

Examining the Impact of Uncivil Subordinates on Leader Well-Being: Needs Frustration
in Male and Female Leaders

by

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Abstract

Drawing on workplace mistreatment, self-determination theory, and gender and leadership literatures, I investigated whether subordinate incivility impacts leader well-being, whether this relationship was mediated by relatedness and competence needs frustration, and whether these mediation effects were stronger for females than for males. As the majority of the research exploring subordinate incivility to date is correlational, my study addressed causality through a laboratory experiment ($N = 109$) by manipulating subordinate incivility using email communication. Results revealed that subordinate incivility decreased leader well-being via lower positive affect and higher negative affect. For negative affect, this effect was stronger for males than females. Further, the relationship between subordinate incivility and leader well-being was equally explained by relatedness needs frustration for both genders. However, only male leaders treated uncivilly experienced greater competence needs frustration, leading to lower well-being. Study limitations, implications, and future research directions are discussed.

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When one is treated without respect in the workplace, a host of negative outcomes may arise (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Porath & Pearson, 2013). Disrespect in the workplace can take many forms (e.g., harassment, aggression, bullying), of which workplace incivility is one. Workplace incivility is defined as low intensity deviant behaviours with ambiguous intent to harm and without regard for others (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) and is a widely researched and far too prevalent phenomenon in today's workplaces (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina et al., 2001; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008). Indeed, a recent study estimated that as many as 96% of workers experience incivility at their workplace (Porath & Pearson, 2010).

Workplace incivility research has historically focused on the leader's uncivil treatment of the subordinate (e.g., Taylor, Bedeian, & Kluemper, 2012), incivility between coworkers (e.g., Miner & Eischeid, 2012; Sakurai & Jex, 2012), and spiraling effects that can emerge from uncivil treatment (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999). However, Cortina and colleagues (2001) propose that incivility can originate from employees at any level of the organizational structure, including from subordinate to leader.

The potential of those with lesser formal power to engage in incivility toward those with higher power is evident from the contrapower harassment literature (i.e., when a person of lesser power harasses a person of greater power via low and high intensity

disrespectful behaviours; Benson, 1984). Predominantly studied in an academic context, effects of contrapower harassment include compromised emotional well-being, and withdrawal from student relationships (i.e., diminished ability to build relationships with other students), as well as reduced feelings of professional competence (Luparell, 2007). Of particular interest to the proposed study, correlational research investigating contrapower harassment demonstrates that female professors consistently report worse outcomes after experiencing disrespectful treatment from students than their male counterparts (DeSouza & Fansler, 2003; Lampman, Crew, Lowery, & Tompkins 2016; Luparell, 2007). I argue that a similar pattern may be seen when female leaders are treated uncivilly by their subordinates.

The negative outcomes for those of higher power when disrespected by those in lower power positions, and the associated gender differences, may be explained by Self-Determination Theory; humans have innate needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness that when satisfied, support their psychological health (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004). As contrapower harassment research suggests (DeSouza & Fansler, 2003; Lampman et al., 2016; Luparell, 2007), it may be that harassment from a subordinate depletes a female leader's feelings of competence and relatedness more so than her male counterpart, thus leading to poorer well-being.

The purpose of the current research is to (1) shed light on the truly dyadic nature of the leader-follower exchange in organizations by investigating if a subordinate's mistreatment of a leader causally impacts leaders' well-being using an experimental design in a laboratory setting; (2) investigate whether this impact is explained (mediated)

by how competent the leader feels in their job role and how connected they feel to their subordinate; and (3) investigate whether these mechanisms differ for male and female leaders.

Workplace Incivility Defined

In their seminal paper, Andersson and Pearson (1999) define workplace incivility as any low intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the recipient, involving acting rudely or discourteously without regard for others and in violation of workplace norms for respectful social interactions. Uncivil behaviours can degrade, offend, or intimidate the target, violating widely-held standards of interpersonal respect and potentially creating a hostile environment for the target of such behaviours. Uncivil behaviours include receiving rude, derogatory, or demeaning comments, showing little interest in an employee's opinion, or addressing an employee in unprofessional terms (Cortina, 2008).

Incivility can be distinguished from other workplace mistreatment constructs such as aggression and interactional (in)justice. Specifically, workplace incivility differs from workplace aggression as workplace aggression involves clear intent and an expectation to cause harm either psychologically or physically. Moreover, aggressive behaviours (e.g., insults, yelling, spreading false rumours about the target, physical attacks; e.g., Neuman & Baron, 1996; Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006) are generally higher in intensity compared with uncivil behaviours.

A second closely related, albeit distinguishable, construct to workplace incivility is interactional (in)justice. Interactional (in)justice describes employees' sensitivities

about the fairness of the interpersonal treatment they receive primarily during decision-making, and is assessed by criteria of truthfulness, respect, propriety of questions, and justification (Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional (in)justice has two key components: interpersonal justice (i.e., treating others with dignity and respect; Greenberg, 1993; Greenberg, 2011) and informational justice (i.e., providing people with clear and thorough explanations about the procedures used to determine outcomes; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Greenberg 2011).

Rationale regarding the distinction between interactional injustice and incivility is noted by Caza and Cortina (2007; see also Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Namely, these researchers posit that workplace incivility refers to the *treatment external to person*, while interactional injustice refers to the *internal cognitive evaluation* of the treatment they receive. For example, if a colleague fails to consult another individual on a decision the individual normally should have been involved in, they would likely perceive this behaviour as uncivil (Martin & Hine, 2005). However, if the excluded individual did not feel it necessary that they be consulted in making the particular decision and was provided with a legitimate reason for the behavior (e.g., urgency with which the decision had to be made), the colleague's exclusionary behaviour may not be perceived as unjust.

While interactional injustice and incivility are distinct constructs, there is a meaningful connection between the experience of uncivil treatment and feelings of injustice. Notably, researchers posit that disrespectful acts are often experienced as unjust because they deprive people of the respectful treatment they believe was rightfully theirs, as much so as if they were denied material resources they think should be theirs

(Bourdieu, 1965, as cited in Miller, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Finally, only when uncivil behaviour is perceived as unjust does negative affect occur (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Thus, while there is a meaningful connection between incivility and injustice, incivility describes the disrespectful behaviour itself, while injustice describes an individual's perception of the disrespectful treatment.

General Impacts of Incivility

Research on incivility supports the profound negative effects incivility can have for the individual receiving the mistreatment (e.g., Estes & Wang, 2008; Schilpzand, De Pater, & Erez, 2016). Incivility has been found to be negatively related to targets' attitudes and behaviours, including job satisfaction (Leo & Tim, 2009), job performance (e.g., Mao, Chang, Johnson, & Sun, 2017), organizational commitment (Leo & Tim, 2009), turnover intent (Leo & Tim, 2009), and task engagement (Giumetti et al., 2013), as well as be positively related to deviant workplace behaviours (Welbourne & Sariol, 2017; Leo & Tim, 2009; Mao et al., 2017). Additionally, research suggests that incivility negatively impacts the health of those targeted by the mistreatment (e.g., Cortina, 2008, Martin & Hine, 2005), which is the broad outcome variable I investigated in the current research.

Poor Well-Being as an Outcome of Incivility

Generally speaking, work stress describes a process by which employees react to and manage multiple psychological (including affective) and physical demands (Griffin & Clarke, 2011). When psychological stress becomes long-term, it may develop into

adverse physiological, psychological, and behavioural responses termed *strain* (e.g., loss of sleep due to worry; Pratt & Barling, 1988).

A key outcome of psychological stress is reduced well-being (Griffin & Clarke, 2011). Well-being reflects a broad construct covering both the absence of stress symptoms as well as active mental health (e.g., mastery, aspiration; Warr, 1994). Psychological well-being is affective, meaning that it is comprised of positive and negative moods and feelings (Bradburn, 1969). Fittingly, research supports the notion that both negative and positive affect are strong indicators of well-being, with more negative affect associated with poorer well-being and more positive affect associated with greater well-being (e.g., Crawford & Henry, 2004; Katwyk, et al., 2000). This is likely because people tend to use their affective responses as a primary basis for judging psychological well-being (Schwarz & Clore, 1983; Watson et al., 1988).

Measuring positive and negative affect. There has been debate regarding whether positive and negative affect are opposite ends of the same continuum (i.e., bipolar) or are completely independent and thus unrelated to one another (Russell & Carroll, 1999). Currently, the literature on affect supports the measurement of positive and negative affect separately, including via the Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS; Katwyk et al., 2000), and the recently developed Implicit Positive and Negative Affect scale (IPANAT; Quirin, Kazén, & Kuhl, 2009).

In support of links between uncivil treatment and well-being, in their seminal empirical article on workplace incivility, Cortina and colleagues (2001) collected survey

data from 118 public sector employees to examine the potential impacts of incivility and found uncivil workplace experiences were associated with greater psychological distress. Further, in a daily diary study over 10 days with 76 full-time employees, Zhou, Yan, Che, and Meier (2015) found that incivility was a significant predictor of end of work negative affect, even when controlling for before work negative affect. Other research supports the potential impacts of workplace incivility on health via demonstrated relationships with psychological distress (e.g., symptoms of depression and anxiety; Cortina, 2008; Martin & Hine, 2005), negative affect (Sliter, Withrow & Jex, 2015), and poorer overall health (Martin & Hine, 2005).

While Wheaton (1997) posits that uncivil encounters have such a significant impact because their repetition over time wears down an employee psychologically, research that investigates single encounters of incivility from leader to subordinate and between coworkers also demonstrates that there are *short-term* impacts on affect in particular (Giumetti et al., 2013). Using a within-subjects design, Giumetti and colleagues (2013) conducted a laboratory experiment manipulating cyber incivility (i.e., interpersonal mistreatment via email) by having participants complete math tasks while interacting with either an uncivil or supportive supervisor. They demonstrated that individuals experienced higher negative affect and lower positive affect in the uncivil condition versus the supportive condition after a single encounter of incivility (Giumetti et al., 2013). Further, other experiments demonstrate short-term impacts of single encounter incivility on negative emotions when observing incivility (Reich & Hershcovis, 2015) and on hostile cognitions when reading uncivil comments from an online

newspaper article (Rösner, Winter, & Krämer, 2016). Although differentiated above from incivility, experimental research in the realm of interactional injustice also demonstrates the effects of single unjust encounters with others on negative emotions (Johnson, Hegtvedt, Khanna, & Scheuerman, 2016; Long & Christian, 2015) and intended aggressive intentions (e.g., hostility, obstructionism, and overt aggression; Burton, Mitchell, & Lee, 2005). Together, the experimental research that assesses single incident interpersonal mistreatment (i.e., both incivility and interactional injustice) supports that there are short-term effects on well-being of disrespectful interpersonal treatment.

Sources of Incivility

The vast majority of workplace incivility research has focused on incivility flowing from leader to subordinate and between coworkers (e.g., Miner, & Eischeid, 2012; Sakurai & Jex, 2012) or simply does not ask for the target to specify the source (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). However, differentiating specific sources of incivility provides a nuanced understanding of the impacts of incivility on targets. Further, as posited by Cortina and colleagues (2001), incivility can originate from employees at any level of the organizational structure, including from subordinates. Unfortunately, the current literature that examines subordinates as perpetrators of uncivil treatment toward their leader is sparse (Decker & Quaquebeke, 2015). This may be due to a perceived lack of importance of the treatment leaders receive from subordinates, as leaders may be expected to “brush off” subordinate-instigated incivility due to their higher organizational status and power and control over subordinates’ resources (e.g., amount and type of work, job security). Indeed, difficult employees may be seen to be an inherent component of

leadership positions (e.g., Barling & Cloutier, 2016). Yet, research demonstrates that not only does uncivil behaviour originate from subordinates toward leaders (Meier & Gross, 2015), but it is also impactful on the leader (Francis, Holmvall, & O'Brien, 2015).

Interpersonal Mistreatment from Subordinate to Leader

A very small number of studies has examined incivility from the subordinate toward the leader, providing evidence that incivility can be “bottom up” (e.g., Francis, Holmvall, & O'Brien, 2015; Lim & Lee, 2011; Meier & Gross, 2015; Porath & Pearson, 2012; Porath, Overbeck, & Pearson, 2008). Research by Lim and Lee (2011) found that subordinate incivility was significantly correlated with, but not predictive of, psychological distress when other sources of incivility were accounted for. Similarly, in a survey of employed Master of Business Administration students, Porath and Pearson (2012) found no significant effect of incivility on target fear, anger, and sadness when the target was of higher organizational status than the perpetrator. However, other research suggests that “bottom-up” incivility is predictive of leader outcomes (Francis, Holmvall, & O'Brien, 2015; Meier & Gross, 2015; Porath, Overbeck, & Pearson, 2008). For example, in a study of Swiss employees across various professions, Meier and Gross (2015) used a daily diary study to investigate episodes of incivility *between* subordinates and supervisors. Employees were asked to complete a short survey after each interaction with their direct supervisor and to report on all interactions with their supervisor over a two-week period. Their results indicated that experienced incivility from supervisors was significantly related to the participants perpetuating incivility toward their supervisor. However, this relationship was only significant when the time between being a target

(i.e., experiencing the incivility) and becoming a perpetrator (i.e., behaving uncivilly) was short. Although Meier and Gross (2015) did not study the outcomes of subordinate incivility on leaders, their results support Cortina and colleagues' (2001) proposition that in the workplace, incivility can flow from an individual of lower power to one of higher power.

Beyond the demonstration that incivility can be “bottom-up”, research by Porath and colleagues (2008) and Francis, Holmvall, and O'Brien (2015), for example, supports that subordinate incivility is impactful on leaders. First, in a series of three studies, Porath and colleagues (2008) utilized survey (Study 1) and vignette (Study 2 and 3) methodologies to assess whether the status of the target impacts how likely the target is to respond aggressively to the instigator. Across all studies, their results supported that higher status targets of incivility were more likely than lower status to aggress toward the challenger, and that this was particularly true of male targets of higher status. Second, in a recent laboratory simulation Francis, Holmvall, and O'Brien (2015) examined the impact of subordinate incivility on leaders by sending participants, acting as leaders, uncivil and civil emails from “subordinates”. Their research demonstrated that leaders were affected by the civility of communications from subordinates, as leaders did perpetuate more incivility when treated uncivilly by their “subordinate”. While Porath and colleagues (2008) were interested in aggressive intent as the outcome and Francis and colleagues (2015) were interested in the interaction between workload and incivility from the subordinate in predicting whether participants would respond civilly or uncivilly, their results support that subordinate incivility impacts leaders.

Workplace aggression. Although research examining mistreatment from a subordinate towards a leader is novel and in its infancy, relevant research exists in the realms of workplace aggression and contrapower harassment. Literature on workplace aggression demonstrates that subordinates do target their supervisors with aggressive behaviours (Callister, Geddes, & Gibson, 2017; Herschovis et al., 2007; Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005; Inness, LeBlanc, & Barling, 2008). While research is rare that examines leader outcomes when their subordinate acts aggressively towards them, a qualitative study of managers that were the targets of aggression from subordinates revealed that managers reported a loss of trust in the employee, more negative tension in their relationship with the subordinate, as well as lower self-perceived competence in their role as a leader (Callister et al., 2017). Thus, this research supports not only that mistreatment can be “bottom-up” (i.e., from subordinate to leader), but that it also has personal and relational consequences.

Contrapower harassment. Further evidence of the potential impact of interpersonal mistreatment from subordinate to leader emerges from the contrapower harassment literature (e.g., when a person of lesser power in an organization harasses a person of greater power; Benson, 1984). In the context of the current study, a student can be thought of as a subordinate in that they receive direction and feedback from the professor, who as the leader, provides the student with developmental resources and controls outcomes (e.g., grades).

While it should be noted that harassment differs from incivility in that the definition of harassment includes a clear intention to harm (Bowling & Beehr, 2006),

contrapower harassment behaviours described throughout the literature have spanned from truly hostile behaviours (e.g., threats of violence and other antisocial behaviour; Cortina, 2008) to low-intensity rude behaviours that might be construed as uncivil (e.g., texting in class; Lampman, Crew, Lowery, & Tompkins, 2016). With a few exceptions (DeSouza, 2011; Lampan et al., 2016; Lampman, Phelps, Bancroft, & Beneke, 2009; Luparell, 2007), the majority of the academic contrapower harassment literature has examined this construct in terms of sexual harassment from student to professor (e.g., sexual bribery, sexual assault; Benson 1984; DeSouza & Fansler, 2003; McKinney, 1990; McKinney, 1992; Mohipp & Senn, 2008; Rospenda, Richman, & Nawyn, 1998), which is not as easily mapped onto incivility due to the clear intent of sexual harassment and the ambiguous intent of incivility (e.g., using an unprofessional tone; Cortina et al., 2001). Thus, excluding contrapower sexual harassment behaviours, the variety of low-intensity behaviours studied in academic contrapower harassment designates this literature valuable to understanding incivility from an individual of lower power (i.e., subordinate) to an individual of higher power (i.e., leader).

Consequences on leader well-being. A survey study of the effects of contrapower harassment in academia found that one in four professors who experienced contrapower harassment reported feeling significantly anxious, stressed, and had difficulty sleeping (Lampman et al., 2009), as well as one in six reported the incident led to depression, subsequent stress-related illness and damage to their personal relationships (Lampman et al., 2009). Consistent with these results, in a more recent survey of professors at a US university, Lampman and colleagues (2016) found that after experiencing contrapower

harassment, faculty's well-being was significantly and negatively impacted, with a vast majority reporting feeling more negative affect, anxiety and stress.

Providing qualitative evidence of the consequences of contrapower harassment, Luparell (2007) used interviews and the critical incidents technique to identify and investigate nursing professors' experiences of incivility from nursing students. Twenty-one faculty members were interviewed, twenty of whom were female and one male. They found that after disrespectful interactions with students (i.e., uncivil treatment) faculty reported greater emotional distress in terms of negative affect, including a reliving or retriggering of the original emotions in future encounters with the student. Thus, the results of Luparell (2007) qualitatively support the relationship between "bottom-up" mistreatment and negative affect.

The current study: Benefits of an experimental design. The correlational and qualitative research reviewed above provides a valuable starting point for understanding uncivil interactions and their outcomes when initiated from a person of lower power. However, by employing an in-person experimental design, the current research provides methodological benefits to the study of subordinate incivility. Because data is collected in person, the research typically does not suffer with substantial missing data, as is common in survey research, avoiding a potential bias in the results if the data are not missing completely at random and the potential for inefficient statistical estimates due to the loss of information (Dale, 2006; Schlomer, Bauman, & Card, 2010). However, perhaps most importantly, results from experiments allow for strong causal inferences to be drawn (Platt, 1964). In particular, while both correlational and qualitative data suffer an inherent

lack of internal validity (i.e., it is not possible to know whether it is harassment that leads to negative psychological states or whether the psychological states lead to harassment; Meyers, Spencer, & Jordan, 2012), experimental designs allow for inferences of casual direction. Nevertheless, the correlational and qualitative research reviewed above regarding general incivility, contrapower harassment, aggression, and injustice offer preliminary support that incivility is likely related to the psychological well-being of a target through their affective states, even when the target is of greater power than the perpetrator. Thus, my first hypothesis is:

H1: Subordinate incivility will lead to higher leader negative affect and lower leader positive affect.

Explaining the Impacts of Incivility on Well-Being: Self Determination Theory

Proposed by Deci and Ryan (2000), Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is a theory of psychological needs satisfaction that states that all humans have innate psychological needs that are essential for our psychological growth, health, and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT posits three fundamental needs: (1) autonomy: the desire to self-organize our experiences and behaviour, while connecting the activity to our sense of self; (2) relatedness: the desire to feel connected to others; and (3) competence: feelings of effectiveness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT posits that negative factors in the work environment likely lead to poor outcomes, through a lack of satisfaction of the individual's psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Evidence from organizational settings has demonstrated that when these needs are not met, individuals experience more negative affect, and thus poorer well-being (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Deci et al., 2001;

Ilardi, Leone, Kasser, & Ryan, 1993; Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000; Uysal, Lee Lin, & Raymond Knee, 2010).

Needs Satisfaction versus Frustration

Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Ryan, Bosch, and Thogersen-Ntoumani (2011) propose that negative social environment factors (e.g., controlling behaviours or rude comments from a supervisor) may not only result in a lack of basic need satisfaction, but may result in a frustration of the psychological need. Needs frustration occurs when a basic psychological need (i.e., autonomy, competence, or relatedness) is thwarted in a social context (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). First, whereas autonomy needs satisfaction refers to experiencing self-determination in carrying out one's job, autonomy frustration involves feeling controlled by external forces (Chen et al., 2014). Second, although competence needs satisfaction involves feeling effective at one's job, competence frustration involves feelings of failure and self-doubt about one's efficacy at work (Chen et al., 2014). Finally, relatedness needs satisfaction involves feeling a genuine connection with others in the workplace, whereas relatedness frustration involves feeling excluded socially (Chen et al., 2014). An individual may experience low relatedness need satisfaction with their coworkers, for example, due to being on different break schedules (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). However, when the individual attempts to start conversations during break and is actively ignored by their coworkers, the individual likely experiences relatedness need frustration (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013).

Needs Frustration via General Workplace Mistreatment

Bartholomew and colleagues (2011) posit that needs frustration may better predict negative manifestations of functioning (e.g., anxiety, depression) because it is an intense negative experience. When employees are treated with disrespect in their workplace (e.g., enduring rude comments from a colleague, having one's opinions disregarded), the negative experience likely frustrates competence and relatedness psychological needs. Indeed, a recent examination by Trépanier, Fernet, and Austin (2016) supports this proposition. Trépanier and colleagues conducted a longitudinal cross-lagged study of Canadian nurses to assess the relationship between workplace bullying (i.e., circumstances in which the employee feels persistently subjected to negative behaviours by others including humiliation, excessive teasing, or physical imitation; Einarsen, Hoel, & Noteleaders, 2009; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), basic psychological needs frustration, and employee mental functioning. Their results demonstrated that over time, competence and relatedness needs frustration mediated the relationship between psychological functioning (i.e., life satisfaction, psychosomatic complaints) and exposure to bullying at work. This finding is further supported by Trépanier, Fernet, and Austin's (2013; 2015) earlier research supporting the mediating role of psychological needs on the relationship between workplace bullying and employee functioning.

Although workplace bullying can include a collection of higher intensity behaviours in comparison to incivility, it does share lower intensity behaviours with incivility, such as withholding information and rude remarks. Thus, Trépanier and colleagues' (2016) findings are relevant in fleshing out the potential relationships

between incivility, psychological needs frustration, and affect. While the research by Trépanier is correlational and should be interpreted in light of the limitations of this type of data, it does provide evidence for the link between workplace mistreatment and well-being through psychological needs frustration.

Leader Needs Frustration Attributable to Subordinate Behaviour

While Trépanier and colleagues' (2016) research supports the prediction that workplace mistreatment can impact affect through psychological needs frustration, this research neglected to isolate the source of the mistreatment (e.g., from coworker, subordinate, or supervisor), as is common in the incivility literature (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). When applying a SDT framework to workplace mistreatment from subordinate to leader, I expect that incivility frustrates a leader's needs for competence and relatedness, which then leads to more negative and less positive affect. While SDT posits that autonomy is also a fundamental need, I expect that a leader's autonomy is unlikely to be strongly impacted by a subordinate's disrespectful treatment. This is because, as importantly distinguished by Deci and Ryan (2000), a key factor of autonomy is not simply whether the individual independently chooses an action (e.g., working on a task at a given moment); rather, the psychological need of autonomy reflects the extent to which the individual endorses the task as their own. Thus, while a subordinate's slow response to a leader's request for information with no good reason (i.e., an example of uncivil behaviour) may be frustrating to a leader such that they cannot act on that task without the subordinate's work, it likely does not strip the leader of their endorsement of the task as

their responsibility. Thus, in the current study, I am primarily interested in the effect of incivility on competence and relatedness needs frustration.

Leader Legitimacy: A Vessel for Leader Needs Frustration

A leader is defined as “any person who influences individuals and groups within an organization, helps them establish goals, and guides them toward achievement of those goals, thereby allowing them to be effective” (Nahavandi, 2015, p. 3). The quality of specific leader-subordinate relationships is captured in leader-member exchange (LMX; Graen & Scandura, 1987). As noted by Eagly (2007), an important component of the relationship between leader and subordinate is the leader’s perceived legitimacy in the eyes of the employee, which is crucial for successful leadership. This proposition is echoed by Peck and Dickinson (2010), as they propose that employees’ acceptance of the leader’s legitimate authority is the key tenet of leadership performance. That is, legitimacy positively affects a leader’s status (i.e., prestige, respect and esteem an individual has from the perspective of others; e.g., Anderson & Kilduff, 2009), which allows the leader to use authority to influence their employees (e.g., employees take the leader’s direction and implement it; Ridgeway, 2001). Tyler and Lind’s (1992) relational model of authority similarly supports the notion that attitudes about the legitimacy of authorities are a key antecedent of subordinate compliance; in turn, legitimacy nearly always facilitates, and is often crucial to, the effective exercise of authority.

Linking leader legitimacy to needs frustration. As leadership tasks often lack clear immediate markers of success, leaders’ immediate subjective sense of how well they performed becomes quite important (Hoyt & Blascovich, 2007). In particular, as posited

by Wang, Hinrichs, Prieto, and Black (2010), an employee's acceptance or rejection of a leader's influence gives the leader a strong message regarding their competence, both in terms of their leadership and social capabilities. When a leader perceives that they cannot establish authority with their employee (e.g., the employee withholds information for no good reason), they will likely suffer lower leader self-efficacy (Synder & Brunning, 1985). Self-efficacy reflects a set of beliefs that they can successfully lead others by setting direction, building relationships with followers to gain commitment, and successfully work with employees (Pagllis & Green, 2002). In the framework of SDT, these behavioural indicators of leader self-efficacy can be categorized into behavioural anchors relevant to competence (i.e., setting direction, gaining commitment), and relatedness (i.e., successfully working with employees).

Supporting the notion that subordinate behaviour may influence a leader's efficacy in terms of their competence and relatedness, Shamir and colleagues (1993) posit that followers can influence the self-concepts of their leaders. Shamir and colleagues' (1993) proposition is supported by correlational research by Wang and colleagues (2010), who found in a sample of students with leadership experience that leaders who reported more positive follower behaviour (e.g., treating the leader with respect, behaving cooperatively, putting in a strong effort) also reported greater leader self-efficacy in comparison to those that reported greater negative behaviours (e.g., doubting the leader's ability to lead, not attending meetings). Shamir and colleagues (1993) further postulate that a decrease in leader self-efficacy brought on by employees' behaviours would impact the leader's affect. That is, a leader's challenged legitimacy creates negative

psychological outcomes because it reduces employee compliance, and thus a leader's feelings of status and effectiveness professionally and socially (Ridgeway, 2001).

Supporting the use of SDT in evaluating the impact on leaders of disrespectful treatment from subordinates, the professors in Luparell's (2007) study of contrapower harassment experienced a loss of self-esteem and a loss of confidence in their teaching abilities, including feelings of self-doubt such that they wondered whether they had adequate aptitude to work with students. As well, faculty in their study reported withdrawing from relationships with other students, an indication that their need for relatedness was likely frustrated by disrespectful treatment from students. Additionally, the results of Callister and colleagues (2017; reviewed above) supports that workplace mistreatment from subordinates is related to lower self-perceived competence and indicators of poorer relationship quality with subordinates. Finally, professors in correlational research by Benson (1984) reported the experience of contrapower harassment effecting their relationships with other students. In light of the aforementioned research, I propose the following hypotheses:

H2: Leader competence need frustration mediates the relationship between subordinate incivility and leader affect.

H3: Leader relatedness need frustration mediates the relationship between subordinate incivility and leader affect.

Differences in Needs Frustration Magnitude for Female and Male Leaders

Gender bias continues to be an obstacle for the advancement of female employees to leadership roles in their organizations (Phelan, Moss-Racusin, & Rudman, 2008).

Unfortunately, the difficulties do not end once the female takes on the role (Tannen, 1990). Even when controlling for leader performance, female leaders are presumed to be less worthy of leadership positions across a variety of contexts (Boldry, Wood, & Kashy, 2001; Carli & Eagly, 2001), liked less by their subordinates in comparison to male leaders (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007; Parks-Stamm, Heilman, & Hearn, 2008; Sabharwal, 2015), and perhaps unsurprisingly, less accepted by subordinates than their male counterparts (Brescoll, 2011; Eagly et al., 1992; Eagly, 2007; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007; Parks-Stamm et al., 2008; Sabharwal, 2015). These disadvantageous circumstances for female leaders have many plausible explanations, such as females in leadership roles are not the social norm (Lampman et al., 2009) and the inherent power distance between males and females in broader society (Eagly, 2007). Indeed, Eagly (2007) posits that female leaders are more likely to face challenges achieving legitimacy, as leaders who are members of a group that have not traditionally had access to leadership roles (e.g., females) may not possess enough inherent legitimacy for their subordinates to identify them as their leaders.

The finding that female leaders may have more issues establishing legitimacy may be explained by Heilman's (2001) "lack of fit" model, which describes that to the extent a workplace role is inconsistent with the attributes ascribed to females, they will suffer a perceived lack of fit, producing expectations of failure and decreased expectations of success from followers (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). Indeed, research supports a lack of fit of the female stereotype (e.g., warm, polite, and communal; Glick & Fiske, 1997) to leadership positions, whereas the male stereotype (e.g., assertiveness,

decisiveness, and confidence; Glick & Fiske, 1997) is more typically attributed to successful managers (Burgess & Borgida, 1999; Croson & Gneezy, 2009; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011; Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Schein & Davidson, 1993; Vinkenburg, van Engen, Eagly, & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2011). This is further bolstered by a meta-analysis of 69 studies by Koenig and colleagues (2011) and more recent research (e.g., Cuadrado, García-Ael, & Molero, 2015; Fischbach, Lichtenhaler, & Horstmann, 2015; Offerman & Coats, 2017; Schein, 1975; Schein & Davidson, 1993) that supports leader stereotypes are decidedly masculine.

Further, Eagly (2007) states that when leadership roles require highly authoritative or competitive behaviours traditionally considered masculine, the mere fact that a female holds that leadership position may be enough to draw disapproval from subordinates. In three experimental studies, Heilman and Okimoto (2007) found that female managers in male-oriented jobs were more disliked and were perceived more negatively than their male counterparts. Similarly, Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, and Tamkins (2002) demonstrated over three laboratory experiments that when females are acknowledged to have been successful in a role that is distinctly male in character, they are less liked by subordinates and more personally devalued in comparison to equally successful males. Predictably, in these settings, females have a difficult time feeling comfortable in their leadership role and gaining authority (Alvesson & Billing, 1992; Eagly, 2007; Lynness & Thompson, 2000).

Female versus Male Leaders: Impacts of Incivility on Well-Being

As proposed by various researchers, the rejection of leaders by their subordinates (e.g., speaking over their leader, a lack of cooperation) may alter the leaders' psychological state (Lammers, Galinsky, Gordijn, & Otten, 2008; Smith, Jost, & Vijay, 2008), perhaps leading to greater negative affect. For female leaders, rejection will likely be particularly impactful, as theory (Vial, Napier & Brescoll, 2016) and research (e.g., Chen & Moons, 2015; Heilman et al., 2004, Rink et al., 2012) suggest female leaders (more so than male leaders) are hyper-aware of rejection and harsh judgements by subordinates. That is, female leaders hold greater evaluative concerns in their leadership positions (i.e., focusing on how they are viewed by their subordinates and others in their workplace), which can lead to cognitive resource depletion (Richeson & Trawalter, 2005) and according to Conservation of Resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), psychological stress. Therefore, relative to males, female leaders will experience greater feelings of rejection as a result of subordinate incivility because they experience greater concerns regarding how they are viewed by subordinates. Greater feelings of rejection will trigger poorer well-being in the female leader (e.g., Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Thus, I propose the following hypothesis:

H4: In comparison to male leaders, female leaders treated uncivilly by subordinates will experience less positive affect and more negative affect.

Gender Differences in Needs Frustration

In general, females are more likely to use interpersonal relations and reflected appraisals from others (i.e., the reactions of others to them) to build their self-concept

(Burton & Hoobler, 2006; Shwalbe & Staples, 1991; Whitley, 1983). As a result, females have a greater sensitivity to and a higher need for social approval (Burton & Hoobler, 2006). For instance, in a laboratory study of the impact of social rejection and acceptance, Leary, Tambor, Terdal, and Downs (1995, Study 3) found that when rejected by their peers, females reported lower self-esteem than males. Further, in two laboratory studies investigating self-evaluative differences in males and females after either being socially rejected or accepted (Baldwin, Granzberg, Pippus, & Pritchard, 2003), results demonstrated that when socially rejected, females experienced lower competence than males. Baldwin and colleagues (2003) thus suggest that females' highly relationship-based self-concepts were momentarily undermined by the rejection feedback, while males drew on other less relationship-based sources of self-esteem. Finally, in a vignette laboratory investigation of subordinate state self-esteem after experiencing abusive supervision (i.e., a form of social rejection), Burton and Hoobler (2006) demonstrated that women reported lower levels of state self-esteem than men when assigned to the abusive supervision condition. Overall, the research reviewed above suggests that female leaders' competence (in comparison to their male counterparts) will be more negatively impacted when rejected by subordinates due to the interconnectedness of their sense of self to feedback from others.

In line with the aforementioned findings, research suggests that when female leaders are treated with disrespect from those of lower power and status, they will be acutely aware of the rejection by the subordinate (e.g., Heilman et al., 2004) because females (in comparison to males) are hyper aware of the possibility that subordinates will

not view them as a legitimate leader (Rink et al., 2012). Thus, disrespectful treatment that insinuates rejection of the female leader, even if expressed subtly, will reduce her confidence in her ability to lead as she will feel unable to exert influence on her followers (a key component of effective leadership; Rink et al., 2012). As leader legitimacy is an important component of leader perceived competence (e.g., Shamir et al., 1993), female leaders will experience higher competence needs frustration when treated uncivilly by subordinates. Moreover, as the literature suggests that female leaders are stereotyped as less competent than male leaders (Heilman, 2001; Ridgeway, 2001; Sabharwal, 2015; Schein, 2001; Vial et al., 2016; Williams & Best, 1990), subordinate rejection that confirms to the female leader that she is conforming to this negative stereotype will create negative affect (as supported by the stereotype conformity literature, e.g., Cadinu, Maass, Rosabianca, & Kiesner, 2005). Further, the stereotype activation literature suggests that even the subtle activation of a positive stereotype can make a challenging situation less threatening (e.g., Gupta, Turban, & Pareek, 2013; Schmader, Johns, & Forbes, 2008). Thus, for males in leadership roles, the stereotype of their competence may protect them from negative outcomes (i.e., lower well-being) due to subordinate incivility. Thus, I propose the following (see Figure 1):

H5: The mediation of leader competence need frustration in the relationship between subordinate incivility and leader affect will be stronger for females than for males.

Females acknowledge that their influence in leadership positions is likely to come from their ability to build interpersonal relationships (Carli, 1990), and female leaders

have been found to engage in more interpersonal leadership behaviours (i.e., tending to the morale and well-being of subordinates; e.g., Eagly & Johnson, 1990) Indeed, in a two-part laboratory vignette study, Rink and colleagues (2012) demonstrated that females (in comparison to males) were more concerned with social resources when hypothetically determining whether to accept a precarious leadership position. In particular, their reluctance to take the position was explained by anticipated difficulties in establishing follower acceptance, demonstrating that females are particularly concerned with their ability to build effective working relationships with subordinates.

When a female leader perceives social rejection from a subordinate's uncivil behaviour, the social thwarting behaviour will likely frustrate her need for connection to others more deeply than for male leaders, thus leading her to experience greater negative affect as a result of the incivility. Conversely, in comparison to female leaders, male leaders will experience less impact on their affect when treated uncivilly because their need for relatedness will not be as frustrated, as males are less relationship-oriented (e.g., Baldwin et al., 2003; Burton & Hoobler, 2006; Rink et al., 2012; Shwalbe & Staples, 1991; Whitley, 1983). Thus, I propose the following hypothesis (see Figure 1):

H6: The mediating role of leader relatedness needs frustration in the relationship between subordinate incivility and leader affect will be stronger for females than for males.

Figure 1. The Proposed Impacts of Subordinate Incivility on Male and Female Leader Affect Through Competence and Relatedness Needs Frustration

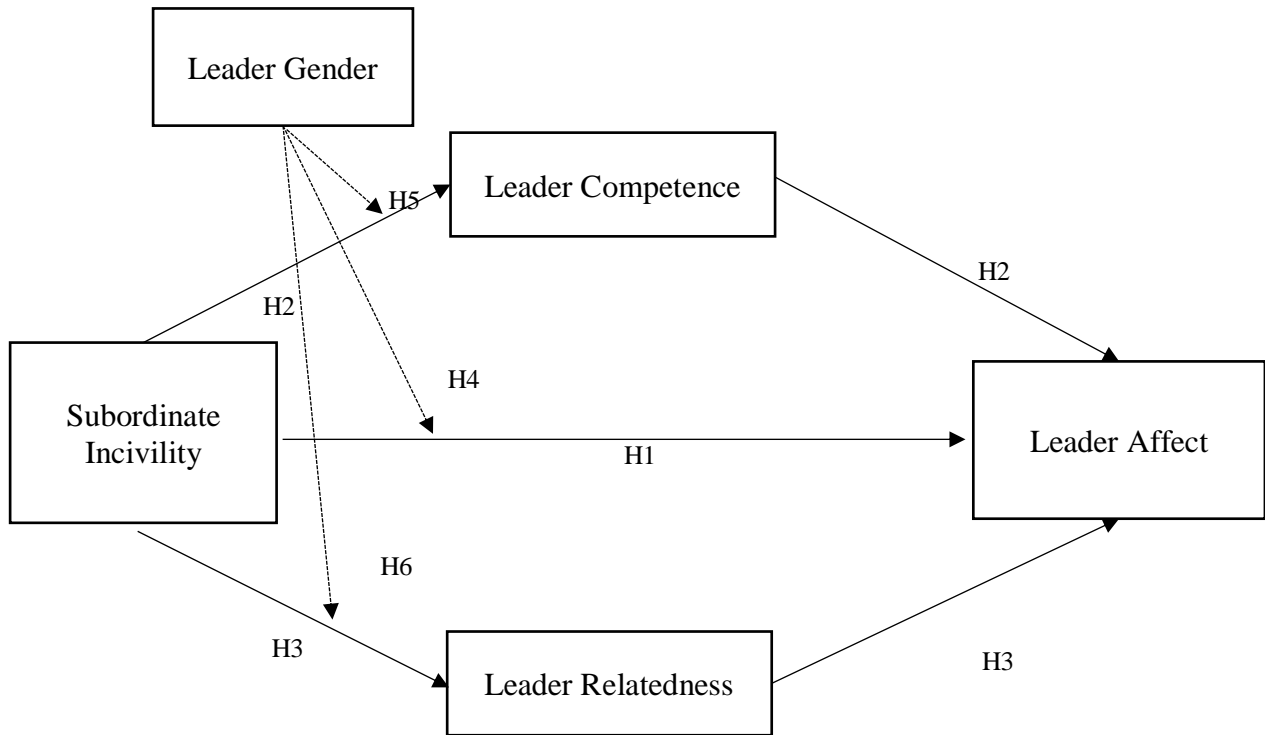


Figure 1. A visual representation of the moderated mediation model to be tested, in which competence and relatedness needs frustration mediate the relationship between subordinate incivility and leader affect. The model proposes that these mediation effects are different for males and females, with the moderation occurring between the experience of disrespectful treatment and the frustration of a leader’s competence and relatedness needs.

The Importance of Leader Outcomes

As noted by numerous leadership scholars, research to date has largely overlooked the leader in their relationship with subordinates, focusing primarily on subordinate outcomes (e.g., Bernerth & Hirschfield, 2016; Byrne, Barling & Dupré, 2014). Particularly concerning is the lack of regard for leader psychological well-being (Byrne, et al., 2014). According to Bryne and colleagues (2014), the lack of research may stem

from the following assumptions: (1) all leaders enjoy a positive state of psychological health, and therefore research is unnecessary; (2) research findings on subordinate well-being generalize fully to the psychological functioning of leaders; and (3) psychological distress does not have significant negative consequences for leaders, their employees, or their organizations. These assumptions are concerning because research in the realms of incivility, aggression, and contrapower harassment suggest that these assumptions are unlikely to be true (e.g., Callister et al., 2017; Lampman et al., 2016).

In addition to addressing leader well-being for the leader's sake, research also suggests an intricate connection of leaders' psychological state to employee outcomes. For instance, research suggests that a leader's emotions may affect subordinate emotions (Lurie, 2004). In comparison to subordinates, leaders have also been found to more strongly influence the quality of social exchange they share with their employees (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002), and employees benefit from high quality social exchanges with their leaders (i.e., LMX; Bernerth & Hirschfield, 2016; Graen & Scandura, 1987).

Further, a leader's well-being may also impact the leadership behaviours they display. For instance, in a longitudinal study of leaders and direct reports from a Fortune 500 company in the USA and Canada, Courtright, Colbert, and Choi (2014) demonstrated that leader emotional exhaustion was significantly and positively associated with subordinates' perceptions of the leader's behaviour as *lassiez faire* (e.g., inefficient communication, delayed responses to urgent questions, being absent when needed).

Similarly, in a study of employee-leader dyads, an increase in leader depression and anxiety was associated with a decrease in transformational leadership behaviours (e.g., showing individual consideration for each subordinate, stimulating creativity in followers) and increased abusive supervision (Bryne et al., 2014). This is a significant finding as employees who work for supervisors rated high on transformational leadership reported more positive emotions throughout the course of their workday (Bono, Foldes Vinson, & Munro, 2007). Thus, this research highlights the crucial role leader well-being plays in the ability to lead others and in their subordinates' well-being.

The Female Leader: Understanding Their Unique Experiences

Female leaders begin at a disadvantage with respect to feeling accepted as legitimate in their positions, thought to be due to their lack of perceived authority and the societal structure that places females as inherently unequal to males in leadership positions (Lampman et al., 2016). Perhaps unsurprisingly, female professors are more likely than males to have been treated disrespectfully by students, supporting Vial and colleagues' (2016) model of self-reinforcing cycle of illegitimacy. This model posits that females will experience significantly more incivility in organizations due to subordinate expectations that a female leader will fall short (due to gender stereotypes and the absence of females in leadership positions) and expectations from the female leader that she will not be respected (Rink et al., 2012). In particular, I propose that with this noted lack of acceptance in their leadership role, female leaders will feel less confident in their performance and in their ability to connect with employees when this lack of acceptance

is brought to the forefront by uncivil employees who disregard their position of greater power. Thus, females may be at greater risk for negative consequences of uncivil behaviour flowing from subordinate to leader.

The Current Study

The current study is novel in at least two ways. First, it investigates the outcomes of leader well-being (measured by positive and negative affect) due to incivility from a subordinate in a laboratory experiment. Although a similar power distance has been previously investigated within the contrapower harassment and aggression literatures, contrapower harassment and aggression are distinct from incivility due to the greater range of hostile behaviours studied in contrapower harassment (e.g., DeSouza, 2011; Lampman et al., 2009; Lampman et al., 2016) and the intent to harm of aggression (Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006). As well, although Francis and colleagues (2015) manipulated incivility from subordinate to leader in a laboratory study, they did not measure positive and negative affect as outcomes. Second, as noted by McDaniel, Ngala, and Leonard (2015), there is limited evidence that connects workplace mistreatment to psychological needs frustration of competence and relatedness. Thus, this research expands upon the sparse literature linking workplace mistreatment and psychological needs frustration, and to my knowledge, is the first to investigate this relationship with the leader as the target with an experimental design.

Methodology

Design

The current study used a time 1 (online) time 2 (in-lab) design, with a between-subjects experimental manipulation of workplace (in)civility utilizing email as the medium of communication. At time 1, participants completed an online survey via Qualtrics containing questions regarding demographics, personality characteristics, and a fictitious leadership test battery. At time 2, participants, all chosen to be a leader in an ostensible simulation of virtual leadership, were randomly assigned to interact with either an uncivil or civil “subordinate”. During time 2, participants completed measures of explicit and implicit affect, competence and relatedness needs frustration, incivility, as well as a number of exploratory variable measures including locus of causality, and subordinate performance and attractiveness.

Participants

In total, I recruited a sample of 116 Saint Mary’s University undergraduate students via the SONA system ($n = 24$) and other undergraduate classes outside of psychology (e.g., geography, engineering) offering bonus points for participation. In addition to the three participants used to pilot test the study, data from four participants were not included due to suspicion or difficulty understanding task instructions.¹ After these considerations, the overall N was 109.

¹ Along with my thesis supervisor, we assessed participants that were close to guessing the true purpose of the experiment and/or questioned whether the other participant was real and three participants were removed as it was clear they did not believe the subordinate was a real person. Four other participants

The mean age of participants was 22.25 years old ($SD = 2.86$), with 58.7% being female and 41.3% male. As supported by the selective incivility literature (e.g., Kern & Grandey, 2009; McCord, Joseph, Dhanani, & Beus, 2018), race was collapsed into two categories: Caucasian (non-minority; 41.3%) and non-Caucasian (minority; e.g., West Asian/Arab, Chinese; 57.8%). Approximately seventy-two percent of participants had prior leadership experience, and the average amount of leadership experience (in years) was 2.53 ($SD = 2.83$).

Measures

Time 1. First, participants were asked to provide demographic information (e.g., age, gender, race) as well as information regarding any leadership experience they have (i.e., the length of the experience, the types). Gender was utilized as the moderator variable in the main analyses and gender and race were used to select a matching subordinate photo.

To uphold the cover story that Time 1 measures are to assist with selecting individuals into the role of leader or subordinate in the laboratory experiment, participants were also asked to complete a short test battery. The test battery included verbal

expressed some skepticism, yet we did not feel they exceeded an appropriate level of suspicion that would compromise the validity of the data.

In addition to the three participants removed for suspicion, one participant was removed as they appeared to not fully understand the experimental instructions due to poor English language skills. Three males and two females in the uncivil condition displayed weaker manipulation checks (i.e., scores below the mid-point of the scale for all items). However, I included them in the primary analyses because incivility can be thought of as perceptual (e.g., Martin & Hine, 2005) and thus their inclusion supports natural variance one might expect when individuals are subjected to uncivil behaviours.

reasoning questions from the GRE (ETS, 2017), as well as two situational judgement questions relevant to leadership (JobTestPrep, 2017).

Control variables collected at time 1. As research has found that race interacts with the experience of incivility in predicting psychological outcomes such as resilience and burnout (Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013; Welbourne, Gangadharan, & Sariol, 2015), race was included as a control variable. Race was measured by a single question obtained from Statistics Canada (2017). The question was: “With which racial or ethnic group do you identify (Statistics Canada, 2017)? If you identify equally with multiple groups, please specify using the “other” option below”. The racial categories were also from the Census Survey by Statistics Canada (2017) and were Aboriginal, Arab/West Asian (e.g., Armenian, Egyptian, Iranian, Lebanese, Moroccan), Black (e.g., African, Haitian, Jamaican, Somali), Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, Latin American, South Asian, South East Asian, White (Caucasian), and other.

Participants also completed the HEXACO-PI 60-item measure (Ashton & Lee, 2009) to assess the Big Five personality characteristics (i.e., Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience), as well as the sixth factor of Honesty-Humility. The items (e.g., I would be quite bored by a visit to an art gallery) were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The Big Five personality facet of neuroticism (e.g., “I sometimes can’t help worrying about the little things”) was included as a control variable in the analyses as previous research has demonstrated a strong positive relationship of this personality

facet to perceptions and enactment of incivility (Giumetti, McKibben, Hatfield, Schroeder, & Kowalski, 2012; Sliter, Withrow, & Jex, 2015; Sulea, Fischmann, & Filipescu, 2012; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012; Zhou et al., 2015). The other facets were included to bolster the cover story that participants' leadership potential was being assessed in part by their personality profile.

Time 2. Time 2 measures were given to participants in paper-and-pencil format. First, the IPANAT measured implicit affect by asking participants to rate on a four-point Likert scale (1 = doesn't fit at all to 4 = fits very well) the extent to which six artificial words (e.g., tunba, sukov) from a putative artificial language express 3 positive emotions (happy, cheerful, and energetic) and 3 negative emotions (helpless, tense, inhibited; Quirin, Kazén, & Kuhl, 2009). The positive and negative affect scores of the participant were computed in two steps. First, scores for single mood adjectives (e.g., happy, tense) were computed with the average of all six artificial word judgements that refer to the specific mood adjective (e.g., the aggregated score of cheerful would be from the combination of ratings of how cheerful each of the six artificial words were rated). In the second stage, positive and negative affect scale scores were computed by aggregating the scores of positive mood adjectives and negative mood adjectives separately.

As a more explicit measure, leader affect was also measured with the PANAS (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), which includes 20 emotional states, with ten items measuring positive affect (e.g., interested, active, excited, strong) and 10 items measuring negative affect (e.g., afraid, inhibited, guilty, nervous) that asked participants to rate on a five point Likert-scale (1 = very slightly or not at all to 5 = extremely) how much they felt

that emotion at the moment. Composites of the 10 positive affect emotions and the 10 negative affect emotions were computed separately to reflect two distinct constructs.

To measure leaders' competence and relatedness needs frustration, participants were asked to complete a modified version of the 24-item Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration – Work Domain scale (Chen et al., 2015; Schultz, Ryan, Niemiec, Legate, & Williams, 2015). Participants responded to 3 items assessing competence needs frustration adapted for the experiment (e.g., “I feel insecure about my abilities in this leadership role”) and two items assessing relatedness need frustration (e.g., “I have the impression that my subordinate dislikes me”). As well, because some of the needs frustration items on this scale did not make logical sense for use in this study (e.g., I feel the relationships I have at work are just superficial), needs satisfaction items for competence and relatedness were included to increase the number of items per subscale. These items were reverse scored for the analyses. Two reverse-scored items of competence needs satisfaction (e.g., I feel confident that I can do things well in this leadership role) and one reverse scored relatedness needs satisfaction item (i.e., in this leadership role, I feel connected with my subordinate) were included in the subscales of competence needs frustration and relatedness needs frustration. All items were rated on a seven point Likert-scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Manipulation check. Participants were asked to complete both an indirect and direct measure of incivility. For the indirect measure, participants completed four items (e.g., addressed you in unprofessional terms) from the Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS; Cortina et al., 2001) that were used in designing the uncivil emails. Participants were

asked to indicate their level of agreement that the subordinate acted toward them in each manner on a five point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree (e.g., “addressed me in unprofessional terms). As Martin and Hine’s (2001) workplace incivility scale was also used in the creation of the emails, participants were asked to rate one item of hostility (“used an inappropriate tone when communicating with me”). The Cortina and colleagues (2001) and Martin and Hine (2001) items were combined to create an indirect measure of incivility.

The direct measure of incivility included five items created by my thesis supervisor and her former Master’s student (Bhatt, 2017) and modified to suit the current research. These items were created by drawing adjectives directly from the definition of incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with five items on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree (e.g., “the subordinate’s behavior toward you was rude”).

Exploratory measures. For exploratory purposes (i.e., not a main part of the thesis), I measured trait core self-evaluation at Time 1, as well as additional variables including subordinate performance, subordinate attractiveness, and locus of causality at Time 2. First, as subtraits of core self-evaluation have been found to be relevant to the quality of the exchanges between leader and subordinate (e.g., Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles, & Walker, 2007; Landry & Vandenberghe, 2009), trait core-self-evaluations were included as an exploratory control variable. This was measured utilizing the 12-item Core Self-Evaluations Scale by Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen (2003), which asks participants to rate items on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 =

strongly agree. There are four facets: self-esteem (e.g., “sometimes when I fail I feel worthless”), self-efficacy (e.g., “when I try, I generally succeed”), neuroticism (e.g., “sometimes I feel depressed”), and locus of control (e.g., “I determine what will happen in my life”).

At the request of one of my thesis committee members, I also measured locus of causality (i.e., whether the participant felt the subordinate’s communication was due to them or the subordinate). I included the subscale Locus of Causality (LOC) from the Casual Dimension Scale (Russell, 1982), which included three items on a scale from 1 to 9, with higher ratings equating the subordinate’s communication to the leader themselves and lower ratings indicating the subordinate’s communication is due to something outside of the leader. The following is a sample item: “is the cause of the subordinate’s style of communication something that... 1 = reflects an aspect of the situation or 9 = reflects an aspect of yourself.

Filler task questions. In addition to the above measures, participants were also asked to complete filler task questions to prevent suspicion of the study’s true purpose. The filler task questions asked about leading over email (e.g., being a leader in a virtual space) and developing a market research proposal.

Procedure

Time 1. The Time 1 online survey was hosted on Qualtrics; participants were provided with a link upon sign-up on the SONA system or via a research memo posted on their course Brightspace page. Separate Qualtrics surveys were used for each recruitment method to ensure accurate tracking of participants. Participants were first provided with

the informed consent form, which included the cover story that the purpose of the study was to assess collaboration capabilities in virtual workspaces between a leader and their subordinate, using email communication only.

Participants were asked to respond to questions assessing demographics (in part to assist in restricted random assignment based on gender at Time 2), personality characteristics, as well as complete a short leadership test battery which included questions from the Graduate Record Examination (ETS, 2017) and situational judgement questions from a free package available via the online test preparation service, JobTestPrep (2017). Participants were told their personality assessment and leadership test battery responses would be utilized in selecting them into the role of leader or subordinate in the in-lab exercise of Time 2. In actuality, all participants were selected as leaders for time 2. After the participant's completion of the time 1 measures, the researcher emailed each participant to inform them of their role and set up a time to come in for the Time 2 simulation (a draft email is available in Appendix A).

Time 2. The Time 2 procedure was pilot tested ($n = 3$) to assess the strength of the experimental manipulation and believability of the cover story. After pilot testing three participants, I noticed that the task was too demanding within the time constraints and therefore was causing participants to be focused on the task and time constraints rather than emailing with the "subordinate". I thus reduced the scope of the task and extended the time allotment of the experiment, which successfully addressed this problem. Finally, the pilot test did not indicate any issues with the incivility manipulation or believability of the cover story.

A timeline of the time 2 procedure are available in Appendix B. Upon arrival to the lab, participants were once again provided with the informed consent form, which reminded them of the cover story of the study. Participants were reminded that based on our analysis of their test battery and personality assessment, they have the necessary aptitude to be successful in leadership tasks, such as providing feedback and delegating work.

Time 2 task. The in-lab task was adopted from Purvanova and Bono (2009), who conducted an experimental study to examine transformational leadership in teams using face-to-face and virtual computer-mediated communication. The procedure was adapted to be less team-oriented. In modifying the procedure, assistant (i.e., subordinate) and management positions in various industries available in the National Occupational Classification and O*NET occupational databases were searched across industries to increase the realism of the roles in the experiment. I decided to build the procedure around market research positions.

Participants were told they will be taking on the role of a Market Research Manager for a fictitious large market research firm, which the participants were told has companies come to them and ask for assistance in finding out about consumers who may be interested in their products. Participants were told that as a Market Research Manager, they have Market Research Assistants who report directly to them, and assist them in drafting proposals, conducting research, and writing market research reports. Participants were told there was another participant who has been assigned the role of Market Research Assistant (in actuality, there was not).

Participants were then told that the subordinate would be providing them with a client summary for their feedback, as a large part of a leadership role is providing feedback to subordinates. In addition to recommendations for time management, participants were also told that I will be interrupting them at various points with secondary simplistic tasks they are to complete in addition to the proposal to mimic real leadership, as leaders are typically interrupted by others while trying to complete their work (in actuality, this happened only once to assess their implicit affect). Participants were also told I will be checking in on how the relationship with the subordinate is progressing periodically (in actuality, this only happened once after the manipulation had ended, to collect outcome measures).

The participants were told that the final proposals created by leader-subordinate teams would be judged on their content and professionalism (e.g., tone, appearance). They were also told the top five leader-subordinate teams will receive a prize (i.e., a \$40 VISA gift card per participant) at the end of the study. In actuality, there will be five random draws at the end of the data collection for participants. This added reward was used to increase performance motivation on the task, as adapted from Giumetti and colleagues (2013). Participants were told they had one hour from the start of the session to complete the task with the subordinate.

To bolster feelings of legitimacy in the leadership role, participants were informed that I told the subordinate their name and some details on their leadership potential (i.e., broad details on their leadership experiences and their excellent performance on the test battery). Next, participants had their picture taken and uploaded to the SMU email

account as their profile picture. While their picture was being uploaded by the researcher, the participant reviewed hard copies of their position description, their firm's mission statement, and the client brief (see Appendix C). The "subordinate" email contact had a profile picture that was matched to the participant's gender and race.² Pictures of individuals aged 19 to 29 with neutral expressions were displayed as the "subordinate" profile pictures and were either pictures of my acquaintances or collected from the Park Aging Mind Laboratory Face Database (Minear & Park, 2004). As physical attractiveness may influence how the leader perceives their interaction with the subordinate (Agthe, Strobel, Spörrle, Pfundmair, & Maner, 2016; Reis, Neziek & Wheeler, 1980), I attempted to neutralize the impact of subordinate attractiveness on the perception of incivility by using photos rated as neutral on attractiveness (a score of approximately 4) on a scale of 1 = very unattractive to 7 = very unattractive (scale from Bhogal, Galbraith, & Manktelow, 2016; 2017) by myself and three additional independent raters.

After the participants' pictures were uploaded, participants were instructed on how to utilize the market research proposal template open on the computer desktop (adapted from the University of Edinburgh's (2014) *Guidelines on Writing a Market Research Brief*). Participants were then instructed on how to utilize the SMU email software (if need be). Two Saint Mary's University email accounts were used in the

² Based on the photos in the database, I attempted to match the race of the subordinate as best possible to that of the participant. Potential female participant races were collapsed into Aboriginal, Black, Arab/West Asian, South Asian, Caucasian, Collapsed Asian (i.e., Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, South East Asian), and Latin American. Potential male participant races were collapsed into Aboriginal, Black, South Asian, Caucasian, Collapsed Asian (i.e., Arab/West Asian, Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, South Asian), and Latin American.

experimental task: one participants used to email the “subordinate” and one I used to email the participants as the “subordinate”. The participants were instructed that the subordinate arrived early and is likely almost finished the client summary (for information regarding the creation of the client summary, see Appendix D). Thus, participants were told the client summary will probably be sent to them momentarily, and I suggested that they provide feedback to the subordinate on this summary first to keep the project on track. The participant was then told that I will now go let the subordinate know that their leader has arrived so that the participant would think that their subordinate had seen their picture when the participant receives the subordinate’s client summary.

To collect data, three different rooms on the Saint Mary’s University campus served as labs. To ensure room was not confounded with gender or the manipulation, I ensured males and females in each condition were proportionally represented in each room.

Main manipulation and measurement of study variables. Incivility was manipulated via the researcher (i.e., myself, acting as the ostensible subordinate) sending either civil or uncivil emails to participants. The civil and uncivil emails were written by drawing on incivility items by Martin and Hine (2005) and Cortina and colleagues (2001; see Appendix E), such that the uncivil emails strongly reflected the items and the civil emails did not. The phrasing of the emails was created to reflect the following scale items: addressed you in unprofessional terms; put you down or was condescending to you in some way; used an inappropriate tone when speaking to you; doubted your judgement in a matter over which you have responsibility; and made demeaning, rude, or derogatory

remarks about you. The content of the civil and uncivil emails themselves (e.g., the comments on the participant's feedback, asking for the next task) were created to mirror one another, so as to not introduce confounds between conditions.

The use of emails in manipulating incivility between the leader and subordinate is supported by various studies that have successfully manipulated cyber incivility in a laboratory setting (e.g., Francis et al., 2015; Giumetti et al., 2012). As well, some research suggests that the prevalence of incivility in the workplace is heightened by email technologies which allow perpetrators to avoid facing their target while mistreating them (e.g., Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000).

Approximately two minutes after leaving participants, the researcher sent the participants the first (un)civil email (see Appendix E) with the client summary attached (see Appendix D). The client summary was identical across conditions in an attempt to neutralize the influence of task performance on incivility ratings. Approximately two minutes after participants responded with feedback to the subordinate, a second (un)civil email was sent to participants, which contested the feedback (uncivil) or praised the feedback (civil), promised a second draft of the client summary so that participants would think the experiment would continue, and asked what task they will be doing after the client summary (so participants were prompted to respond, confirming to the researcher that they have read the final email in the manipulation; Appendix E). After the second (un)civil email was sent, the experimental manipulation ended. Thus, participants never received a revised version of the client summary and no further tasks on the leadership task timeline were completed, decreasing the amount of filler tasks thereby preserving the

manipulation effects and eliminating a potential loss of experimental control (e.g., due to unanticipated feedback from participants, additional emails from participants that if not responded to may confound the manipulation). Once participants responded to the second email or five minutes after the second uncivil email was sent, I interrupted with the IPANAT measure, cast as a word association task, to ensure I captured participants' implicit mood before it dissipated. Participants were given five minutes to complete the IPANAT. After five minutes, I returned and provided participants with the rest of the Time 2 measures in paper-and-pencil format. To check that participants had been reading the emails (in particular, that they reviewed the second email if they did not respond) and to encourage participants to think of their contact with the subordinate, the beginning of the outcome measures included a question of how many emails they have received from the subordinate so far. The participants were given 10 minutes to complete the outcome measures. After 10 minutes, I came to collect them.

I took the outcome measures and immediately provided participants with a hard copy of the questions probing for general suspicion. These questions were: (1) "was there anything odd or confusing about the tasks you've done so far today?"; and (2) "what do you think is our primary interest with this experiment?". I waited in the room until participants finished the questions. Then, I took the participants' answers and instructed participants that the experiment had ended.

Wrap up. Next, participants were debriefed. After debriefing, participants were asked to complete a positive mood task to help alleviate any lingering negative affect from their participation in the study. The positive mood task asked them to write about a

recent positive experience they had, either in school, with family, or friends. Participants were then asked if they had any last questions, and were thanked for their participation.

Results

Data Cleaning and Screening

The data were thoroughly cleaned and screened before conducting statistical analyses to ensure the accuracy and quality of the data. When compiling the scales, I allowed for approximately 10% missing data. In terms of the use of the implicit affect measure, it became apparent as data collection progressed that this scale was potentially problematic. During debriefing, some participants indicated that they rushed through it as it was posed as a “word association task” during the experiment (e.g., participants circled the same response number for all the artificial words). While the measure itself demonstrated good reliability (positive affect: $\alpha = .89$, negative affect: $\alpha = .76$), due to concerns of the quality of the data obtained from this measure, I interpret the findings from the implicit measure with caution. The PANAS and all other scales demonstrated acceptable reliabilities (with Cronbach’s alphas ranging from .73 to .91).

I checked assumptions by cell (i.e., male civil versus uncivil and female civil versus uncivil). No univariate outliers were detected in any of the predictors, covariates, and outcomes, as evidenced by z scores that did not exceed three. Further, Mahalanobis distance did not reveal any multivariate outliers across any of the variables of interest. With regard to normality, an evaluation of the histogram of standardized residuals revealed no violations of normality, and an evaluation of the skewness and kurtosis values confirmed this interpretation. Linearity was confirmed by assessing a p -plot of the

standardized residuals, which demonstrated plotted values nicely fit to the line. By evaluating the dispersion of residuals across all levels of predicted y values via a predicted versus residual scatterplot, no violations of homoscedasticity were detected because the plotted values were fairly evenly dispersed above and below the zero line.

Multicollinearity was assessed by a correlation matrix that included all variables to be used in the analyses, with a correlation above .7 indicating potential multicollinearity. No correlations exceeded .70. To confirm this initial assessment, the tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were examined and revealed acceptable values of tolerance (i.e., above .10; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) and VIF (i.e., below 10; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995).

I evaluated whether there were significant interactions of the covariates (i.e., race³, neuroticism, and CSE⁴) and extraneous variables (i.e., testing room⁵ and recruitment method) with experimental condition and gender on positive affect, negative

³ There is a potential confound for race with experimental condition, as there were an uneven number of black participants in each condition. This may be problematic as the cross-cultural literature suggests certain groups may score higher on relational-interdependent self-construal and the justice literature suggests that people who are interdependent by nature are more susceptible to rejection by others (e.g., Holmvall & Bobocel, 2008). Therefore, to investigate whether black participants were likely to be more or less interdependent, I assessed the means of their relational-interdependent self-construal (RISC; i.e., whether their identity is more strongly tied to others; Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000) relative to all other ethnicities. Given the small sample size, I visually inspected the means. Overall, it appears that black participants ($M = 5.15$, $SD = .70$) did not differ greatly on RISC from non-black participants ($M = 5.21$, $SD = .91$). A table displaying the number of Caucasian and non-Caucasian males and females in each condition is available in Appendix F.

⁴ To test if the random assignment was successful in terms of the covariates of interest, I conducted independent samples t-tests on the means of neuroticism and CSE between experimental conditions. Results demonstrated no significant differences between experimental groups on neuroticism (uncivil: $M = 3.21$, $SD = .58$; civil: $M = 3.13$, $SD = .64$; $t(106) = -.72$, $p = .52$) and CSE (uncivil: $M = 3.31$, $SD = .51$; civil: $M = 3.43$, $SD = .43$; $t(106) = 1.42$, $p = .55$).

⁵ Room was not confounded with experimental condition.

affect, competence needs frustration, and relatedness needs frustration. I conducted three-way ANOVAs to test for interactions between extraneous variables⁶ and moderated regressions to test for interactions between covariate predictors (i.e., race, core self-evaluation, neuroticism) with gender and experimental condition.⁷ Given the small n per cell, particularly for males, these interactive results should be interpreted with caution.

In testing potential interactions with the extraneous variables, the two-way interaction between condition and recruitment method in predicting relatedness need frustration ($F(1, 107) = 7.75, p < .01, \eta^2 = .07$) was significant. The means suggest that, relative to those who were recruited outside the SONA system, those recruited through SONA reported higher relatedness needs frustration in the uncivil condition (SONA: $M = 6.13, SD = .76$; non-SONA: $M = 4.87, SD = 1.57, d = 1.02$) and lower relatedness needs frustration in the civil condition (SONA: $M = 1.60, SD = .41$, non-SONA: $M = 2.32, SD = 1.24, d = .78$; see Appendix D). However, both groups appear to have similar main effect patterns and the significant difference may be unstable due to the unequal sample size between recruitment methods.

With regard to neuroticism, a three-way interaction on the cusp of significance emerged in predicting implicit positive affect ($B = -.93, SE = .47, p = .05$), such that the main effect of incivility is significant only for females high in neuroticism ($B = -.50, SE = .17, p < .001$; see Appendix L). Given that neuroticism displayed a qualifying interaction with the independent variables in predicting a dependent variable, neuroticism was

⁶ These results can be found in Appendix G.

⁷ These results can be found in Appendix H.

excluded from the main analyses as a control variable. Findings regarding implicit affect should be interpreted in light of this three-way interaction.

In testing covariate interactions, notable interactions emerged between the main variables of interest and participant race. First, a two-way interaction between condition and race was significant in predicting relatedness needs frustration ($B = -1.77$, $SE = .83$, $p = .04$; see Appendix J). The pattern of means suggests that non-Caucasians reported less relatedness needs frustration ($M = 4.63$, $SD = 1.65$) than Caucasians ($M = 5.87$, $SD = .91$) in the uncivil condition ($d = .94$) and approximately equal relatedness needs frustration in the civil condition (non-Caucasians: $M = 2.29$, $SD = 1.31$, Caucasians: $M = 2.06$, $SD = .96$, $d = .20$). However, the conditional effects of condition within race revealed that the effect of condition on relatedness needs frustration was significant for both Caucasians ($B = 3.82$, $SE = .39$, $p < .001$) and non-Caucasians ($B = 2.34$, $SE = .33$, $p < .001$).

Second, a significant three-way interaction emerged between condition, race, and gender in predicting explicit positive affect ($B = 1.40$, $SE = .66$, $p = .04$). Probing of the three-way interaction revealed that the main effect of incivility was significant for non-Caucasian males ($B = -1.49$, $SE = .32$, $p < .001$) and females ($B = -.59$, $SE = .27$, $p = .03$), but not Caucasian males ($B = .03$, $SE = .41$, $p = .95$) nor females ($B = -.48$, $SE = .31$, $p = .12$; see Appendix K). Overall, these patterns suggest that the effects of incivility may be weaker for non-Caucasians on the mediator of relatedness needs frustration and stronger for these minority groups on the outcome of explicit positive affect. Due to these interaction findings, race is excluded as a control variable in the main analyses. Given that my thesis is primarily interested in how social groups experience incivility

differently, findings relating to relatedness and explicit positive affect must be interpreted with consideration of the interactions above. However, the nuanced findings of race should also be interpreted in light of the fact that the sample included more non-Caucasians ($N = 63$) than Caucasians ($N = 45$) and that in some cases, the cell sizes were very small (see Appendix F).

Procedure Used to Test the Main Hypotheses

To test Hypothesis 1, which predicted a main effect of experimental condition (civil = 0. Uncivil = 1) on well-being outcomes, a simple linear regression was used.⁸

To test the moderation, mediation, and moderated mediation predictions relevant to Hypotheses 2 through 6, I employed Version 3 of the PROCESS macro for SPSS by Hayes (2018). All models tested through PROCESS macro utilized a bootstrapping of 5000 samples at a 95% confidence interval.

To test Hypothesis 4, which predicted an interaction between subordinate incivility and gender on well-being outcomes, I employed PROCESS macro Model 1 (a simple moderation model), which included predictors of condition, gender, the interaction of gender and condition, entered in a single step. A separate model was tested for each affective outcome.

To test the predicted mediation of competence needs frustration (Hypotheses 2) and relatedness needs frustration (Hypothesis 3) on the relationship between subordinate

⁸ To test gender as a control variable in the relationship between incivility and affect, I re-ran Hypothesis 1 with gender as an additional predictor. The significance of the results did not change with the inclusion of gender.

incivility and affect, I used Model 4 (a simple mediation model). Each mediator was tested separately. This PROCESS Model tested three models simultaneously: (1) the total effects model, predicting affect from condition, (2) the mediator model (i.e., either competence needs frustration or relatedness needs frustration) predicted from condition, (3) the indirect model, with the outcome of affect, including condition and the mediator (Hayes, 2018). To assess the presence and significance of mediation, I utilized two criterion suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2008). First, I used the Baron and Kenny standards. Baron and Kenny (1986) propose that full mediation is present when four conditions are satisfied: (1) there is a significant association between the independent variable and the mediator; (2) there is a significant association between the mediator and the dependent variable while controlling the independent variable; (3) there is a significant association between the independent variable and the dependent variable; and (4) the association between the independent variable and the dependent variable is no longer significant when the mediator is controlled for. Second, I assessed the bootstrapped confidence intervals of the indirect effect of incivility on affect when the mediator is included in the model. If this confidence interval does not cross zero, the presence of significant mediation may be assumed (e.g., Hayes, 2018; Karazsia, Berlin, Armstrong, Janicke, & Darling, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Xu, Loi, & Lam, 2015).⁹

⁹ I also re-ran analyses for Hypothesis 2 and 3 with gender entered as a covariate. The significance of the results for Hypothesis 2 and 3 on all affective outcomes did not change.

Hypotheses 5 and 6 predicted that competence and relatedness needs frustration would differentially explain the relationship between incivility and affect for males and females. These hypotheses were tested with PROCESS Macro Model 8 (a moderated mediation model).¹⁰ The moderated-mediation was tested with both mediators entered in the model simultaneously. First, the mediator models were predicted (i.e., the mediators as separate model outcomes) with the predictors of condition (0 = civil, 1 = uncivil), gender (0 = male, 1 = female), and the condition-gender interaction term. Simultaneously, another block predicted affect from all previous predictors in addition to the mediators. Moderated mediation is considered to be present when the bootstrapping confidence interval of the index of moderated mediation (i.e., the difference between conditional indirect effects) does not cross zero (Hayes, 2018).

Manipulation Check Results

I conducted independent samples t-tests using as dependent variables both the indirect measure of incivility (with items from Martin & Hine, 2005 and Cortina et al., 2001) and a direct measure of incivility (Bhatt, 2017). Analyses using both measures demonstrated that the experimental manipulation was successful. With regard to the indirect measure, participants in the uncivil condition ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .92$) perceived the “subordinate” to be significantly more uncivil than those in the civil condition ($M = 1.45$, $SD = .61$, $t(106) = -13.13$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.52$). With regard to the direct measure,

¹⁰ At the request of a committee member, I re-tested my moderated mediation model supplanting the mediators with locus of causality (LOC), utilizing the same analyses through the PROCESS macro. These results can be found in Appendix M.

participants in the uncivil condition ($M = 4.55$, $SD = 1.44$) also perceived the emails from the “subordinate” as significantly more uncivil than those in the civil condition ($M = 1.37$, $SD = .77$, $t(106) = -14.24$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.75$).

Hypothesis Test Results¹¹

Table 1 displays the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for the variables used in subsequent analyses. All hypothesis tests were conducted without any control variables.¹²

¹¹ The sample size varied by outcome for the primary hypothesis tests. For explicit positive affect, the final sample size was $N = 107$, with 22 males in the uncivil condition and 22 in the civil condition, and 32 females in the uncivil condition and 31 females in the civil condition. For implicit positive affect, the final sample size was $N = 106$, with 22 males in the uncivil condition and 22 males in the civil condition, as well as 32 females in the uncivil condition and 30 females in the civil condition. For explicit negative affect, the final sample size was $N = 105$, with 23 males in the uncivil condition, 21 males in the civil condition, 31 females in the uncivil condition and 30 females in the civil condition. Finally, for implicit negative affect, the final sample size was $N = 105$, with 22 males in the uncivil condition, 22 males in the civil condition, 31 females in the uncivil condition, and 30 females in the civil condition.

¹² I re-ran all of my analyses with CSE as a control variable, as CSE was exploratory and did not show any interactions with the main variables in predicting the dependent variables. There were a few notable changes. First, the relationship between incivility and explicit negative affect (Hypothesis 1) became non-significant with the inclusion of CSE ($B = .16$, $SE = .10$, $p = .08$). Second, with inclusion of CSE, the mediation effect of relatedness on the relationship between incivility and explicit positive affect (Hypothesis 3) became non-significant, as the bootstrapped confidence interval for the indirect effect crossed zero ($B = -.38$, $SE = .20$, $CI [-.76, .02]$). Finally, with the inclusion of CSE, the moderated mediation of competence needs frustration for the outcome of explicit positive affect (Hypothesis 5) became non-significant, as the confidence interval crossed zero ($index = .14$, $SE = .11$, $CI [-.003, .40]$).

UNCIVIL SUBORDINATES

Table 1.

Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations of Variables

| Variable | N | M | SD | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. |
|-----------------------------------|-----|------|------|--------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| 1. Condition | 109 | - | - | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Gender | 109 | - | - | .004 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Competence NF | 108 | 2.71 | 1.27 | .09 | -.05 | (.88) | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Relatedness NF | 108 | 3.67 | 2.00 | .73** | -.08 | .32** | (.91) | | | | | | | |
| 5. Explicit Positive Affect | 107 | 3.14 | .91 | -.37** | .15 | -.32** | -.43** | (.91) | | | | | | |
| 6. Implicit Positive affect | 106 | 2.22 | .57 | -.13 | -.08 | -.09 | -.19 | .39** | (.89) | | | | | |
| 7. Explicit Negative Affect | 105 | 1.60 | .54 | .21* | .02 | .48** | .42** | .01 | .00 | (.79) | | | | |
| 8. Implicit Negative Affect | 106 | 1.96 | .43 | -.01 | -.17 | .00 | .05 | .08 | .36** | .15 | (.76) | | | |
| Controls | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. Race | 108 | - | - | .07 | -.07 | -.02 | -.07 | .07 | .26** | .08 | .07 | - | | |
| 10. CSE | 108 | 3.37 | .47 | -.14 | -.06 | -.41** | -.29** | .24* | -.01 | -.33** | -.02 | -.19* | (.76) | |
| 11. Neuroticism | 108 | 3.17 | .61 | .07 | .50** | .10 | .12 | -.12 | -.03 | .22* | .03 | -.08 | -.34** | (.73) |

Note. Condition coded as 0 = civil and 1 = uncivil. 51.4% uncivil. Gender coded as 0 = male and 1 = female. 41% Male. Competence needs frustration (NF) and relatedness NF were rated on a 7-point Likert scale. Implicit positive and negative affect (measured by the IPANAT) were rated on a 4-point Likert scale. Explicit positive affect and negative affect (measured by the PANAS) and core self-evaluation (CSE) were rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Race coded as 0 = Caucasian and 1 = non-Caucasian. 41.3% Caucasian. Cronbach's Alpha values are in brackets on the diagonal. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 1: Impact of incivility on affect. Results demonstrated that subordinate incivility (0 = civil, 1 = uncivil) significantly and negatively predicted leader explicit positive affect ($B = -.66, SE = .16, p < .0001, sr = -.37$), but not implicit positive affect ($B = -.14, SE = .11, p = .20, sr = -.13$). Similarly, incivility was a significant positive predictor of explicit negative affect ($B = .22, SE = .10, p = .04, sr = .21$), but not implicit negative affect ($B = -.009, SE = .08, p = .91, sr = -.01$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported for explicit positive and negative affect.

Hypothesis 2: Competence needs frustration. The results of the mediation analyses for competence needs frustration in predicting explicit and implicit positive affect are available in Table 2. In testing the mediating role of competence needs frustration in the relationship between subordinate incivility and *explicit positive affect* (via PROCESS Model 4), incivility was not a significant predictor of competence needs frustration ($B = .20, SE = .24, p = .42$), yet competence needs frustration significantly predicted (lower) explicit positive affect ($B = -.21, SE = .06, p < .001$) and incivility significantly predicted explicit positive affect ($B = -.66, SE = .16, p < .001, c_ps^{13} = -.73$). However, the relationship between subordinate incivility and explicit positive affect was equally significant with the inclusion of competence needs frustration in the model ($B = -.62, SE = .15, p < .001, c'_ps = -.68$). In testing the indirect effect of incivility on explicit positive affect using 5000 bootstrapping samples, the results revealed that the

¹³ c_ps and c'_ps are partially standardized effect sizes of the c (c) path and the c prime (c') path. According to Hayes (2018), the partially standardized effect size is a Cohen's d-type effect size of the direct and indirect effects, where the independent variable retains its original metric, but the effect size is rescaled to the standard deviation of the outcome variable. It is interpreted as the difference in standard deviations of the outcome with a one-unit increase in the independent variable as mediated through the mediator.

confidence interval crossed zero, indicating a non-significant mediation effect. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is not supported for explicit positive affect.

For *implicit positive affect*, incivility was not a significant predictor of competence needs frustration ($B = .28, SE = .25, p = .27$), competence needs frustration did not predict implicit positive affect ($B = -.04, SE = .04, p = .43$), and there was no relationship between incivility and implicit positive affect ($B = -.15, SE = .11, p = .18$). In testing the indirect effect of incivility on implicit positive affect, the results revealed the confidence interval crossed zero, indicating a non-significant mediation effect. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is not supported for implicit positive affect.

The results of the competence mediation analysis in predicting explicit and implicit negative affect are reported in Table 3. With regard to *explicit negative affect*, incivility significantly predicted explicit negative affect ($B = .22, SE = .10, p = .04, c_{ps} = .41$), there was no relationship between incivility and competence needs frustration ($B = .22, SE = .25, p = .38$), however, competence needs frustration was significantly and positively related to explicit negative affect ($B = .20, SE = .04, p < .0001$). While the relationship between incivility and explicit negative affect became non-significant with the inclusion of competence needs frustration ($B = .18, SE = .09, p = .06, c'_{ps} = .33$), the bootstrapping confidence interval of the indirect effect included zero. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is not supported for explicit negative affect.

With regard to *implicit negative affect*, there was no relationship between incivility and competence ($B = .28, SE = .25, p = .27$), no relationship between incivility and implicit negative affect ($B = -.01, SE = .08, p = .87$), and no relationship between

competence needs frustration and implicit negative affect ($B = .00$, $SE = .03$, $p = .99$).

Similarly, the bootstrap confidence interval included zero, indicating no significant mediation effect. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is not supported for implicit negative affect.

Table 2.

Competence Needs Frustration Mediation Results for Positive Affect

| <i>Predictor</i> | <i>Explicit</i> | | | | <i>Implicit</i> | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------|---------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>95% CI</i> | | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>95% CI</i> | |
| | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>UL</i> | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>UL</i> |
| Mediator Model | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | .20 | .24 | -.29 | .68 | .28 | .25 | -.22 | .77 |
| R-squared | | | .006 | | | | .01 | |
| Dependent Variable Model | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | -.62*** | .16 | -.93 | -.31 | -.14 | .11 | -.37 | .08 |
| Competence NF | -.21*** | .06 | -.34 | -.09 | -.04 | .04 | -.12 | .05 |
| R-squared | | | .22*** | | | | .02 | |
| Total Effect | -.66*** | .16 | -.99 | -.34 | -.15 | .11 | -.37 | .07 |
| Indirect Effect | -.04 | .06 | -.16 | .06 | -.01 | .02 | -.06 | .02 |

Note. Explicit positive affect: $N = 107$. Implicit positive affect: $N = 105$. Model 4 of PROCESS Macro. Independent variable: condition, 0= civil, 1 = uncivil. Mediator: competence needs frustration (NF). B = unstandardized coefficients. SE = standard error. Mediator Model tests the effect of condition on competence needs frustration. The Dependent Variable Model tests the effect of condition on positive affect while controlling for competence needs frustration. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals that do not cross zero are bolded.

Table 3.

Competence Needs Frustration Mediation Results for Negative Affect

| <i>Predictor</i> | <i>Explicit</i> | | | | <i>Implicit</i> | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------|------------|------------|-----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | 95% CI | | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | 95% CI | |
| | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>UL</i> | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>UL</i> |
| Mediator Model | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | .22 | .25 | -.27 | .71 | .28 | .25 | -.22 | .77 |
| R-squared | | | .008 | | | .01 | | |
| Dependent Variable Model | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | .18 | .09 | -.005 | .36 | -.01 | .09 | -.18 | .16 |
| Competence NF | .20*** | .04 | .13 | .27 | .001 | .03 | -.07 | .07 |
| R-squared | | | .26*** | | | .00 | | |
| Total Effect | .22* | .10 | .02 | .42 | -.01 | .08 | -.18 | .15 |
| Indirect Effect | .04 | .05 | -.05 | .15 | .00 | .02 | -.03 | .03 |

Note. Explicit negative affect: $N = 107$. Implicit negative affect: $N = 105$. Model 4 of PROCESS Macro. Independent variable: condition, 0= civil, 1 = uncivil. Mediator: competence needs frustration (NF). B = unstandardized coefficients. SE = standard error. Mediator Model tests the effect of condition on competence needs frustration. The Dependent Variable Model tests the effect of condition on negative affect while controlling for competence needs frustration. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals that do not cross zero are bolded.

Hypothesis 3: Relatedness needs frustration. The results of the mediation analyses for relatedness needs frustration in predicting positive affect are available in Table 4. In testing the mediating role of relatedness needs frustration in the relationship between subordinate incivility and *explicit positive affect*, incivility was a significant predictor of relatedness needs frustration ($B = 2.94, SE = .26, p < .0001$), relatedness needs frustration was a significant predictor of explicit positive affect ($B = -.16, SE = .06, p < .01$), and incivility was a significant predictor of explicit positive affect ($B = -.66, SE = .16, p < .001, c'_{ps} = -.73$). Further, the relationship between subordinate incivility and explicit positive affect became non-significant with the inclusion of relatedness needs frustration in the model ($B = -.20, SE = .24, p = .40, c'_{ps} = -.22$). Finally, the bootstrapped confidence interval of the indirect effect did not cross zero (CI [-.85, -.10]), indicating a significant mediation effect. The partially standardized indirect effect size further revealed that those in the uncivil condition experienced a .51 standard deviation decrease in explicit positive affect as mediated through relatedness needs frustration. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is fully supported for explicit positive affect, such that subordinate incivility negatively impacts leader explicit positive affect via greater relatedness needs frustration. However, this finding should be interpreted with consideration of the differences in relatedness needs frustration between Caucasians and non-Caucasians (i.e., the relatedness of Caucasians was more strongly impacted by the incivility) and the stronger impact of incivility on explicit positive affect for non-Caucasians.

For *implicit positive affect*, incivility significantly predicted relatedness needs frustration ($B = 2.94, SE = .26, p < .0001$). However, relatedness needs frustration did not significantly predict implicit positive affect ($B = -.06, SE = .04, p = .18$) and there was no relationship between incivility and implicit positive affect ($B = -.15, SE = .11, p = .18$). Finally, the bootstrapped confidence interval crossed zero, indicating no significant indirect effect of relatedness on the relationship between incivility and implicit positive affect. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is not supported for implicit positive affect.

The relatedness needs frustration mediation results for negative affect are available in Table 5. With regard to *explicit negative affect*, incivility significantly predicted relatedness needs frustration ($B = 2.90, SE = .27, p < .0001$); relatedness needs frustration was also significantly and positively related to explicit negative affect, ($B = .15, SE = .04, p < .001$), and incivility was significantly related to explicit negative affect ($B = .22, SE = .10, p = .04, c_ps = .41$). Further, when relatedness needs frustration was included in a model with condition, the relationship between incivility and explicit negative affect became non-significant ($B = -.23, SE = .14, p = .11, c_ps = -.42$). The bootstrapping confidence interval of the indirect effect supports significant mediation, as the confidence interval did not cross zero (CI [.23, .71]). The partially standardized indirect effect further indicated that leaders treated uncivilly experienced a .83 standard deviation increase in explicit negative affect via relatedness needs frustration. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is fully supported for explicit negative affect, such that subordinate incivility impacts explicit negative affect via greater relatedness needs frustration.

With regard to *implicit negative affect*, incivility significantly predicted relatedness needs frustration ($B = 2.94, SE = .26, p < .0001$), yet incivility was not significantly related to implicit negative affect ($B = -.01, SE = .08, p = .87$) and relatedness needs frustration did not significantly predict implicit negative affect ($B = .03, SE = .03, p = .38$). Further, the bootstrapping confidence interval crossed zero. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is not supported for implicit negative affect.

Table 4.

Relatedness Needs Frustration Mediation Results for Positive Affect

| <i>Predictor</i> | <i>Explicit</i> | | | | <i>Implicit</i> | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | 95% CI | | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | 95% CI | |
| | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>CL</i> | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>CL</i> |
| Mediator Model | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | 2.94*** | .26 | 2.42 | 3.46 | 2.94 | .26 | 2.42 | 3.46 |
| R-squared | | .54*** | | | | .55*** | | |
| Dependent Variable Model | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | -.20 | .24 | -.67 | .27 | .01 | .17 | -.31 | .34 |
| Relatedness NF | -.16** | .06 | -.27 | -.04 | -.06 | .04 | -.14 | .03 |
| R-squared | | .19*** | | | | .04 | | |
| Total Effect | -.66 | .16 | -.99 | -.34 | -.15 | .11 | -.37 | .07 |
| Indirect Effect | -.46 | .19 | -.85 | -.10 | -.17 | .14 | -.45 | .10 |

Note. Explicit positive affect: $N = 107$. Implicit positive affect: $N = 105$. Model 4 of PROCESS Macro. Independent variable: condition, 0 = civil, 1 = uncivil. Mediator: relatedness needs frustration (NF). B = unstandardized coefficients. SE = standard error. Mediator Model tests the effect of condition on relatedness needs frustration. The Dependent Variable Model tests the effect of condition on positive affect while controlling for relatedness needs frustration. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals that do not cross zero are bolded.

Table 5.

Relatedness Needs Frustration Mediation Results for Negative Affect

| <i>Predictor</i> | <i>Explicit</i> | | | | <i>Implicit</i> | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | 95% CI | | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | 95% CI | |
| | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>CL</i> | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>CL</i> |
| Mediator Model | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | 2.90*** | .27 | 2.37 | 3.44 | 2.94 | .26 | 2.42 | 3.46 |
| R-squared | | .53*** | | | | .55*** | | |
| Dependent Variable Model | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | -.23 | .14 | -.50 | .05 | -.10 | .13 | -.35 | .15 |
| Relatedness NF | .15*** | .04 | .08 | .22 | .03 | .03 | -.04 | .09 |
| R-squared | | .20*** | | | | .008 | | |
| Total Effect | .22 | .10 | .02 | .42 | -.01 | .08 | -.18 | .15 |
| Indirect Effect | .44 | .12 | .23 | .71 | .08 | .11 | -.15 | .27 |

Note. Explicit negative affect: $N = 107$. Implicit negative affect: $N = 105$. Model 4 of PROCESS Macro. Independent variable: condition, 0 = civil, 1 = uncivil. Mediator: relatedness needs frustration (NF). B = unstandardized coefficients. SE = standard error. Mediator Model tests the effect of condition on relatedness needs frustration. The Dependent Variable Model tests the effect of condition on negative affect while controlling for relatedness needs frustration. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals that do not cross zero are bolded.

Hypothesis 4: Gender moderation. Hypothesis 4 (which predicted a significant gender x incivility interaction on well-being outcomes) was tested using Model 1 of the PROCESS Macro. Results demonstrated that the interaction between subordinate incivility and gender was not significant for both explicit positive affect ($B = .28, SE = .33, p = .39$) and implicit positive affect ($B = -.38, SE = .22, p = .10$). While the interaction between condition and gender was not significant for implicit negative affect ($B = -.03, SE = .17, p = .84$), the interaction was significant for explicit negative affect ($B = -.58, SE = .20, p < .01, sr = -.27$; see Figure 2). The conditional effects analysis of subordinate incivility revealed that males experienced significantly more explicit negative affect when treated uncivilly (vs. civilly; $B = .56, SE = .15, p < .001$), whereas the main effect for females was not significant ($B = -.02, SE = .13, p = .86$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is supported (albeit with gender differences opposite to that proposed) for explicit negative affect only.

Hypothesis 5: Gender moderation of mediation effect of competence needs frustration.¹⁴ The results of the moderated mediation analyses for explicit and implicit positive affect are available in Table 6. With respect to analyses for explicit positive affect, the moderated mediation analyses revealed that the interaction between condition and gender in predicting competence needs frustration was significant ($B = -1.32, SE = .48, p < .01$), with males reporting higher competence needs frustration when treated uncivilly (vs. civilly; $B = .97, SE = .37, p < .01$) while incivility did not influence the

¹⁴ Unfortunately, effect sizes are currently not available for Model 8 (moderated mediation) in the PROCESS Macro.

competence needs frustration of females ($B = -.35, SE = .31, p = .27$; see Figure 3). Using bootstrapping, the index of moderated mediation indicated a significant moderated mediation for *explicit positive affect*, as the confidence interval did not cross zero ($index = .22, SE = .14, CI [.02, .56]$). In particular, competence needs frustration explained the effect of incivility on male leaders' explicit positive affect ($B = -.16, SE = .11, CI [-.43, -.01]$), but did not significantly explain the relationship between incivility and explicit positive affect for female leaders ($B = .06, SE = .06, CI [-.04, .20]$). Thus, Hypothesis 5 is supported for explicit positive affect, although with gender differences opposite to what I proposed.

With regard to *implicit positive affect*, the same interaction between condition and gender in predicting competence needs frustration was observed ($B = -1.37, SE = .49, p < .01$; Figure 3). Bootstrapping confidence interval did not support the presence of moderated mediation for implicit positive affect as it crossed zero (see Table 6). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supported for implicit positive affect.

The results of explicit and implicit negative affect are available in Table 7. The same interaction between condition and gender in predicting competence needs frustration was observed (explicit negative affect: $B = -1.37, SE = .49, p < .01$; implicit negative affect: $B = -1.37, SE = .49, p < .01$; Figure 3). In predicting *explicit negative affect*, the index of moderated mediation revealed a significant bootstrapped moderated mediation effect ($index = -.17, SE = .09, CI [-.36, -.04]$). Indeed, the indirect effect parceled by gender and assessed for significance using bootstrapping revealed that when treated uncivilly (vs. civilly) males experienced significantly higher negative affect as a

result of competence needs frustration ($B = .13$, $SE = .07$, $CI [.02, .27]$), yet there was no significant mediation effect for females ($B = -.05$, $SE = .04$, $CI [-.14, .03]$; see Table 5).

Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is also supported for explicit negative affect such that the mediation effect of competence needs frustration on the relationship between subordinate incivility and explicit negative affect differed for males and females, although in a manner opposite to what was proposed.

With regard to *implicit negative affect*, the index of moderated mediation crossed zero, indicating no significant moderated mediation effect present. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is not supported for implicit negative affect.

Hypothesis 6: Gender moderation of mediation effect of Relatedness needs frustration. The bootstrapping significance tests of the index of moderated mediation crossed zero and therefore indicated non-significant moderated mediation effects for explicit and implicit positive affect (see Table 6), as well as for explicit and implicit negative affect (see Table 7). Thus, Hypothesis 6 is not supported for explicit and implicit affect.

Figure 2. Gender by Incivility Condition Interaction for Explicit Negative Affect

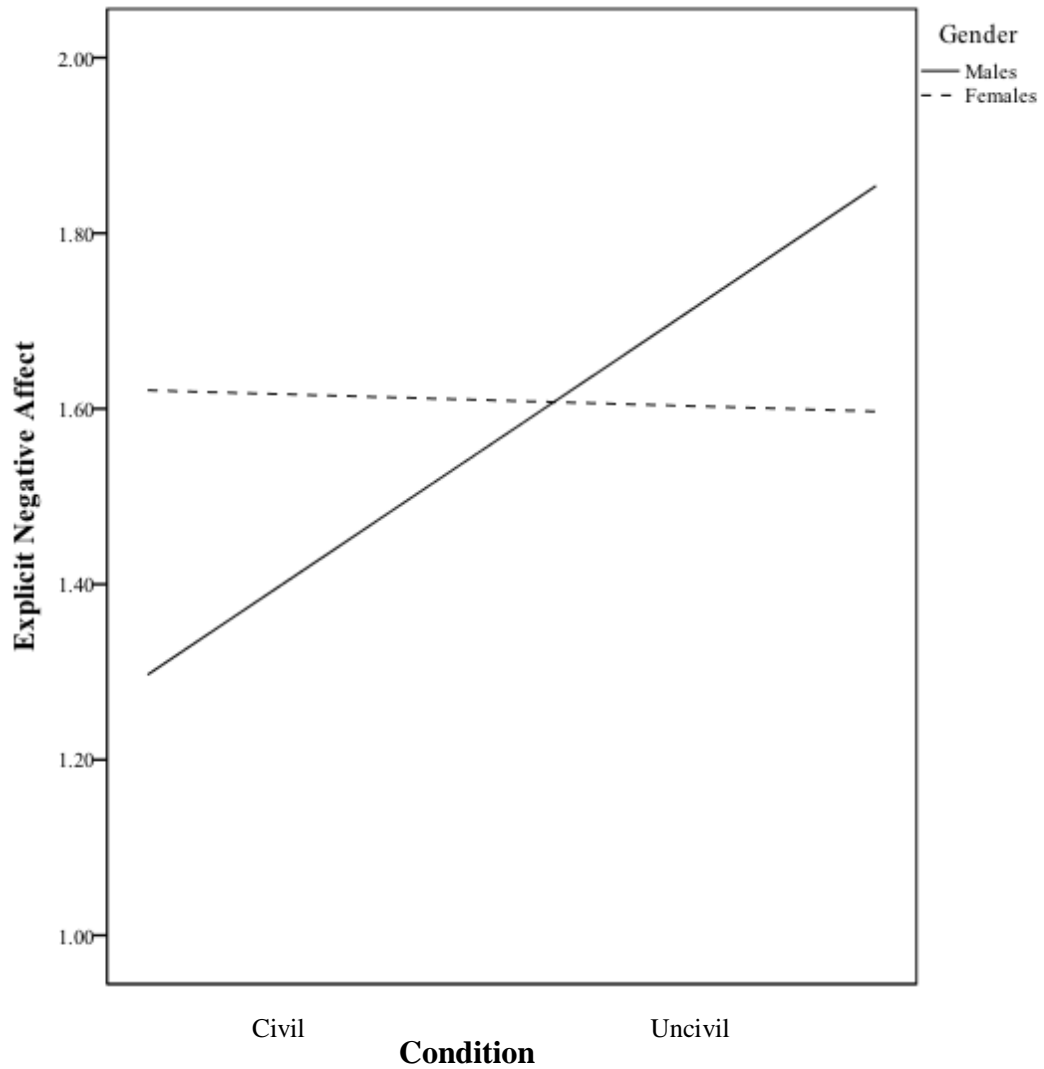


Figure 2. Visual representation of the interaction between condition and gender in predicting explicit negative affect (Hypothesis 4). The explicit negative affect scale ranges from 1 to 5, however only the range of 1 to 2 is shown in this graph to ease interpretation.

Moderated Mediation Results for Positive Affect

| <i>Predictor</i> | <i>Explicit Affect</i> | | | | <i>Implicit Affect</i> | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|------------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|------------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------|
| | Competence NF | | Relatedness NF | | Positive Affect | | Competence NF | | Relatedness NF | | Positive Affect | |
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| Condition | .97* | .37 | 2.74*** | .41 | -.43 | .29 | 1.07** | .37 | 2.65*** | .41 | .22 | .20 |
| Gender | .59 | .34 | -.52 | .38 | .20 | .23 | .54 | .35 | -.50 | .38 | .11 | .16 |
| Condition x Gender | -1.32** | .48 | .34 | .53 | .09 | .33 | -1.37** | .49 | .50 | .53 | -.44 | .24 |
| Competence NF | | | | | -.17* | .07 | | | | | -.05 | .05 |
| Relatedness NF | | | | | -.09 | .06 | | | | | -.04 | .05 |
| R-squared | .07* | | .55*** | | .26*** | | .09* | | .56*** | | .08 | |

| | <i>Explicit Positive Affect</i> | | <i>Implicit Positive Affect</i> | |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|
| | <i>Competence NF</i> | <i>Relatedness NF</i> | <i>Competence NF</i> | <i>Relatedness NF</i> |
| MM Index | .22 | -.03 | .06 | -.02 |
| BootSE | .14 | .07 | .10 | .05 |
| BootLLCI | .02 | -.23 | -.09 | -.14 |
| BootULCI | .56 | .07 | .29 | .05 |

Note. Explicit positive affect: $N = 107$. Implicit positive affect: $N = 105$. Model 8 of PROCESS Macro. Independent variable: condition, 0 = civil, 1 = uncivil. Moderator: Gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. Mediators: competence needs frustration (NF) and relatedness NF. B = unstandardized coefficients. SE = standard error. MM = moderated mediation. Boot = Bootstrapped at 5000 samples, 95% confidence interval. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Moderated mediation statistics are only computed for main (affect) outcomes. The second section of the table, Conditional Indirect Effects, indicates whether moderated mediation occurred for each mediator (competence NF and relatedness NF) on each outcome (explicit positive affect and implicit positive affect) respectively.

Table 7.

Moderated Mediation Results for Negative Affect

| <i>Predictor</i> | <i>Explicit Affect</i> | | | | | <i>Implicit Affect</i> | | | | | | |
|--------------------|------------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|-----------------|------------------------|----------|----------------|----------|-----------------|----------|-----------|
| | Competence NF | | Relatedness NF | | Negative Affect | Competence NF | | Relatedness NF | | Negative Affect | | |
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| Condition | 1.01** | .37 | 2.65*** | .42 | .11 | .16 | 1.07** | .37 | 2.65*** | .41 | -.05 | .16 |
| Gender | .53 | .35 | -.58 | .39 | .33* | .13 | .54 | .35 | -.50 | .38 | -.10 | .13 |
| Condition x Gender | -1.37** | .49 | .43 | .54 | -.46* | .18 | -1.37** | .49 | .50 | .53 | -.09 | .18 |
| Competence NF | | | | | .13** | .04 | | | | | -.02 | .04 |
| Relatedness NF | | | | | .12** | .04 | | | | | .03 | .04 |
| R-squared | .08* | | .54*** | | .36*** | | .09* | | .56*** | | .04 | |

| | <i>Explicit Negative Affect</i> | | <i>Implicit Negative Affect</i> | |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|
| | <i>Competence NF</i> | <i>Relatedness NF</i> | <i>Competence NF</i> | <i>Relatedness NF</i> |
| MM Index | -.17 | .05 | .03 | .02 |
| BootSE | .09 | .07 | .06 | .04 |
| BootLLCI | -.36 | -.08 | -.08 | -.04 |
| BootULCI | -.04 | .19 | .17 | .12 |

Note. Explicit negative affect: $N = 107$. Implicit negative affect: $N = 105$. Model 8 of PROCESS Macro. Independent variable: condition, 1 = uncivil, 0 = civil. Moderator: Gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. Mediators: competence needs frustration (NF) and relatedness NF. B = unstandardized coefficients. SE = standard error. MM = moderated mediation. Boot = Bootstrapped at 5000 samples, 95% confidence interval. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Moderated mediation statistics are only computed for main

Figure 3. Gender by Incivility Condition Interaction for Competence Needs Frustration

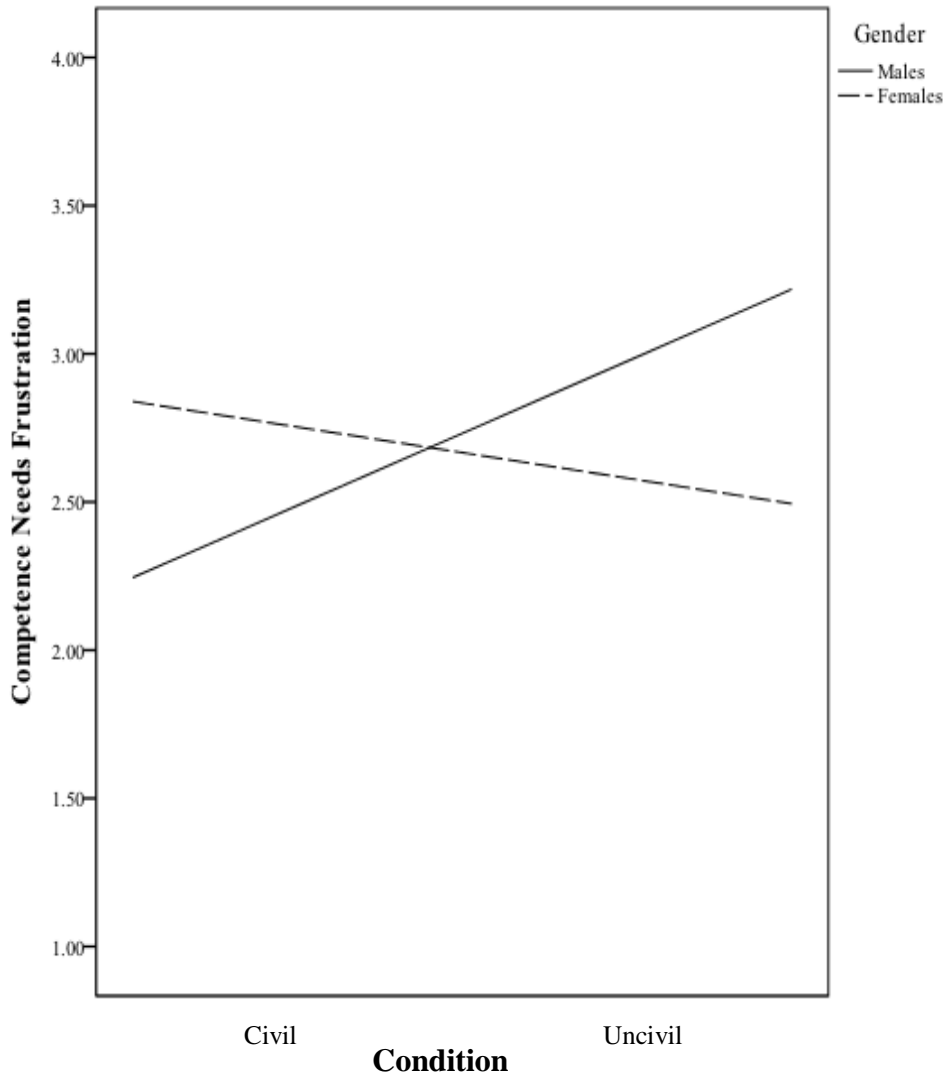


Figure 3. Visual representation of the interaction between condition and gender in predicting competence needs frustration. The competence needs frustration scale ranges from 1 to 7, however only the range of 1 to 4 is shown in this graph to ease interpretation.

Discussion

In a laboratory experiment investigating leader reactions to subordinate incivility, results demonstrated that leader well-being is impacted by “bottom-up” incivility. Although there were no significant effects for implicit affect, male and female leaders who were treated uncivilly (vs. civilly) by their subordinate experienced lower explicit positive affect; a finding in line with other research investigating single-encounter incivility (e.g., Giumetti et al., 2013). However, the effect of incivility on explicit positive affect appears primarily to be driven by non-Caucasians, especially males. Interestingly, and counter to my predictions, only the negative affect of male leaders (versus females) was impacted by subordinate incivility.

In explaining these initial impacts, results support that subordinate incivility impacted positive and negative affect through relatedness needs frustration. That is, the uncivil behavior thwarted leaders’ need to feel connected with their subordinate, leading to lower positive affect and higher negative affect. While gender moderated the impact of incivility on negative affect, the mediating role of relatedness needs frustration did not differ for males and females (however, these findings are tempered by leader race). The gender similarities in relatedness needs frustration were unexpected, as the literature suggests that females place more importance on interpersonal relationships (Baldwin et al., 2003), particularly in leadership roles (Rink et al., 2012), and thus their relatedness needs frustration was anticipated to increase more strongly than males when treated with disrespect by a subordinate. The similarities between genders may be explained by the fact that both males and females may have felt a similar lack of relatedness to the

subordinate by virtue of participants only being able to communicate with their subordinate via email. Had the uncivil interaction been in person, perhaps a stronger effect of relatedness needs frustration and gender differences would have emerged. As well, given the brief nature of the experiment, female leaders likely did not have the cumulative effect of being leaders and looking for cues of relatedness in their role. Therefore, they did not have a strong foundation from which their relatedness could be more thwarted than male leaders (as hypothesized). Finally, both male and female leaders were rejected by members of their in-groups (i.e., a subordinate of the same race and gender), which may have bolstered the effect of incivility on negative affect through relatedness needs frustration (e.g., Bernstein, Sacco, Young, Hugenberg, & Cook, 2010).

While no gender differences were found for the impact of incivility on explicit positive and negative affect via relatedness need frustration, results did demonstrate that competence needs frustration differentially explained the relationship between incivility and explicit affect for males and females. Specifically, males experienced lower positive affect and higher negative affect due to greater competence needs frustration when treated uncivilly (vs. civilly) by subordinates. However, there was no mediation effect for female leaders via competence needs frustration. That there was no effect for females via competence needs frustration contradicts the contrapower harassment literature, which suggests that females in higher power positions are more negatively impacted than males when treated with disrespect by those of lower power (e.g., Luparell, 2007).

Although I originally proposed that female (versus male) leaders would be more strongly and negatively impacted by the incivility, that I found the opposite pattern may

not truly be unexpected. First, males may have been more strongly impacted due to possible differences in leader role expectations (for an overview of expectation violation theory, see Burgoon, 1993). Given that male leaders are the social norm (Lampman et al., 2009), perhaps males took on the leadership role with more vigour, had more knowledge of what to expect, and were more accustomed to stepping into that role. In short, they “knew the ropes” of leadership and were thus expecting the behavioural confirmation from their subordinate of their deservedness of the leadership role. Indeed, research in the realm of workplace ostracism (which may include uncivil behaviours) supports that unexpected (versus expected) ostracism is a greater threat to psychological needs (Wesselmann, Butler, Williams, & Pickett, 2010). Therefore, perhaps males stepped into the leadership role feeling more confident in their abilities and therefore had a lower threshold from which their competence could be thwarted by their subordinate’s behaviour. Conversely, perhaps females anticipated trouble with followers and therefore were mentally prepared for rejection, as supported by theory (Vial et al., 2016) and research (e.g., Chen & Moons, 2015; Heilman et al., 2004, Rink et al., 2012) that suggests female leaders (more so than male leaders) are hyper-aware of rejection and harsh judgements by subordinates. Therefore, perhaps females were prepared to encounter rejection, but males expected to receive acceptance from subordinates, and thus males were more negatively impacted than females. However, it should be noted that research regarding selective incivility (e.g., Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013; McCord, Joseph, Dhanani, & Beus, 2018) and contrapower harassment (e.g., DeSouza, 2011; Lampman et al., 2009) is somewhat mixed as to whether and to what

extent females (versus males) experience more workplace incivility and therefore would expect more incivility in the current study. Future research should explicitly consider leader role expectations as an important explanatory mechanism.

A secondary explanation for the finding that female leaders' positive and negative affect was not impacted by the subordinate incivility via competence needs frustration may be due to the study design. In particular, perhaps females experienced fewer negative impacts of incivility due to mitigated stereotype threat. Stereotype threat occurs when one is facing a negative stereotype (such as a female stepping into a leadership role) and is concerned that they will be evaluated based on the negative stereotype (Myers, Spencer, & Jordan, 2012). Research has demonstrated that stereotype threats can be mitigated if people are shown competent role models (Marx & Roman, 2002; McIntyre, Paulson, & Lord, 2003). With regard to females in particular, research supports that the presence of a female experimenter perceived to be competent buffers females' self-appraised performance on a challenging math task (i.e., a stereotype threat; Marx & Roman, 2002). It is possible that in the current research, the fact that the experimenter was a female completing an advanced degree may have buffered the effect of incivility on competence needs frustration in female leaders, in addition to the fact that the legitimacy of the female leaders' placement in the role was continuously reinforced through the laboratory script. These factors may have contributed to the unexpected finding that female leaders experienced less competence needs frustration than their male counterparts.

An additional explanation for why female leaders did not experience greater competence needs frustration may relate to the specific leadership task used in the

experiment. The task required substantial verbal reasoning skills (i.e., writing a research proposal). According to the literature (e.g., Signorella & Vegega, 1984), tasks that involve verbal reasoning are generally perceived as feminine and tasks that rely on mathematical, mechanical, and spatial skills are perceived to be masculine. Further, research suggests that the more one prescribes to a gender stereotype (i.e., feminine or masculine), the better individuals will perform on a task that is congruent with their gender stereotype orientation (e.g., Ritter, 2004). Therefore, it is possible that females who prescribed more strongly to feminine stereotypes did not experience as much competence needs frustration because they felt competent in the writing task itself. For males that prescribed to masculine stereotypes, they may have experienced greater competence needs frustration due to concerns of their competency in the writing task itself. This pattern may have been enhanced by the “feminization of management” (i.e., the dissemination of feminine traits and characteristics into ideals of management; Fondas, 1997), which posits that females may have an emerging advantage when entering leadership roles. Although support for this notion is mixed (Borgida, Hunt, & Kim, 2005; Steffens, Schult, & Ebert, 2009; Willemsen, 2002), it is still possible that female leaders felt an advantage in my study due to the feminized task and leadership role. Thus, future research should measure and control for participant subscription to feminine and masculine gender stereotypes, as well as examine whether the leadership task (either masculine or feminine) moderates the impact of incivility for male and female leaders.

The stronger impacts of incivility on male leaders (versus female leaders) may also indicate potential impact of a female experimenter on male participant responses to

the incivility. Young Male Syndrome suggests that young males react more strongly to minor infractions because they are perceived as status challenges (e.g., contesting the authority of the higher status male), and these status challenges may be more impactful when experienced in front of a female (Wilson & Daly, 1985). With regard to the current study, the majority of the participants were young (average age of 22) and results support that the males (in comparison to females) did react more strongly to uncivil behaviour from those of lower status. Therefore, it is possible that for male participants, the incivility felt like a challenge associated with status inappropriate behaviour, therefore leading to a potential “loss of face” in front of a female (e.g., Brooks, 1982).

The alternative explanation that male leaders felt a greater “loss of face” in-front of a female may also apply to the findings of leader race. In particular, in comparison to Caucasians, the explicit positive affect of non-Caucasians, especially males, seemed most strongly impacted by subordinate incivility. The impacts of incivility on non-Caucasian male leaders may have been stronger for certain nationalities in which men have much greater social status than women (e.g., Moghadam, 2008) and if they originate from a culture where there is strong pressure to conform to societal gender norms (e.g., Whiteoak, Crawford, & Mapstone, 2006), leading to a greater “loss of face”. As well, non-Caucasian male *and* female participants who are from a culture that strongly subscribes to greater power distances (i.e., cultures that accept an unequal level or distribution of power; Hofstede, 1992; Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Nahavandi, 2015) may have been more negatively impacted by subordinate incivility due to a greater violation of their cultural norms. In any case, findings,

especially relating to leader race, should be interpreted with caution as leader race was not a focal variable in the current research and sample sizes per cell, in some cases, were very small. Future research should more explicitly design studies to understand potential individual differences in responses to uncivil behaviours, including considering individuals' cultural backgrounds and identity.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

This study contributes to the incivility research literature by parceling out a perpetrator-target relationship that has been minimally studied (e.g., Lim & Lee, 2011; Porath et al., 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2012): that between leader and subordinate. In particular, the findings provide evidence of the causal impact of “bottom-up” incivility, supporting the long-held but minimally investigated claim that subordinate incivility is impactful on targets of higher power and status. The finding that subordinate incivility is impactful on a leader's well-being also contributes to the leadership literature by demonstrating that there may be value in taking into consideration the treatment a leader receives from those they lead. The findings of the current research support further exploration of leader psychological well-being, debunking the misconception that all leaders enjoy a positive state of psychological health and therefore that research in this vein is unnecessary (as reviewed by Bryne et al., 2014). Finally, the current research demonstrates a nuanced understanding of how affect is similarly impacted by “bottom-up” incivility for male and female leaders when it comes to feeling connected to their subordinates and how affect is differentially impacted for males and female leaders when

considering their felt-competence. This study provides evidence supportive of the inclusion of gender when investigating leader well-being.

With regard to Self Determination Theory (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004), the current research adds to the growing literature (e.g., Trépanier et al., 2016) that investigates how workplace mistreatment impacts psychological needs and how in turn, needs frustration leads to psychological outcomes such as stress and strain. The current research provides experimental evidence that workplace incivility is a worthy behavior to study when considering causes of psychological needs frustration and in turn, well-being outcomes. Additionally, the current research demonstrates how the needs of males and females in leadership roles are similarly (in the case of relatedness) and differentially (in the case of competence) thwarted by subordinate incivility. Moreover, the results, albeit tentative, also point to a nuanced understanding of the impacts of incivility as a function of leader race that should be taken into consideration when interpreting the current findings, and also more explicitly addressed in future research.

My research also highlights the importance of an organization's investment in leader well-being, with particular regard to fostering healthy, respectful "bottom-up" relationships. In short, my research demonstrates that disrespectful and rude behaviour is not simply "brushed-off" by leaders. Thus, the findings of the current research support that organizations may wish to consider organizational initiatives for management and their employees that educate both members of the dyadic relationship on the nature and consequences of "top-down" and "bottom-up" incivility.

Further, the current research has potential practical implications for both males and females stepping into leadership roles. For female leaders, the current research suggests that females may be well-suited to handle the impacts of anticipated follower rejection on their felt competence, at least for the type of task studied in the current experiment. As well, much of the experimental script during the laboratory session focused on bolstering the participants' self-esteem in the leadership role by a female that may have been perceived as a competent role model. Though speculative, this may have mitigated the negative impacts of subordinate incivility on well-being through reduced competence needs frustration in female leaders. Thus, my research may highlight the importance of simple reaffirmation by a competent female role model of females in leadership roles, continuous bolstering of their worthiness in the role, and their ability to succeed as a leader. However, the findings of the current research are extremely novel, and therefore study replication with consideration of the impact of a strong female role model on female leaders' responses to single-encounter versus repeated incivility is needed.

Limitations

The current study has a number of limitations. First, is the potential confound between participants that identified as Black and experimental condition, with substantially more Black participants having been assigned to the uncivil condition than the civil condition. With this potential confound, it is challenging to discern whether the effect of incivility was due to the manipulation or race. While Black participants did not appear to demonstrate different patterns of relational-interdependent self-construal

(Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000) and therefore may have been less likely to have been differentially impacted by the uncivil treatment, interpretation of the results should consider that Black participants may exude undue influence on the observed effects of incivility.

A second limitation of my study is the sample size with regard to males in both the civil and uncivil conditions. Given the sample size per condition was below 30, it is possible I lacked power in my analyses and therefore increased my Type II error rate. While I did find stronger effects for males in comparison to females for explicit negative affect and competence needs frustration, the non-significant gender differences for relatedness needs frustration should not simply be regarded as determinedly non-existent, but rather patterns that may emerge with a larger sample size.

With regard to sample demographics, it is important to note that the sample used to test the hypotheses was unusual (i.e., a slightly higher number of non-Caucasian participants versus Caucasian participants). This a limitation because the logic used to construct the hypotheses was primarily based on research that investigated North American gender norms, yet cross-cultural research supports that gender norms do vary between nationalities (e.g., Shan, Keller, & Imai, 2016). This calls into question whether the hypotheses (based on North American gender norms) could be validly tested with a sample that may strongly represent non-North American gender norms. However, the relatively high number of non-Caucasian participants is also a strength of the study, as it tackles a well-known limitation to psychological research that our knowledge of human behaviour is based on Western populations (Funder, 2013). While I did not collect

information regarding participant nationality, future research should continue to investigate whether what we know about leadership in Western nations is applicable elsewhere.

Further, my research only manipulated a specific encounter of incivility (titled event incivility; Cameron & Webster, 2011) and therefore cannot account for impacts of entity incivility (typically studied as mistreatment that occurs overtime and across encounters; Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). Researchers posit that event incivility provides insight into immediate reactions from targets (Porath & Erez, 2007; Porath, MacInnis, & Folkes, 2010), whereas entity incivility typically includes longer term outcomes such as emotional exhaustion (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Therefore, the current study does not speak to the long-term outcomes of subordinate incivility on leader well-being. Thus, future research should explore such questions via a within-subjects experiment or a longitudinal field study. Such research would not only further justify the exploration of leader well-being but may also indicate a contributor to leader strain (i.e., “bottom-up” incivility), which presents a potentially valuable addition to leadership training and interventions.

As an exploratory control variable, core-self evaluations (CSE) demonstrated notable impacts on the main findings when included in the models. That is, when taking into consideration a leader’s own stable evaluation of their worth, subordinate incivility no longer had a significant influence on explicit negative affect, as well as on explicit positive affect via relatedness needs frustration and competence needs frustration. Changes in the relationship between incivility and affect with the inclusion of CSE may

indicate CSE is an explanatory variable. However, the results only became marginally significant (i.e., a p value slightly above .05 and confidence intervals that nearly excluded zero), which may indicate that the inclusion of CSE in the models absorbed the limited degrees of freedom in my small sample, thus rendering the results non-significant. As well, theoretically, CSE likely overlaps substantially with competence due to its focus on self-esteem and self-efficacy, and relatedness due to its demonstrated importance on how leaders appraise the quality of their relationship with their subordinates (e.g., Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles, & Walker, 2007). Some researchers (e.g., Spector, Zapf, Chen, & Frese, 2000) argue that variables such as CSE that demonstrate meaningful relationships with the variables of interest should not be controlled. Otherwise, rather than removing bias (as is the intention when controlling for variables), one is potentially removing the true variance of the variables of interest (Spector et al., 2000). In the current research, the impact of including CSE on the significance of key findings should be interpreted with consideration of the possibility that substantive effects of subordinate incivility on leader well-being were unduly impacted with the inclusion of a leader's own evaluation of their worth. Future research should explore the relationship between subordinate incivility and CSE on leader well-being outcomes in more detail.

Participants also reported low negative affect overall, which may be due to the more intense negative emotions in the PANAS (e.g., afraid, scared, ashamed; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) that may not have been precisely measuring the type of negative affect one would expect single-encounter incivility to elicit. That is, due to the ambiguous and low-intensity nature of incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), a measure that

captured lower-intensity negative affect may have captured more variance in emotion elicited by incivility. Future research should consider employing the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (Katwyk et al., 2000), which measures a wider range of emotional arousal than the PANAS.

Task difficulty may also have contributed to competence needs frustration, such that if the participant found the task extremely difficult (e.g., no experience in writing research proposals, completing a university degree that has little writing involved), they may have also reported higher competence needs frustration when also paired with an uncivil employee who was enhancing the difficulty in completing the task within the time constraints. This may be particularly relevant for non-Caucasians if English was their second language, perhaps providing an additional explanation for the unexpected findings of leader race with regard to positive affect. In contrast, if the participant found the task extremely easy, their competence may not have been as impacted by subordinate incivility because they felt confident in their ability to complete the task solo. In the current research, data was not collected regarding task difficulty or English language skills. Therefore, it remains unknown whether task difficulty may have bolstered the effects observed for competence needs frustration. Future research should take into consideration this contextual variable.

It is also possible that I drew a particular sample of participants who felt confident in their leadership abilities to begin with, thus introducing a sample bias. That is, recruitment may have drawn those who thought they could successfully execute a leadership role, therefore perhaps overestimating the effects of subordinate incivility on

leader well-being for the general population. However, this likely does not greatly compromise the external validity of my findings, as one would expect that those stepping into leadership roles have some level of confidence in their ability to succeed in the role.

In terms of external validity, there is a concern with laboratory experiments that the artificial nature depletes the generalizability of the research findings. In designing the current study, I went to great lengths to ensure the leadership simulation was as realistic as possible. For example, I utilized an occupational database in designing the experimental roles and study materials, I told participants they were selected as leaders based on selection tests (i.e., their personality and their performance on a test battery), and I utilized email as it is a typical medium of communication between leaders and subordinates. While it is still a select population of university students in a laboratory environment, the intricate design of the experimental procedure supports a leader simulation that mimics (as much as possible) real-world selection of leaders and leadership tasks. Nevertheless, I did not assess whether the simulation led participants to be immersed in the study and feel like leaders (i.e., whether I achieved experimental realism), which calls into question whether participants truly experienced the subordinate incivility. Thus, future research should assess experimental realism and also measure leadership belongingness (i.e., feelings of comfort, worth, and belongingness in their leadership role; Ratcliff & Vescio, 2017) prior to the experimental manipulation.

Future Research Directions

Given that leaders in my study were rejected by members of their in-group (i.e., a subordinate of the same gender and race), future research may wish to explore leader

reactions to uncivil employees from their out-groups (i.e., subordinates of different genders and races). This would highlight whether relatedness needs frustration, for example, was indeed bolstered by in-group rejection. Based on in- and out-group rejection literatures (e.g., Bernstein et al., 2010; Schmitt, Branscombe, Kobrynowicz, & Owen, 2002), incivility from outgroups (i.e., subordinates of a different gender and race) would likely more negatively impact leader well-being if the leader is a member of a historically disadvantaged group (e.g., females; Schmitt et al., 2002), or if the leader has strong ties to their social group (e.g., ethnicity, gender; Bernstein et al., 2010).

Further, given the unexpected finding that competence needs frustration significantly mediated the impact of incivility on positive and negative affect for males only, as noted earlier, future research should investigate whether a leader's own prior expectations of success before taking on the leadership role (e.g., the expected quality of interactions with subordinates) acts as a moderator on the impact of subordinate incivility on leader well-being through competence needs frustration. Such research would isolate the effect of a leader's own expectations on their reactions to incivility in predicting their well-being, testing the possible explanation that males stepped into the leadership role with greater expectations of success and therefore had a lower threshold from which their competence could be thwarted.

While this research demonstrates a nuanced understanding of how male and female leaders internally respond to incivility, future research may also wish to explore gender differences in *external* responses to uncivil subordinates. In particular, future research could assess differences in how male and female leaders respond (i.e., email

back) to the uncivil subordinates, both in terms of their communication style (e.g., personal consideration, disregard for the subordinate) and the type of feedback provided to the subordinate (e.g., supportive, vague). In particular, future research should examine whether subordinate incivility may trigger an incivility spiral (i.e., an escalation of incivility that produces more negative behaviour and outcomes for targets and perpetrators; Andersson & Pearson, 1999), potentially leading to higher intensity uncivil or aggressive responses to the subordinate from the leader. Given that male leaders' competence was more thwarted by uncivil behaviour than females leading to poorer well-being outcomes, research supports that male leaders may be more likely to perpetuate more incivility (e.g., Porath et al., 2008).

In addition to responding to uncivil behaviour with more incivility, leaders who are treated uncivilly by their subordinates may attempt to retaliate against this behavior by derogating the subordinate on, for example, their performance and physical attractiveness. That is, leaders treated uncivilly may derogate uncivil subordinates as having poor performance and being physically unattractive, allowing them to release tension and therefore lessen the needs frustration of their competence and relatedness. Thus, as suggested by one of my committee members¹⁵, future research may wish to consider whether leader ratings of subordinate performance and attractiveness are serial mediators, based on a motivation to penalize (Parks-Stamm, Heilman, & Hearn, 2008).

¹⁵ I would like to thank my committee member, Dr. Lucie Kocum, for this future research direction.

Conclusion

Through a laboratory experiment, the current research supports that leader well-being is impacted by disrespectful treatment from subordinates, and that this effect may be explained by greater frustration to belongingness needs. This research also demonstrates that there are notable gender differences in how leaders internally respond to “bottom-up” incivility, with incivility more strongly impacting male leaders’ well-being via higher feelings of thwarted competence, while female leaders experienced lower frustration to competence needs as a result of incivility. As such, the current research highlights the value of investigating the well-being of male and female leaders via subordinate incivility, with an appreciation for the differential experiences of each gender. Although tentative, the current research also suggests possible differences in incivility experiences as a function of leader race, in particular with regards to diminished positive affect resulting from incivility, as well as frustration of relatedness needs.

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Appendix A

Email Scripts for Communication with Participants Regarding Study Times

Initial email to participant:

Hello,

Thank you for participating in the first phase of my study exploring the outcomes of a virtual workspace between a manager and their employee. I greatly appreciate your investment in my research.

I have reviewed your responses to the time 1 questionnaire, and based on your test battery scores and your personality profile, you have great leadership potential. Thus, I have selected you to be a leader in the laboratory experiment.

[non-SONA version]: Given your provided availability, I have scheduled you for ***insert***. We will meet at my supervisor's lab (Dr. Camilla Holmvall, MM319) and walk to the experimental room together from there. **Please reply to this email ASAP** to confirm that you are able to come in for this time slot.

[SONA version]: I would like to set up a time for you to come in and complete the simulation component of the study. Please let me know what day and times work best for you from the following options:

List options here

Please let me know as soon as possible so that I can book the experimental room.

Thanks again and I look forward to seeing you soon,

Rhea Paskel Boettcher
MSc Candidate in Applied Psychology (Industrial/Organizational Psychology)
Saint Mary's University
Halifax, Nova Scotia

Appendix B

Time 2 Procedure Timeline

1. Participants arrive
2. Informed consent obtained with signed sheet
3. Study briefing (i.e., storyline, tasks/activities, time frame, prize for top-five teams)
4. Participant has picture taken
5. Picture uploaded onto SMU email account by researcher while participant reviews position description, firm mission statement, and client brief
6. Participant instructed how to use email/computer
7. Participant encouraged to provide feedback to subordinate first once their email arrives
8. Participant told researcher is going to go tell the subordinate their leader is here

Researcher leaves and manipulation begins

9. **Manipulation Part 1:** Approximately two minutes after leaving participant, subordinate (AKA researcher) sends participant client summary with (un)civil email. Participant (hopefully) responds with feedback.
10. **Manipulation Part 2:** Approximately two minutes later, second (un)civil email sent from researcher to participant that:
 - Comments on quality of feedback
 - Promises second draft of client summary (so participant thinks experiment will continue)
 - Asks a question so participant can respond (ensuring to researcher the participant read the email)
 - If the participant does not respond, the researcher will interrupt the participant five minutes after the second email was sent

Manipulation ends and researcher returns

11. **Researcher interrupts with IPANAT**, pitched to participant as a word association task. Participant is given five minutes to complete it.
12. **Researcher comes to collect IPANAT, and provides participant with outcome measures**, pitched as a check in during the experimental session with how the leader-subordinate interaction is going. Participant is given 10 minutes to complete the measures.

Researcher leaves and returns 10 minutes later

13. Researcher takes the outcome measures and immediately provides participant with probing questions for general suspicion, cast to the participant as a way for researcher to get a sense of how the experiment is going so far. Researcher waits in room until participant is finished.

14. Participant is instructed the experiment is now over and is debriefed
15. Participant completes positive mood task
16. Participant is thanked.

Appendix C

Task Documents for Participant

Position Description

You will be acting as a Market Research Manager for the large market research firm in Atlantic Canada, Richardson Atlantic Inc. Basically, your firm has companies come to them and ask for assistance in finding out as much as possible about consumers who may be interested in their products. As a Market Research Manager, you take the lead on drafting market research proposals for potential clients, present these proposals to potential clients, direct the research projects themselves by supervising members on your team and having the final say on all project related matters, and presenting findings to your clients.

As a Market Research Manager, you have Market Research Assistants who report directly to you, and assist you in drafting proposals, conducting research, and writing market research reports. This is the role of the other participant who will be working with you in this study.

Market Research Firm Mission Statement

Your Market Research Firm: Richardson Atlantic Inc.

Richardson Atlantic Inc. is a full-service market research firm located in Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada. We have been proudly serving the research and marketing needs of our high profile clients since 2001. We are a dedicated and passionate team of researchers and marketing professionals that are highly specialized in the needs and desires of the Atlantic Canadian consumer. As East Coasters ourselves, we are the best choice for understanding East Coast consumerism, from our gasoline use to our holiday shopping trends to our favourite places to eat.

We are truly passionate about our work, and that makes us passionate about your work, too. We understand the investment it requires to build a business and keep it going, and our goal is to provide you with the market research information that will continue to support your growth, locally, nationally, or internationally.

Client Brief

Vegan Express

Company name: Vegan Express

Number of employees: 75

Country of origin: Canadian

Business: chain of vegan fast food restaurants (i.e., fast food that does not include any animal by-products, no meat, dairy, eggs, or honey)

Background: founded in 2013 by two sisters after a weekend road trip to Las Vegas, who struggled to find vegan options on the road.

Mission: to provide healthy and indulgent on-the-go vegan options

Products: Vegan drive-thru style foods, e.g., veggie burgers, poutine, chili fries, burritos, vegan ice-cream sundaes and milkshakes.

Locations: two in Eastern Canada, one in Ontario

Market Research Needs

- Interested in opening restaurants in Atlantic Canadian university cafeterias
- Need to know whether Vegan Express is likely to succeed in university environments and be popular with Atlantic Canadian university students.
- Please prepare for us a proposal that outlines how you would go about getting us the information about a potential market for vegan fast food in university cafeterias.

Market Research Proposal Template

I. Client Summary *Completed by a Market Research Assistant*

Summarize the client's business and why your firm is the best choice for their market research needs.

You must include

- the client's company name
- the number of employees at the client's business
- the client's type of business
- the background of when and how the client's company started
- the client's company's mission
- the client's locations
- A description of the client's products
- Why your firm is a good choice (*tip*: it is usually helpful to review the mission statement of the firm to address this)

II. Suggested Research Approach

Describe your research strategy for getting the information the client desires by answering the following questions:

Participants

- Who will be participants in your research (e.g., students, shoppers at a mall, university professors)?
- How many participants will you try to get?

Methodology

- Which of the following methods will you use to gather information (please pick one): surveys, group interviews, or individual interviews?
- Where will your research take place (e.g., at a mall, at universities, at your offices)?

III. Timing

Address how long you think this project will take to complete. This is an estimate, and is subject to change based on the client's needs and the availability of the firm.

Additional requirements of the proposal

Typically delegated to Market Research Assistants

1. Come up with a name for the project. Be sure to include this as the title for the proposal.

2. Create a title page for the proposal, with the project's title, the client's name, and the current date. This should be visually appealing, as it is the first thing the client will see.

Appendix D
Client Summary from “Subordinate”

Note: this client summary will be sent to participants in both conditions (i.e., uncivil and civil)

Creation of the client summary: The client summary was first written by the principal researcher, and edited using a client summary produced by a Saint Mary’s University undergraduate student under realistic time limitations of the experiment. The Saint Mary’s University undergraduate student wrote the client summary using the study materials (i.e., mission statement, client brief, and market research proposal template) in 8 minutes. We then used their version of the client summary to make the one provided to participants more realistic.

Use in the experiment: This client summary is sent in the first (un)civil email to participants. It is not meant to be perfect; it is meant to be flawed so that participants will be able to provide feedback. In particular, it has a few spelling mistakes, it is not very well organized, and it is missing information that is indicated as required in the proposal template. Information that is missing from this client summary that is required as indicated by the proposal template: the number of employees at Vegan Express, their locations and a description of Vegan Express’ products.

Below is what will be sent to participants from their “subordinate”:

At Richardson Atlantic Inc. we like our jobs. Because of this, we are passionate about what our clients do. We are from Atlantic Canada. we understand Atlantic Canadians better than anyone in the whole wide world.

Vegan Express is a Canadian vegan fast food store, came up by two sisters after a weekend road trip to Las Vegas, without any vegan food options. Their mission is to provide quick, healthy, and good animal free food options for everyone who likes fast food.

Vegan Express doesn’t have any meat, dairy, eggs, or honey in there foods. they love all animals and want to protect them.

Vegan Express wants to expand their business to universities all around Canada. They want to open food places in university cafeterias because they think university students will like their food.

That’s why they came to us. They want our firm to look at whether university students might pay for vegan fast food. They have come to our firm to ask us to come up with ideas of how to ask university students if they would eat vegan fast food. We are so happy they did and are excited to be starting this with them

Appendix E

Uncivil and Civil Emails

Note: Uncivil and civil emails were created using items from Cortina and colleagues (2001; e.g., addressed you in unprofessional terms) and Martin and Hine (2005; e.g., used an inappropriate tone when speaking to you).

| Subordinate Emails to Leader <i>For civil emails: Insert participant name</i> | | |
|---|--|--|
| Email | | |
| | Uncivil | Civil |
| 1 Sends client summary | Here. I've included everything it said I needed in the proposal template so I doubt you'll have any feedback for me. "insert summary here" | Hi (name of participant), The client summary is below. I think I have incorporated all the information it said was required in the proposal template, but any feedback would be great! "insert summary here" Thanks, Taylor |

| | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|---|
| <p>2</p> <p>Comments on feedback</p> | <p>I skimmed your feedback and it isn't good. Probably won't be very helpful in creating the revised version. Guess I'm going to have to do it anyways. Starting that now.</p> <p>You should tell me what I will be doing after because I don't want to feel rushed. What's after the client summary?</p> | <p>Hi (name of participant),</p> <p>I looked at your feedback and it is great! I think it will be very helpful for creating the second draft. I am going to get started on a revised version now.</p> <p>Also, would you be able to let me know what I will be doing after the client summary? I just don't want to be rushed in my work.</p> <p>Thanks, Taylor</p> |
|--------------------------------------|---|---|

Appendix F

N Per Condition, Broken Down by Race and Gender

| | Males | | Females | |
|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|
| | <i>Civil</i> | <i>Uncivil</i> | <i>Civil</i> | <i>Uncivil</i> |
| <i>Race</i> | | | | |
| Caucasian | 11 | 6 | 13 | 15 |
| Non-Caucasian | 11 | 17 | 18 | 17 |

Note. $N = 108$. One participant did not indicate their race.

Appendix G

Interactive Effects Between Condition, Gender and Extraneous Variables

| Predictor | Outcome | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|----|----------|----------|----|----------|-----------------|----|----------|----------|----|----------|------------|----|----------|-------------|----|----------|--|
| | Positive Affect | | | | | | Negative Affect | | | | | | Competence | | | Relatedness | | | |
| | Explicit | | | Implicit | | | Explicit | | | Implicit | | | F | df | η^2 | F | df | η^2 | |
| | F | df | η^2 | F | df | η^2 | F | df | η^2 | F | df | η^2 | F | df | η^2 | F | df | η^2 | |
| Room | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | 11.68** | 1 | .11 | 1.45 | 1 | .02 | 11.55*** | 1 | .11 | .23 | 1 | .002 | 3.77 | 1 | .04 | 113.49*** | 1 | .54 | |
| Gender | 1.37 | 1 | .01 | .42 | 1 | .004 | .75 | 1 | .008 | 1.30 | 1 | .01 | .01 | 1 | .00 | .11 | 1 | .001 | |
| Room | 1.56 | 2 | .03 | 1.82 | 2 | .04 | .40 | 2 | .009 | .10 | 2 | .002 | .06 | 2 | .001 | .06 | 2 | .001 | |
| Gender x Room | .27 | 2 | .006 | .92 | 2 | .02 | 1.38 | 2 | .03 | 2.30 | 2 | .05 | .53 | 2 | .01 | 1.17 | 2 | .02 | |
| Gender x Condition | .81 | 1 | .008 | 2.60 | 1 | .03 | 7.00** | 1 | .07 | .14 | 1 | .001 | 9.72 | 1 | .09 | .51 | 1 | .005 | |
| Room x Condition | .50 | 2 | .01 | 1.91 | 2 | .04 | 2.13 | 2 | .04 | .25 | 2 | .005 | 1.91 | 2 | .04 | 2.53 | 2 | .05 | |
| Condition x Gender x Room | .74 | 2 | .02 | .11 | 2 | .002 | .57 | 2 | .01 | .53 | 2 | .01 | 1.43 | 2 | .03 | .27 | 2 | .006 | |
| Recruitment Method | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | 12.67*** | 1 | .11 | .58 | 1 | .006 | 4.59* | 1 | .05 | .07 | 1 | .001 | 2.23 | 1 | .02 | 104.76*** | 1 | .51 | |
| Gender | 3.61 | 1 | .04 | .02 | 1 | .00 | .05 | 1 | .00 | 1.27 | 1 | .01 | .53 | 1 | .005 | .15 | 1 | .001 | |
| Recruitment Method | .84 | 1 | .008 | .84 | 1 | .009 | 1.17 | 1 | .01 | .40 | 1 | .004 | 1.56 | 1 | .02 | .72 | 1 | .007 | |
| Gender x Condition | .01 | 1 | .00 | 1.68 | 1 | .02 | 4.39 | 1 | .04 | .00 | 1 | .00 | 3.58 | 1 | .04 | .82 | 1 | .008 | |
| Recruitment Method x Condition | .64 | 1 | .006 | .04 | 1 | .00 | .06 | 1 | .001 | .14 | 1 | .001 | .54 | 1 | .005 | 7.76** | 1 | .07 | |

| UNCIVIL SUBORDINATES | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|------|---|-----|------|---|-----|------|---|-----|-----|---|------|-----|---|------|-----|-----|------|------|
| Gender x Recruitment Method | 1.02 | 1 | .01 | 1.30 | 1 | .01 | .004 | 1 | .00 | .08 | 1 | .001 | .50 | 1 | .005 | .32 | 139 | 1 | .003 |
| Condition x Gender x Recruitment Method | .53 | 1 | .01 | .008 | 1 | .00 | .00 | 1 | .00 | .02 | 1 | .00 | .10 | 1 | .001 | .23 | 1 | .002 | |

Note. Explicit positive affect: $N = 107$. Implicit positive affect: $N = 106$. Explicit negative affect: $N = 105$. Implicit negative affect: $N = 106$. Competence needs frustration: $N = 108$. Relatedness needs frustration: $N = 108$. Analyzed by conducting three-way factorial ANOVAs to assess extraneous variable interactions with condition (0 = civil, 1 = uncivil) and gender (0 = male, 1 = female). Implicit affect measured by the IPANAT. Explicit affect measured by the PANAS. Extraneous variables: room (coded 1 = MN519, 2 = MM326, and 3 = MM320) and recruitment method (1 = SONA bonus points, 2 = non-SONA bonus points). η^2 = partial eta-squared. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix H

Results of Moderated Regressions for Covariates

| <i>Predictor</i> | <i>Positive Affect</i> | | | | <i>Negative Affect</i> | | | | <i>Competence NF</i> | | <i>Relatedness NF</i> | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|------------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------|
| | Explicit | | Implicit | | Explicit | | Implicit | | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | | | | |
| Race | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | .03 | .41 | .20 | .28 | .73* | .26 | -.10 | .22 | 1.26* | .63 | 3.96*** | .66 |
| Race | 1.09*** | .35 | .60* | .24 | -.05 | .22 | -.01 | .19 | -.38 | .53 | .12 | .55 |
| Gender | .60 | .33 | .30 | .23 | .06 | .21 | -.12 | .18 | .39 | .51 | -.68 | .53 |
| Condition x Race | -1.52*** | .52 | -.35 | .35 | -.22 | .32 | .16 | .28 | -.18 | .79 | -1.77* | .83 |
| Condition x Gender | -.50 | .51 | -.50 | .35 | -.44 | .32 | .02 | .28 | -1.57* | .79 | -.04 | .82 |
| Race x Gender | -.93* | .45 | -.42 | .31 | .47 | .29 | .00 | .25 | .40 | .70 | .26 | .73 |
| Condition x Race x Gender | 1.40* | .66 | .35 | .45 | -.35 | .42 | -.06 | .36 | .11 | 1.01 | .22 | 1.06 |
| Neuroticism | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | -.93* | .33 | .13 | .22 | .46* | .20 | .10 | .17 | .90 | .49 | 2.38*** | .53 |
| Neuroticism | .12 | .37 | .18 | .25 | .21 | .23 | .08 | .19 | .23 | .56 | .33 | .61 |
| Gender | .11 | .30 | -.03 | .20 | .16 | .19 | -.21 | .16 | .42 | .46 | -.89 | .49 |
| Condition x Neuroticism | -.31 | .60 | .42 | .40 | -.19 | .37 | .46 | .31 | -.36 | .90 | -1.00 | .97 |
| Condition x Gender | .53 | .40 | -.31 | .27 | -.48 | .25 | -.07 | .21 | -1.26* | .60 | .74 | .64 |
| Gender x Neuroticism | -.23 | .46 | .00 | .31 | .00 | .29 | .10 | .24 | .01 | .70 | .42 | .76 |
| Condition x Gender x Neuroticism | -.33 | .70 | -.93* | .47 | .20 | .43 | -.68 | .36 | .46 | 1.06 | 1.00 | 1.14 |
| CSE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Condition | -.84*** | .26 | .03 | .18 | .45* | .16 | .00 | .14 | .59 | .37 | 2.33*** | .42 |
| Gender | .08 | .24 | .00 | .17 | .23 | .15 | -.13 | .13 | .30 | .34 | -.75 | .39 |
| CSE | -.36 | .24 | -.37 | .27 | -.40 | .24 | .00 | .21 | -1.20* | .54 | -.90 | .62 |

UNCIVIL SUBORDINATES

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|------|-----|------|-----|-------|-----|------|-----|------|-----|------|------|
| Condition x Gender | .29 | .33 | -.32 | .23 | -.46* | .21 | -.03 | .18 | -.90 | .47 | .79 | .54 |
| Condition x CSE | .82 | .50 | .62 | .35 | .21 | .31 | -.11 | .27 | -.20 | .70 | -.30 | .80 |
| Gender x CSE | .72 | .55 | .01 | .38 | -.01 | .34 | -.04 | .30 | .23 | .77 | -.12 | .88 |
| Condition x Gender x CSE | -.42 | .71 | -.03 | .49 | -.06 | .43 | .15 | .38 | .72 | .99 | .72 | 1.13 |

Note. Explicit positive affect: $N = 107$. Implicit positive affect: $N = 106$. Explicit negative affect: $N = 105$. Implicit negative affect: $N = 106$. Competence needs frustration: $N = 108$. Relatedness needs frustration: $N = 108$. Moderated regressions tested with Model 3 of PROCESS Macro (a model that allows for multiple moderators), with bootstrapping tests for significance (5000 samples at 95% confidence interval). Condition is dummy coded (0 = civil, 1 = uncivil). Implicit affect is measured by the IPANAT. Explicit affect is measured by the PANAS. Race is dummy coded (0 = Caucasian, 1 = Non-Caucasian). CSE = core self-evaluation. All continuous covariates are mean-centered. B = unstandardized regression coefficient. SE = standard error. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix I

Two-Way Interaction between Condition and Recruitment Method in Predicting Relatedness Needs Frustration

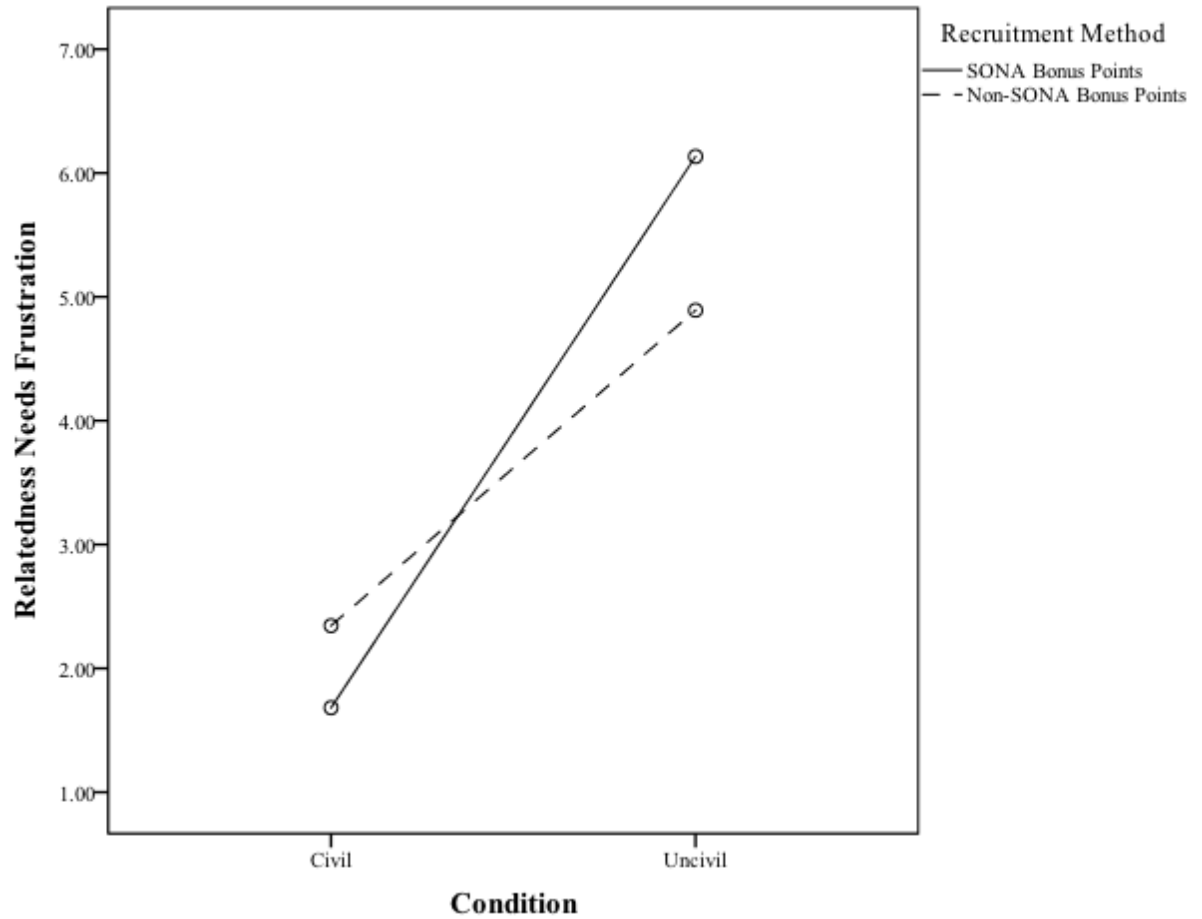


Figure 1. Two-way interaction between condition and recruitment method in predicting relatedness needs frustration. Tested with a two-way factorial ANOVA.

Appendix J

Two-Way Interaction between Condition and Race in Predicting Relatedness Needs Frustration

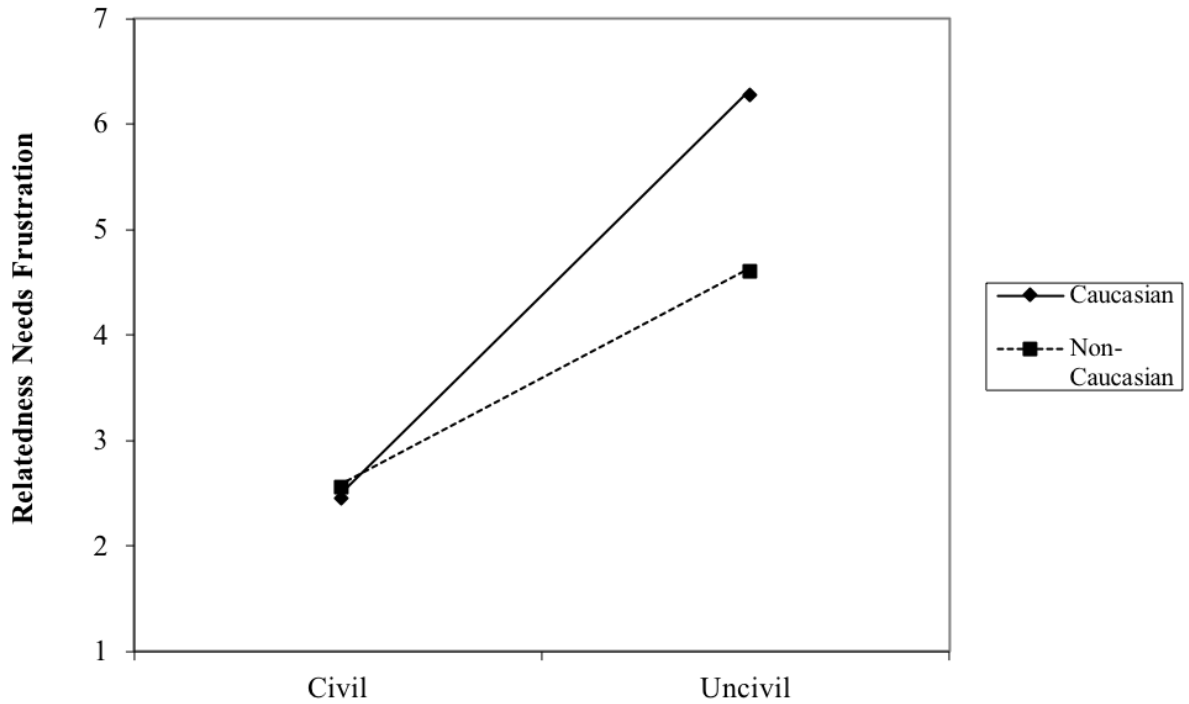


Figure 1. Two-way interaction between condition and race in predicting relatedness needs frustration. Analyzed using Model 3 of Process Macro.

Appendix K

Three-Way Interaction between Condition, Race, and Gender in Predicting Explicit Positive Affect

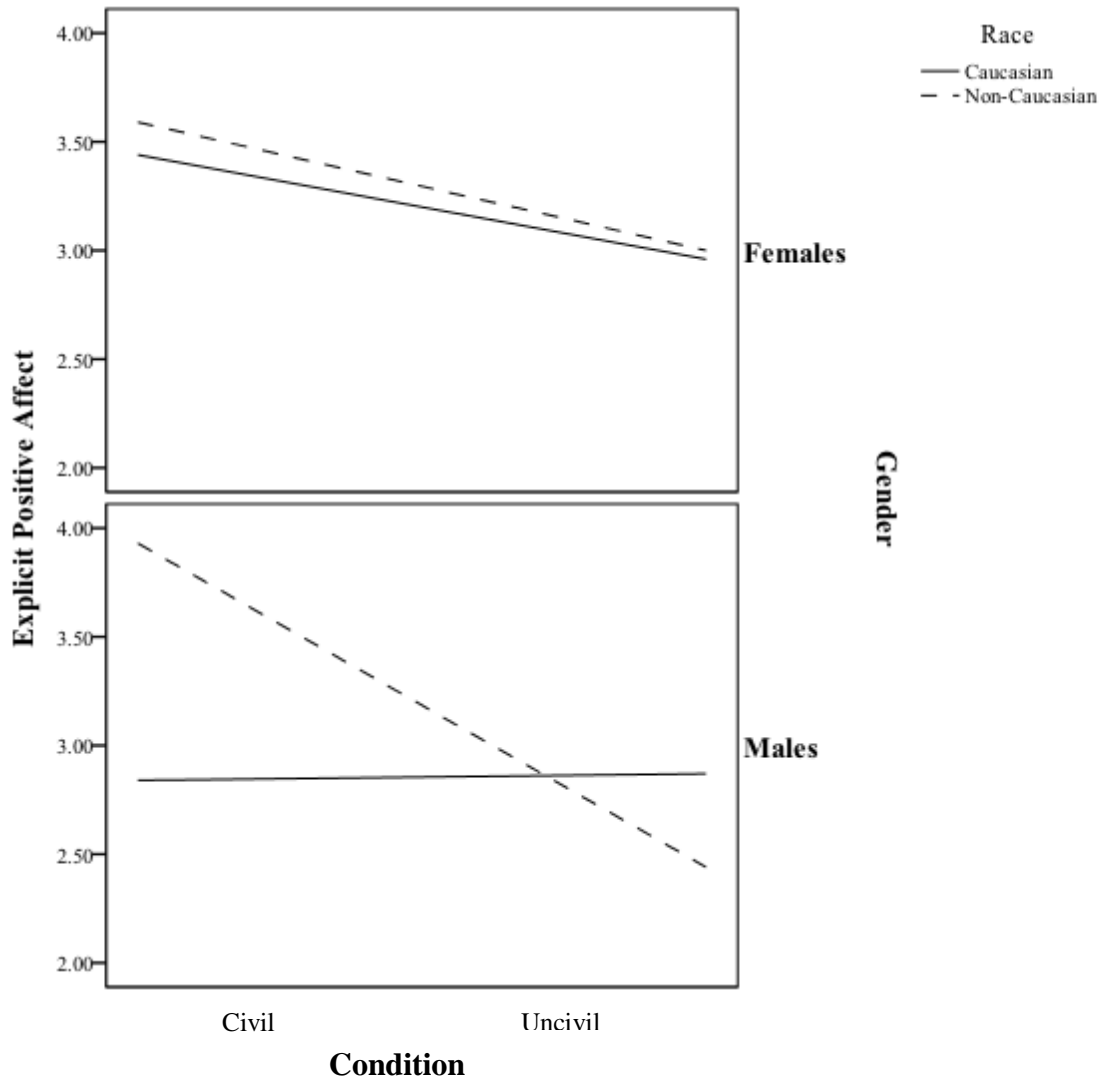


Figure 1. Three-way interaction between condition, race, and gender in predicting explicit positive affect. Analyzed with Model 3 of PROCESS Macro.

Appendix L

Three-Way Interaction between Condition, Gender, and Neuroticism in Predicting Implicit Positive Affect

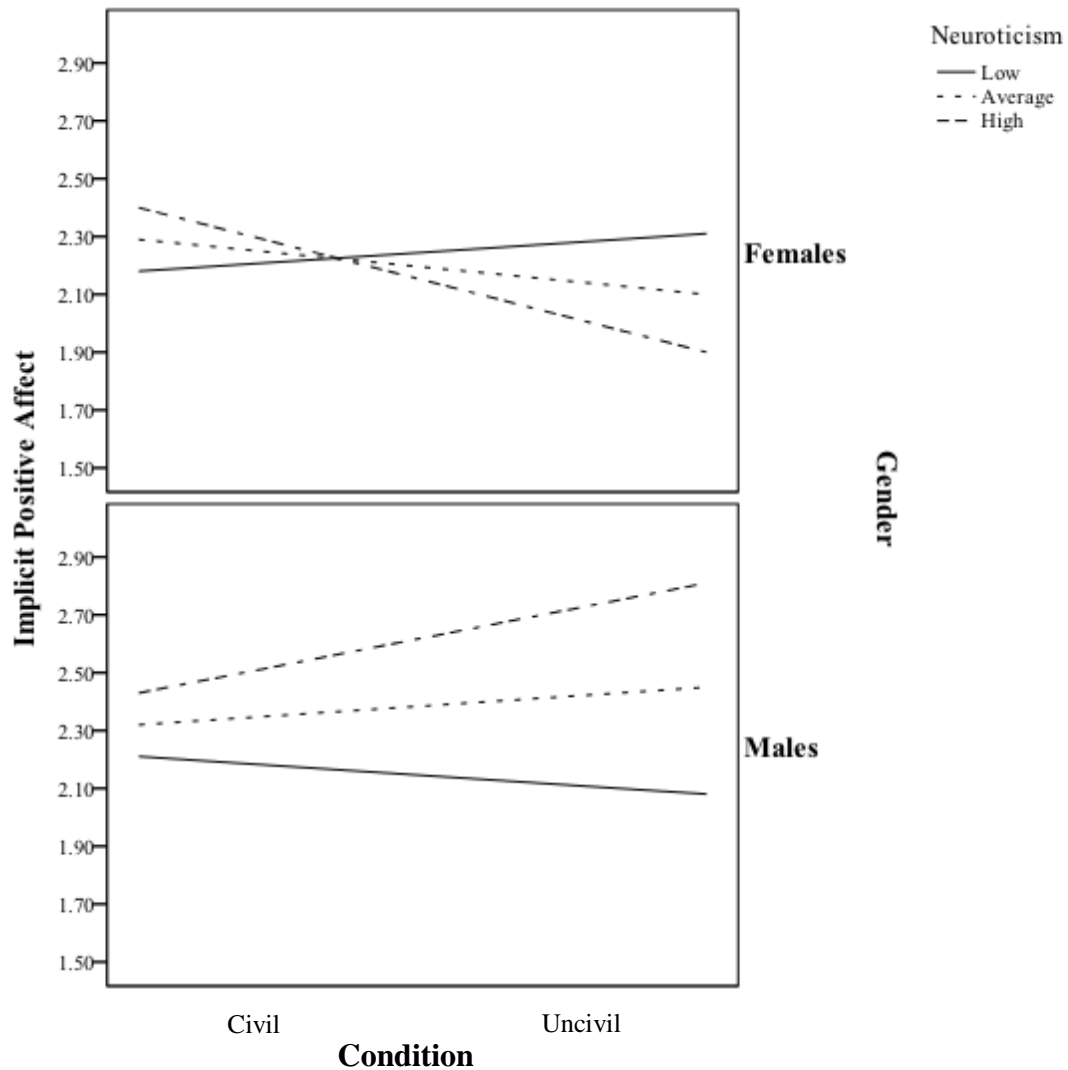


Figure 1. Visual representation of the three-way interaction between condition, gender, and neuroticism in predicting implicit positive affect. Neuroticism is mean-centered. Low = one standard deviation below mean. Average = at the mean. High = one standard deviation above the mean. Condition: 0 = civil, 1 = uncivil. Main effect of incivility is significant for females high in neuroticism ($B = -.50, SE = .17, p < .001$). Main effect of incivility is non-significant for males at all levels of neuroticism.

Appendix M**Locus of Causality Results**

Note: these are exploratory analyses and are not a formal component of the thesis. They are presented in two tables: one that displays the results for explicit and implicit positive affect, and one that displays the results for explicit and implicit negative affect. Based on attribution theory (Weiner, 1985), the hypothesis was that locus of causality would differentially mediate the relationship between subordinate incivility and well-being outcomes for males and females. In particular, female leaders were predicted to be more likely to attribute the causes of the incivility to themselves than to the subordinate or situation. I tested this hypothesis using PROCESS Macro Model 8, a moderated mediation model.

Moderated Mediation Results with LOC Mediator on Positive Affect

| <i>Predictor</i> | <i>Explicit Affect</i> | | | | <i>Implicit Affect</i> | | | |
|--|------------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------|------------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------|
| | LOC | | Positive Affect | | LOC | | Positive Affect | |
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| Condition | -.91* | .45 | -.83** | .26 | -.78 | .45 | .12 | .17 |
| Gender | .09 | .41 | .14 | .24 | .22 | .41 | .09 | .16 |
| Condition x Gender | -.67 | .59 | .33 | .34 | -.98 | .58 | -.31 | .23 |
| LOC | - | - | .03 | .06 | - | - | .07 | .04 |
| R-squared | .18*** | | .17** | | .21*** | | .08 | |
| Conditional Indirect Effects of LOC | | | | | | | | |
| MM Index | -.02 | | | | -.07 | | | |
| BootSE | .07 | | | | .07 | | | |
| BootLLCI | -.21 | | | | -.26 | | | |
| BootULCI | .06 | | | | .01 | | | |

Note. Explicit positive affect: $N = 106$. Implicit positive affect: $N = 104$. Model 8 of PROCESS Macro. Independent variable: condition, 1= uncivil, 0 = civil. Moderator: Gender, 0 = male, 1= female. Mediator: Locus of Causality (LOC), with higher values indicating subordinate's communication is more attributable to the leader themselves (internal) versus external reasons (i.e., situation, subordinate). Cronbach's alpha = .72. B = unstandardized coefficients. SE = standard error. MM = moderated mediation. Boot = Bootstrapped at 5000 samples, 95% confidence interval. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Moderated mediation statistics are only computed for main (affect) outcomes. Results demonstrated that leaders in the uncivil condition (versus the civil condition) attributed the subordinates' incivility less to themselves and more to the subordinates. This model was retested with core self-evaluations as a control variable and no meaningful differences (i.e., significance test changes) were found.

Moderated Mediation Results with LOC Mediator on Negative Affect

| <i>Predictor</i> | <i>Explicit Affect</i> | | | | <i>Implicit Affect</i> | | | |
|--|------------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------|------------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------|
| | LOC | | Negative Affect | | LOC | | Negative Affect | |
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| Condition | -.74 | .47 | .53*** | .16 | -.78 | .45 | .001 | .13 |
| Gender | .11 | .43 | .32 | .15 | .22 | .41 | -.12 | .12 |
| Condition x Gender | -.83 | .61 | -.53 | .20 | -.98 | .58 | -.06 | .18 |
| LOC | - | - | .01 | .03 | - | - | -.02 | .03 |
| R-squared | .17*** | | .11* | | .21*** | | .03 | |
| Conditional Indirect Effects of LOC | | | | | | | | |
| MM Index | -.01 | | | | | | .02 | |
| BootSE | .04 | | | | | | .03 | |
| BootLLCI | -.10 | | | | | | -.05 | |
| BootULCI | .05 | | | | | | .09 | |

Note. Explicit negative affect: $N = 104$. Implicit negative affect: $N = 104$. Model 8 of PROCESS Macro. Independent variable: condition, 1= uncivil, 0 = civil. Moderator: Gender, 0 = male, 1= female. Mediator: Locus of Causality (LOC), with higher values indicating subordinate's communication is more attributable to the leader themselves (internal) versus external reasons (i.e., situation, subordinate). Cronbach's alpha = .72. B = unstandardized coefficients. SE = standard error. MM = moderated mediation. Boot = Bootstrapped at 5000 samples, 95% confidence interval. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Moderated mediation statistics are only computed for main (affect) outcomes. This model was retested with core self-evaluations as a control variable and no meaningful differences (i.e., significance test changes) were found.