were linked to less employee satisfaction; indicating that supervisor incivility had a stronger negative effect on employees as compared to coworker incivility (Reio, 2011). Future research that specifically examines both coworker-instigated and supervisor-instigated incivility is recommended. Finally, research attention should not only take notice of individuals who experience incivility, but also people who witness or instigate incivility.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between targets' perceptions of workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention), as moderated by personality traits (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness) in the context of China. Additionally this study plans to investigate the relationship between perceived workplace incivility and organizational outcomes (i.e., job performance and turnover intention) as mediated by specific coping styles (e.g., active coping, disengagement). This study contributes to the knowledge of the relationship between workplace incivility and its organizational outcomes, as well as whether personality traits strengthen or dampen the relationship between workplace incivility and this study's two dependent variables. Findings suggested that after individually controlling for each of the personality traits, workplace incivility was negatively related to job performance. There is a significant and positive relationship between work place incivility and turnover intention after controlling for three of the aforementioned personality traits (i.e., agreeableness, neuroticism, and conscientiousness), but not extraversion. Further, conscientiousness moderated the negative relationship between perceived workplace incivility and job performance. The employees with higher levels of conscientiousness tend to be more responsible and dutiful; thus, with this particular trait, the negative effects of workplace incivility on job performance were buffered. Additional mediation analysis found that active coping partially mediated incivility and the job performance – organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the organization domain and a fully mediated incivility and the job performance- in role behavior domain; disengagement partially mediated relationship

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between perceiving incivility and turnover intention. The present findings provide fresh

theoretical and empirical insights by demonstrating individual difference in

conscientiousness and coping styles can impact workplace incivility and its two

organizational outcomes.

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