3-4-2021

An "I" for an "I" : A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Instigated and Reciprocal Incivility

Lauren Sarah Park
Portland State University

Recommended Citation
Park, Lauren Sarah, "An "I" for an "I" : A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Instigated and Reciprocal Incivility" (2021). *Dissertations and Theses.* Paper 5654.
https://doi.org/10.15760/etd.7526

An “I” for an “I”: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Instigated and Reciprocal Incivility

by

Lauren Sarah Park

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Applied Psychology

Dissertation Committee:
Joel S. Steele, Chair
Larry R. Martinez, Co-Chair
Todd Bodner
Liu-Qin Yang
Hyeyoung Woo

Portland State University
2021

Abstract

Workplace incivility and its negative impacts on individuals, teams, and organizations have been widely studied. However, the literature lacks a comprehensive understanding of incivility from the instigator's perspective. The purpose of this dissertation was to demonstrate a set of meta-analytic relationships with instigated incivility to understand what individual, interpersonal, and organizational factors facilitate or prevent incivility instigation. Additionally, this work aimed to empirically test moderating effects of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, elucidating the conditions under which targets of incivility are more or less likely to instigate incivility in turn. This meta-analysis included 35,344 workers from 76 independent samples. Results showed that instigated incivility was related to several correlates including psychological ill-being, ρ = .37, and well-being, ρ = -.17; physical well-being, ρ = -.25; personal dispositions that are risk factors, ρ = .47, and preventative factors, ρ = -.34; negative, ρ = .28, and positive, ρ = -.33, job attitudes; positive team characteristics, ρ = -.28; job demands, ρ = .10; and experienced, ρ = .61, and observed, ρ = .58, incivility. Moderator analyses showed that the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility was weaker for older participants and under conditions of greater job control and work group civility, and that the instrument used to measure instigated incivility had no impact on the strength of effects. This study contributes to the existing literature by synthesizing findings from past work and identifying areas for future work. These findings also have important practical implications for the development and implementation of incivility interventions.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my dissertation committee members, Dr. Joel S. Steele, Dr. Larry R. Martinez, Dr. Todd Bodner, Dr. Liu-Qin Yang, and Dr. Hyeyoung Woo for their helpful guidance and feedback at every stage of this dissertation project. This endeavor would not have been possible without the outstanding efforts of my meta-analytic coding assistants Juliane Bauer, Kayleen Bettencourt, Lane Cooper, Zach Hesson, Albert Shiue, and Drew Sinclair.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my mentors, Dr. Steele and Dr. Martinez. Dr. Steele, your enthusiasm for knowledge and sharing it with others is infectious and an endless source of inspiration to me. Dr. Martinez, your steadfast encouragement and guidance throughout my graduate school career has been foundational to my development as a professional and a scholar. I am fortunate to have two excellent advisors whose mentorship combined is far greater than the sum of its parts.

Thank you to the Portland State University psychology faculty, staff, and graduate students for providing a community in which I have grown both personally and professionally.

Finally, I would like to thank my partner, family, and friends, who have enthusiastically supported me in my academic pursuits.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Introduction

Incivility is pervasive in workplace contexts and its impact on targets has been widely studied. However, this vast body of literature has not yet come to a conclusive understanding of what contributes to instigating incivility. Moreover, the existing literature demonstrates that experiencing or observing incivility often precedes engaging in uncivil behavior oneself, but the conditions under which incivility is more or less likely to beget further incivility are yet unknown. A better understanding of the antecedents of instigated incivility and the moderators of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility has important implications for both researchers and practitioners. The purpose of this meta-analysis is to systematically review the literature that examines the instigators of workplace incivility, with a particular focus on the factors that influence instigated incivility both as an isolated incident and in response to uncivil behavior from others.

There are two primary motivations for this meta-analysis. First, there exists a need to better understand the nuances of instigation of workplace incivility and mistreatment. Existing theoretical perspectives can provide insight as to the factors that may make such instigation more likely. However, each of these theories captures only a part of the instigation process; for example, though Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) affective events theory explains why certain workplace events lead to behavior through changes in affect, it is likely that instigation of mistreatment is facilitated by not only concrete workplace events but also more static characteristics of the environment. Attempts to understand instigation with just one perspective will likely not be as comprehensive as those that

integrate multiple perspectives as they may exclude other important factors or interaction effects. As such, this study is motivated by a need to better understand the theoretical underpinnings of mistreatment instigation. To this end, I develop an integrative organizing framework of multiple theoretical perspectives that, when combined, provide a more holistic interpretation of mistreatment instigation.

The second motivation for this meta-analysis is to align the field's research agenda with the propositions put forth by Cortina and colleagues (2018) and Dalal and Sheng (2018). In these works, the authors argue that the mistreatment literature's prominent focus on the target further perpetuates the *victim precipitation hypothesis*, which proposes that targets of mistreatment, abuse, or violence invite such treatment through their own personal characteristics, actions, or inactions. According to Cortina and colleagues (2018), though use of this hypothesis has declined in the fields of criminology and political science, workplace mistreatment research in psychology has tacitly supported the notion that targets are responsible for perpetrators' behaviors by more closely examining the characteristics of the target that invite victimization than the characteristics of the instigator that cause perpetration. This focus has serious implications for organizations, most notably that perpetrators may not be held accountable for their behavior and can continue to behave in ways detrimental to individuals' and organizations' well-being. Moving away from this model, Cortina (2017) offers the *perpetrator predation* paradigm, which considers the perpetrator the agent of their own bad behavior, regardless of the characteristics or actions of the target. Dalal and Sheng (2018) support this notion, calling for greater focus on the appraisals,

motives, and characteristics of perpetrators in interpersonal mistreatment research. Though empirical work on incivility instigation is not as prominent as that of incivility experience, enough work exists to form a foundation upon which the perpetrator predation paradigm can build. A meta-analysis in particular is an advantageous way to develop this foundation. In conducting a meta-analysis of existing studies of instigation, I draw attention to the literature that has already adopted this framework and empirically test the strength of relationships between instigated incivility and a variety other constructs to provide a starting point at which future perpetrator predation work can begin.

The present meta-analysis offers three important contributions to the literature on workplace mistreatment specifically, and organizational science literature more broadly. First, though empirical examinations of incivility from the instigator's perspective are numerous enough to demonstrate commonalities among key relationships, there does not yet exist a systematic review of this literature and a set of established effect sizes between instigated incivility and its correlates. As such, the present work aims to synthesize past work and identify a series of established correlates of instigated incivility that can aid future research and inform the development and implementation of interventions to reduce incivility in the workplace.

Second, this work is the first to use meta-analytic techniques to test the propositions regarding reciprocal incivility put forth by Andersson and Pearson (1999) and Pearson et al. (2000). These pioneering works represent some of the earliest focused efforts to describe the impact of uncivil behavior in organizations and how witnessing or

experiencing incivility may beget further incivility. In particular, Andersson and Pearson (1999) identify multiple individual and situational factors that they propose will influence reciprocal incivility. The present work empirically tests these factors as moderators of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, as well as identifies other key moderators that increase the likelihood of incivility targets becoming incivility instigators. Additionally, Andersson and Pearson's (1999) concept of "departure points" within reciprocal incivility - points at which targets withdraw from the uncivil exchange and do not instigate incivility in turn - has been all but ignored in subsequent research (Cortina et al., 2017). The test of moderators of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility in the present work will identify the factors that lead to such departure, responding to Cortina et al.'s (2017) call for an investigation of departure points in the reciprocal incivility cycle.

Third and finally, the strength of meta-analytic relationships between instigated incivility and its correlates will provide evidence of the relative importance of different constructs and their interaction in influencing workplace incivility (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Understanding the likely predictors of incivility instigation and the moderators of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility can inform the level at which targeted intervention efforts may be most successful. Personal predictors may be best addressed by adapting individual-level selection procedures and team composition, and situational or contextual predictors may be best addressed by team- or organizational-level intervention.

In the following introductory sections, I will position the construct of incivility within the larger body of literature on workplace mistreatment and develop an integrative organizing framework of instigated incivility to inform the hypotheses and research questions posed in this meta-analysis. I will then discuss the process of incivility from all involved parties (i.e., targets, observers, and instigators), briefly reviewing the literature from these perspectives, and describe the concept of reciprocal incivility through the work of Andersson and Pearson (1999). Finally, I will provide a thorough review of the literature to be meta-analyzed with respect to individual and situational antecedents to instigated incivility, reciprocal incivility processes, exploratory moderator analyses, and methodological considerations (e.g., measurement instrument).

The Construct of Incivility

Workplace mistreatment has become a focal topic in workplace psychology literature (Hershcovis, 2011). This stream of research began with a focus on overtly negative behaviors, including workplace aggression, bullying, and abusive supervision, and this work continues to demonstrate the negative implications for such behaviors on individuals, groups, and organizations. However, a later topic to emerge from the overarching concept of workplace mistreatment is incivility. Compared to other forms of workplace mistreatment, uncivil behaviors at work are less intense and more ambiguous, and thus, more pervasive in organizations; Porath and Pearson (2013) estimated that 98% of workers have experienced incivility and 50% of all workers continue to experience incivility on a weekly basis.

In their formative paper on the concept of incivility, Andersson and Pearson (1999) define incivility as "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (p. 457). Subsequent scholars have adopted this exact definition of incivility or defined the construct similarly (see Cortina et al., 2017). Universal to these definitions are the concepts of *intent* and *intensity*, both of which distinguish uncivil behavior from other forms of mistreatment. Within the incivility context, *intent* refers to the instigator's, target's, or observer's perceptions of why the behavior occurred (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Uncivil behaviors are considered ambiguous in intent, a characteristic unique to the construct of incivility and necessary to differentiate uncivil behavior from other forms of mistreatment. Though an instigator may have a conscious intent to harm the target, incivility may also occur due to an unconscious intent to harm the target or as a result of ignorance or oversight. *Intensity* reflects the level of hostility or severity of a behavior. Incivility is characterized by its low intensity and is considered to be the least intense form of mistreatment (Hershcovis, 2011).

An Integrative Organizing Framework of Instigated Incivility

As there does not yet exist an overarching theory that captures the entire nomological network of workplace incivility (Schilpzand et al., 2016), the hypotheses and research questions put forth in this study were developed from multiple theoretical backgrounds in order to understand how instigated incivility may be predicted from a wide range of antecedents. Using the theoretical backgrounds that follow to develop an

integrative organizing framework, I categorize these antecedents as *risk factors* - those that are associated with greater incivility instigation - and *preventative factors* - those that are associated with less incivility instigation (see Table 1, Figure 1). In the following paragraphs, I review each of the included theories and position their different components within the risk and preventative factor organizing framework.

First, the job demands-resources model (JD-R; Demerouti et al., 2001) posits that job characteristics can be considered as job demands or job resources. Job demands are aspects of one's job that require the use of sustained effort and resources and can be psychological, social, organizational, or physical in nature. Such demands lead to physiological or psychological costs for employees. Job demands require sustained effort and resources, thus leading to fatigue and irritability, which may undermine employees' abilities to behave civilly (van Jaarsveld et al., 2010). As such, I conceptualize job demands as a risk factor in the present organizing framework. Conversely, job resources are aspects of one's job that provide support, stimulate growth, or reduce job demands. These resources mitigate the effects of job demands, contributing to better employee outcomes. The JD-R model also incorporates personal resources, or individual characteristics that afford people a sense of control over their work environment (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Because job and personal resources provide positive outcomes for employees and mitigate the effects of demands, I conceptualize these resources as preventative factors within the broader organizing framework.

Second, affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) proposes that work events interact with individual predispositions to yield specific emotional reactions.

I consider instigating incivility a negative emotional experience, as interpersonal conflict in general and incivility in particular have been shown to relate to increased negative affect and emotionality for all parties involved (e.g., Bunk & Magley, 2013; Giumetti et al., 2013; Sakurai & Jex, 2012; Totterdell et al., 2012). Work events and individual predispositions can be considered both risk and preventative factors. Within AET, work events are categorized as "uplifts" (positive events) or "hassles" (negative events). In line with AET and the literature reviewed in subsequent sections, I consider daily uplifts as preventative factors, whereas daily hassles are risk factors. Individual predispositions can also serve as risk and preventative factors; for example, a high level of trait anger would lead to greater instigated incivility (a risk factor; e.g., Manegold, 2014), whereas a high level of conscientiousness would lead to less instigated incivility (a preventative factor; e.g., Gray et al., 2017).

Third and similarly, trait activation theory (TAT; Tett & Guterman, 2000) postulates that personality traits influence work behavior through a process of trait activation. The extent to which personality traits influence work behavior is dependent on situational cues at the organizational, social, and task level. For example, though conscientiousness is related to organizational citizenship behavior (Chiaburu et al., 2011), some work has found that this relationship is mediated by organizational justice cues (Lv et al., 2012), such that employees' conscientiousness is less likely to lead to organizational citizenship behavior when they perceive injustice in their organization. The personality traits associated with instigating incivility may be more or less activated under certain situational cues. Such situational cues and personality traits can serve as

both risk and preventative factors. The situational cues proposed in TAT, however, encompass a broader set of antecedents than the affective events in AET; situational cues do not have to be discrete events, but rather, can include more general constructs such as organizational climate and culture.

Fourth and finally, the transactional model of stress (TMS; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) posits that individuals evaluate stressful work experiences as challenges or threats, which are associated with positive or negative affective experiences, respectively. These affective experiences influence how one copes with the initial stressor. As positive affective experiences have been associated with less incivility instigation in past literature (e.g., Zivnuska et al., 2020), I consider challenge perceptions and the associated positive affective experiences to be preventative factors. Conversely, as negative affective experiences have been associated with greater incivility instigation in past literature (e.g., Zhou, 2015), I consider threat perceptions and the associated negative affective experiences to be risk factors.

Incivility as a Social Process

Andersson and Pearson (1999) note that incivility is a social process that involves multiple parties: targets, observers, and instigators. As the focus of the present meta-analysis is incivility from the instigator's perspective, I briefly review empirical findings regarding targets and observers in the following sections. I review empirical findings regarding instigators and reciprocal incivility in greater depth in the Literature Review section.

Targets

The majority of literature on incivility has focused on the perspective of the target, or the victim of uncivil behavior from others. From this work, researchers have identified individual and situational antecedents to experiencing incivility with the goal of understanding what factors may lead individuals to be targeted at higher rates. A body of literature on selective incivility (Cortina et al., 2013) has demonstrated that incivility serves as a covert form of discrimination, as employees with stigmatized identities are more likely to be targeted (see McCord et al., 2018). Studies have shown that employees who are younger (Leiter et al., 2010; S. Lim & Lee, 2011), belong to a racial minority group (Cortina et al., 2013), have larger bodies (K. A. Sliter et al., 2012), are disagreeable or neurotic (Milam et al., 2009), and engage in counterproductive work behaviors (Meier & Spector, 2013) are targeted at disproportionately higher rates. Research examining contextual factors that impact the likelihood of experiencing incivility is less common than that of individual factors but has demonstrated that workgroup norms for civility (Walsh et al., 2012) and low role stressors (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012) reduce this likelihood.

A larger body of work has examined outcomes of incivility as they pertain to targets' well-being, attitudes, and behaviors. Literature has demonstrated that perceiving incivility from others is related to increased emotional labor (Adams & Webster, 2013; M. Sliter et al., 2010) and exhaustion (Kern & Grandey, 2009; M. Sliter et al., 2010), as well as symptoms of mental and physical ill-being (Adams & Webster, 2013; Cortina et al., 2001; Giumetti et al., 2013; S. Lim & Cortina, 2005; S. Lim & Lee, 2011). Relevant

to organizations, experiencing incivility has a number of negative implications for employees' job attitudes and behaviors at work. Employees who have experienced incivility are less committed to their organization (V. K. G. Lim & Teo, 2009), less motivated (Sakurai & Jex, 2012), and less satisfied with their peers (Bunk & Magley, 2013), their job (Cortina et al., 2001; S. Lim et al., 2008; S. Lim & Cortina, 2005; N. L. Wilson & Holmvall, 2013), and their lives (S. Lim & Cortina, 2005). Behaviorally, experiencing incivility can detrimentally impact in-role (Chen et al., 2013; Giumetti et al., 2013; Porath & Erez, 2007; M. Sliter et al., 2012) and extra-role (Penney & Spector, 2005; Porath & Erez, 2007; Taylor et al., 2012) performance, as well as increase absenteeism (M. Sliter et al., 2012), withdrawal behaviors (Cortina et al., 2001; S. Lim & Cortina, 2005; Martin & Hine, 2005), turnover intentions (Griffin, 2010; S. Lim et al., 2008; Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010; N. L. Wilson & Holmvall, 2013), and actual turnover (Porath & Pearson, 2012).

Of particular importance to the present study is the likelihood of targets of incivility to enact incivility in turn, called *reciprocal incivility* (Pearson et al., 2000), which will be discussed further in a later section. Literature has demonstrated that experienced incivility incites targets to reciprocate (e.g., Bunk & Magley, 2013; Gray et al., 2017; Hershcovis et al., 2018) and thus, the target becomes an instigator.

Observers

Observers (sometimes also referred to as "witnesses") are those who observe uncivil interactions but are not directly involved in them as a target or instigator. Compared to examinations of incivility from the target's perspective, the perspective of

observers has received very little attention in the literature, and what exists focuses largely on outcomes. Similar to the outcomes for targets, observing incivility has wholly negative implications for observers' well-being and behaviors. Past work has demonstrated that employees who observe incivility experience subsequent increased emotional exhaustion (Totterdell et al., 2012), negative affect, and dysfunctional ideation (Porath & Erez, 2009), as well as decreased satisfaction with their health (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004). Observers also experience reduction in in-role and extra-role performance (Porath & Erez, 2009) and increases in withdrawal behaviors (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004).

Compared to reciprocal incivility from targets, less empirical work has examined how observers of incivility may instigate incivility in response. However, this literature demonstrates that observing incivility from a variety of sources is associated with instigating incivility in turn (e.g., Holm et al., 2015; Shadwick, 2018; Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, et al., 2016).

Instigators

Instigators (sometimes also referred to as "perpetrators" or "enactors") are those who behave uncivilly toward a target or targets. Though the instigator perspective is not represented in the literature to the same extent as the target perspective, enough work has been done to demonstrate some consistent relationships between incivility instigation and other phenomena. This work has largely focused on antecedents of perpetrators' uncivil conduct, rather than its consequences. A more detailed account of these studies is presented in the Literature Review section.

Though many believe that an instigator-focused approach is vital to understanding workplace mistreatment (Cortina et al., 2018; Dalal & Sheng, 2018; Oliveira et al., 2018), there is not yet a systematic review of the body of literature that examines incivility from this perspective. This investigation is necessary to understand the individual and situational antecedents to instigating incivility in order to reduce instances of uncivil behavior in organizations. Indeed, literature on the antecedents to instigating incivility has identified characteristics of the instigator and characteristics of the situation as important contributors to the likelihood of perpetrating incivility in workplace contexts. The present meta-analysis examines incivility from the instigator's perspective, and aims to identify the individual, situational, and contextual antecedents that make instigation more likely, with a particular focus on the drivers of reciprocal incivility.

Reciprocal Incivility

Andersson and Pearson (1999) introduced the concept of the incivility spiral, which occurs when incivility toward a target leads the target to perpetrate incivility themselves, and a chain of negative interpersonal interactions may eventually accumulate over time to yield coercive and violent employee behavior. However, the authors note that such spiraling is relatively uncommon, and the low frequency of unambiguous, violent behavior in organizations supports this claim (Schat et al., 2006). Pearson and colleagues (2000) expanded upon this concept, introducing three other uncivil exchange processes that do not escalate to more severe forms of mistreatment. First, *non-escalating uncivil exchange* occurs between two parties, each considered both a target and an instigator. Two employees engage in uncivil behavior toward one another, but such

behavior does not escalate into more intense forms of mistreatment, such as bullying or harassment. Second, *direct displacement* occurs when two employees engage in non-escalating uncivil exchange and the target displaces their desire to reciprocate incivility onto additional, uninvolved parties, such as other employees, family, or friends. Third, *indirect displacement* occurs between a target, an instigator, and one or more observers. After witnessing an uncivil exchange between instigator and target, observer(s) then model that behavior and enact incivility toward others. I refer to these three exchange processes collectively as *reciprocal incivility*.

The theoretical tenets of Andersson and Pearson's (1999) incivility spiral constitute a number of individual and situational characteristics that are proposed to affect the likelihood of reciprocal incivility. These propositions are supported by the proposed risk and preventative factor organizing framework, such that experienced incivility is a risk factor that increases the likelihood of instigating incivility, and additional risk and preventative factors further exacerbate or ameliorate this relationship, respectively. The authors offer several propositions to this effect. First, individual-level characteristics of both the target and instigator are thought to be contributing factors to reciprocal incivility; in particular, non-escalating uncivil exchanges and direct displacement. The authors propose that reciprocal incivility is more likely when one or more parties in the uncivil interaction has a "hot temperament" (Proposition 7). Targets are more likely to enact incivility when they perceive interactional injustice in the social interaction (Proposition 1) and perceive their social identity and reputation to be damaged (Proposition 4). Targets are also more likely to reciprocate incivility when the interaction

increases their feelings of negative affect (Proposition 2) and anger (Proposition 5). Finally, targets' desire for revenge (Proposition 6) and desire to reciprocate incivility (Proposition 3) are thought to increase the likelihood of their incivility instigation.

Second, the authors' situational propositions refer to both the observation of incivility and the organizational context in which the uncivil interaction occurs. Observers of an uncivil interaction or a reciprocal incivility process are likely to engage in incivility themselves through the process of indirect displacement (Proposition 9). Additionally, observers are more likely to engage in incivility themselves if the target in their observed interaction responds negatively (e.g., increased negative affect, distrust, and fear; Proposition 10). Finally, Andersson and Pearson (1999) propose that the likelihood of an uncivil interaction resulting in a reciprocal incivility process is increased when the organization has an informal climate, wherein employees freely discuss their personal lives and emotions (Proposition 8).

Examining the antecedents to instigated incivility broadly and the reciprocal incivility process and its moderators specifically provides a comprehensive understanding of how incivility occurs and recurs in organizational contexts. As such, I include each of these components - antecedents to instigating incivility, the likelihood of reciprocating incivility, and the moderators of this reciprocation - in the present work.

Literature Review

In the following sections, I review the literature regarding instigated incivility and reciprocal incivility and develop hypotheses and research questions. I first discuss individual-level characteristics of the instigator, such as physical and psychological well-being, personality, attitudes, and demographic characteristics. Second, I discuss situational characteristics that relate to instigated incivility at the organizational and team levels. Third, I present evidence for reciprocal incivility, discussing the relationships between instigated incivility and experienced and observed incivility, respectively. Fourth and finally, I review past literature and theoretical propositions regarding the moderators of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility and discuss the exploration of the moderating role of instigated incivility measurement tool on the relationships of interest.

Instigator Characteristics

Well-Being

The reviewed literature examined the impact of multiple conceptualizations of well-being on instigated incivility, demonstrating that well-being serves as a preventative factor in that individuals with greater well-being are less likely to instigate incivility (Holm, 2014; Torkelson, Holm, & Bäckström, 2016).

Psychological Well-Being

Findings regarding mental health and other forms of psychological well-being demonstrate that better psychological well-being is associated with less incivility instigation (LeBlanc, 2011). However, the literature has demonstrated inconsistent

relationships between incivility instigation and specific psychological states or moods. Whereas Zivnuska and colleagues (2020) demonstrated that positive mood was associated with less uncivil behavior, other work has found no relationships between incivility instigation and similar constructs (Brady et al., 2017; Ilies et al., 2019; Kirk, 2007; Loi & Golledge, 2018). Similarly, findings were mixed with regard to hope (Heylen, 2018; Setar et al., 2015) and positive job-related affective well-being (Brady et al., 2017; Kain, 2008) such that bivariate relationships were negative, but some nonsignificant. Conversely, most studies demonstrated that psychological capital - a positive psychological state characterized by hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017) - was negatively related to incivility instigation (Heylen, 2018; Lanzo, 2015; Pegues, 2018; Roberts et al., 2011; Setar et al., 2015). Findings were consistent such that incivility was negatively related to state psychological forgiveness (Hershcovis et al., 2018) and self-control (Barnes et al., 2016; Rosen et al., 2016).

The reviewed literature examined the effect of many negative psychological states on incivility instigation. Of these, burnout was the most common, conceptualized as both a unidimensional construct and divided into its three components: emotional exhaustion, cynicism/detachment, and diminished professional self-efficacy (Maslach & Jackson, 1984). Findings were largely consistent such that experiencing burnout was associated with greater incivility instigation. Four studies examined the relationship of unidimensional burnout with incivility instigation, unilaterally demonstrating that higher levels of burnout were associated with greater incivility perpetration (Kim & Qu, 2019b,

2019a; Loh & Loi, 2018; Zhou, 2015). Of studies that examined the components of burnout separately, the majority focused on emotional exhaustion and largely demonstrated a positive relationship with instigated incivility (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019; Jiménez et al., 2018; Koon & Pun, 2018; Leiter et al., 2011, 2012, 2015; Patterson, 2016; Pegues, 2018; Petitta & Jiang, 2019; Shadwick, 2018; Taylor & Pattie, 2014; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010), though Hershcovis and colleagues (2018) found a negative bivariate relationship. Findings with regard to cynicism (Jiménez et al., 2018; Leiter et al., 2010, 2011, 2012, 2015; Patterson, 2016; Petitta & Jiang, 2019; Shadwick, 2018) and diminished professional efficacy (Leiter et al., 2011, 2012, 2015; Shadwick, 2018) also demonstrated a positive relationship with instigated incivility.

Apart from burnout specifically, findings uniformly suggest that negative psychological well-being, affect, and emotions are positively related to incivility instigation. Many studies found that individuals high in state negative affect (Brady et al., 2017; Ghosh et al., 2011; Kain, 2008; Loi & Golledge, 2018; Manegold, 2014; Peng, 2020; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010) and negative moods (Miranda & Welbourne, 2020; Nandedkar, 2016; Roberts, 2013; Torres et al., 2017; Zhou, 2015) are more likely to instigate incivility. Additionally, symptoms of psychological ill health, such as stress (Holm, 2014; Holm et al., 2019; Zivnuska et al., 2020) and state anxiety (Barnes et al., 2016), are associated with more incivility instigation, though Kain (2008) and Meier and Gross (2015) found no relationship with depressed mood. Finally, the reviewed literature demonstrated that job-specific negative well-being is associated with instigated incivility; negative job-related affective well-being (Brady et al., 2017), job stress (Heylen, 2018;

Lanzo, 2015; Roberts et al., 2011; Setar et al., 2015; Walsh et al., 2020) and work exhaustion (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Gray et al., 2017) were significantly related to incivility instigation, such that incivility was more likely under conditions of more negative affective well-being and higher stress and exhaustion. Therefore, I predict the following:

> *Hypothesis 1.* Poorer psychological well-being and negative psychological states will put individuals at *risk* for incivility instigation (H1a), and better psychological well-being and positive psychological states will *prevent* individuals from incivility instigation (H1b).

Physical Well-Being

Past research demonstrates that individuals were more likely to instigate incivility when experiencing ill physical health. Leiter and colleagues (2010, 2012), Zhou (2015), and LeBlanc (2011) found that better physical health in general was associated with a lower likelihood of incivility instigation. By contrast, instigating incivility was more likely under conditions of greater state physical exhaustion (Meier & Gross, 2015), fatigue (Peng, 2020), and poorer sleep quality (Barnes et al., 2016). Therefore, I predict the following:

> *Hypothesis 2.* Poorer physical well-being will put individuals at greater *risk* for incivility instigation (H2a), and better physical well-being will *prevent* incivility instigation (H2b).

Personal Dispositions

The literature has examined a wide range of personal dispositions as they relate to incivility instigation, and much of this work included some or all of the personality traits within the Five Factor Model of personality (Norman, 1963; Tupes & Christal, 1992). This work provides evidence for the direction and magnitude of the impact of agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience on instigated incivility, but findings related to extraversion were mixed. Employees higher in agreeableness (Barnes et al., 2016; Gray et al., 2017; Krishnan, 2016; Moore, 2019, main and pilot samples; M. Sliter & Jones, 2016), conscientiousness (Gray et al., 2017; Krishnan, 2016; Moore, 2019, main and pilot samples; Roberts, 2013; M. Sliter & Jones, 2016; Taylor & Pattie, 2014), and openness to experience (Gray et al., 2017; Krishnan, 2016) were less likely to instigate incivility than employees lower in these constructs. Conversely, employees higher in neuroticism (Gray et al., 2017; Krishnan, 2016; Moore, 2019, main and pilot samples; Roberts, 2013; Schroeder & Gatti, 2014; M. Sliter & Jones, 2016) were more likely to instigate incivility than employees lower in neuroticism. Finally, extraversion was found to be both positively (Gray et al., 2017) and negatively (Krishnan, 2016) related to instigating incivility.

Research has also examined how personal dispositions outside of the Five Factor Model influence instigated incivility. One such example is the focus on the triad of malevolent personality traits - Machiavellianism, psychopathy, and narcissism. Min and colleagues (2019) and Lata and Chaudhary (2020; academic and hospitality samples) demonstrated that all three of these personality traits were associated with more instigated

incivility. Some work focused on narcissism specifically, largely demonstrating positive relationships between instigated incivility and narcissism in general (Gray et al., 2017; Meier & Semmer, 2013; Schroeder & Gatti, 2014) and its subdimensions (Gray et al., 2017); work by Manegold (2014) found no significant relationship with narcissism.

Trudel (2009) and Gray and colleagues (2017) examined the relationship between conflict management style and instigated incivility. Both studies found that participants with compromising and integrating conflict styles were less likely to instigate incivility, and that participants with forcing conflict management styles were more likely to instigate incivility; accommodating and avoiding styles were unrelated. Individuals with anxious attachment styles were more likely to instigate incivility, but findings regarding avoidant attachment styles were contradictory (Belluccia, 2018; Leiter et al., 2015). Other work found that individuals were more likely to instigate incivility when high in trait anger or aggression (Gray et al., 2017; Manegold, 2014; McNeice, 2013; Meier & Semmer, 2013; Miranda & Welbourne, 2020; Moore, 2019, main and pilot samples), entitlement (Kain, 2008; Khalid & Gulzar, 2019), and hostile attribution bias (Manegold, 2014; Peng, 2020), or the extent to which people attribute negative events to others' hostile intentions (Crick & Dodge, 1996). Participants higher in emotional intelligence were less likely to instigate incivility (Kirk, 2007; Loi & Golledge, 2018; Ricciotti, 2016; Schroeder & Gatti, 2014). Contradictorily, social desirability was both negatively (Miranda & Welbourne, 2020; Moore, 2019, main and pilot samples) and positively (Manegold, 2014) related to instigated incivility. Therefore, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 3. Personal dispositions will influence incivility instigation, such that certain traits will put individuals at greater *risk* for instigation (H3a; e.g., narcissism) and certain traits will *prevent* (H3b; e.g., emotional intelligence) instigation.

Job Attitudes

Relationships between employee attitudes and incivility instigation were largely consistent. With regard to attitudes about one's organization, individuals who were more committed to their organization (Gray et al., 2017; Leiter et al., 2011, 2012; Patterson, 2016; Smidt et al., 2016; Trudel, 2009) and perceived more organizational fairness and justice (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019; Blau & Andersson, 2005; Gray et al., 2017; Jiménez et al., 2018; Manegold, 2014; Meier & Semmer, 2013; Moore, 2019, main and pilot samples; Pegues, 2018; Sayers et al., 2011; Semmer et al., 2010) were less likely to instigate incivility at work. Relatedly, employees who perceived a violation of their psychological contract with the organization were more likely to instigate incivility (Gray et al., 2017; Sayers et al., 2011; Sears & Humiston, 2015).

With regard to attitudes about one's job, studies of job satisfaction found that more satisfied employees were less likely to behave in an uncivil manner at work (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019; Blau & Andersson, 2005; Gray et al., 2017; Heylen, 2018; Holm, 2014; Holm et al., 2019; Jiménez et al., 2018; Koon & Pun, 2018; LeBlanc, 2011; Leiter et al., 2011, 2012; Moore, 2019; Patterson, 2016; Smidt et al., 2016; Taylor & Pattie, 2014). Conversely, employees with a greater sense of job insecurity (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Gray et al., 2017; Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, et al., 2016) and

intentions to turn over (Brady et al., 2017; Jiménez et al., 2018; Leiter et al., 2010, 2011, 2012; Nandedkar, 2016; Smidt et al., 2016; Trudel, 2009) were more likely to instigate incivility. Finally, employees who experienced forms of conflict between work and nonwork were more likely to instigate incivility at work (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019; McNeice, 2013; Roberts, 2013). Therefore, I predict the following:

> *Hypothesis 4.* Negative job attitudes will put individuals at greater *risk* for incivility instigation (H4a), and positive job attitudes will *prevent* incivility instigation (H4b).

Demographics

Job-Related Demographic Variables

Results related to the impact of job-related demographic characteristics on instigated incivility were mixed, with many studies reporting bivariate relationships that did not meet statistical significance. Whereas Sliter and Jones (2016) found that customer service experience and job knowledge were negatively related to instigating incivility, general work experience was unrelated in all other samples (Nandedkar, 2016; Pegues, 2018; Ricciotti, 2016; Schroeder & Gatti, 2014). Relatedly, findings with respect to job tenure were mixed, with some studies suggesting incivility instigation related positively (Ilies et al., 2019, study 1; Krishnan, 2016) and negatively (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2016; Sears & Humiston, 2015; Semmer et al., 2010) to job tenure, though most did not find any relationship between the two constructs (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019; Gray et al., 2017, study 2; Ilies et al., 2019, study 3; Khalid & Gulzar, 2019; Lanzo, 2015; Lata &

Chaudhary, 2020, academic and hospitality samples; Pegues, 2018; Ricciotti, 2016; Roberts, 2013; Roberts et al., 2011; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010).

Non-Job-Related Demographic Variables

Many past studies reported bivariate relationships between instigated incivility and age and gender. Some studies found that older employees were less likely to act uncivil toward others (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2016; Brady et al., 2017; Gray et al., 2017; Min et al., 2019; Ricciotti, 2016; Torkelson, Holm, & Bäckström, 2016; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010, study 2) though most found no relationship related to age (Carter, 2013; Gallus et al., 2014; Ilies et al., 2019, studies 1 and 3; Kain, 2008; Khalid & Gulzar, 2019; Koon & Pun, 2018; Krishnan, 2016; Lanzo, 2015; Lata & Chaudhary, 2020, academic and hospitality samples; Leiter et al., 2010; Meier & Semmer, 2013; Pegues, 2018; Peng, 2020; Roberts, 2013; Schroeder & Gatti, 2014; Semmer et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2018; Taylor & Pattie, 2014).

A small number of studies reported that men were more likely to instigate incivility than women (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2016; Krishnan, 2016; Schroeder & Gatti, 2014; Sears & Humiston, 2015; Torkelson, Holm, & Bäckström, 2016) but a large majority found no relationship (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019; Barnes et al., 2016, p. 20; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2016; Brady et al., 2017, p. 201; Carter, 2013; Ilies et al., 2019, studies 1 and 3; Kain, 2008; Koon & Pun, 2018; Lanzo, 2015; Lata & Chaudhary, 2020, academic and hospitality samples; McNeice, 2013; Meier & Semmer, 2013; Min et al., 2019; Pegues, 2018; Peng, 2020; Ricciotti, 2016; Roberts, 2013; M. Sliter & Jones, 2016; Taylor et al., 2018; Taylor & Pattie, 2014). Education was found to be positively related

(Khalid & Gulzar, 2019; Schroeder & Gatti, 2014), negatively related (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019), and unrelated (Ilies et al., 2019, study 1; Lata & Chaudhary, 2020, academic and hospitality samples; Meier & Semmer, 2013; Pegues, 2018; Semmer et al., 2010; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010) to instigated incivility. Race was largely found to be unrelated to incivility instigation (Peng, 2020; Ricciotti, 2016; Schroeder & Gatti, 2014; Taylor & Pattie, 2014), though one study found that White participants instigated incivility more than other racial/ethnic groups (Roberts, 2013).

Given the mixed results in the literature, I have no basis for making a prediction in advance and therefore include the effect of demographic characteristics on instigated incivility as a research question.

Research Question 1. How do demographic characteristics influence the likelihood of instigating incivility?

Situational Characteristics

Organization Characteristics

Few studies examined the impact of organizational characteristics on individual reports of instigating incivility. Employees who perceived a strong organizational climate for civility were less likely to instigate incivility at work (Leiter et al., 2011, 2012; Patterson, 2016). Conversely, employees who perceived more organizational change were more likely to behave in an uncivil manner (Roberts, 2013; Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, et al., 2016). Therefore, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 5. More negative work situations at the organizational levels (e.g., more organizational change) will put individuals at greater *risk* for incivility

instigation (H5a), and more positive work situations (e.g., civility climate) will *prevent* incivility instigation (H5b).

Team Characteristics

Similar to findings regarding organizational-level variables, few studies have examined the influence of team characteristics on incivility instigation. This work demonstrates that incivility is more likely under high levels of team interpersonal conflict (Roberts, 2013) and less likely under conditions of greater coworker and supervisor support (Holm et al., 2015, 2019; Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, et al., 2016), greater trust in one's manager (Leiter et al., 2011, 2012, 2015), and more positive civility climates within the team (Leiter et al., 2010, 2015; Walsh et al., 2020). Employees' perceptions of leader-member exchange (LMX) from their supervisors were negatively related (Nandedkar, 2016) or unrelated (Kluemper et al., 2019; Sears & Humiston, 2015) to instigated incivility. Therefore, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 6. More negative work situations at the team level (e.g., greater interpersonal conflict) will put individuals at greater *risk* for incivility instigation (H6a), and more positive work situations (e.g., support) will *prevent* incivility instigation (H6b).

Job Characteristics

Findings related to the impact of job characteristics on instigating incivility were mixed in the literature. Most work in this area utilized the job demands-control model (Karasek, 1979) to explain job characteristics. This model describes the differential effects of job demands and control/decision latitude on stress and suggests that

employees with higher demands and lower levels of control will experience greater stress and more negative outcomes. Though findings largely supported this model in that greater job control and fewer job demands were related to less instigation of incivility, there were contradictory findings. Multiple studies reported the expected negative relationship between job control and instigating incivility (Holm et al., 2015, 2019; Jiménez et al., 2018; Krishnan, 2016; Leiter et al., 2012; Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, et al., 2016). LeBlanc (2011) found the opposite, such that greater job control was associated with more incivility instigation.

The impact of job demands on instigated incivility demonstrated that greater job demands led to more instigated incivility (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019; Gray et al., 2017; Holm et al., 2015; Koon & Pun, 2018; Krishnan, 2016; Roberts, 2013; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010). Torkelson and colleagues (2016), however, found that fewer job demands correlated with greater instigated incivility. Certain job demands in particular were examined; for example, both Heylen (2018) and Peng (2020) found no relationship between time pressure and instigated incivility. Greater workload was positively related to a greater likelihood of instigating incivility (Gallus et al., 2014; Jiménez et al., 2018; LeBlanc, 2011; Leiter et al., 2015; Peng, 2020). A number of studies examined the impact of number of weekly work hours on instigating incivility, with most finding that hours worked was unrelated to instigated incivility (Lanzo, 2015; Lata & Chaudhary, 2020, academic and hospitality samples; Peng, 2020; Semmer et al., 2010), though Birkeland and Nerstad (2016) reported that more weekly work hours was associated with more instigation. Therefore, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 7. Job characteristics will influence the likelihood of instigating incivility, such that demanding job characteristics (e.g., workload, work hours) will put individuals at greater *risk* for incivility instigation (H7a) and job resources (e.g., control) will *prevent* incivility instigation (H7b).

The influence of the organizational level of one's job on incivility perpetration provided mixed results. Some studies found that individuals at higher organizational levels were more likely to instigate incivility (Sears & Humiston, 2015; Torkelson, Holm, & Bäckström, 2016), though others found no relationship (Lata & Chaudhary, 2020, academic and hospitality samples; Pegues, 2018; Ricciotti, 2016). Instigated incivility was unrelated to employees' income level (Krishnan, 2016; Lanzo, 2015) and status as permanent or contract (Koon & Pun, 2018; Torkelson, Holm, & Bäckström, 2016).

Given the mixed results in the reviewed literature, I have no basis for making a prediction in advance and therefore include the effect of the aforementioned variables on instigated incivility as a research question.

Research Question 2. How do job characteristics (e.g., organizational level, income) influence the likelihood of instigating incivility?

Reciprocal Incivility Antecedents

Experienced Incivility

Many studies tested the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, and all but one (Shadwick, 2018) found a significant and positive relationship between experiencing incivility at work and instigating incivility oneself. Some of this work also differentiates between the source of the experienced incivility, such as incivility from

one's coworkers and supervisors (considered "insiders") or incivility from consumers of the organization's goods or services (e.g., customers, patients, visitors; considered "outsiders"). Across studies, instigating incivility was significantly and positively related to source-agnostic experienced incivility measured cross-sectionally (Belluccia, 2018; Gallus et al., 2014; Gray et al., 2017; Kain, 2008; Kluemper et al., 2019; Loh & Loi, 2018; Manegold, 2014; Moore, 2019, main and pilot samples; Pegues, 2018; Trudel, 2009; Walsh et al., 2020; Weiss et al., 2009) as well as at a later time point (Hershcovis et al., 2018; Peng, 2020; Weiss et al., 2009; Wooderson, 2014).

Experienced incivility from insiders is generally positively related to instigated incivility. Experiencing incivility from coworkers, specifically, was positively associated with instigating incivility oneself (Holm, 2014; Holm et al., 2015; Jiménez et al., 2018; LeBlanc, 2011; Leiter et al., 2010, 2011, 2012, 2015; Patterson, 2016; Rosen et al., 2016; Smidt et al., 2016; Taylor et al., 2018; Torkelson, Holm, & Bäckström, 2016; Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, et al., 2016; Zhou, 2015). Incivility from one's supervisor or other superiors was also positively associated with instigating incivility (Holm, 2014; Holm et al., 2015; Jiménez et al., 2018; LeBlanc, 2011; Leiter et al., 2010, 2011, 2012, 2015; Meier & Gross, 2015; Patterson, 2016; Smidt et al., 2016; Torkelson, Holm, & Bäckström, 2016; Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, et al., 2016; Zhou, 2015).

Experienced incivility from outsiders, or non-organizational members who interact with employees, is also generally associated with higher rates of instigated incivility. Past work has demonstrated the positive relationship between instigated incivility and incivility from customers (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019; Kim & Qu, 2019b,

2019a; Torres et al., 2017; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010) as well as from patients and visitors in a healthcare setting (Zhou, 2015). Therefore, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 8. Experiencing incivility will put individuals at *risk* for incivility instigation.

Observed Incivility

Compared to experiencing incivility directly, less work examined the influence of observing an uncivil interaction between others on instigating incivility oneself. All but one study (Shadwick, 2018) demonstrated that observing incivility from others was associated with more instigated incivility. This pattern was consistent when the source of the incivility was coworkers and supervisors (Holm et al., 2015, 2019; Torkelson, Holm, & Bäckström, 2016) as well as customers (Aboodi & Allameh, 2019). Therefore, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 9. Observing incivility will put individuals at *risk* for incivility instigation.

Moderators of Incivility Reciprocation

Of particular focus to this study are the moderators of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility. Little work has been done to identify and examine these moderators empirically; only two studies within the reviewed literature tested mediating or moderating effects on the relationship between experienced and instigated workplace incivility. Two studies found support for burnout as a mediator of reciprocal incivility. Work by Loh and Loi (2018) demonstrated that experienced incivility led to greater instigated incivility, directly and indirectly through a sense of burnout. Similarly,

Kim and Qu (2019a) found that experiencing incivility from a customer led to greater burnout through increased emotional job demands, and that this burnout led to more instigated incivility toward both customers and coworkers. Therefore, I predict the following:

> *Hypothesis* 10. Burnout will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger under conditions of greater burnout.

As past literature does not empirically test moderators of reciprocal incivility aside from burnout, I adopt the propositions put forth by Andersson and Pearson (1999) as testable hypotheses. First, Andersson and Pearson (1999) suggest that certain emotions will influence the likelihood of reciprocal incivility. Specifically, the authors argue that a target's negative affect, anger, and a hot temperament will be positively related to incivility reciprocation. This proposition is supported by the present organizing framework, which posits that negative emotions and attitudes will increase the likelihood of instigating incivility. As such, it follows that negative emotions and attitudes will increase the likelihood of reciprocating incivility. Therefore, I predict the following:

> *Hypothesis 11.* Negative affect will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger under conditions of greater negative affect.

Hypothesis 12. Anger will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger under conditions of greater anger.

Hypothesis 13. Hot temperament will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger under conditions of hotter temperament.

Second, Andersson and Pearson (1999) also suggest that targets' cognitions and attitudes about an uncivil interaction will influence the likelihood of their reciprocating incivility. They propose that the extent to which targets perceive interactional injustice or damage to their social identity as a result of the incivility will positively relate to their reciprocation. Additionally, the extent to which targets leave the interaction with a desire to reciprocate incivility or to exact revenge against the instigator will positively relate to their reciprocation. These cognitive propositions are supported by the present organizing framework, which posits that more negative cognitive evaluations will lead to greater incivility instigation. Therefore, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 14. Perceived interactional injustice will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger under conditions of greater perceived injustice.

Hypothesis 15. Desire to reciprocate incivility will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger under conditions of greater desire to reciprocate.

Hypothesis 16. Perception of damaged social identity will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger under conditions of greater damage perceptions.

Hypothesis 17. Desire for revenge will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger under conditions of greater desire for revenge.

Third, Andersson and Pearson (1999) suggest that reciprocating incivility is more likely to occur in organizations with a more informal climate, in which norms surrounding interpersonal behavior are more ambiguous and employees feel less of a need to censor their behavior. This proposition is supported by the present organizing framework, such that an informal climate serves as a situational cue for negative behavior. Therefore, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 18. Informal climate will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger under conditions of more informal organizational climate.

Fourth and finally, Andersson and Pearson (1999) put forth two propositions specific to the role of the observer and their initiation of "secondary" incivility. They suggest that observing reciprocal incivility by other members of an organization will lead to a greater likelihood of reciprocating incivility oneself. Additionally, they suggest that observers who witness negative responses from a target (e.g., negative affect) will be more likely to reciprocate incivility. The present theoretical model supports these propositions as observing incivility and negative responses can be considered negative situational cues, which are theorized to lead to greater instigated incivility. Therefore, I predict the following:

> *Hypothesis 19.* Observing reciprocal incivility will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger when the instigator has observed incivility from others.
>
> *Hypothesis 20.* Observing negative responses to uncivil behaviors will serve as a *risk factor* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility is stronger when the instigator has observed others' negative responses to incivility.

Moderating Role of Measurement Instrument

Instigated incivility is most commonly measured using one of two scale types: those derived from the Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS; Cortina et al., 2001) or those derived from the Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire (UWBQ; Martin & Hine,

2005). Cortina and colleagues' WIS (2001; Appendix A) is a seven-item scale asking about the frequency with which one has experienced uncivil behaviors from supervisors or coworkers in the past five years. Though this scale was developed to measure experienced incivility from one's peers at work, it is often reworded to capture instigated incivility. In addition to this adapted version of the WIS, Blau and Andersson (2005; Appendix B) validated a measure of instigated incivility that adapted the content from the WIS to capture instigation and suggested the removal of two items that the authors deemed too intense for measurement of the incivility construct.

Martin and Hine's UWBQ (2005; Appendix C) is a 20-item inventory on which participants report the frequency with which they have experienced incivility in the past year. The questionnaire has a four-factor structure, capturing the frequency of experienced hostility, privacy invasion, exclusionary behavior, and gossiping. In addition to researchers' *ad hoc* adaptation to reflect the instigator's perspective, recent work by Gray and colleagues (2017) validated the Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire-Instigated (UWBQ-I; Appendix D) which is made up of the same items as the UWBQ but the lead-in phrase reflects incivility instigation rather than experiences. The present work will assess the differential impact of these two bodies of measurement instruments on the hypothesized relations. This investigation will be exploratory in nature, and as such, I propose the following research question:

> *Research Question 3:* Are the measures of instigated incivility derived from the WIS and UWBQ comparable in how they relate to the antecedents of instigated incivility?

Method

In the following sections, I review the methodology used in this meta-analytic review. I first discuss the process by which I retrieved literature for possible inclusion in this meta-analysis. Next, I review the criteria used to narrow this body of literature. I then discuss the development of the meta-analytic codebook through effect size coding. Finally, I review the statistical methods underlying tests of main effects, tests of moderation, and sensitivity analyses.

Study Retrieval

The literature search began in September 2019 and concluded in October 2020. I first collected all empirical work that had cited the following incivility and civility scales: the UWBQ (Martin & Hine, 2005), the UWBQ-I (Gray et al., 2017), the WIS (Cortina et al., 2001) and its adaptation by Blau and Andersson (2005), the Nursing Incivility Scale (Guidroz et al., 2010), the Incivility from Customers Scale (N. L. Wilson & Holmvall, 2013), and the Civility Norms Questionnaire (Walsh et al., 2012). I then searched several online databases and programs using the following terms: incivility, uncivil, civility, civil. I did not include terms that reflect the instigator's perspective due to the variety of terms used to refer to instigation (e.g., instigated, enacted, perpetrated; I screened for this later). I searched databases including PsycNet, Google Scholar, and ProQuest dissertations and theses, using all fields. I also searched for the key words in conference programs for the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology Annual Meeting; the Academy of Management Annual Meeting; and the American Psychological Association Work, Stress, and Health Conference beginning in 2010 and contacted

authors whose identified conference presentations were otherwise not available. I then searched Google for all relevant search terms to discover resources that may not have been indexed in other databases. Finally, I contacted authors that were identified multiple times in the collected literature and requested their or their colleagues' unpublished data.

Study Selection

I included empirical work in this meta-analysis according to six inclusion criteria, yielding the inclusion of 76 unique samples across 44 published and 26 unpublished empirical reports. See Table 2 for these criteria and their application. First, the work must have included the search terms of interest, yielding 1,494 identified studies. Second, I retained only literature that provided sufficient information in English, resulting in the exclusion of 87 studies. Third, the studies needed to include at least one measure of incivility from the instigator's perspective. The 601 studies excluded due to this criterion only measured incivility from the perspective of a target or observer of incivility, rather than an instigator. Fourth, the studies must have used an operationalization of incivility consistent of those with past research (i.e., low-intensity and ambiguous); I removed 486 studies for including only a type of mistreatment other than incivility, such as bullying, harassment, or aggression. Fifth, the studies must have examined incivility within a workplace context, resulting in the exclusion of 10 studies. Sixth and finally, the authors of each study had to report sample sizes and data sufficient to calculate a Pearson correlation coefficient *r*. An additional 203 articles lacked empirical quantitative data for meta-analysis. Of the remaining literature, 37 were found to be duplicates and were removed. Characteristics of the remaining 76 samples are presented in Table 3.

Effect Size Coding

I recruited and trained six research assistants in meta-analytic coding. The 76 samples included in this meta-analysis were divided equally between each research assistant. For each set of samples, I and one research assistant independently extracted each effect size of the relationship between instigated incivility and its correlates to develop a comprehensive codebook of a subset of samples. Both concurrent and prospective[1] correlates with instigated incivility as the outcome were included. We coded effect sizes at the most detailed level possible and grouped them into categories after reviewing the number of available effects for each construct. A full list of sample and effect size characteristics that were included at this stage is presented in Appendix E.

After effect size coding, but prior to reconciling coding disagreements, I calculated interrater agreement on a random sample of 10% of the effect sizes across all coders, equaling 82 effect sizes. I conceptualized agreement as the extent to which coders reached the same conclusion regarding characteristics of the effect size that required high levels of subjective inference. Such high-level characteristics included the names of constructs, classes of constructs (e.g., individual versus organizational characteristics), and how constructs are conceptualized (e.g., trait versus state) in a particular study. I calculated interrater agreement in two ways. First, I evaluated the percentage of effect sizes where coders agreed on the *specific* classification of the construct; for example, a construct was considered by both coders to be indicative of the personality trait extraversion. Second, I evaluated the percentage of effect sizes where coders agreed on

[1] Prospective correlates are those for which instigated incivility and its predictor were measured at separate time points.

the *general* classification of the construct but may have disagreed on the specific classification; for example, a construct was considered by both coders to be indicative of a personality trait, but there was disagreement as to what particular personality trait the construct represented. Among the sampled effect sizes, agreement between coders at the more specific level was 79%, whereas agreement between coders at the more general level was 89%. Instances of disagreement were due to transcription error, incorrect construct conceptualization (e.g., trait versus state, team- versus organizational-level), or accidental omission of effects.

After calculating percent agreement between coders on these high-level characteristics, I independently reconciled any coding disagreements on characteristics of the effect size that require low levels of subjective inference (e.g., sample size, year of publication) by consulting the literature in question. We reconciled any disagreements that were not readily addressed by the literature in question by careful discussion to reach consensus. The reconciled subsets were then combined to form a comprehensive codebook of the body of literature. I then reviewed the codebook for remaining discrepancies or errors and recoded the direction of all effects as needed to maintain consistency. Finally, I converted all effect sizes into the common metric of a Pearson correlation coefficient using Wilson's (n.d.) Practical Meta-Analysis Effect Size Calculator.

Statistical Methods

I separated prospective and concurrent effects and estimated effect size distributions for each type separately to improve the ability to make causal inferences

from meta-analytic results. I conducted all analyses using psychometric meta-analysis estimation (Schmidt & Hunter, 2015) in R using the *psychmeta* package (Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). Correlations across samples were averaged, weighted by sample size, and corrected for measurement reliability using the individual correction method (Gillespie et al., 2002; Schmidt & Hunter, 2015). Dependency from effects within the same study was corrected by forming composites (Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). All estimates are reported according to guidance from the American Psychological Association (APA; 2020) and commentary by Kepes and colleagues (2013). Meta-analytic estimates for main effects are not reported if they were calculated using effects from less than three samples, consistent with previous meta-analyses (Berry et al., 2007); I apply the same rule to meta-analytic regression results. The homogeneity statistics Q and I^2 were calculated to determine the variation in effects between studies. A significant Q statistic represents heterogeneity in the effect size that is attributable to true population differences and is considered an indicator for the presence of between-sample moderators (Huedo-Medina et al., 2006). The I^2 statistic represents the proportion of true variance to total variance, ranging from 0 to 100 with higher scores representing greater heterogeneity (Huedo-Medina et al., 2006).

Sensitivity Analyses

Prior to reviewing the results of hypothesis tests, I conducted sensitivity analyses to test for outlier and publication bias using the triangulation approach recommended by Kepes and colleagues (2012), in which multiple methods are used and their results compared. In accordance with their recommendation, I used multiple graphical and

quantitative methods to identify and assess bias. I first identified possible issues by examining subgroup forest plots. I then used the "leave-one-out" and cumulative meta-analysis methods to assess both outlier and publication biases. Finally, I tested the statistical significance of publication bias and other methodological considerations by examining the moderating effects of publication status, study design, and year of publication for all hypothesized main effects (e.g., Hypotheses 1 through 9).

Moderator Effects

There were two types of moderator analyses conducted in the present meta-analysis: methodological and theoretical. The impact of methodological moderators was assessed for all hypothesized main effects with prospective and concurrent effects combined. Effects that were conceptually similar and in the same direction were combined to represent larger constructs to achieve adequate power for moderator analyses while also maintaining construct integrity; for example, agreeableness, emotional intelligence, and conscientiousness were combined to represent preventative personality traits. Methodological moderators included publication status (published or unpublished), research design (prospective or concurrent), measure of instigated incivility (derived from Cortina et al.'s WIS, 2001 or Blau and Andersson's UWBQ, 1995), and year of publication. Additionally, for prospective studies, I examined the moderating role of time lag to explore whether the magnitude of the relationship between instigated incivility and its correlates changes depending on the length of time between measurement occasions.

Theoretical moderators are those hypothesized in Hypotheses 10 through 20. Each of these hypotheses suggests a moderating effect of some construct on the relationship between instigated and experienced incivility. Given the constructs were measured continuously, I included the reported arithmetic mean of each hypothesized construct (as available) as a study-level variable. These values required standardization due to their measurement on Likert-type scales with inconsistent anchors. To standardize these values, I subtracted each value from the lower anchor and divided by the upper anchor to arrive at a proportion of the scale total that could be compared across measurement instruments.

For all moderation analyses, categorical moderators (i.e., publication status, research design, instigated incivility measure) were assessed using subgroup analyses and average effect sizes were compared using *t*-tests where applicable. Continuous moderators were assessed with mixed-effects meta-regression using restricted maximum likelihood estimation.

Results

The following sections discuss the results of sensitivity analyses, hypothesis testing, testing of research questions, and exploratory analyses. I begin by briefly discussing which hypotheses were unable to be tested due to inadequate sample size. I then review the results of sensitivity analyses, including outlier identification, publication bias, and other methodological factors. Next, I discuss the results of hypothesis testing, tests to answer the research questions, and exploratory analyses.

Data Availability

Prior to reviewing the results of sensitivity analyses, hypothesis testing, and exploratory analyses, I will first discuss the availability of effects within the collected literature and how that impacted the extent to which I was able to test the hypotheses and research questions put forth in previous sections. Meta-analytic estimates were not included in this document if they were calculated using effects from less than three samples, consistent with previous meta-analyses (Berry et al., 2007). Even after the combination of similar constructs during effect size coding, some individual constructs did not have greater than two effects for analysis. However, this did not limit hypothesis testing in most cases. In the following paragraphs, I note the instances in which hypothesis testing was impossible due to few or no effect sizes.

One hypothesized main effect was excluded in its entirety due to this limitation: there were insufficient data to test Hypothesis 5, which stated that more negative work situations at the organizational levels (e.g., greater organizational change) will put individuals at *risk* for greater incivility instigation (a), and more positive work situations

(e.g., civility climate) will *prevent* incivility instigation (b). Of the two organizational-level constructs reported in the collected literature, neither were measured in more than two samples: organizational change was measured in Roberts (2013) and Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, et al. (2016), and organizational climate for incivility was measured in Gallus et al. (2014) and Taylor et al. (2018). As such, discussion of Hypothesis 5 is omitted from this section. In addition, moderation Hypotheses 14 through 20 were untestable due to no (Hypotheses 16, 18, 19, and 20) or insufficient (Hypotheses 15 and 17) data.

Sensitivity Analyses

Outlier Identification

I began sensitivity analyses by reviewing forest plots for each effect. I identified four potential outlying effects in this manner. Following this, I reviewed results from "leave-one-out" and cumulative meta-analysis methods for all effects. This review further clarified the nature of these effects and their impacts on average effect sizes and their distributions. I excluded two of the four effects after examining these results. Effects measuring harmonious and obsessive passion for work in Birkeland and Nerstad (2016) were originally categorized as job involvement; however, examination of the variability in the effect size distribution due to these effects demonstrated its incompatibility with other job involvement constructs. The remaining effects were influential in effect size calculations and distributions, but examination of the literature and measurement instruments warranted no methodological or theoretical concern; as such, I included these effects.

Publication Bias

I began assessment of publication bias by examining subgroup forest plots for each effect. This examination warranted no immediate concern about publication bias. However, I also tested the possible effect of publication bias empirically by assessing the moderating role of publication status in the hypothesized effects and evaluating the difference between published and unpublished effect size distributions using independent samples *t*-tests. Results from these analyses are presented in Table 4. These results indicate no significant differences in estimates of ρ due to publication status, all *p*s > .269. Taken together, the results from subgroup forest plots and moderator analyses suggest that bias in the reported effects due to publication status is likely minimal.

Methodological Considerations

In addition to outlier identification and publication bias analysis, I empirically tested the impacts of research design and year of publication to identify possible bias in these effects due to other methodological factors.

Research Design

I conducted moderator analyses on all hypothesized main effects to identify any differences in effects due to research design, comparing effects measured prospectively and effects measured concurrently. Additionally, I conducted independent samples *t*-tests to assess the statistical significance of any differences. Results from these analyses are presented in Table 5. Results from *t*-tests indicate that most effects were not significantly different due to research design, *p*s > .061. However, there was a statistically significant difference between prospective and concurrent effects for psychological well-being, *t*(21)

= 2.48, p = .022. On average, effects that were measured concurrently, ρ = -.18, SD_ρ = .17, k = 20, were stronger and more negative than effects that were measured prospectively, ρ = .08, SD_ρ = .16, k = 3. There was also a statistically significant difference between prospective and concurrent effects for preventative job attitudes, t(25) = 2.66, p = .014. On average, effects that were measured concurrently, ρ = -.33, SD_ρ = .12, k = 24, were stronger than effects that were measured prospectively, ρ = -.14, SD_ρ = .07, k = 3.

To further explore the effect of research design, I assessed the moderating role of time lag in hypothesized main effects for effects measured prospectively. I used a mixed-effects meta-regression model with restricted maximum likelihood estimation to assess the moderating effect of length of time in days between the constructs of interest at T1 and instigated incivility at T2. Results of this analysis are presented in Table 6. Most of these moderating effects did not reach traditional levels of statistical significance, ps > .136. The moderating role of time lag was statistically significant for the effect of preventative personal dispositions, k = 3, b = -.08, SE_b = .01, p < .001, R^2 = 1.00, indicating that the strength of the relationship between preventative personal dispositions and instigated incivility becomes increasingly negative and thus stronger as the length of time between measurement occasions increases. Similarly, the moderating role of time lag was statistically significant for the effect of preventative job attitudes, k = 3, b = -.00, SE_b = .00, p = .023, R^2 = .79, indicating that the strength of the relationship between preventative job attitudes and instigated incivility becomes increasingly negative and thus stronger as the length of time between measurement occasions increases.

Year of Publication

I assessed the moderating role of year of publication in all hypothesized main effects. I used a mixed-effects meta-regression model with restricted maximum likelihood estimation to assess the moderating effect of publication year. Results from this analysis are presented in Table 7. Most of these moderating effects did not reach traditional levels of statistical significance, *p*s > .095. Year of publication did significantly moderate the relationship between risk factor job attitudes and instigated incivility, $k = 16$, $b = .01$, $SE_b = .01$, $p = .048$, $R^2 = .20$, such that the relationship between risk factor job attitudes has become more positive and thus stronger over time. Additionally, year of publication significantly moderated the relationship between preventative team characteristics and instigated incivility, $k = 16$, $b = .04$, $SE_b = .02$, $p = .004$, $R^2 = .34$, such that the relationship between preventative team characteristics and instigated incivility has become more positive and thus weaker over time.

Hypothesis Testing

In the following sections, I review the results of each meta-analytic test of the hypotheses put forth previously.

Psychological Well-Being

Hypothesis 1 states that poorer psychological well-being and negative psychological states will put individuals at *risk* for greater incivility instigation (a) and better psychological well-being and positive psychological states will *prevent* incivility instigation (b). Table 8 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationships between negative and positive psychological states and instigated incivility. Figure 2 displays

these relationships graphically. After correcting for measurement unreliability, all states of psychological ill-being had a significant, positive relationship with instigated incivility: burnout, ρ = .46, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3, and its subdimensions diminished personal accomplishment, ρ = .19, SD_ρ = .07, k = 5, depersonalization, ρ =.42, SD_ρ = .09, k = 9, and emotional exhaustion, ρ = .29, SD_ρ = .15, k = 16; job stress, ρ = .30, SD_ρ = .03, k = 6; and state negative affect, ρ =.51, SD_ρ = .21, k = 5. For each of these effects, the 80% credibility interval did not include zero. Together, these results provide support for Hypothesis 1a.

After correcting for measurement unreliability, certain states of psychological well-being had a significant, negative relationship with instigated incivility when measured concurrently: job-related affective well-being, ρ = -.37, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3, and psychological capital, ρ = -.19, SD_ρ = .09, k = 5. The 80% credibility interval did not include zero for the effects of job-related affective well-being and psychological capital. State positive affect, ρ = -.11, SD_ρ = .10, k = 3, and general well-being, ρ = -.15, SD_ρ = .18, k = 3, demonstrated negative relationships, but both the 80% credibility interval and 95% confidence interval for these effects included zero. The effect of job-related affective well-being on instigated incivility when measured prospectively was also significant and negative, ρ = -.37, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3. The 80% credibility interval for this effect did not include zero. These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 1b.

Physical Well-Being

Hypothesis 2 states that better physical well-being will *prevent* incivility instigation. Table 9 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between

physical well-being and instigated incivility for effects measured concurrently; there were not enough effects to estimate the relationship for effects measured prospectively. Figure 2 displays this relationship graphically. After correcting for measurement unreliability, physical well-being had a significant, negative relationship with instigated incivility, ρ = -.25, SD_ρ = .09, k = 5, and the 80% credibility interval for this effect did not include zero. This result provides support for Hypothesis 2.

Personal Dispositions

Hypothesis 3 states that personal dispositions will influence incivility instigation, such that certain traits will put individuals at greater *risk* for instigation (a; e.g., narcissism) and certain traits will *prevent* instigation (b; e.g., emotional intelligence). Table 10 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between personal dispositions and instigated incivility for effects measured concurrently and prospectively. Figure 3 displays these relationships graphically.

After correcting for measurement unreliability, personal disposition risk factors measured concurrently had a significant, positive relationship with instigated incivility: trait anger, ρ = .39, SD_ρ = .09, k = 7, narcissism, ρ = .24, SD_ρ = .00, k = 5, trait negative affect, ρ = .40, SD_ρ = .03, k = 4, and neuroticism, ρ = .32, SD_ρ = .07, k = 6. The 80% credibility interval did not include zero for these effects. Social desirability also demonstrated a positive relationship with instigated incivility, ρ = .07, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3, though the 95% confidence interval for this effect included zero. Most prospective effects of personal disposition risk factors on instigated incivility did not reach traditional levels of statistical significance: Machiavellianism, ρ = .70, SD_ρ = .31, k = 3, narcissism, ρ =

.60, SD_ρ = .34, k = 3. The 95% confidence intervals for these effects did include zero. However, the prospective effect of psychopathy on instigated incivility did reach traditional levels of statistical significance, ρ = .68, SD_ρ = .21, k = 3. The 80% credibility interval for this effect did not include zero. Taken together, these results provide partial support for Hypothesis 3a.

Preventative personal dispositions measured concurrently had a significant, negative relationship with instigated incivility: agreeableness, ρ = -.26, SD_ρ = .11, k = 5, conscientiousness, ρ = -.21, SD_ρ = .13, k = 6, and emotional intelligence, ρ = -.36, SD_ρ = .19, k = 4. The 80% credibility interval did not include zero for these effects. Preventative personal dispositions measured prospectively did not reach traditional levels of statistical significance: agreeableness, ρ = -.44, SD_ρ = .28, k = 3, and trait positive affect, ρ = .03, SD_ρ = .14, k = 3. Taken together, these results provide partial support for Hypothesis 3b.

Job Attitudes

Hypothesis 4 states that negative job attitudes will put individuals at greater *risk* for incivility instigation (a), and positive job attitudes will *prevent* incivility instigation (b). Table 11 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between job attitudes and instigated incivility for effects measured concurrently; there were not enough effects to estimate the relationship for effects measured prospectively. Figure 4 displays these relationships graphically.

After correcting for measurement unreliability, certain negative job attitudes had a significant, positive relationship with instigated incivility: psychological contract violation, ρ = .40, SD_ρ = .05, k = 3, and turnover intention, ρ = .23, SD_ρ = .04, k = 8. The

80% credibility interval did not include zero for these effects. Work/nonwork conflict also demonstrated a positive relationship with instigated incivility, ρ = .31, SD_ρ = .13, k = 3, though the 95% confidence interval for this effect included zero. These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 4a.

Certain positive job attitudes had a significant, negative relationship with instigated incivility: fairness perceptions, ρ = -.35, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3, job satisfaction, ρ = -.32, SD_ρ = .15, k = 18, interactional justice perceptions, ρ = -.33, SD_ρ = .04, k = 3, procedural justice perceptions, ρ = -.28, SD_ρ = .11, k = 5, general organizational commitment, ρ = -.35, SD_ρ = .00, k = 4, affective organizational commitment, ρ = -.19, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3, and respect perceived from others, ρ = -.30, SD_ρ = .05, k = 3. The 80% credibility interval did not include zero for these effects. Distributive justice perceptions, ρ = -.13, SD_ρ = .13, k = 4, also demonstrated a negative relationship with incivility, though the 95% confidence interval for this effect included zero. Contrary to Hypothesis 4b, job involvement, ρ = .03, SD_ρ = .19, k = 3, was positively related to instigated incivility, though the 95% confidence interval included zero for this effect. These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 4b.

Team Characteristics

Hypothesis 6 states that more positive work situations at the team level (e.g., support) will *prevent* incivility instigation (b). Table 12 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between team situational characteristics and instigated incivility for effects measured concurrently; there were not enough effects to estimate the

relationship for effects measured prospectively. Figure 5 displays these relationships graphically.

After correcting for measurement unreliability, certain positive team situational characteristics had a significant, negative relationship with instigated incivility: coworker support, ρ = -.22, SD_ρ = .04, k = 3, supervisor support, ρ = -.22, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3, trust in management, ρ = -.29, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3, and work group civility, ρ = -.41, SD_ρ = .04, k = 6. The 80% credibility interval did not include zero for these effects. Leader-member exchange, ρ = -.08, SD_ρ = .14, k = 4, also demonstrated a negative relationship with incivility, though the 95% confidence interval for this effect included zero. These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 6b.

Job Characteristics

Hypothesis 7 states that job characteristics will influence the likelihood of instigating incivility, such that demanding job characteristics (e.g., workload, work hours) will put individuals at greater *risk* for incivility instigation (a) and job resources (e.g., control) will *prevent* incivility instigation (b). Table 13 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between job characteristics and instigated incivility. Figure 6 displays these relationships graphically.

After correcting for measurement unreliability, workload had a significant, positive relationship with instigated incivility when measured concurrently, ρ = .16, SD_ρ = .07, k = 4. The 80% credibility interval did not include zero for this effect. Results also demonstrated a positive relationship between instigated incivility and work hours, ρ =

.15, SD_ρ = .06, k = 3, and general job demands[2], ρ = .04, SD_ρ = .20, k = 8, though the 95% confidence interval for these effects included zero. Results demonstrated a negative relationship between work hours and instigated incivility when measured prospectively, ρ = -.02, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3, though the 95% confidence interval for this effect included zero. These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 7a.

After correcting for measurement unreliability, job control had a negative relationship with instigated incivility when measured concurrently, ρ = -.07, SD_ρ = .14, k = 7. However, the 95% confidence interval for this effect included zero. This result fails to support Hypothesis 7b.

Experienced Incivility

Hypothesis 8 states that experiencing incivility will put individuals at greater *risk* for incivility instigation. Table 14 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility for effects measured both concurrently and prospectively. Figure 7 displays these relationships graphically.

After correcting for measurement unreliability, all forms of experienced incivility had a significant, positive relationship with instigated incivility when measured concurrently. All sources of incivility combined were positively related with instigated incivility, ρ = .61, SD_ρ = .13, k = 37. General (source-agnostic) experienced incivility, ρ = .55, SD_ρ = .18, k = 14, incivility from a coworker, ρ = .61, SD_ρ = .10, k = 17, incivility

[2] The positive effect of job demands on instigated incivility may have been attenuated by a possible outlying effect in Holm et al. (2015). Though examination of this literature warranted no theoretical basis for exclusion, it is worth noting that the average corrected effect of job demands on instigated incivility would be statistically significant and greater in magnitude with this effect excluded, ρ = .18, SD_ρ = .07, k = 7.

from a customer, ρ = .55, SD_ρ = .03, k = 4, and incivility from a supervisor, ρ = .45, SD_ρ = .08, k = 13, were all significantly and positively related to instigated incivility. The 80% credibility interval for these effects did not include zero.

Certain forms of experienced incivility had a significant, positive relationship with instigated incivility when measured prospectively. All sources of incivility combined were positively related with instigated incivility, ρ = .67, SD_ρ = .16, k = 6. The 80% credibility interval for this effect did not include zero. The effect of general experienced incivility on instigated incivility when measured prospectively was also positive, ρ = .62, SD_ρ = .26, k = 3, but the 95% confidence interval for this effect did include zero. Taken together, these results provide partial support for Hypothesis 8.

Observed Incivility

Hypothesis 9 states that observing incivility will put individuals at *risk* for greater incivility instigation. Table 15 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility for effects measured concurrently; there were not enough effects to estimate the relationship for effects measured prospectively. Figure 8 displays these relationships graphically.

After correcting for measurement unreliability, all forms of observed incivility had a significant, positive relationship with instigated incivility. All sources of incivility combined were positively related with instigated incivility, ρ = .58, SD_ρ = .15, k = 6. Incivility from a coworker, ρ = .57, SD_ρ = .10, k = 4, and incivility from a supervisor, ρ = .47, SD_ρ = .09, k = 4, were significantly and positively related to instigated incivility. The

80% credibility interval for these effects did not include zero. These results provide full support for Hypothesis 9.

Moderators of Incivility Reciprocation

Hypotheses 10 through 13 state that burnout (H10), negative affect (H11), anger, (H12), and hot temperament (H13) will serve as *risk factors* when moderating the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that the positive relationship between experiencing incivility and instigating incivility will be stronger under higher levels of these variables. The effect of experienced incivility on instigated incivility had significant between-study variance, suggesting the presence of moderators, $\chi^2(38) = 508.93$, $p < .001$. Table 16 presents the results from mixed-effects meta-regression analyses using restricted maximum likelihood estimation to test these hypotheses.

There was no statistically significant moderating effect of the components of burnout on the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility: emotional exhaustion, $k = 12$, $b = -0.61$, $SE_b = 0.52$, $p = .237$, $R^2 = .01$, cynicism, $k = 6$, $b = -0.90$, $SE_b = 0.74$, $p = .222$, $R^2 = .07$, and personal accomplishment, $k = 5$, $b = -1.62$, $SE_b = 1.42$, $p = .258$, $R^2 = .06$. These results fail to support Hypothesis 10. Similarly, the moderating effects of negative affect, $k = 7$, $b = -0.35$, $SE_b = 0.35$, $p = .324$, $R^2 = .05$, anger, $k = 3$, $b = -2.08$, $SE_b = 1.38$, $p = .133$, $R^2 = .44$, and hot temperament, $k = 6$, $b = 0.36$, $SE_b = 0.50$, $p = .477$, $R^2 = .00$, did not reach traditional levels of statistical significance. These results fail to support Hypotheses 11, 12, and 13, respectively.

Research Questions

In the following sections, I review the results of each meta-analytic test of the research questions put forth previously.

Demographic Characteristics

Research Question 1 asked, how do demographic variables influence the likelihood of instigating incivility? Table 17 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between demographic characteristics and instigated incivility for effects measured both concurrently and prospectively.

After correcting for measurement unreliability, only two demographic characteristics were statistically significantly related to instigated incivility when measured concurrently. Biological sex[3] was statistically significantly related to instigated incivility, ρ = -.08, SD_ρ = .04, k = 20, such that male participants in the included samples were more likely to instigate incivility than female participants. The 80% credibility interval for this relationship did not include zero. Age was negatively related to instigated incivility, ρ = -.09, SD_ρ = .08, k = 20, indicating that younger participants in the included samples were more likely to instigate incivility than older participants. However, the 80% credibility interval for this relationship did include zero. The effects of the remaining demographic characteristics were not statistically significant: education, ρ = .01, SD_ρ = .09, k = 6, job tenure, ρ = -.03, SD_ρ = .02, k = 7, organizational tenure, ρ = -.02, SD_ρ =

[3] Though scholars have argued for differentiating the constructs of biological sex (i.e., male and female) and gender (i.e., man, woman, transgender) for both social justice-related (Schellenberg & Kaiser, 2018) and methodological (Bittner & Goodyear-Grant, 2017) reasons, most studies included in this review either describe their sample in terms related to their biological sex or conflate biological sex and gender identity in their sample description. As such, I defer to language used in most of included work and use biological sex to discuss differences due to biological sex and/or gender identity.

.00, k = 6, work experience, ρ = -.03, SD_ρ = .05, k = 4, and race, ρ = -.02, SD_ρ = .08, k = 4, indicating that White participants in the included samples were slightly more likely to instigate incivility than non-White participants. There were no statistically significant effects of demographic characteristics on instigated incivility when measured prospectively: age, ρ = -.04, SD_ρ = .07, k = 9, education, ρ = -.00, SD_ρ = .07, k = 4, biological sex, ρ = -.06, SD_ρ = .04, k = 9, job tenure, ρ = .01, SD_ρ = .00, k = 3, and organizational tenure, ρ = .09, SD_ρ = .11, k = 3.

Job Characteristics

Research Question 2 asked, how do job characteristics that are neither demands nor control influence the likelihood of instigating incivility? Table 18 presents the meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between job characteristics and instigated incivility for effects measured concurrently. After correcting for measurement unreliability, organizational level was not significantly related to instigated incivility, ρ = .11, SD_ρ = .08, k = 4. The 95% confidence interval for this effect did include zero.

Measurement Instrument

Research Question 3 asked, are the measures of instigated incivility derived from the WIS and UWBQ comparable in how they relate to the antecedents of instigated incivility? Table 19 presents the results from subgroup moderator analyses to test the differential strength of relationships between instigated incivility and other constructs dependent on measurement instrument. Table 19 also presents independent samples *t*-test results to empirically evaluate the difference in ρ between subgroups. Results from *t*-tests indicate no significant differences due to measurement instrument, all *p*s > .090.

Exploratory Analyses

Moderators of Incivility Reciprocation

Due to the small sample sizes limiting the ability to test Hypotheses 10 through 20, I conducted exploratory analyses to identify other possible moderators of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility. A review of the available data resulted in ten constructs with adequate sample sizes to be tested as moderators: hostile attribution bias, job control, job demands, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, physical health, tenure, turnover intentions work group civility, and workload. Additionally, four sample characteristics were evaluated as potential moderators: average age of the sample, percent of sample identifying as non-male, percent of sample identifying as non-White, and sample type (e.g., general employees, healthcare employees).

Table 20 presents the results from mixed-effects meta-regression analyses using restricted maximum likelihood estimation for all continuous moderators. Three of the thirteen continuous moderator tests yielded statistically significant results. First, the moderating effect of job control was statistically significant, such that the positive relationship between experienced and instigated incivility becomes more negative and thus weaker under conditions of greater job control, $k = 4$, $b = -0.50$, $SE_b = 0.12$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .90$. Figure 9 displays this moderation effect. Second, the moderating effect of work group civility was statistically significant, such that the positive relationship between experienced and instigated incivility becomes more negative and thus weaker under conditions of greater work group civility, $k = 4$, $b = -5.15$, $SE_b = 1.94$, $p = .008$, $R^2 = .97$.

Figure 10 displays this moderation effect. Third, the moderating effect of sample age was statistically significant, such that the positive relationship between experienced and instigated incivility becomes more negative and thus weaker for older participants, k = 29, b = -0.01, SE_b = 0.00, p = .015, R^2 = .15. Figure 11 displays this moderation effect.

Table 21 presents the results from the categorical moderation test of sample type. Figure 12 displays this moderation effect. The categorical sample type moderation indicated that the effect of experienced incivility on instigated incivility was significant for each subsample, but the strength of this relationship differed. Samples from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) yielded the strongest relationships, ρ = .70, SD_ρ = .15, k = 7, followed by samples of general employees, ρ = .62, SD_ρ = .14, k = 16, healthcare samples, ρ = .59, SD_ρ = .04, k = 7, and hospitality samples, ρ = .54, SD_ρ = .16, k = 4.

Discussion

Taken together, the results of this meta-analysis move the field toward a comprehensive understanding of incivility instigation. In the following section, I summarize the results of main effect and moderator analyses and review the practical and theoretical implications of these findings. Next, I discuss the contributions and limitations of the present study. Finally, I suggest areas for future research that address these limitations and expand my findings.

Summary of Results

Main Effects

The results of this meta-analysis indicate that instigated incivility is related to a variety of individual- and situational-level constructs that can serve as either risk or preventative factors. In general, results of meta-analytic hypothesis testing of main effects revealed that psychological ill-being and negative psychological states, certain personal dispositions (e.g., narcissism), certain demographic characteristics (i.e., age and male-identifying), negative job attitudes, greater job demands, and experiencing and observing incivility serve as risk factors that are related to greater instigated incivility. Conversely, psychological well-being and positive psychological states, physical well-being, certain personal dispositions (e.g., agreeableness), positive job attitudes, and positive team characteristics serve as preventative factors that are related to less instigated incivility.

There was one hypothesis that was not supported with the available data. Hypothesis 7b predicted that job control would serve as a preventative factor and be

negatively related to incivility. Though the relationship was in the expected direction, the average effect size was not statistically significantly different from zero. One explanation for this finding may be that the effect of job control on instigated incivility is curvilinear. Past work has indeed demonstrated a curvilinear relationship between job control and employee outcomes, such that very low and very high levels of job control lead to poorer outcomes than more moderate levels of job control (Kubicek et al., 2014; Stiglbauer & Kovacs, 2018). As such, the main effect of job control on instigated incivility may not have reached significance due to the linear nature of correlation statistics. Another explanation may be that the extent to which one's personal preferences for job control are met may influence how job control impacts their behaviors. Individuals who prefer greater structure and feedback may experience increased stress, and thus engage in more uncivil behavior, when given greater control over their job. Indeed, past work has demonstrated that better fit with one's job is associated with less counterproductive work behavior in general (Iliescu et al., 2015) and incivility instigation specifically (Jiménez et al., 2018; Leiter et al., 2015). However, this lack of support for Hypothesis 7b is somewhat qualified by the significant moderating effect of job control in the exploratory analyses; this is discussed in a subsequent section.

Two important patterns emerged from these main effects. First, in this sample, the effects of experienced and observed incivility on incivility instigation were generally greater in magnitude than all other antecedent groups included in this meta-analysis. Though the differences between these effects can not be empirically inferred due to dependency between them, the relative effect sizes of experienced and observed incivility

compared to other correlates may provide direction for practice and future research. This suggests the importance of experienced and observed incivility in future research on incivility instigation and in developing interventions to combat incivility in the workplace. Researchers should examine the impact of experienced and observed incivility in addition to other individual- and situational-level factors when conducting research on incivility instigation. This also has important implications for preventing incivility instigation through primary prevention; interventions may be more successful if they not only seek to maximize the preventative factors and minimize the risk factors identified in this meta-analysis, but also educate employees on how to manage their responses to observing or experiencing uncivil behavior from others.

Second, in general, the effects of risk factors on incivility instigation were greater than their preventative factor counterparts; for example, psychological ill-being risk factors had a greater impact on increasing incivility instigation than psychological well-being preventative factors had on decreasing incivility instigation. Similar to the relative effects of experienced and observed incivility compared to other factors, the differences between these effects can not be empirically inferred due to dependency. However, this pattern is consistent with the general finding in psychological research that negative stimuli are typically more cognitively salient and impactful than positive stimuli (Baumeister et al., 2001; Cameron, 2008). This may provide direction for practitioners, such that primary interventions to halt incivility instigation by minimizing risk factors may be more successful than those that only maximize preventative factors. However, there was one exception to this pattern: positive job attitudes were more impactful in

preventing instigated incivility than negative job attitudes were in increasing risk for instigated incivility, and the most impactful positive job attitudes were perceptions of justice and fairness. This finding suggests that interventions may be more successful if they include or are supplemented by efforts to increase justice and fairness perceptions. One particularly effective avenue for increasing justice perceptions within this context may be developing, implementing, and consistently upholding zero-tolerance policies for uncivil behavior and other forms of mistreatment. Though zero-tolerance policies for mistreatment may result in backlash or more covert mistreatment, such policies are necessary to protect individuals and organizations and can be bolstered by supervisor role modeling (Ferris et al., 2018).

Reciprocal Incivility Moderators

Due to limited samples in the collected body of literature, there were not enough effects to analyze the impact of most of the characteristics proposed by Andersson and Pearson (1999) on the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility. There were six effects for which sample sizes were small but adequate; however, these moderating effects were not statistically significant. Future work is needed to empirically validate the moderating effects of these constructs on the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, but the significant main effects of some of these constructs on instigated incivility suggest they may indeed be important factors in the reciprocal incivility process (e.g., justice perceptions, negative affect, observing incivility).

Results from exploratory moderator analyses are similarly qualified by the small number of samples available for meta-regression analyses, detailed further in the discussion of limitations. However, these results may still be informative and prompt further examination of the risk and preventative factor organizing framework. First, though meta-analytic tests of main effects demonstrated no statistically significant effect of job control on instigated incivility, job control emerged as a statistically significant moderator of the reciprocal incivility relationship, such that employees were less likely to reciprocate incivility under conditions of greater job control. An explanation for this finding may be that individuals are better able to cope with uncivil behavior from others when they have greater job control, and these coping behaviors make uncivil behavior less likely. For example, Cortina and Magley (2009) presented five clusters of behaviors that individuals use to cope with incivility: seeking support from others, detaching from the situation, minimizing the severity of the behavior, avoiding conflict without confrontation, and avoiding conflict with confrontation. Each of these behaviors requires individuals to devote time and resources to behaviors other than work tasks. Employees who have greater job control have more freedom in deciding when and how their work tasks are completed, offering them the time and energy to seek social or organizational support ("support seekers" and "prosocial conflict avoiders"), mentally and/or physically detach from work ("detachers"), reflect on the situation ("minimizers"), or confront their uncivil colleague ("assertive conflict avoiders").

Second, work group civility was also a significant moderator of the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, such that individuals were less likely to

reciprocate uncivil behaviors from others when their work group engaged in more civil behavior. This finding is also consistent with the significant negative main effect of work group civility on incivility instigation. Together, these results are likely due to the influence of work group behavior on the formation of work group norms (Estes & Wang, 2008). Though the effects of norms for incivility and civility, specifically, on instigated incivility were not numerous enough to assess meta-analytically, work group enacted civility may serve as an indicator of work group norms for civility. If one's work group models civil behavior, other employees are likely to follow to conform to the group's norms (Cortina, 2008). This is likely the case not only for instigating uncivil behavior as an isolated incident, but also for instigating uncivil behavior in response to experiencing it from others. Employees who experience incivility from individuals inside or outside of their work group will likely defer to the behaviors of other group members when deciding how to respond.

Third, age was also a significant moderator in the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, suggesting that employees who are older may be less likely to reciprocate incivility than employees who are younger. This result is consistent with the demonstrated significant main effect of age on instigated incivility, which indicated that younger employees were more likely to instigate incivility in general. Past work has found that, compared to their younger counterparts, older employees are typically more successful at understanding and controlling their emotions (Moon et al., 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2009). Thus, older employees may cope with the emotional experience of incivility more successfully, reducing the likelihood that they

will instigate in turn. This result, in addition to the significant and negative main effect of age on incivility instigation, may also reflect a survivorship bias. Older employees may be less likely to instigate incivility in general because uncivil employees have not persisted in their occupation over time, either due to termination or turning over, or maintained employment due in part to their adoption of civil workplace behaviors.

Fourth and finally, the moderating role of sample type suggested that reciprocal incivility may be most likely in samples collected from Amazon's Mechanical Turk and least likely in samples from hospitality settings. As it is likely that participants from Amazon's Mechanical Turk come from a wide range of industries, and thus no industry-specific generalizations can be made, the stronger relationship in these samples may be explained by participants' ability to respond anonymously. Indeed, past work has demonstrated that participants who complete digital surveys and perceive them to be anonymous are likely to report more truthful and less socially desirable answers to questions about sensitive topics such as one's own uncivil behavior (Kays et al., 2013). Thus, the stronger effects of reciprocal incivility in this sample may more closely represent the true population effect without the influence of social desirability. Conversely, participants in hospitality samples may be less likely to reciprocate incivility due to the strict display rules, or occupational norms surrounding the expression of emotion, characteristic of this industry (Grandey et al., 2015). Hospitality employees may be less likely to reciprocate incivility in order to adhere to organizational expectations of emotion, especially in frontline roles.

The tests of moderators in the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility provide further context for the risk and preventative factor organizing framework. The statistically significant preventative effects of job control and work group civility on reciprocal incivility indicate that the effects of risk factors (e.g., experiencing incivility) on instigated incivility can indeed be attenuated by preventative factors (e.g., job control and work group civility). The statistically significant moderation of age such that older workers were less likely to instigate incivility indicates that either age itself, an age-related individual difference variable, or a combination of the two serves as a preventative factor in the risk and preventative factor organizing framework. Similarly, the differential strength of reciprocal incivility effects by sample job type suggests there may be certain risk or preventative factors associated with particular roles or industries. Though possible mechanisms for these effects were suggested previously, future work is needed to empirically identify the factors that influence age- and job- or industry-related risk and preventative factors.

Methodological Moderators

Tests of methodological moderators found limited influence of methodological factors in the estimated effect sizes. There were no significant differences in findings due to publication status. However, non-significant differences in effects demonstrated the opposite pattern from past meta-analyses, wherein effects from published work are greater in magnitude than effects from unpublished work. Though not statistically significant, in the present meta-analysis, effects from unpublished studies were greater in magnitude than effects from published studies in five of the eight testable hypotheses.

There were also no statistically significant differences in findings due to measurement instrument when comparing measures derived from Cortina et al.'s (2001) Workplace Incivility Scale and those from Martin and Hine's (2005) Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire. Though not statistically significant, the pattern of differences indicated that effects were stronger in magnitude when instigated incivility was measured with the WIS than with the UWBQ for six of the eight testable hypotheses (average effect sizes were equal for one hypothesis). This pattern of effects may be due to two factors: the factor structure of the UWBQ, and the scales' differences in their item severity. First, whereas the WIS and its derivatives are single-factor scales, the UWBQ and its derivatives are four-factor scales. Moreover, most included studies in which the UWBQ was used to measure instigated incivility only reported correlates for the entire scale, rather than for each of the four subscales. The multidimensional nature of the UWBQ and the included unidimensional effect sizes may have contributed to the generally smaller effect sizes from this measure. Second, the four factors of the UWBQ are privacy invasion, exclusionary behavior, gossiping, and hostility. The gossiping (e.g., "made snide remarks") and hostility ("e.g., spoke in an aggressive tone of voice") subscales specifically may not reflect the ambiguity and lack of intensity characteristic of incivility. Thus, though not statistically significant, the smaller effect sizes from the UWBQ relative to the WIS may be due to differences in conceptualization of the underlying construct.

The effect of concurrent versus prospective measurement of effects made some difference in the estimated effect sizes. Results indicated significant differences between concurrent and prospective effects in three of the seven testable hypotheses: the effects of

preventative psychological well-being, preventative job attitudes, and job demand risk factors on instigated incivility were stronger when measured concurrently than when measured prospectively. Though it is common for bivariate relationships to be stronger when measured concurrently than prospectively due to common method bias, this finding may also be due to the state-like nature of the constructs in question. Well-being, job attitudes, and job demands fluctuate over time and in response to a variety of individual and situational constructs, so their relationship to a behavior at a later point would likely be weaker than their relationship to the same behavior concurrently.

To further explore the effect of measurement timing, I assessed the moderating role of length of time lag in hypothesized main effects for effects measured prospectively. Two of the six testable hypotheses were significantly moderated by time lag: results indicated that the preventative effects of personal dispositions and job attitudes on instigated incivility were more negative, and thus stronger, as the time between measurement occasions increased. Conversely, there was no significant moderation of lag time in the effects for risk factors. This result contradicts the difference in concurrent and prospective designs mentioned previously, wherein concurrent effects were stronger than prospective effects. This effect may be explained by the preventative nature of the constructs in question. Frederickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions suggests that positive emotions and states offer individuals not only immediate benefits, but delayed benefits through broadening one's awareness and building skills and resources. Though job attitudes and personal dispositions may be characterized by more stability than the positive emotions to which broaden-and-build theory was initially

applied, it is also possible that the effects of preventative job attitudes and personal dispositions on instigated incivility become stronger over time through a similar process. For example, experiencing satisfaction with one's job may broaden their awareness, leading to the discovery of a creative solution for a workplace problem. This broadened awareness would then contribute to building skills and resources, perhaps job control or peer support, that could further prevent incivility instigation. Future work is necessary to elucidate the process by which positive attitudes and personal dispositions may become increasingly impactful on reducing the likelihood of incivility instigation over time.

Contributions

The results of this meta-analysis inform the literature on incivility in several ways. First, this study was motivated by the need to better understand mistreatment perpetration within the context of existing theory. The proposed organizing framework of risk factors, preventative factors, and their interaction achieves this goal by integrating various theoretical perspectives to provide a broader and more comprehensive understanding of mistreatment perpetration. Additionally, this study assembles and quantitatively synthesizes the existing literature on instigated incivility and explains the phenomenon within this organizing framework. This is an important step for the incivility literature given the lack of a comprehensive framework of incivility in workplace contexts and the little attention paid to the instigator's perspective. Future work can utilize the framework developed in this work in further examination of incivility and other forms of mistreatment from the instigator's perspective.

Second, this study was motivated by the field's moral and scientific obligation to reject outdated notions of victim precipitation and instead align mistreatment research with the perpetrator predation paradigm (Cortina, 2017). In establishing the average effect sizes between instigated incivility and many of its correlates, this meta-analysis adopts this paradigm and builds a foundation upon which future work in this paradigm can build. Identifying the strength of these associations has important implications for future research on incivility in particular and mistreatment in general. Moreover, these results are valuable for organizational practitioners who aim to lower the incidence of incivility. Understanding the most impactful correlates of instigated incivility may provide direction for the mechanisms by which organizations can limit the spread of uncivil behavior in their workforce.

Third, this work identified areas in which the existing literature on instigated incivility is insufficient, providing avenues for future work. These areas include constructs at the team and organization levels and moderators and mediators in the reciprocal incivility relationship. These gaps, and the potential implications of addressing them, are addressed in greater detail in the Future Directions section.

Fourth, this study examined potential moderators in the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility, aiming to empirically validate the propositions put forth by Andersson and Pearson (1999) and identify other important factors in the reciprocal incivility cycle. Though data availability and sample size limited the ability to empirically test many of these moderators, increased job control and work group civility emerged as constructs that prevent the spread of incivility and the transition from target

to instigator. These findings provide further evidence for the utility of the risk and preventative factor organizing framework in understanding the factors that influence mistreatment perpetration, in that the effect of a risk factor (i.e., experiencing incivility) on instigated incivility was attenuated by the presence of preventative factors (i.e., job control and work group civility). Further work is needed to empirically confirm these results and test the potential moderating variables that were not analyzed in this study, but these results provide an important starting point for this work and can inform incivility interventions.

Finally, as mentioned, this work has important implications for interventions that aim to stop incivility instigation and reciprocation. First, the effects of experienced and observed incivility on instigating incivility provide support for the presence of reciprocal incivility, the cruciality of stopping incivility at its source with primary intervention methods, and the importance of addressing reciprocal incivility in tertiary intervention. It is likely, then, that intervention methods will be more successful if they not only aim to prevent incivility in the first place, but also teach effective coping mechanisms for those who have been targets or observers to prevent their future instigation. Second, the trend of differences in the effects of risk and preventative factors on incivility instigation imply that interventions that aim to maximize preventative factors alone may not be as successful as those that aim to only minimize risk factors or do both concurrently. Third and finally, the potential moderating effects of job control and work group civility on the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility indicate that these preventative factors may be successful in preventing reciprocal incivility through utilizing job crafting

techniques or improving team interpersonal behavior. As such, job design interventions and climate training may be successful for incivility prevention.

Past work by Leiter and colleagues (2011, 2012) and Osatuke and colleagues (2009) has indeed demonstrated the efficacy of civility interventions, The Civility, Respect, and Engagement in the Workforce (CREW) intervention aims to reduce uncivil behavior and increase civil behavior through the development of unit-level civility climates, and results have indicated that the intervention not only produces these behavioral changes but also improves employee attitudes and reduces withdrawal behavior in samples of healthcare and administrative employees. The significant moderating effect of work group civility on incivility reciprocation in the present study further supports the efficacy of such team-level civility interventions, and suggests that behavioral changes as a result of these interventions may be found in less frequent instances of incivility as both an isolated incident and as a form of reciprocation. Meta-analytic results from Yang and colleagues (2014) provide additional support for the constructive effects of psychological and unit-level civility climate on mistreatment exposure, job attitudes, strain, and withdrawal behaviors, and demonstrate that the effects of civility climate (encouraging and incentivizing positive and civil behaviors) are stronger than those of aggression-inhibition climate (discouraging and punishing negative and uncivil behaviors). Taken together, these findings indicate that civility climate interventions may be beneficial for a variety of outcomes across a variety of contexts.

Limitations

There are some limitations to this work, the most important of which is the number of studies that were eligible for inclusion. Many of the results reported in this meta-analysis were computed using effects from only three samples, limiting the power to identify statistically significant effects and generalize the results beyond the included literature. This was especially impactful for tests of theoretical moderators. I was unable to test most of the hypothesized moderators due to insufficient sample sizes (*k*). In most meta-regression models for which sample sizes were sufficient for reporting (e.g., $k \geq 3$), the number of included samples fell below the suggested minimum of ten samples for each covariate (Borenstein et al., 2009). This issue should be addressed by additional primary studies on instigated incivility, especially those that include organizational-level correlates and other forms of incivility (i.e., observed and experienced). Although sample size was a limiting factor for this study, I was able to assess the relationships between instigated incivility and over 50 correlates, establishing a foundation upon which future work can build.

As with any meta-analysis, there is the possibility for these results to be stronger estimates than actual population effects due to the "file drawer" problem, or the unintentional exclusion of unpublished works that tend to report weaker effects than published works. However, there are reasons to be confident in the results presented in this study. I made multiple concerted attempts to identify, obtain, and include unpublished work. As a result, over one-third (37%) of the included samples were from unpublished sources. Additionally, empirical and graphical sensitivity analyses did not

indicate the presence of publication bias. Average effects calculated from published and unpublished works were not significantly different from one another and were similar in direction and magnitude. Thus, though the "file drawer" problem limits the ability to generalize results from every meta-analysis, the proportion of unpublished work in the included corpus and results from empirical and graphical sensitivity analyses suggest that this issue may not be as impactful for the present study relative to other meta-analyses.

Another important limitation is the ability to make causal inferences from the average effects generated in this study. I attempted to address this by calculating average effects from concurrent and prospective effects separately and testing for statistically significant differences between the two averages. However, the temporal relationships between instigated incivility and the included variables cannot be inferred with confidence. Though the causal assumptions of temporal precedence and covariance are met, the lagged nature of prospective effects does not represent a true longitudinal study in which the same variable is measured over multiple occasions and previous levels of the variable are controlled for statistically. A concerted effort is needed to measure these relationships with true longitudinal studies that employ appropriate statistical controls. Such studies, including evaluations of interventions, would more adequately capture the social process of incivility and allow for generalizable and causal inferences.

Finally, it is possible that the average effects put forth in this work may be more conservative estimates than population average effects due to the nature of the incivility construct. Though past work has demonstrated that individuals report experienced incivility at high rates (Porath & Pearson, 2013), self-reported estimates of instigated

incivility are likely lower and less varied than true population effects due to socially desirable responding, especially in measurement settings where participants' responses are not anonymous. Together, these limitations may have introduced bias in the estimates obtained in this meta-analysis, such that the relationships reported may be weaker than actual population-level effects due to range restriction at lower frequencies.

Future Directions

Results from this study help to identify areas where future research on instigated incivility is needed. The included literature measured very few team- and organizational-level constructs relative to individual-level constructs. The influence of individual well-being, personal dispositions, and attitudes is undoubtedly important in predicting individual behavior. However, constructs at the team and organization level are likely also impactful and may be more readily manipulated for the purposes of intervention than constructs at the individual employee level. As such, examining relationships between instigated incivility and correlates at levels other than the individual is necessary for understanding the contextual factors that influence incivility instigation and may provide a fruitful avenue for intervention development.

Another area for future research is a closer examination of the incivility process through moderators and mediators of the relationship between experienced or observed and instigated incivility. Only two of the 70 studies included in this work reported tests of mediators in the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility (Kim & Qu, 2019b; Loh & Loi, 2018). Empirical tests of moderators in the present study yielded statistically significant results in few cases, likely in part due to inadequate sample sizes.

The identification of mediators and moderators in this relationship is crucial to the field's understanding of the context in which the social process of incivility unfolds. Additionally, results from these analyses provide possible avenues for intervention in the reciprocal incivility cycle. Thus, future work should aim to capture the social process of incivility and its context through moderation and mediation.

Conclusion

The present study has comprehensively reviewed and synthesized the body of literature related to instigated incivility in the workplace and provided a comprehensive organizing framework through which researchers can conceptualize the antecedents and correlates of instigated incivility. Additionally, through meta-analysis, this work has provided estimates of the strength between instigated incivility and its correlates, offered evidence for the existence of reciprocal incivility, and has empirically tested theoretical moderators in the relationship between experienced and instigated incivility. This study informs current literature and provides avenues for future work to extend the field's understanding of incivility instigation. Furthermore, this work also suggests numerous mechanisms by which practitioners can reduce incivility in organizations, both as an isolated incident and in response to experiencing incivility from others. In sum, incivility may beget further incivility, but I hope this work provides critical information to better understand and prevent these cycles from occurring.

Table 1

Theoretical Foundation for the Risk and Preventative Factor Framework of Instigated Incivility

Theoretical Framework	Summary	Risk Factors	Preventative Factors
Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001)	Job characteristics can be categorized as job demands or resources. Job demands require effort and lead to strain. Resources can be job-related or personal and provide support and lead to positive outcomes.	Job demands	Job resources Personal resources
Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996)	Work events interact with individual predispositions to yield specific emotional reactions. Negative work events are considered hassles and positive work events are considered uplifts.	Hassles Individual predispositions (e.g., trait anger)	Uplifts Individual predispositions (e.g., emotional intelligence)
Trait Activation Theory (Tett & Guterman, 2000)	Situational cues initiate certain personality traits, which subsequently influence work behavior. Situational cues can include concrete events or static variables	Negative situational cues	Positive situational cues
Transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984)	Employees evaluate stressful work experiences as challenges or threats, which lead to positive or negative affective experiences.	Threats	Challenges

Table 2

Meta-Analytic Inclusion Criteria and Application

	Inclusion criterion	$N_{removed}$	$N_{included}$
Step 1.	The material included search terms of interest.		1494
Step 2.	The material provided sufficient relevant information in English.	87	1407
Step 3.	The data included a measure of instigated incivility rather than only experienced and/or witnessed incivility.	601	806
Step 4.	The data measured incivility rather than more severe forms of workplace mistreatment.	486	320
Step 5.	The data were collected in a workplace context	10	310
Step 6.	The data were quantitative, presented bivariate correlations or other statistics able to be converted to bivariate correlations, and the authors reported the sample size.	203	107
Step 7.	The exact data and/or sample were not used in another published or unpublished report of findings. [a]	37	70
	Total	**1424**	**70**

[a] Duplicates were reconciled such that the report with the larger number of correlates was included. If correlates were identical, the report with the greater sample size was included. If both correlates and sample sizes were identical, the earliest report of findings was included.

Table 3

Included Sample Characteristics and Included Constructs

	Sample				Included Antecedents			
Study	*N*	Published	Design	Instrument	Demographics	Instigator	Situational	Reciprocal
Aboodi & Allameh (2019)	511	Published	Concurrent	Other	Age Biological sex Education Job tenure	Emotional exhaustion Job satisfaction Justice perc. (general) Work-nonwork conflict	Demands	E. customer O. customer
Barnes et al. (2016)	131	Un-published	Prospective	Other		Agreeableness Anxiety Self-control		
Belluccia (2018)	162	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS				E. general
Birkeland & Nerstad (2016)	1263	Published	Prospective	WIS	Age Biological sex Job tenure		Work hours	
Blau & Andersson (2005)	162	Published	Prospective	WIS		Job insecurity Job satisfaction Justice perc. (distributive) Justice perc. (interactional) Justice perc. (procedural) Work exhaustion		

Brady et al. (2017)	221	Published	Prospective	WIS	Age Biological sex	Job-related affective well-being Positive affect (state)		
Carter (2013)	168	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS	Age Biological sex			
Gallus et al. (2014)	234	Published	Concurrent	WIS	Biological sex		Workload	E. general
Ghosh et al. (2011)	81	Published	Concurrent	Other		Negative affect (trait)		
Gray et al. (2017; study 1)	472	Published	Concurrent	UWBQ		Narcissism		
Gray et al. (2017; study 2)	642	Published	Concurrent	UWBQ	Age Organizational tenure	Agreeableness Anger (trait) Conscientiousness Extraversion Job insecurity Job satisfaction Justice perc. (distributive) Justice perc. (interactional) Justice perc. (procedural) Narcissism Neuroticism Openness to experience	Job demands	E. general

						Org. commitment (affective) Psyc. contract violation Work exhaustion		
Hershcovis et al. (2018)	206	Published	Prospective	WIS		Emotional exhaustion		E. general
Heylen (2018)	70	Un-published	Concurrent	UWBQ		Job satisfaction Job stress Psychological capital	Time pressure	
Holm (2014)	1960	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS		Job satisfaction Job stress Well-being		O. coworker O. supervisor
Holm et al. (2015)	2132	Published	Concurrent	WIS			Coworker support Job control Job demands Supervisor support	E. coworker E. supervisor O. coworker O. supervisor
Holm et al. (2019)	836	Published	Concurrent	WIS		Job satisfaction Stress	Job control Coworker support Supervisor support	O. coworker O. supervisor
Ilies et al. (2019; study 1)	266	Published	Prospective	WIS	Age Biological sex Education Organizational tenure	Positive affect (trait)		

Ilies et al. (2019; study 3)	278	Published	Prospective	WIS	Age Biological sex Organizational tenure	Positive affect (trait)		
Jiménez et al. (2018)	1377-2168	Published	Concurrent	WIS		Cynicism Emotional exhaustion Fairness perceptions Job satisfaction Turnover intention	Job control Workload	E. coworker E. supervisor
Kain (2008)	201	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS	Age	Job-related affective well-being Negative affect (state)		E. general
Khalid & Gulzar (2019)	276	Published	Prospective	WIS	Age Biological sex Education Job tenure			
Kim & Qu (2019a, 2019b)[a]	296	Published	Concurrent	Other		Burnout	Emotional job demands	E. customer
Kirk (2007)	207	Un-published	Concurrent	UWBQ		Emotional intelligence Job satisfaction Negative affect (state) Positive affect (state)		E. general

Kluemper et al. (2019; study 1)	372	Published	Concurrent	WIS			Leader-member exchange	E. general
Kluemper et al. (2019; study 2)	144	Published	Concurrent	Other			Leader-member exchange	E. general
Koon & Pun (2018)	102	Published	Concurrent	WIS	Age Biological sex	Emotional exhaustion Job satisfaction	Job demands	
Krishnan (2016)	265	Published	Prospective	Other	Biological sex Organizational tenure Work experience	Agreeableness Conscientiousness Extraversion Neuroticism	Job control Job demands	
Lanzo (2015)	176	Un-published	Concurrent	UWBQ	Age Biological sex Organizational tenure	Psychological capital	Work hours	
Lata & Chaudhary (2020; academic sample)	350	Published	Prospective	WIS	Age Biological sex Education Job tenure	Machiavellianism Narcissism Psychopathy	Organizational level Work hours	
Lata & Chaudhary (2020; hospitality sample)	338	Published	Prospective	WIS	Age Biological sex Education Job tenure	Machiavellianism Narcissism Psychopathy	Organizational level Work hours	

LeBlanc (2011)	1126	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS		Job satisfaction Psychological well-being Physical well-being	Job control Workload	E. coworker E. supervisor
Leiter et al. (2010)	477	Published	Concurrent	WIS	Age	Cynicism Emotional exhaustion Physical well-being Turnover intention	Work group civility	E. coworker E. supervisor
Leiter et al. (2011)	1107	Published	Prospective	WIS		Cynicism Emotional exhaustion Job satisfaction Org. commitment Personal accomplishment Trust in management Turnover intention	Respect perceived from others Work group civility	E. coworker E. supervisor
Leiter et al. (2012)	1136	Published	Prospective	WIS		Cynicism Emotional exhaustion Job satisfaction Org. commitment Personal accomplishment Physical well-being Trust in management Turnover intention	Job control Respect perceived from others Work group civility	E. coworker E. supervisor

Leiter et al. (2015)	1624	Published	Concurrent	Other		Cynicism Emotional exhaustion Personal accomplishment Trust in management	Work group civility Workload	E. coworker E. supervisor
Loh & Loi (2018)	303	Published	Concurrent	WIS		Burnout		E. general
Loi & Golledge (2018)	113	Un-published	Prospective	UWBQ		Emotional intelligence Negative affect (state) Positive affect (state)		
Manegold (2014)	94	Un-published	Prospective	WIS		Anger (trait) Narcissism Negative affect (state) Social desirability		E. coworker
McNeice (2013)	159	Un-published	Concurrent	UWBQ	Biological sex	Anger (trait) Family-to-work conflict Negative affect (trait)		
Meier & Gross (2015)	131	Published	Prospective	Other		Depressive mood Exhaustion		E. general
Meier & Semmer (2013)	197	Published	Concurrent	WIS	Age Biological sex Education	Anger (trait) Lack of reciprocity		

						Narcissism	
Min et al. (2019)	376	Published	Prospective	WIS	Age Biological sex	Machiavellianism Narcissism Psychopathy Sadism	
Miranda & Welbourne (2020)	447	Un-published	Prospective	WIS		Anger (trait) Contempt Disgust Social desirability	
Moore (2019; pilot study)	36	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS, Other		Agreeableness Anger (trait) Conscientiousness Job satisfaction Justice perc. (distributive) Justice perc. (interactional) Justice perc. (procedural) Neuroticism Social desirability	E. general
Moore (2019; main study)	237	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS, Other		Agreeableness Anger (trait) Conscientiousness Job satisfaction Justice perc. (distributive) Justice perc. (interactional) Justice perc. (procedural) Neuroticism Social desirability	E. general

Nandedkar (2016)	204	Published	Concurrent	WIS	Age Work experience	Turnover intention	Leader-member exchange	
Patterson (2016; chapter 3)	362	Un-published	Prospective	WIS		Cynicism Emotional exhaustion Job satisfaction Org. commitment (affective) Professional efficacy	Civility norms Respect perceived from others	E. coworker E. supervisor
Patterson (2016; chapter 5)	400	Un-published	Prospective	WIS		Agreeableness Conscientiousness Cynicism Emotional exhaustion Dispositional gratitude Job satisfaction Justice perc. (procedural) Mental well-being Negative affect (trait) Org. commitment (affective) Positive affect (trait)	Civility norms Incivility norms Coworker support Respect perceived from others	E. coworker
Pegues (2018)	520	Un-published	Concurrent	UWBQ	Age Biological sex Education Job tenure	Emotional exhaustion Psychological capital	Organizational level	E. general

					Work experience			
Peng (2020)	226	Un-published	Prospective	WIS	Age Biological sex Race	Fatigue Hostile attribution bias Negative affect (trait)	Time pressure Work hours Workload	E. general
Pettita & Jiang (2019; Italian sample)	273	Published	Concurrent	Other		Emotional exhaustion		
Pettita & Jiang (2019; American sample)	350	Published	Concurrent	Other		Cynicism Emotional exhaustion		
Ricciotti (2016)	260	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS	Age Biological sex Job tenure Organizational tenure Race	Emotional intelligence	Organizational level	
Roberts (2013)	1304	Un-published	Concurrent	UWBQ	Age Biological sex Race	Agreeableness Conscientiousness Hostility Job tenure Life-to-work conflict Negative emotion Neuroticism Sadness	Job demands	

						Work-to-life conflict		
Roberts et al. (2011)	390	Published	Concurrent	UWBQ	Age Biological sex Job tenure	Job stress Psychological capital		
Rosen et al. (2016)	70	Published	Prospective	WIS				E. coworker
Sayers et al. (2011)	975	Published	Concurrent	WIS		Justice perc. (interactional) Justice perc. (procedural) Psyc. contract violation		
Schroeder & Gatti (2014)	225	Un-published	Concurrent	UWBQ, WIS	Age Biological sex Education Race Work experience	Emotional intelligence Narcissism Neuroticism		
Sears & Humiston (2015)	461	Published	Concurrent	UWBQ	Biological sex Management Organizational tenure	Psyc. contract violation	Leader-member exchange	
Semmer et al. (2010)	199	Published	Concurrent	WIS	Age Biological sex Education Organizational tenure	Effort-reward imbalance	Work hours	

Setar et al. (2015)	104	Published	Concurrent	UWBQ		Job involvement Job stress Psychological capital		
Shadwick (2018)	113-119	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS		Depersonalization Emotional exhaustion Personal accomplishment		E. general O. general
Sliter & Jones (2016)	187	Published	Prospective	Other	Biological sex Customer service experience	Agreeableness Conscientiousness Neuroticism		
Smidt et al. (2016)	345	Published	Concurrent	Other		Engagement Job satisfaction Org. commitment Turnover intention		E. coworker E. supervisor
Taylor & Pattie (2014)	485	Published	Concurrent	WIS	Age Biological sex Race	Conscientiousness Emotional exhaustion Job satisfaction		
Taylor et al. (2018)	142	Un-published	Concurrent	Other	Age Biological sex			E. coworker
Torkelson, Holm, & Bäckström (2016)	2828	Published	Concurrent	WIS	Age Biological sex Management Role permanence	Well-being		E. coworker E. supervisor O. coworker O. supervisor
Torkelson, Holm,	512	Published	Concurrent	WIS		Job insecurity	Coworker support	E. coworker E. supervisor

Bäckström, et al. (2016)							Job control Job demands Supervisor support	
Torres et al. (2017)	297	Published	Concurrent	Other		Negative emotions		E. customer
Trudel (2009)	277-284	Un-published	Concurrent	WIS		Organizational commitment Turnover intention		E. general
van Jaarsveld et al. (2010)	307	Published	Concurrent	Other	Age Biological sex Education Organizational tenure	Emotional exhaustion Negative affect (trait)	Job demands	E. customer
Walsh et al. (2020)	798	Published	Concurrent	UWBQ		Job stress	Civility climate	E. general
Weiss et al. (2009)	38	Un-published	Prospective	Other				E. general
Wooderson (2014)	895	Un-published	Prospective	WIS				E. liberal coworker E. conservative coworker
Zhou (2015)	75	Un-published	Prospective	WIS		Burnout Negative emotions Physical well-being		E. coworker E. supervisor E. physician E. patients and visitors
Zivnuska et al. (2020)	260	Published	Prospective	WIS		Positive mood		

	Psychological distress

Note. E. = experienced. O. = observed.

[a] In personal correspondence, the authors indicated that the data from their two 2019 studies were from the same sample. As such, they are considered one sample for the purpose of analysis.

Table 4

Moderating Role of Publication Status on Hypothesized Main Effects

Publication status	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	80% CR LL	80% CR UL	95% CI LL	95% CI UL	*Q*	I^2	*t* (*df*)
Psychological ill-being (H1a)												0.13 (34)
Total	36	15989	.31	.37	.15	.17	.56	.31	.42	341.03***	90	
Published	23	11563	.31	.37	.14	.19	.55	.30	.43	205.96***	89	
Unpublished	13	4426	.31	.36	.18	.12	.60	.25	.47	135.18***	91	
Psychological well-being (H1b)												0.61 (19)
Total	21	10214	-.15	-.17	.18	-.40	.06	-.25	-.09	246.62***	92	
Published	8	4915	-.12	-.14	.17	-.39	.10	-.29	.01	99.89***	93	
Unpublished	13	5299	-.17	-.19	.18	-.44	.06	-.31	-.07	142.94***	92	
Personal disposition risk factors (H3a; e.g., narcissism)												0.35 (17)
Total	19	6329	.39	.47	.24	.15	.78	.35	.58	371.23***	95	
Published	10	3215	.38	.45	.32	.00	.89	.21	.68	307.90***	97	
Unpublished	9	3114	.41	.49	.12	.31	.66	.38	.59	53.12***	85	
Preventative personal dispositions (H3b; e.g., emotional intelligence)												1.12 (11)
Total	13	44778	-.26	-.34	.18	-.59	-.09	-.46	-.22	111.28***	89	
Published	4	1579	-.21	-.26	.13	-.47	-.05	-.48	-.04	16.39***	82	
Unpublished	9	2899	-.28	-.39	.21	-.68	-.09	-.56	-.22	87.70***	91	
Job attitude risk factors (H4a; e.g., turnover intention)												0.42 (14)
Total	16	10524	.24	.28	.09	.16	.40	.23	.34	80.06***	81	
Published	13	8784	.24	.29	.10	.15	.42	.22	.35	76.21***	84	
Unpublished	3	1740	.23	.26	.03	.20	.33	.13	.40	3.15	36	
Preventative job attitudes (H4b; e.g., job satisfaction)												1.13 (22)
Total	24	15615	-.27	-.33	.12	-.48	-.18	-.38	-.28	176.58***	87	
Published	15	10938	-.28	-.35	.13	-.52	-.18	-.42	-.27	139.85***	90	
Unpublished	9	4677	-.24	-.29	.08	-.41	-.18	-.37	-.22	30.31***	74	
Job demand risk factors (H7a; e.g., workload)												1.02 (18)

Publication status	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	80% CR LL	80% CR UL	95% CI LL	95% CI UL	*Q*	I^2	*t* (*df*)
Total	20	13054	.08	.10	.15	-.10	.30	.02	.17	216.73***	91	
Published	15	10152	.06	.08	.17	-.15	.30	-.02	.17	196.89***	93	
Unpublished	5	2902	.13	.16	.05	.08	.24	.07	.25	8.84	55	
Experienced incivility (H8)												0.85 (37)
Total	39	21763	.53	.61	.11	.45	.78	.57	.66	508.93***	93	
Published	22	16640	.52	.60	.09	.49	.72	.56	.64	181.09***	89	
Unpublished	17	5123	.57	.64	.20	.37	.91	.53	.75	359.83***	96	

***$p < .001$.

Table 5

Moderating Role of Research Design on Hypothesized Main Effects

						80% CR		95% CI				
Design	*k*	*N*	*r*	*ρ*	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2	*t* (*df*)
Psychological ill-being (H1a)												0.11 (35)
Total	36	15989	.31	.37	.15	.17	.56	.31	.42	341.03***	90	
Concurrent	34	15637	.31	.36	.15	.17	.56	.31	.42	336.88***	90	
Prospective	3	514	.32	.38	.10	.19	.57	.06	.69	5.10	61	
Psychological well-being (H1b)												2.48* (21)
Total	21	10214	-.15	-.17	.18	-.40	.06	-.25	-.09	246.62***	92	
Concurrent	20	9988	-.16	-.18	.17	-.40	.04	-.26	-.10	220.70***	91	
Prospective	3	517	.07	.08	.16	-.22	.38	-.37	.53	9.03*	78	
Personal disposition risk factors (H3a; e.g., narcissism)												2.00 (17)
Total	19	6329	.39	.47	.24	.15	.78	.35	.58	371.23***	95	
Concurrent	12	3927	.33	.38	.11	.24	.53	.31	.46	49.53***	78	
Prospective	7	2402	.50	.59	.34	.11	1.08	.28	.91	314.42***	98	
Preventative personal dispositions (H3b; e.g., emotional intelligence)												1.68 (11)
Total	13	44778	-.26	-.34	.18	-.59	-.09	-.4	-.22	111.28***	89	
Concurrent	10	3682	-.22	-.30	.12	-.46	-.14	-.39	-.20	40.15***	78	
Prospective	3	796	-.40	-.50	.34	-1.15	.14	-1.36	.35	60.48	97	
Preventative job attitudes (H4b; e.g., job satisfaction)												2.66* (25)
Total	24	15615	-.27	-.33	.12	-.48	-.18	-.38	-.28	177.38***	81	
Concurrent	24	15615	-.27	-.33	.12	-.17	-.50	-.39	-.28	200.52***	90	
Prospective	3	1825	-.11	-.14	.07	-.28	-.00	-.36	.08	6.14*	74	
Job demand risk factors (H7a; e.g., workload)												0.84*** (18)
Total	20	13054	.08	.10	.15	-.10	.30	.02	.17	216.73***	91	
Concurrent	16	11875	.08	.10	.16	-.11	.32	.02	.19	205.77***	93	
Prospective	4	1179	.03	.03	.07	-.09	.15	-.13	.19	6.61	55	
Experienced incivility (H8)												1.09 (41)

						80% CR		95% CI				
Design	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2	*t* (*df*)
Total	39	21763	.53	.61	.11	.45	.78	.57	.66	508.93***	93	
Concurrent	37	21137	.53	.61	.12	.44	.77	.56	.65	490.11***	93	
Prospective	6	1835	.61	.67	.16	.44	.90	.50	.84	85.99***	95	

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 6

Moderating Role of Time Lag on Hypothesized Main Effects

					95% CI		
Hypothesis	*k*	*b*	SE_b	*p*	LL	UL	R^2
Psychological ill-being (H1a)	3	.00	.00	.310	-.00	.01	.00
Personal disposition risk factors (H3a)	7	.02	.02	.509	-.03	.06	.00
Preventative personal dispositions (H3b)	3	-.08	.01	.000	-.10	-.06	1.00
Preventative job attitudes (H4b)	3	-.00	.00	.023	-.00	-.00	.79
Job demand risk factors (H7a)	4	.00	.00	.809	-.01	.01	.00
Experienced incivility (H8)	5	.01	.00	.136	-.00	.01	.22

Note. Time lag is the length of time between a construct measured at T1 and instigated incivility measured at T2, in days.

Table 7

Moderating Role of Publication Year on Hypothesized Main Effects

					95% CI		
Hypothesis	*k*	*b*	SE_b	*p*	LL	UL	R^2
Psychological ill-being (H1a)	36	-.01	.01	.170	-.03	.01	.03
Psychological well-being (H1b)	21	.02	.01	.142	-.01	.04	.06
Physical well-being (H2)	5	.06	.03	.095	-.01	.13	.44
Personal disposition risk factors (H3a)	19	.02	.02	.223	-.01	.06	.04
Preventative personal dispositions (H3b)	13	.02	.02	.328	-.02	.06	.00
Job attitude risk factors (H4a)	16	.01	.01	.048	.00	.03	.20
Preventative job attitudes (H4b)	24	.02	.01	.314	-.00	.02	.00
Preventative team characteristics (H6)	16	.04	.02	.004	.01	.07	.34
Job demand risk factors (H7a)	20	-.00	.01	.955	-.02	.01	.00
Preventative job control (H7b)	8	-.02	.02	.295	-.06	.02	.02
Experienced incivility (H8)	39	.01	.01	.440	-.01	.02	.00
Observed incivility (H9)	6	-.06	.05	.237	-.15	.04	.07

Table 8

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Psychological Ill- and Well-Being Constructs and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Concurrent psychological ill-being risk factors (H1a)											
Burnout (general)	3	674	.42	.46	.00	.46	.46	.32	.61	1.85	0
Diminished personal accomplishment	5	4342	.15	.19	.07	.08	.30	.09	.29	15.71**	75
Depersonalization	9	6956	.35	.42	.09	.29	.54	.34	.49	53.44***	85
Emotional exhaustion	16	9360	.26	.29	.15	.09	.50	.21	.38	197.23***	92
Job stress	6	3498	.25	.30	.03	.25	.34	.24	.36	7.45	33
State negative affect	5	912	.44	.51	.21	.20	.82	.24	.78	38.60***	90
Concurrent preventative psychological well-being (H1b)											
Job-related affective well-being	3	497	-.30	-.37	.00	-.37	-.37	-.54	-.20	1.19	0
State positive affect	3	580	-.10	-.11	.10	-.29	.07	-.41	.20	5.19	61
Psychological capital	5	1260	-.17	-.19	.09	-.32	-.05	-.33	-.05	10.98*	64
Well-being (general)	3	5624	-.12	-.15	.18	-.49	.20	-.61	.31	90.49***	98
Prospective preventative psychological well-being (H1b)											
Job-related affective well-being	3	497	-.29	-.37	.00	-.37	-.37	-.54	-.20	1.23	0

Note. Results for H1a are for concurrent effects only.
*****$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 9

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Physical Well-Being and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Preventative physical well-being	5	2945	-.19	-.25	.09	-.39	-.10	-.38	-.11	17.10**	77

Note. Results are for concurrent effects only.
**$p < .01$.

Table 10

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Personal Dispositions and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Concurrent personal disposition risk factors (H3a)											
Anger (trait)	7	2669	.35	.39	.09	.27	.52	.30	.49	22.72***	74
Narcissism	5	1626	.22	.24	.00	.24	.24	.18	.30	2.70	0
Negative affect (trait)	4	1851	.36	.40	.03	.35	.46	.31	.49	4.73	37
Neuroticism	6	2617	.26	.32	.07	.22	.43	.23	.42	13.47*	63
Social desirability	3	367	.06	.07	.00	.07	.07	-.12	.25	1.01	0
Prospective personal disposition risk factors (H3a)											
Machiavellianism	3	1064	.61	.70	.31	.12	1.29	-.07	1.48	135.87***	99
Narcissism	3	1064	.52	.60	.34	-.03	1.24	-.24	1.45	118.39***	98
Psychopathy	3	1064	.59	.68	.21	.28	1.08	.14	1.22	60.14***	97
Concurrent preventative personal dispositions (H3b)											
Agreeableness	5	2406	-.20	-.26	.11	-.43	-.08	-.42	-.10	19.17***	79
Conscientiousness	6	2891	-.17	-.21	.13	-.40	-.02	-.36	-.06	31.84***	84
Emotional intelligence	4	791	-.31	-.36	.19	-.67	-.04	-.68	-.03	24.00***	87
Prospective preventative personal dispositions (H3b)											
Agreeableness	3	796	-.34	-.44	.28	-.98	.09	-1.16	.29	37.77***	95
Positive affect (trait)	3	944	.02	.03	.14	-.24	.29	-.36	.41	13.18**	85

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 11

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Job Attitudes and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Job attitude risk factors (H4a)											
Psychological contract violation	3	2078	.36	.40	.05	.30	.50	.24	.56	6.01*	67
Turnover intention	8	5798	.19	.23	.04	.17	.29	.18	.28	13.10	47
Work/nonwork conflict	3	1974	.28	.31	.13	.07	.55	-.02	.64	21.06***	91
Preventative job attitudes (H4b)											
Fairness perceptions	3	1773	-.29	-.35	.00	-.35	-.35	-.38	-.32	0.16	0
Job involvement	3	1116	.02	.03	.19	-.33	.39	-.47	.52	19.38***	90
Job satisfaction	18	10976	-.26	-.32	.15	-.51	-.13	-.39	-.24	179.36***	91
Distributive justice perceptions	4	1077	-.12	-.13	.13	-.35	.09	-.37	.11	15.23**	80
Interactional justice perceptions	3	1779	-.30	-.33	.04	-.40	-.26	-.47	-.19	3.55	44
Procedural justice perceptions	5	2052	-.25	-.28	.11	-.45	-.11	-.43	-.13	21.54***	81
Org. commitment	4	2867	-.22	-.35	.00	-.35	-.35	-.44	-.27	2.69	0
Affective org. commitment	3	1404	-.16	-.19	.00	-.19	-.19	-.27	-.10	0.70	0
Respect from others	3	2605	-.22	-.30	.05	-.38	-.21	-.45	-.14	3.32	52

Note. Results are for concurrent effects only.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 12

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Preventative Team Constructs and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Coworker support	3	3480	-.17	-.22	.04	-.29	-.14	-.35	-.08	4.40	55
Leader-member exchange	4	1181	-.07	-.08	.14	-.30	.15	-.32	.17	17.06***	82
Supervisor support	3	3480	-.19	-.22	.00	-.22	-.22	-.27	-.17	0.69	0
Trust in management	3	3867	-.23	-.29	.00	-.29	-.29	-.34	-.23	0.88	0
Work group civility	6	5504	-.34	-.41	.04	-.46	-.35	-.46	-.36	11.24*	56

Note. Results are for concurrent effects only.
***$p < .001$.

Table 13

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Job Demands and Control and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Concurrent job demand risk factor (H7a)											
Job demands (general)	8	5806	.03	.04	.20	-.25	.33	-.13	.22	154.85***	96
Work hours	3	1638	.13	.15	.06	.05	.26	-.04	.34	4.39	55
Workload	4	4361	.14	.16	.07	.04	.28	.03	.29	15.28**	80
Prospective job demand risk factors (H7a)											
Work hours	3	914	-.02	-.02	.00	-.02	-.02	-.10	.06	0.59	0
Preventative job control (H7b)											
Job control (general)	7	7306	-.06	-.07	.14	-.27	.12	-.20	.06	80.56***	93

Note. Results for H7b are for concurrent effects only.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 14

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Experienced and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Concurrent experienced incivility (H8)											
Total	37	21137	.53	.61	.13	.44	.77	.56	.65	492.94***	93
Experienced (general)	14	3986	.50	.55	.18	.31	.79	.45	.66	175.77***	93
Exp. from a coworker	17	14714	.52	.61	.10	.48	.74	.56	.66	194.25***	91
Exp. from a customer	4	1411	.48	.55	.03	.50	.61	.46	.64	4.63	35
Exp. from a supervisor	13	14023	.38	.45	.08	.34	.56	.40	.50	94.82***	87
Prospective experienced incivility (H8)											
Total	6	1835	.61	.67	.16	.44	.90	.50	.84	85.99***	95
Experienced (general)	3	470	.52	.62	.26	.24	1.10	-.04	1.27	28.70***	96

***$p < .001$.

Table 15

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Observed and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Total	6	8386	.50	.58	.15	.36	.79	.42	.73	203.97***	98
Obs. from coworker	4	7756	.50	.57	.10	.41	.74	.41	.74	84.87***	96
Obs. from supervisor	4	7756	.41	.47	.09	.32	.62	.32	.62	54.55***	95

Note. Results are for concurrent effects only.
***$p < .001$.

Table 16

Tests of Theoretical Moderators in the Relationship Between Experienced and Instigated Incivility

					95% CI		
Moderator	*k*	*b*	SE_b	*p*	LL	UL	R^2
Emotional exhaustion (H10)	12	-0.61	0.52	.237	-1.64	0.41	.01
Cynicism (H10)	6	-0.90	0.74	.222	-2.35	0.55	.07
Personal accomplishment (H10)	5	-1.62	1.42	.258	-4.38	1.17	.06
Negative affect (H11)	7	-0.35	0.35	.324	-1.04	0.34	.05
Anger (H12)	3	-2.08	1.38	.133	-4.79	0.63	.44
Hot temperament (H13) [a]	6	0.36	0.50	.477	-0.62	1.34	.00

[a] Hot temperament was comprised of the following constructs in accordance with the definition put forth by Andersson and Pearson (1999): emotional intelligence, neuroticism, self-control (reversed), and sensitivity to incivility.

Table 17

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Demographic Characteristics and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Concurrent demographic characteristics (RQ1)											
Age	20	10531	-.08	-.09	.08	-.19	.02	-.13	-.05	70.43***	73
Education	6	1945	.01	.01	.09	-.13	.14	-.11	.12	17.51**	71
Biological sex [a]	20	10104	-.08	-.08	.04	-.14	-.03	-.11	-.05	31.31*	39
Job tenure	7	4620	-.03	-.03	.02	-.05	.00	-.07	.02	7.19	17
Organizational tenure	6	2045	-.02	-.02	.00	-.02	-.02	-.08	.03	4.34	0
Race [b]	4	2260	-.02	-.02	.08	-.16	.11	-.17	.13	12.95**	77
Work experience	4	1122	-.03	-.03	.05	-.12	.05	-.16	.10	5.05	41
Prospective demographic characteristics (RQ1)											
Age	9	2596	-.03	-.04	.07	-.14	.07	-.11	.04	19.02*	58
Education	4	1230	-.00	-.00	.07	-.12	.11	-.15	.14	7.41	59
Biological sex [a]	9	2596	-.05	-.06	.04	-.11	-.00	-.11	.00	10.73	25
Job tenure	3	964	.01	.01	.00	.01	.01	-.13	.14	1.88	0
Organizational tenure	3	809	.09	.09	.11	-.12	.30	-.23	.41	8.04*	75

[a] 0 = male, 1 = female
[b] 0 = White, 1 = non-White
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 18

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Job Characteristics and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Organizational level	4	4069	.10	.11	.08	-.03	.25	-.03	.25	20.62***	85

Note. Results are for concurrent effects only.
**$p < .001$.

Table 19

Moderating Role of Measurement Instrument on Hypothesized Main Effects

						80% CR		95% CI				
Measure	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2	*t* (*df*)
Psychological ill-being risk factors (H1a)												0.19 (25)
Total	36	15989	.31	.37	.15	.17	.56	.31	.42	341.03***	90	
WIS	18	9049	.30	.36	.16	.14	.58	.28	.44	211.85***	92	
UWBQ	9	3020	.30	.35	.17	.11	.59	.21	.49	84.88***	91	
Preventative psychological well-being (H1b)												0.25 (18)
Total	21	10214	-.15	-.17	.18	-.40	.06	-.25	-.09	246.62***	92	
WIS	13	8503	-.14	-.17	.19	-.43	.09	-.29	-.05	225.23***	95	
UWBQ	7	1580	-.14	-.15	.10	-.29	-.01	-.26	-.04	17.53**	66	
Personal disposition risk factors (H3a; e.g., narcissism)												1.49 (14)
Total	19	6329	.39	.47	.24	.15	.78	.35	.58	371.23***	95	
WIS	11	2896	.49	.59	.26	.24	.94	.41	.76	224.62***	96	
UWBQ	5	2802	.36	.41	.11	.23	.58	.26	.56	33.21***	88	
Preventative personal dispositions (H3b; e.g., emotional intelligence)												0.40 (9)
Total	13	44778	-.26	-.34	.18	-.59	-.09	-.46	-.22	111.28***	89	
WIS	6	1613	-.27	-.39	.29	-.81	.04	-.70	-.08	78.06***	94	
UWBQ	5	2491	-.27	-.33	.13	-.52	-.14	-.50	-.16	28.68***	86	
Job attitude risk factors (H4a; e.g., turnover intention)												1.67 (12)
Total	16	10524	.24	.28	.09	.16	.40	.23	.34	80.06***	81	
WIS	10	7102	.21	.25	.06	.16	.34	.19	.30	28.46***	68	
UWBQ	4	2566	.29	.32	.10	.15	.49	.15	.50	23.55***	87	
Preventative job attitudes (H4b; e.g., job satisfaction)												1.79 (19)
Total	24	15615	-.27	-.33	.12	-.48	-.18	-.38	-.28	177.38***	81	
WIS	18	12216	-.26	-.33	.11	-.47	-.18	-.39	-.27	117.62***	86	
UWBQ	3	919	-.19	-.21	.00	-.21	-.21	-.34	-.08	1.45	0	
Job demand risk factors (H7a; e.g., workload)												0.99 (13)

						80% CR		95% CI				
Measure	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2	*t* (*df*)
Total	20	13054	.08	.10	.15	-.10	.30	.02	.17	216.73***	91	
WIS	11	7859	.05	.06	.19	-.20	.32	-.07	.19	184.29***	95	
UWBQ	4	2192	.13	.16	.09	.01	.30	-.01	.32	12.87**	77	
Experienced incivility (H8)												1.64 (27)
Total	39	21763	.53	.61	.11	.45	.78	.57	.66	508.93***	93	
WIS	25	15761	.54	.63	.11	.48	.77	.58	.67	291.98***	92	
UWBQ	4	2167	.48	.52	.15	.29	.76	.29	.76	50.01***	94	

Note. WIS = Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001) and its derivations; UWBQ = Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire (Martin & Hine, 2005) and its derivations. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 20

Exploratory Tests of Continuous Moderators in the Relationship Between Experienced and Instigated Incivility

					95% CI		
Moderator	*k*	*b*	SE_b	*p*	LL	UL	R^2
Theoretical constructs							
Hostile attribution bias	3	0.57	1.44	.692	-2.25	3.39	.00
Job control	4	-0.50	0.12	<.001	-0.75	-0.26	.90
Job demands	4	0.13	0.11	.208	-0.07	0.34	.44
Job satisfaction	6	0.42	0.48	.381	-0.52	1.37	.00
Organizational commitment	4	-0.17	0.26	.512	-0.68	0.34	.00
Physical health	4	-0.26	0.19	.160	-0.63	0.10	1.00
Tenure	3	-0.14	0.34	.675	-0.81	0.52	.00
Turnover intentions	4	-0.04	0.96	.970	-1.93	1.85	.00
Work group civility	4	-5.15	1.94	.008	-8.96	-1.36	.97
Workload	5	0.46	0.76	.546	-1.04	1.96	.00
Sample characteristics							
Average age	29	-0.01	0.00	.015	-0.02	-0.00	.15
Percent non-male	34	0.00	0.00	.344	-0.00	0.00	.00
Percent non-White	17	-0.00	0.00	.568	-0.01	0.00	.00

Table 21

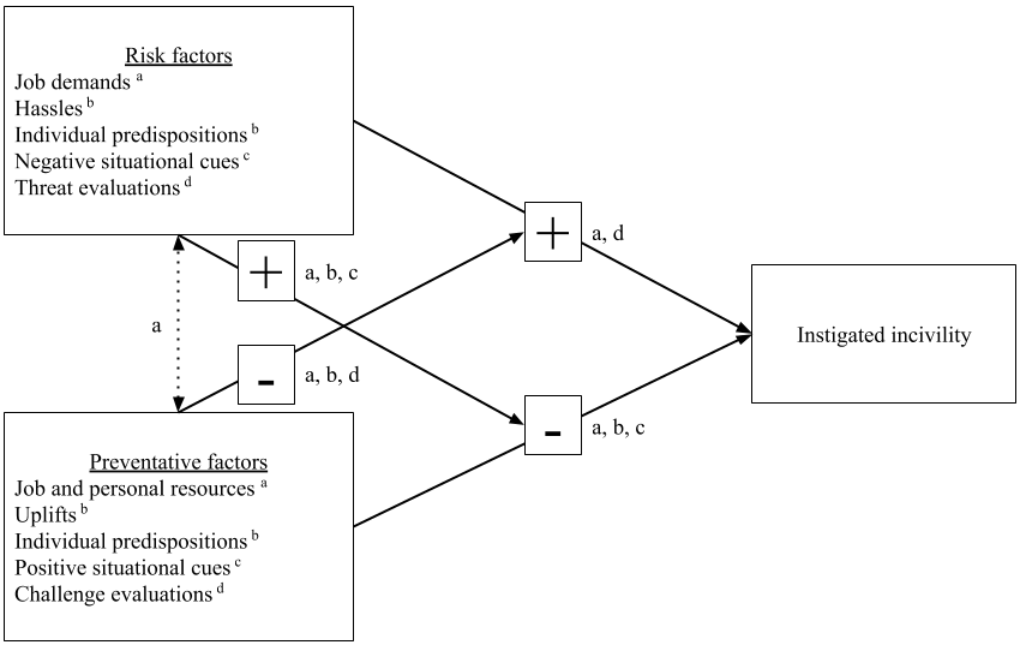
Exploratory Test of Job Type Moderator in the Relationship Between Experienced and Instigated Incivility

						80% CR		95% CI			
Variable	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	LL	UL	LL	UL	*Q*	I^2
Total	39	21763	.53	.61	.11	.45	.78	.57	.66	508.93***	93
Employees (general)	16	9022	.54	.62	.14	.43	.80	.54	.69	264.82***	94
Healthcare employees	7	5907	.49	.59	.04	.54	.65	.55	.64	14.02*	57
Hospitality employees	4	2715	.48	.54	.16	.28	.81	.28	.81	70.87***	96
MTurk	7	2494	.63	.70	.15	.49	.91	.56	.84	111.03***	95

*$p < .05$. ***$p < .001$.

Figure 1

Theoretical Foundation for the Risk and Preventative Factor Framework of Instigated Incivility



Note. The bidirectional relationship between risk and preventative factors is not a focus of this study.

[a] Job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001)

[b] Affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996)

[c] Trait activation theory (Tett & Guterman, 2000)

[d] Transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984)

Figure 2

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Psychological Ill-Being, Well-Being, and Physical Well-Being and Instigated Incivility

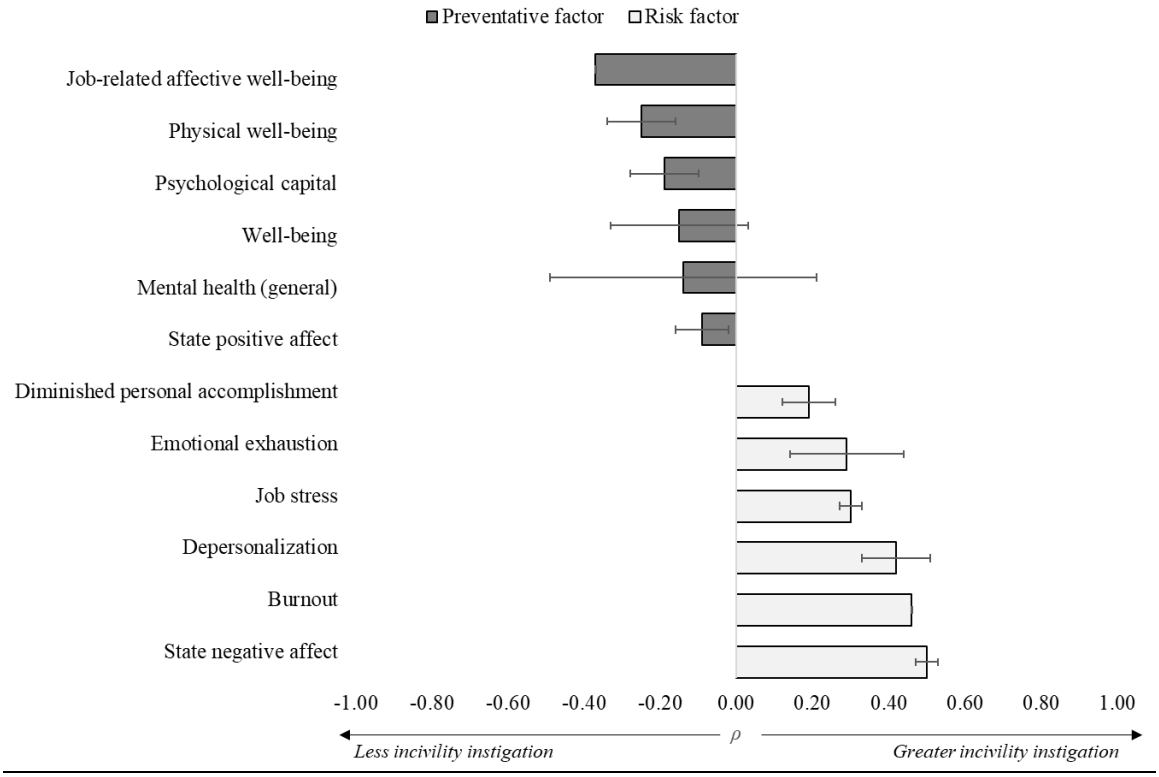


Figure 3

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Personal Dispositions and Instigated Incivility

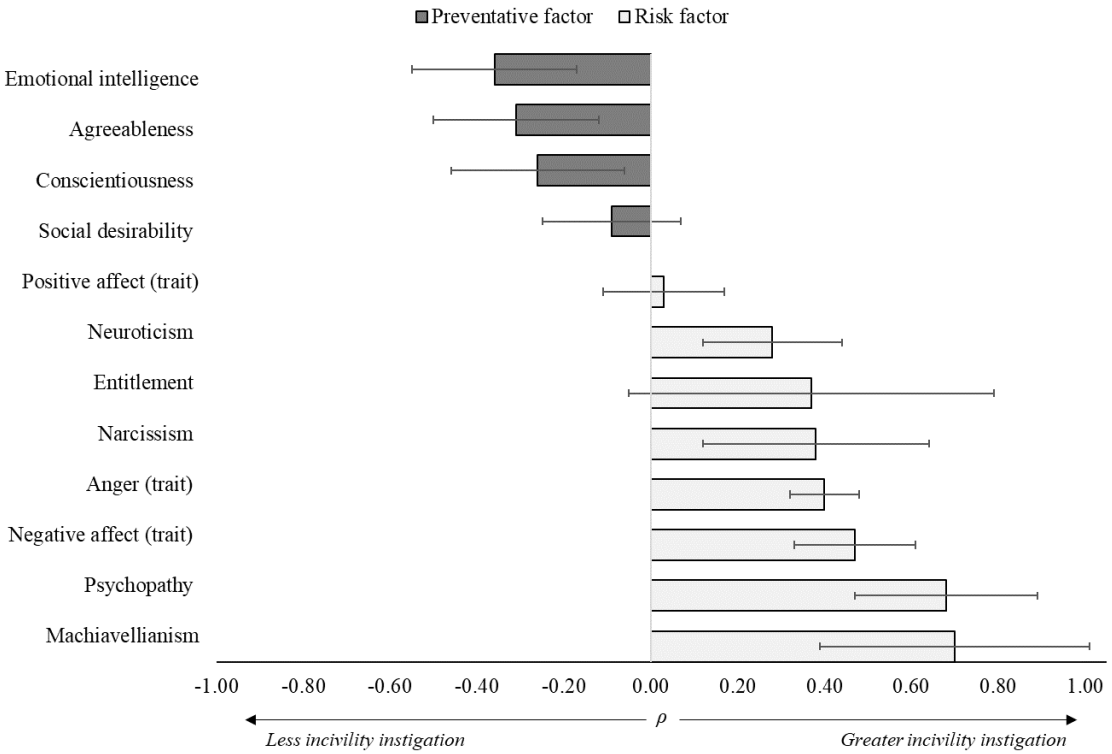


Figure 4

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Job Attitudes and Instigated Incivility

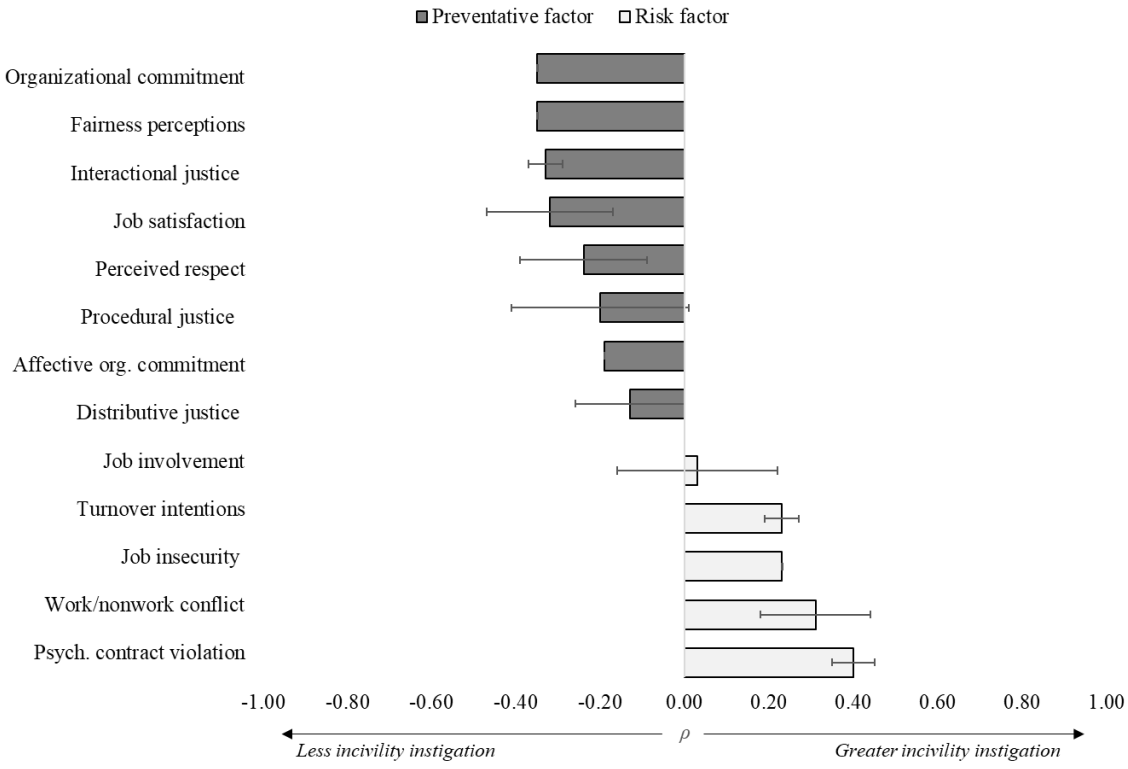


Figure 5

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Team Characteristics and Instigated Incivility

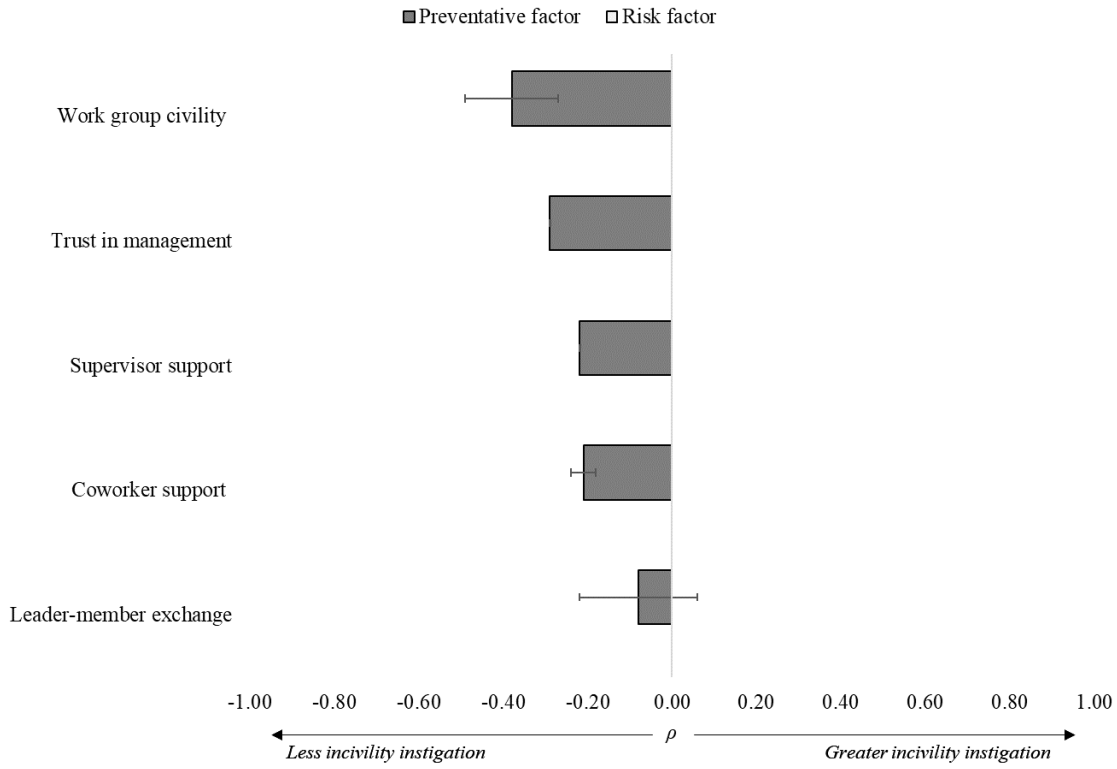


Figure 6

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Job Characteristics and Instigated Incivility

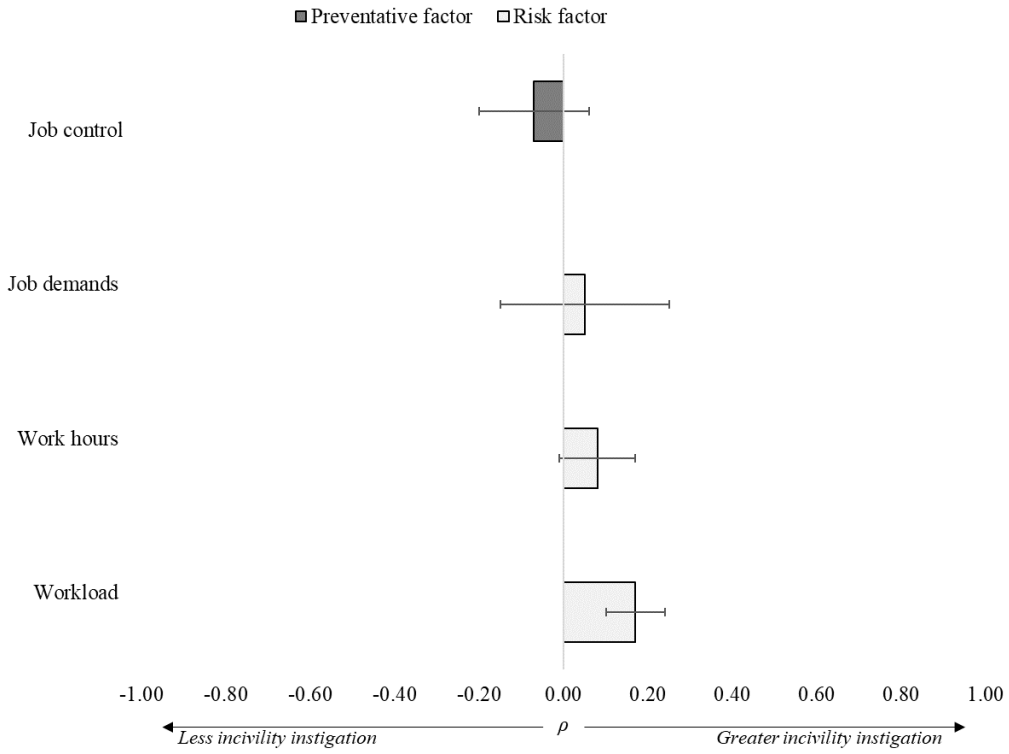


Figure 7

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Experienced and Instigated Incivility

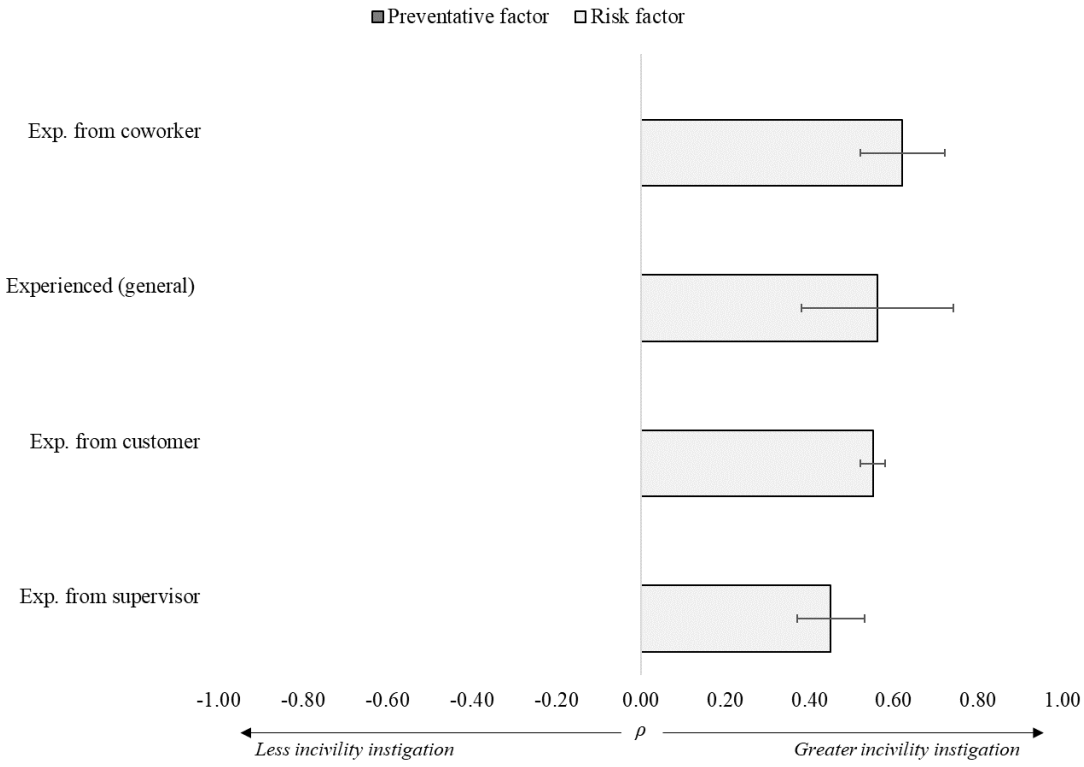


Figure 8

Meta-Analytic Relationships Between Observed and Instigated Incivility

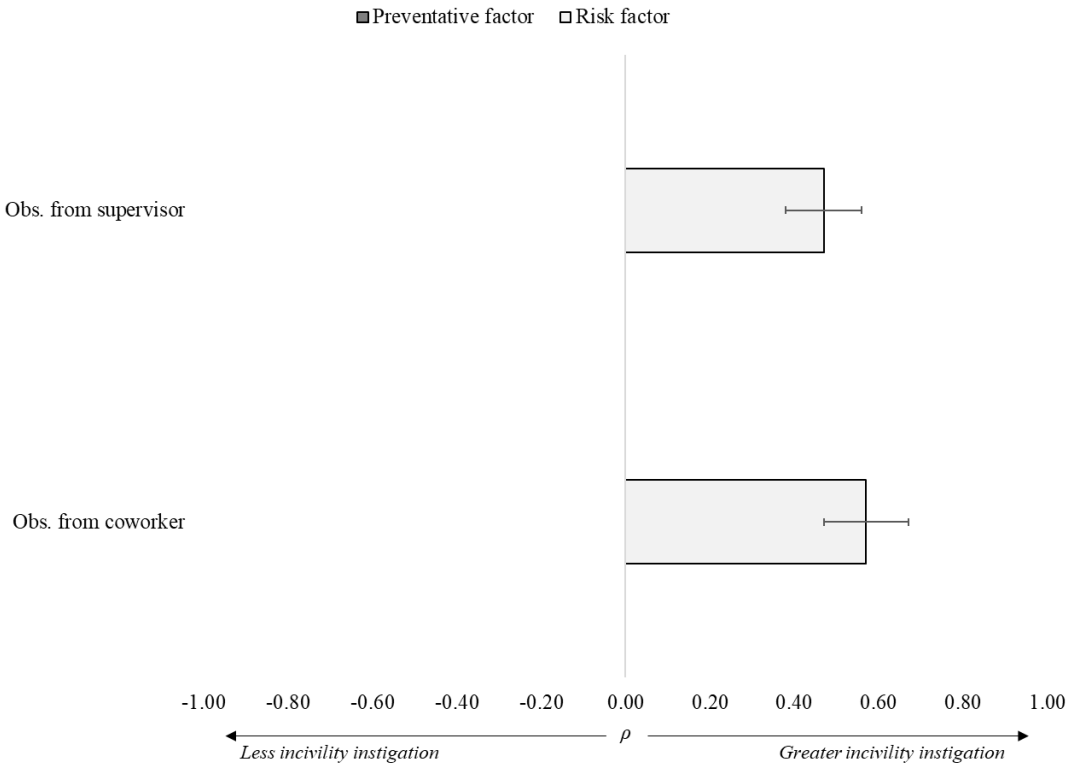


Figure 9

Job Control Moderation of the Relationship Between Experienced and Instigated Incivility

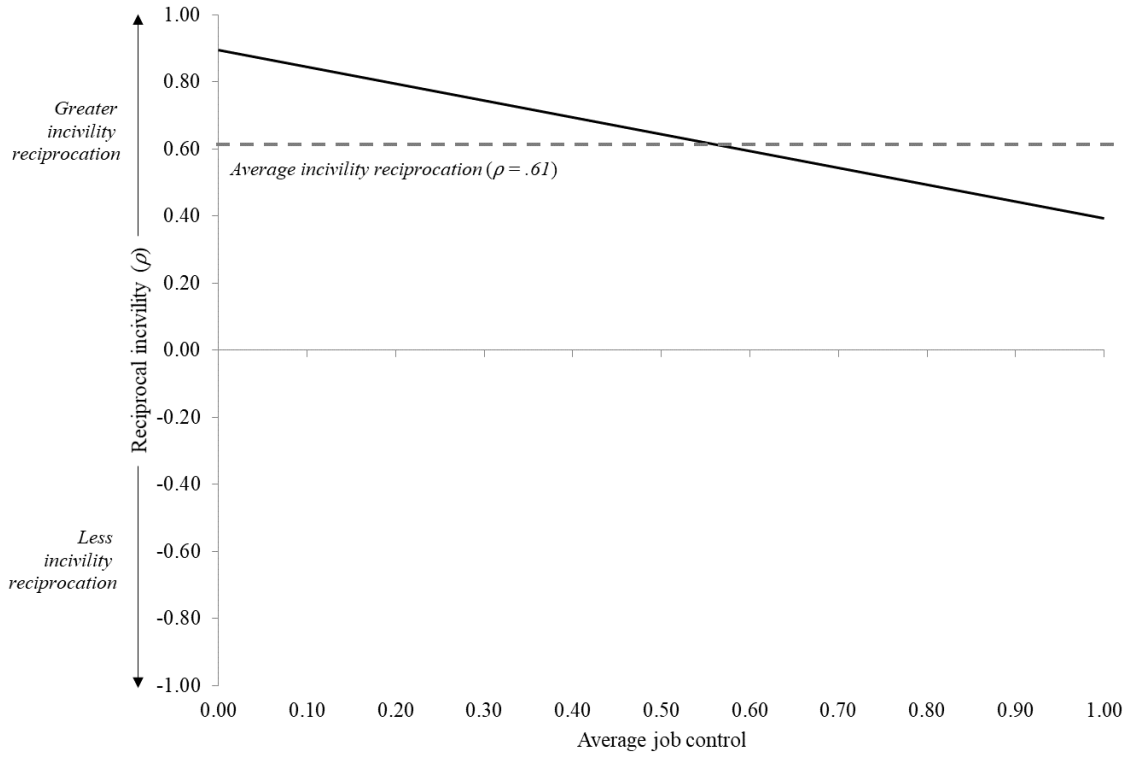


Figure 10

Work Group Civility Moderation of the Relationship Between Experienced and Instigated Incivility

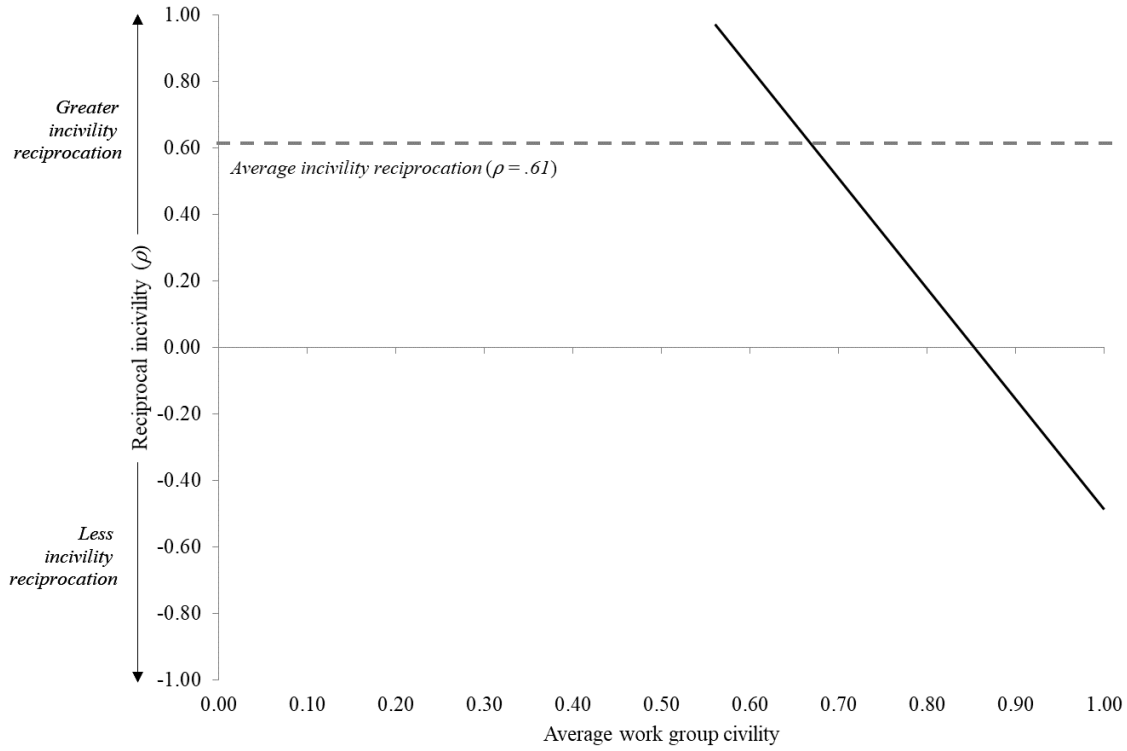


Figure 11

Age Moderation of the Relationship Between Experienced and Instigated Incivility

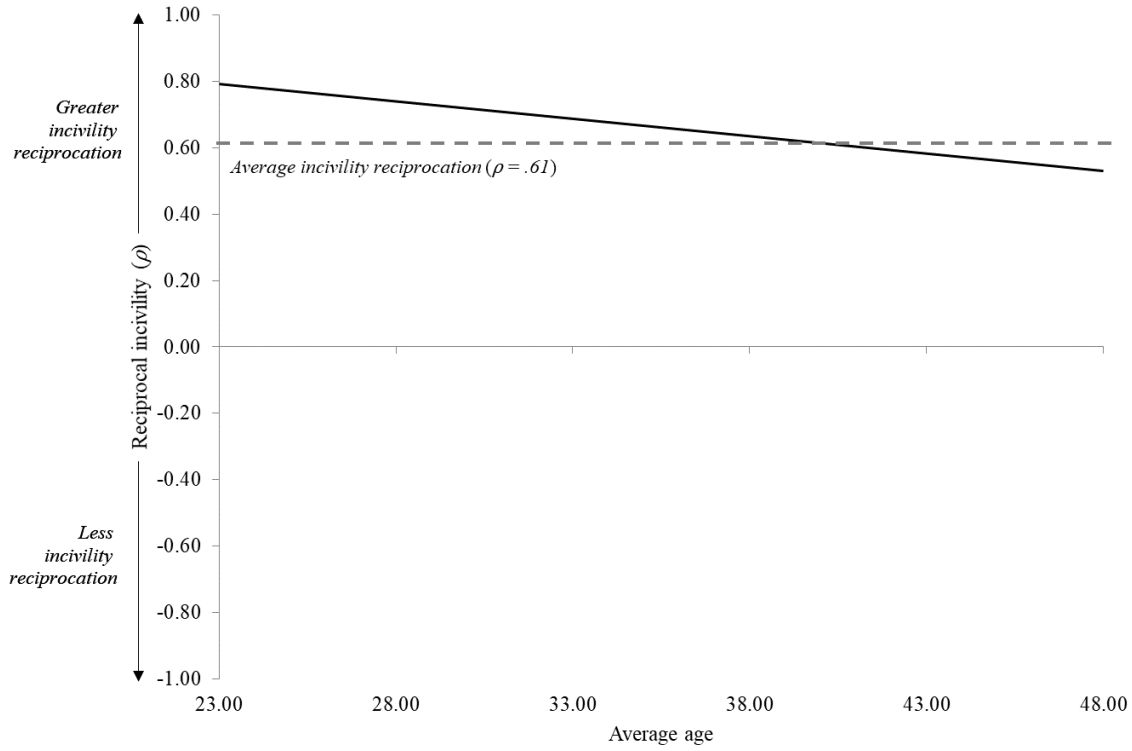
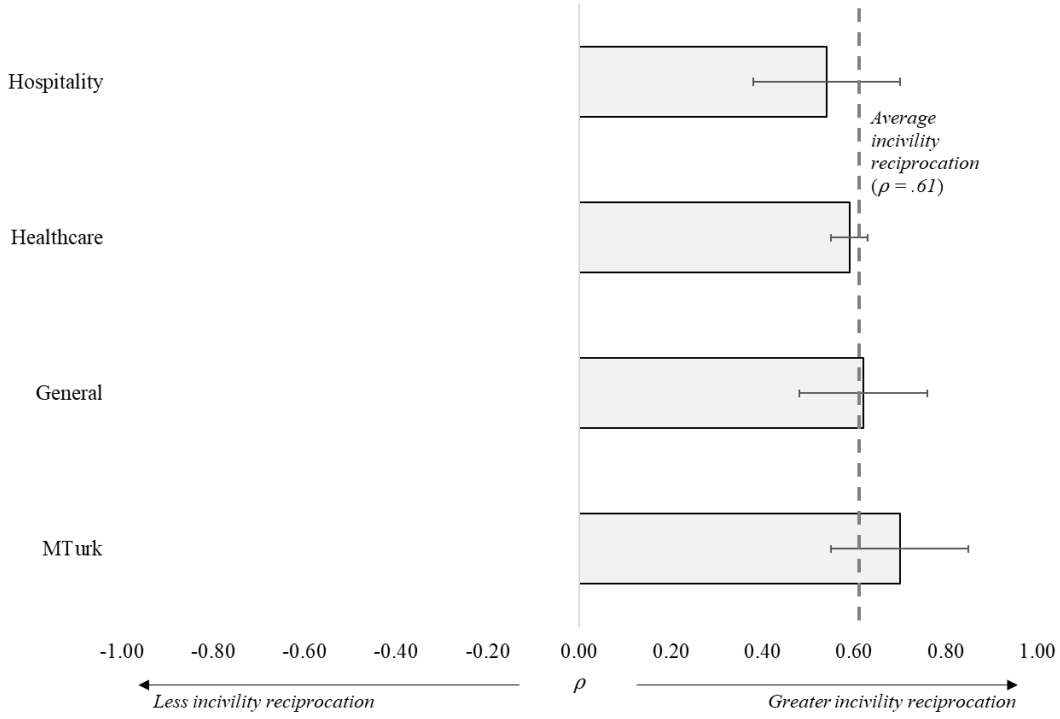


Figure 12

Job Type Moderation of the Relationship Between Experienced and Instigated Incivility



References

**Denotes studies included in the review.*

*Aboodi, H., & Allameh, S. M. (2019). A theoretical model of antecedents of customer-directed incivility. *International Journal of Business Excellence*, *17*(4), 516–543. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJBEX.2019.099127

Adams, G. A., & Webster, J. R. (2013). Emotional regulation as a mediator between interpersonal mistreatment and distress. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *22*(6), 697–710. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2012.698057

American Psychological Association. (2020). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (7th ed.). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/0000165-000

Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review*, *24*(3), 452–471. https://doi.org/10.2307/259136

*Barnes, C., Krishnan, S., & Watkins, T. S. (2016, April 14-16). Electronic warfare: A sleep and self-control model of cyberincivility. In L. K. Barber (Chair), *Emerging research on employee sleep and bad behavior*. Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology 31st Annual Meeting, Anaheim, CA.

Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, C., & Vohs, K. D. (2001). Bad is stronger than good. *Review of General Psychology*, *5*(4), 323-370. https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.5.4.323

*Belluccia, A. (2018). *Negative mind wandering as a symptom of incivility: What it means for important workplace outcomes* [Master's thesis; Florida Institute of Technology]. Scholarship Repository at Florida Tech. https://repository.lib.fit.edu/handle/11141/2533

Berry, C. M., Ones, D. S., & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92,* 410–424. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.410

*Birkeland, I. K., & Nerstad, C. (2016). Incivility is (not) the very essence of love: Passion for work and incivility instigation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *21*(1), 77–90. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039389

Bittner, A., & Goodyear-Grant, E. (2017). Sex isn't gender: Reforming concepts and measurements in the study of public opinion. *Political Behavior, 39,* 1019-1041. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11109-017-9391-y

*Blau, G., & Andersson, L. (2005). Testing a measure of instigated workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *78*(4), 595–614. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317905X26822

Borenstein, M., Hedges, L. V., Higgins, J. P. T., & Rothstein, H. R. (2009). Meta-regression. In *Introduction to meta-analysis* (pp. 187–203). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

*Brady, D. L., Brown, D. J., & Liang, L. H. (2017). Moving beyond assumptions of deviance: The reconceptualization and measurement of workplace gossip. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*(1), 1–25. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000164

Bunk, J. A., & Magley, V. J. (2013). The role of appraisals and emotions in understanding experiences of workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *18*(1), 87–105. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030987

Cameron, K. S. (2008). Paradox in positive organizational change. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *44*(1), 7-24. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886308314703

*Carter, J. (2013). *Generational differences for experienced and instigated workplace incivility* [Master's thesis, Xavier University]. OhioLINK Electronic Theses & Dissertations Center. http://rave.ohiolink.edu/etdc/view?acc_num=xavier1510831049049475

Chen, Y., Ferris, D. L., Kwan, H. K., Yan, M., Zhou, M., & Hong, Y. (2013). Self-love's lost labor: A self-enhancement model of workplace incivility. *Academy of Management Journal*, *56*(4), 1199–1219. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0906

Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I.-S., Berry, C. M., Li, N., & Gardner, R. G. (2011). The five-factor model of personality traits and organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(6), 1140–1166. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024004

Cortina, L. M. (2008). Unseen injustice: Incivility as modern discrimination in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *33*(1), 55–75. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2008.27745097

Cortina, L. M. (2017). From victim precipitation to perpetrator predation: Toward a new paradigm for understanding workplace aggression. In N. Bowling & M. S.

Hershcovis (Eds.), *Research and theory on workplace aggression* (pp. 121-135). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316160930.006

Cortina, L. M., Kabat-Farr, D., Leskinen, E. A., Huerta, M., & Magley, V. J. (2013). Selective incivility as modern discrimination in organizations: Evidence and impact. *Journal of Management*, *39*(6), 1579–1605. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311418835

Cortina, L. M., Kabat-Farr, D., Magley, V. J., & Nelson, K. (2017). Researching rudeness: The past, present, and future of the science of incivility. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *22*(3), 299–313. http://dx.doi.org.proxy.lib.pdx.edu/10.1037/ocp0000089

Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2009). Patterns and profiles of response to incivility in the workplace. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *14*(3), 272–288. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0014934

Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *6*(1), 64–80. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.1.64

Cortina, L. M., Rabelo, V. C., & Holland, K. J. (2018). Beyond blaming the victim: Toward a more progressive understanding of workplace mistreatment. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *11*(1), 81–100. https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2017.54

Crick, N. R., & Dodge, K. A. (1996). Social information-processing mechanisms in reactive and proactive aggression. *Child Development*, *67*(3), 993–1002. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1996.tb01778.x

Dahlke, J. A., & Wiernik, B. M. (2018). psychmeta: An R package for psychometric meta-analysis. *Applied Psychological Measurement*, *43*(5), 415–416. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146621618795933

Dalal, R. S., & Sheng, Z. (2018). Mistreatment in organizations: Toward a perpetrator-focused research agenda. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *11*(1), 101–106. https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2017.91

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 499–512. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.499

Estes, B., & Wang, J. (2008). Workplace incivility: Impacts on individual and organizational performance. *Human Resource Development Review*, *7*(2), 218–240. https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484308315565

Ferris, P. A., Deakin, R., & Mathieson, S. (2018). Workplace bulling policies: A review of best practices and research on effectiveness. In P. D'Cruz, E. Noronha, C. Caponecchia, J. Escartín, D. Salin, & M. Tuckey (Eds.), *Dignity and inclusion at work: Handbooks of workplace bullying, emotional abuse and harassment* (Vol. 3). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-5338-2_3-1

Frederickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist, 56*(3), 218-226. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.3.218

*Gallus, J. A., Bunk, J. A., Matthews, R. A., Barnes-Farrell, J. L., & Magley, V. J. (2014). An eye for an eye? Exploring the relationship between workplace incivility experiences and perpetration. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *19*(2), 143–154. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035931

*Ghosh, R., Dierkes, S., & Falletta, S. (2011). Incivility spiral in mentoring relationships: Reconceptualizing negative mentoring as deviant workplace behavior. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *13*(1), 22–39. https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422311410639

Gillespie, M. A., Oswald, F. L., & Converse, P. D. (2002). On using meta-analysis to make judgments about validity generalization. In S. Morris (Chair), *Rethinking artifact corrections in meta-analysis: Innovations and extensions* [Symposium]. Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology 17th Annual Meeting, Toronto, CN. http://faculty.cas.usf.edu/mbrannick/papers/conf/mikeg.htm

Giumetti, G. W., Hatfield, A. L., Scisco, J. L., Schroeder, A. N., Muth, E. R., & Kowalski, R. M. (2013). What a rude e-mail! Examining the differential effects of incivility versus support on mood, energy, engagement, and performance in an online context. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *18*(3), 297–309. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032851

Grandey, A. A., Rupp, D., & Brice, W. (2015). Emotional labor threatens decent work: A proposal to eradicate emotional display rules. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 36,* 770-785. https://doi.org/10.1002.job.2020

*Gray, C. J., Carter, N. T., & Sears, K. L. (2017). The UWBQ-I: An adaptation and validation of a measure of instigated incivility. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *32*(1), 21–39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-015-9433-6

Griffin, B. (2010). Multilevel relationships between organizational-level incivility, justice and intention to stay. *Work & Stress, 24*(4), 309–323. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2010.531186

Guidroz, A. M., Burnfield-Geimer, J. L., Clark, O., Schwetschenau, H. M., & Jex, S. M. (2010). The Nursing Incivility Scale: Development and validation of an occupation-specific measure. *Journal of Nursing Measurement*, *18*(3), 176–200. http://doi.org/10.1891/1061-3749.18.3.176

Hershcovis, M. S. (2011). "Incivility, social undermining, bullying…oh my!": A call to reconcile constructs within workplace aggression research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*(3), 499–519. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.689

*Hershcovis, M. S., Cameron, A.-F., Gervais, L., & Bozeman, J. (2018). The effects of confrontation and avoidance coping in response to workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *23*(2), 163–174. http://dx.doi.org.proxy.lib.pdx.edu/10.1037/ocp0000078

Hershcovis, M. S., Turner, N., Barling, J., Arnold, K. A., Dupré, K. E., Inness, M., LeBlanc, M. M., & Sivanathan, N. (2007). Predicting workplace aggression: A

meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 228–238. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.228

*Heylen, B. (2018). *Occupational stress, workplace incivility and job satisfaction with the moderating role of psychological capital among staff in an Emergency Services Control Unit* [Master's thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal]. ResearchSpace. http://researchspace.ukzn.ac.za/handle/10413/16481

*Holm, K. (2014). *Workplace incivility as a social process: How witnessing incivility relates to uncivil conduct, well-being, job satisfaction and stress* [Master's thesis, Lunds Universitet]. Lund University Publications. http://lup.lub.lu.se/luur/download?func=downloadFile&recordOId=4464075&fileOId=4464088

*Holm, K., Torkelson, E., & Bäckström, M. (2015). Models of workplace incivility: The relationships to instigated incivility and negative outcomes. *BioMed Research International, 2015*. https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/920239

*Holm, K., Torkelson, E., & Bäckström, M. (2019). Exploring links between witnessed and instigated workplace incivility. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management, 12*(3), 160–175. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJWHM-04-2018-0044

Huedo-Medina, T. B., Sánchez-Meca, J., Marín-Martínez, F., & Botella, J. (2006). Assessing heterogeneity in meta-analysis: Q statistic or I^2 index? *Psychological Methods, 11*, 193–206. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.11.2.193

*Ilies, R., Guo, C. Y., Lim, S., Yam, K. C., & Li, X. (2019). Happy but uncivil? Examining when and why positive affect leads to incivility. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *165*, 595–614. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-04097-1

Iliescu, D., Ispas, D., Sulea, C., & Ilie, A. (2015). Vocational fit and counterproductive work behaviors: A self-regulation perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(1), 21–39. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036652

*Jiménez, P., Bregenzer, A., Leiter, M., & Magley, V. (2018). Psychometric properties of the German version of the Workplace Incivility Scale and the Instigated Workplace Incivility Scale. *Swiss Journal of Psychology*, *77*(4), 159–172. https://doi.org/10.1024/1421-0185/a000213

*Kain, J. (2008). *The relationship between workplace incivility and strain: Equity sensitivity as a moderator* [Master's thesis, Bowling Green State University]. OhioLINK Electronic Theses & Dissertations Center. https://etd.ohiolink.edu/!etd.send_file?accession=bgsu1209998458&disposition=inline

Karasek, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *24*(2), 285–308. https://doi.org/10.2307/2392498

Kays, K. M., Keith, T. L., & Broughal, M. T. (2013). Best practice in online survey research with sensitive topics. In N. Sappleton (Ed.), *Advancing research methods with new technologies* (pp. 157-168). IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-3918-8

Kepes, S., Banks, G. C., McDaniel, M., & Whetzel, D. L. (2012). Publication bias in the organizational sciences. *Organizational Research Methods*, *15*(4), 624–662. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428112452760

Kepes, S., McDaniel., M. A., Brannick, M. T., & Banks, G. C. (2013). Meta-analytic reviews in the organizational sciences: Two meta-analytic schools on the way to MARS (the Meta-Analytic Reporting Standards). *Journal of Business and Psychology, 28*(2), 123-143. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-013-9300-2

Kern, J. H., & Grandey, A. A. (2009). Customer incivility as a social stressor: The role of race and racial identity for service employees. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *14*(1), 46–57. http://doi.org/10.1037/a0012684

*Khalid, M., & Gulzar, A. (2019). When does psychological entitlement lead to incivility? The role of abusive supervision perceptions and rumination. *City University Research Journal*, *9*(1), 1–14.

*Kim, H., & Qu, H. (2019a). Employees' burnout and emotional intelligence as mediator and moderator in the negative spiral of incivility. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *31*(3), 1412–1431. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-12-2017-0794

*Kim, H., & Qu, H. (2019b). The effects of experienced customer incivility on employees' behavior toward customers and coworkers. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *43*(1), 58–77. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348018764583

*Kirk, B. A. (2007). *The role of emotional self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in workplace incivility and workplace satisfaction* [Doctoral dissertation, University

of New England]. Research UNE. https://rune.une.edu.au/web/handle/1959.11/13166

*Kluemper, D. H., Taylor, S. G., Bowler, W. M., Bing, M. N., & Halbesleben, J. R. (2019). How leaders perceive employee deviance: Blaming victims while excusing favorites. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 104*(7), 946–964. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000387

*Koon, V.-Y., & Pun, P.-Y. (2018). The mediating role of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction on the relationship between job demands and instigated workplace incivility. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 54*(2), 187–207. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0021886317749163

*Krishnan, S. (2016). Electronic warfare: A personality model of cyber incivility. *Computers in Human Behavior, 64*, 537–546. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.07.031

Kubicek, B., Korunka, C., & Tement, S. (2014). Too much job control? Two studies on curvilinear relations between job control and eldercare workers' well-being. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 51*(12), 1644–1653. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2014.05.005

*Lanzo, L. A. (2015). *Workaholism and workplace incivility: The role of stress and psychological capital* [Master's thesis; East Carolina University]. ProQuest. http://search.proquest.com/psycinfo/docview/1693995718/abstract/BB20D530574C4A83PQ/1

*Lata, M., & Chaudhary, R. (2020). Dark Triad and instigated incivility: The moderating role of workplace spirituality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *166*, 110090. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.110090

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping* (11th ed.). Springer.

*LeBlanc, D. E. (2011). *The moderating effects of workplace incivility on the relationship between job stressors and worker strain* [Master's thesis, Saint Mary's University]. ProQuest. http://search.proquest.com/psycinfo/docview/902759178/abstract/EBEBBF2013E54A91PQ/1

*Leiter, M. P., Day, A., Oore, D. G., & Spence Laschinger, H. K. (2012). Getting better and staying better: Assessing civility, incivility, distress, and job attitudes one year after a civility intervention. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *17*(4), 425–434. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029540

*Leiter, M. P., Day, A., & Price, L. (2015). Attachment styles at work: Measurement, collegial relationships, and burnout. *Burnout Research*, *2*(1), 25–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.burn.2015.02.003

*Leiter, M. P., Laschinger, H. K. S., Day, A., & Oore, D. G. (2011). The impact of civility interventions on employee social behavior, distress, and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(6), 1258–1274. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024442

*Leiter, M. P., Price, S. L., & Laschinger, H. K. S. (2010). Generational differences in distress, attitudes and incivility among nurses. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *18*(8), 970–980. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2834.2010.01168.x

Lim, S., & Cortina, L. M. (2005). Interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace: The interface and impact of general incivility and sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(3), 483–496. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.3.483

Lim, S., Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2008). Personal and workgroup incivility: Impact on work and health outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(1), 95–107. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.1.95

Lim, S., & Lee, A. (2011). Work and nonwork outcomes of workplace incivility: Does family support help? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *16*(1), 95–111. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021726

Lim, V. K. G., & Teo, T. S. H. (2009). Mind your E-manners: Impact of cyber incivility on employees' work attitude and behavior. *Information & Management*, *46*(8), 419–425. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.im.2009.06.006

*Loh, J. M. I., & Loi, N. (2018). Tit for tat: Burnout as a mediator between workplace incivility and instigated workplace incivility. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration*, *10*(1), 100–111. https://doi.org/10.1108/APJBA-11-2017-0132

*Loi, N. M., & Golledge, C. (2018, June 26-30). *The role of positive and negative affect in the relationship between emotional intelligence and uncivil workplace behaviour among managers* [Conference poster]. 29th International Congress of Applied Psychology, Montreal, Canada. https://rune.une.edu.au/web/handle/1959.11/27032

Luthans, F., & Youssef-Morgan, C. M. (2017). Psychological capital: An evidence-based positive approach. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and*

Organizational Behavior, 4, 339-366. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032516-113324

Lv, A., Shen, X., Cao, Y., Su, Y., & Chen, X. (2012). Conscientiousness and organizational citizenship behavior: The mediating role of organizational justice. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *40*(8), 1293–1300. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2012.40.8.1293

*Manegold, J. G. (2014). *Negative exchange spirals: A process model of incivility among coworkers* [Doctoral dissertation, The University of Texas at Arlington]. ResearchCommons. https://rc.library.uta.edu/uta-ir/handle/10106/24759

Martin, R. J., & Hine, D. W. (2005). Development and validation of the Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *10*(4), 477–490. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.4.477

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1984). Burnout in organizational settings. *Applied Social Psychology Annual*, *5,* 133–153. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1985-24012-001

McCord, M. A., Joseph, D. L., Dhanani, L. Y., & Beus, J. M. (2018). A meta-analysis of sex and race differences in perceived workplace mistreatment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *103*(2), 137–163. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/apl0000250

*McNeice, C. L. (2013). *The relationship between family to work conflict and instigated incivility at work: Exploring trait anger and negative affect as moderators* [Master's thesis, Saint Mary's University]. Saint Mary's University Patrick Power Library. http://library2.smu.ca/handle/01/25026

*Meier, L. L., & Gross, S. (2015). Episodes of incivility between subordinates and supervisors: Examining the role of self-control and time with an interaction-record diary study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *36*(8), 1096–1113. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2013

*Meier, L. L., & Semmer, N. K. (2013). Lack of reciprocity, narcissism, anger, and instigated workplace incivility: A moderated mediation model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *22*(4), 461–475. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2012.654605

Meier, L. L., & Spector, P. E. (2013). Reciprocal effects of work stressors and counterproductive work behavior: A five-wave longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(3), 529–539. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031732

Milam, A. C., Spitzmueller, C., & Penney, L. M. (2009). Investigating individual differences among targets of workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *14*(1), 58–69. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012683

*Min, H., Pavisic, I., Howald, N., Highhouse, S., & Zickar, M. J. (2019). A systematic comparison of three sadism measures and their ability to explain workplace mistreatment over and above the dark triad. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *82*, 103862. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2019.103862

Miner-Rubino, K., & Cortina, L. M. (2004). Working in a context of hostility toward women: Implications for employees' well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *9*(2), 107–122. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.9.2.107

Miner-Rubino, K., & Reed, W. D. (2010). Testing a moderated mediational model of workgroup incivility: The roles of organizational trust and group regard. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *40*(12), 3148–3168. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2010.00695.x

*Miranda, G. A., & Welbourne, J. L. (2020). *Examining incivility through a moral lens: Coworker morality appraisals, other-condemning emotions, and instigated incivility* [Manuscript under review].

Moon, T.-W., Hur, W.-M., & Han, S.-J. (2014). The role of chronological age and work experience on emotional labor: The mediating effect of emotional intelligence. *Career Development International*, *19*, 734–754. https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-12-2013-0162

*Moore, A. F. (2019). *Online disinhibition and its influence on cyber incivility* [Master's thesis, Clemson University]. TigerPrints. https://tigerprints.clemson.edu/all_theses/3170/

*Nandedkar, A. (2016). Investigating leader-member exchange and employee envy: An evidence from the information technology industry. *International Journal of Organization Theory and Behavior*, *19*(4), 419–451. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOTB-19-04-2016-B001

Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2009). Age, work experience, and the psychological contract. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *30*, 1053–1075. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.599

Norman, W. T. (1963). Toward an adequate taxonomy of personality attributes: Replicated factor structure in peer nomination personality ratings. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *66*(6), 574–583. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0040291

Oliveira, J., Pascucci, T. M., & Fortin, M. (2018). A comprehensive approach to empowering victims and understanding perpetrators. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *11*(1), 129–134. https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2017.96

Osatuke, K., Mohr., D., Ward, C., Moore, S. C., Dyrenforth, S., & Belton, L. (2009). Civility, Respect, and Engagement in the Workforce (CREW): Nationwide organization development intervention at Veterans Health Administration. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *45*, 384-410. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0021886309335067

*Patterson, A. M. (2016). *A construct analysis of civility in the workplace* [Doctoral dissertation, The University of Guelph]. The Atrium. https://atrium.lib.uoguelph.ca/xmlui/handle/10214/10159

Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Porath, C. L. (2000). Assessing and attacking workplace incivility. *Organizational Dynamics*, *29*(2), 123–137. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0090-2616(00)00019-X

*Pegues, D. A. (2018). *Professional and petty: An investigation into the social and individual conditions that promote instigated acts of workplace incivility between black professionals* [Doctoral dissertation, Columbia University]. ProQuest.

http://search.proquest.com/psycinfo/docview/2084059703/abstract/CCDAC231035A4890PQ/1

*Peng, X. (2020). *Why experienced incivility triggers instigated incivility: Combining the affect-based and resource-based pathways* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Central Florida]. STARS. https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd2020/114/

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*(7), 777–796. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.336

*Petitta, L., & Jiang, L. (2019). Burning out? Watch your own incivility and the emotions you spread. *Work*, *64*(4), 671–683. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-193029

Porath, C. L., & Erez, A. (2007). Does rudeness really matter? The effects of rudeness on task performance and helpfulness. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*(5), 1181–1197. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2007.20159919

Porath, C. L., & Erez, A. (2009). Overlooked but not untouched: How rudeness reduces onlookers' performance on routine and creative tasks. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *109*(1), 29–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2009.01.003

Porath, C. L., & Pearson, C. (2013, January 1). The price of incivility. *Harvard Business Review, January-February 2013*. https://hbr.org/2013/01/the-price-of-incivility

Porath, C. L., & Pearson, C. M. (2012). Emotional and behavioral responses to workplace incivility and the impact of hierarchical status. *Journal of Applied Social*

Psychology, *42*(S1), E326–E357. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2012.01020.x

*Ricciotti, N. (2016). *Emotional intelligence and instigation of workplace incivility in a business organization* [Doctoral dissertation, Walden University]. ScholarWorks. https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/2756

*Roberts, S. J. (2013). *Application of the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behavior to incivility* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska]. ProQuest. http://search.proquest.com/psycinfo/docview/1348796172/abstract/65AD905A15DA43C3PQ/1

*Roberts, S. J., Scherer, L. L., & Bowyer, C. J. (2011). Job stress and incivility: What role does psychological capital play? *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *18*(4), 449–458. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811409044

*Rosen, C. C., Koopman, J., Gabriel, A. S., & Johnson, R. E. (2016). Who strikes back? A daily investigation of when and why incivility begets incivility. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(11), 1620–1634. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000140

Sakurai, K., & Jex, S. M. (2012). Coworker incivility and incivility targets' work effort and counterproductive work behaviors: The moderating role of supervisor social support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *17*(2), 150–161. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027350

*Sayers, J. K., Sears, K. L., Kelly, K. M., & Harbke, C. R. (2011). When employees engage in workplace incivility: The interactive effect of psychological contract

violation and organizational justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *23*(4), 269–283. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10672-011-9170-6

Schat, A. C. H., Frone, M. R., & Kelloway, E. K. (2006). Prevalence of workplace aggression in the U.S. workforce: Findings from a national study. In E. K. Kelloway, J. Barling, & J. J. Hurrell, *Handbook of workplace violence* (pp. 47–90). Sage.

Schellenberg, D., & Kaiser, A. (2018). The sex/gender distinction: Beyond F and M. In C. B. Travis, J. W. White, A. Rutherford, W. S. Williams, S. L. Cook, & K. F. Wyche (Eds.), *APA handbook of the psychology of women: History, theory, and battlegrounds* (pp. 165–187). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/0000059-009

Schilpzand, P., Pater, I. E. D., & Erez, A. (2016). Workplace incivility: A review of the literature and agenda for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *37*(S1), S57–S88. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1976

Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. E. (2015). *Methods of meta-analysis: Correcting error and bias in research findings*. SAGE Publications, Ltd. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483398105

*Schroeder, A. N., & Gatti, A. K. (2014, May 14-17). *It's me, not you: How personality is linked to incivility* [Conference poster]. Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology 29th Annual Meeting, Honolulu. HI.

*Sears, K., & Humiston, G. S. (2015). The role of emotion in workplace incivility. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *30*(4), 390–405. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1108/JMP-11-2012-0373

*Semmer, N. K., Tschan, F., Meier, L. L., Facchin, S., & Jacobshagen, N. (2010). Illegitimate tasks and counterproductive work behavior. *Applied Psychology, 59*(1), 70–96. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2009.00416.x

*Setar, S. B., Buitendach, J. H., & Kanengoni, H. (2015). The moderating role of psychological capital in the relationship between job stress and the outcomes of incivility and job involvement amongst call centre employees. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *41*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v41i1.1183

*Shadwick, J. L. (2018). *A quantitative analysis of workplace incivility and burnout among professional firefighters* [Doctoral dissertation, Keiser University]. ProQuest. http://search.proquest.com/docview/2118579538/abstract/993A9C6C21C4444EPQ/1

Sliter, K. A., Sliter, M. T., Withrow, S. A., & Jex, S. M. (2012). Employee adiposity and incivility: Establishing a link and identifying demographic moderators and negative consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *17*(4), 409–424. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029862

Sliter, M., Jex, S., Wolford, K., & McInnerney, J. (2010). How rude! Emotional labor as a mediator between customer incivility and employee outcomes. *Journal of*

Occupational Health Psychology, *15*(4), 468–481. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020723

*Sliter, M., & Jones, M. (2016). A qualitative and quantitative examination of the antecedents of customer incivility. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *21*(2), 208–219. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039897

Sliter, M., Sliter, K., & Jex, S. (2012). The employee as a punching bag: The effect of multiple sources of incivility on employee withdrawal behavior and sales performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*(1), 121–139. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.767

*Smidt, O., de Beer, L. T., Brink, L., & Leiter, M. P. (2016). The validation of a workplace incivility scale within the South African banking industry. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *42*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v42i1.1316

Stiglbauer, B., & Kovacs, C. (2018). The more, the better? Curvilinear effects of job autonomy on well-being from vitamin model and PE-fit theory perspectives. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *23*(4), 520–536. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000107

Taylor, S. G., Bedeian, A. G., & Kluemper, D. H. (2012). Linking workplace incivility to citizenship performance: The combined effects of affective commitment and conscientiousness. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*(7), 878–893. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.773

Taylor, S. G., & Kluemper, D. H. (2012). Linking perceptions of role stress and incivility to workplace aggression: The moderating role of personality. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *17*(3), 316–329. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028211

*Taylor, S. G., Kluemper, D. H., & Locklear, L. R. (2018, July 9). *Is incivility really tit-for-tat? Experienced and instigated incivility in dyadic relationships*. Academy of Management Proceedings. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.2018.10553abstract

*Taylor, S. G., & Pattie, M. W. (2014). When does ethical leadership affect workplace incivility? The moderating role of follower personality. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *24*(4), 595–616. https://doi.org/10.5840/beq201492618

Tett, R. P., & Guterman, H. A. (2000). Situation trait relevance, trait expression, and cross-situational consistency: Testing a principle of trait activation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *34*(4), 397–423. https://doi.org/10.1006/jrpe.2000.2292

*Torkelson, E., Holm, K., & Bäckström, M. (2016). Workplace incivility in a Swedish context. *Nordic Journal of Working Life Studies*, *6*(2), 3–22. https://doi.org/10.19154/njwls.v6i2.4969

*Torkelson, E., Holm, K., Bäckström, M., & Schad, E. (2016). Factors contributing to the perpetration of workplace incivility: The importance of organizational aspects and experiencing incivility from others. *Work & Stress*, *30*(2), 115–131. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2016.1175524

*Torres, E. N., Niekerk, M. van, & Orlowski, M. (2017). Customer and employee incivility and its causal effects in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Hospitality*

Marketing & Management, *26*(1), 48–66. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2016.1178620

Totterdell, P., Hershcovis, M. S., Niven, K., Reich, T. C., & Stride, C. (2012). Can employees be emotionally drained by witnessing unpleasant interactions between coworkers? A diary study of induced emotion regulation. *Work & Stress*, *26*(2), 112–129. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2012.681153

*Trudel, J. (2009). *Workplace incivility: Relationship with conflict management styles and impact on perceived job performance, organizational commitment and turnover.* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Louisville]. ThinkIR. https://doi.org/10.18297/etd/1460

Tupes, E. C., & Christal, R. E. (1992). Recurrent personality factors based on trait ratings. *Journal of Personality*, *60*(2), 225–251. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1992.tb00973.x

*van Jaarsveld, D. D., Walker, D. D., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2010). The role of job demands and emotional exhaustion in the relationship between customer and employee incivility. *Journal of Management*, *36*(6), 1486–1504. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310368998

Walsh, B. M., Magley, V. J., Reeves, D. W., Davies-Schrils, K. A., Marmet, M. D., & Gallus, J. A. (2012). Assessing workgroup norms for civility: The development of the Civility Norms Questionnaire-Brief. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *27*(4), 407–420. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-011-9251-4

*Walsh, B. M., McGonagle, A. K., Bauerle, T., & Bardwell, T. (2020). Safety stressors: Deviant reactions to work-safety tension. *Occupational Health Science*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41542-020-00055-4

Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective Events Theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. In *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews* (Vol. 18, pp. 1–74). Elsevier Science/JAI Press.

*Weiss, H. M., Dalal, R. S., Lam, H., & Welch, E. R. (2009). *Temporal investigations into the relationship between affect and discretionary work behavior* (Technical Report No. 1243; pp. 1–102). United States Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.

Wilson, D. B. (n.d.). *Practical meta-analysis effect size calculator*. Campbell Collaboration. https://campbellcollaboration.org/escalc/html/EffectSizeCalculator-Home.php

Wilson, N. L., & Holmvall, C. M. (2013). The development and validation of the Incivility from Customers Scale. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *18*(3), 310–326. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032753

*Wooderson, R. L. (2014). *Political orientation, media consumption and workplace incivility during the 2012 American presidential election* [Doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University]. OAKTrust. http://oaktrust.library.tamu.edu/bitstream/handle/1969.1/154122/WOODERSON-THESIS-2014.pdf?sequence=1

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. (2007). The role of personal resources in the Job Demands-Resources model. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *14*(2), 121–141. https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.14.2.121

Yang, L.-Q., Caughlin, D. E., Gazica, M. W., Truxillo, D. M., & Spector, P. E. (2014). Workplace mistreatment climate and potential employee and organizational outcomes: A meta-analytic review from the target's perspective. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *19*(3), 315-335. https://doi.org/doi/10.1037/a0036905

*Zhou, Z. E. (2015). *Effects of workplace incivility on nurses' emotions, well-being, and behaviors: A longitudinal study* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Florida]. ProQuest. http://search.proquest.com/psycinfo/docview/1689319276/abstract/B04C4DA920404C7CPQ/1

*Zivnuska, S. L., Carlson, D. S., Carlson, J. R., Harris, K. J., Harris, R. B., & Valle, M. (2020). Information and communication technology incivility aggression in the workplace: Implications for work and family. *Information Processing & Management*, *57*(3), 102222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ipm.2020.102222

Appendix A

Items from the Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001)[4]

During the PAST FIVE YEARS while employed by the Eighth Circuit courts, have you been in a situation where any of your superiors or coworkers:

1. Put you down or was condescending to you?
2. Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?
3. Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you?
4. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?
5. Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?
6. Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility?
7. Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters?

[4] Items from the Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001, p. 70) are publicly available in full in: Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 6*(1), 64-80. https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.1.64

Appendix B

Items from Blau and Andersson's (2005) Adaptation of the Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001)[5]

How often have you exhibited the following behaviours in the past year to someone at work (e.g. co-worker, other employee, supervisor)?

1. Put down others or were condescending to them in some way*
2. Paid little attention to a statement made by someone or showed little interest in their opinion
3. Made demeaning, rude, or derogatory remarks about someone*
4. Addressed someone in unprofessional terms either privately or publicly
5. Ignored or excluded someone from professional camaraderie (e.g. social conversation)
6. Doubted someone's judgment in the matter over which they have responsibility
7. Made unwanted attempts to draw someone into a discussion of personal matters

*Blau and Andersson (2005) suggested omission of these items due to construct overlap with more intense forms of mistreatment.

[5] Items from Blau and Andersson's (2005, p. 600, p. 604) adaptation of the Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001) are publicly available in full in:

Blau, G., & Andersson, L. (2005). Testing a measure of instigated workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *78*(4), 595–614. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317905X26822

Appendix C

Items from the Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire (Martin & Hine, 2005)[6]

During the past year, have you been in a situation where any of your superiors or coworkers:

Factor 1: Hostility

1. Raised their voice while speaking to you.
2. Used an inappropriate tone when speaking to you.
3. Spoke to you in an aggressive tone of voice.
4. Rolled their eyes at you.

Factor 2: Privacy Invasion

5. Took stationary from your desk without later returning it.
6. Took items from your desk without prior permission.
7. Interrupted you while you were speaking on the telephone.*
8. Read communications addressed to you, such as e-mails or faxes.
9. Opened your desk drawers without prior permission.

Factor 3: Exclusionary Behavior

10. Did not consult you in reference to a decision you should have been involved in.
11. Gave unreasonably short notice when canceling or scheduling events you were required to be present for.*
12. Failed to inform you of a meeting you should have been informed about.*
13. Avoided consulting you when they would normally be expected to do so.
14. Was excessively slow in returning your phone messages or e-mails without good reason for the delay.
15. Intentionally failed to pass on information which you should have been made aware of.
16. Were unreasonably slow in seeing to matters on which you were reliant on them for, without good reason.

Factor 4: Gossiping

17. Publicly discussed your confidential personal information.
18. Made snide remarks about you.
19. Talked about you behind your back.
20. Gossiped behind your back.

*Martin and Hine (2005) omitted these items after exploratory factor analysis.

---

[6] Items from Martin and Hine's (2005, p. 481) adaptation of the Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001) are publicly available in full in:

Martin, R. J., & Hine, D. W. (2005). Development and validation of the Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(4), 477–490. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.4.477

Appendix D

Items from the Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire-Instigated (Gray et al., 2017)[7]

Please indicate how often in the past year, you have engaged in each of the following activities while at work…

Factor 1: Hostility

1. Raised your voice while speaking to another.
2. Used an inappropriate tone when speaking to others.
3. Spoke to another in an aggressive tone of voice.
4. Rolled their eyes at another.

Factor 2: Privacy Invasion

5. Took stationary from another's desk without later returning it.
6. Took items from another's desk without prior permission.
7. Interrupted another while they were speaking on the telephone.
8. Read communications addressed to another, such as e-mails or faxes.
9. Opened another's desk drawers without prior permission.

Factor 3: Exclusionary Behavior

10. Did not consult another in reference to a decision that should have involved them.
11. Gave unreasonably short notice when canceling or scheduling events another was required to be scheduled for.
12. Failed to inform another of a meeting they should have been informed about.
13. Avoided consulting another when you would normally be expected to do so.
14. Was excessively slow in returning another's phone message or email without good reason for the delay.
15. Intentionally failed to pass on information which another should have been made aware of.
16. Were unreasonably slow in seeing to matters on which they were reliant on you for, without good reason.

Factor 4: Gossiping

17. Publicly discussed another's confidential personal information.
18. Made snide remarks about another.
19. Talked about another behind his/her back.
20. Gossiped behind another's back.

[7] Items from Gray and colleagues' (2017, p. 36) Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire-Instigated are publicly available in full in:

Gray, C. J., Carter, N. T., & Sears, K. L. (2017). The UWBQ-I: An adaptation and validation of a measure of instigated incivility. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 32*(1), 21–39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-015-9433-6

Appendix E

Effect Size Characteristics Included in Meta-Analytic Coding Procedure

Type	Characteristics
Study characteristics	Full and in-text APA citations Type of literature (e.g., peer-reviewed journal article, unpublished doctoral dissertation) Year of publication Study design (e.g., prospective, cross-sectional)
Sample characteristics	Sample size Mean and standard deviation of sample age Participant type (e.g., nurses, Amazon MTurk users, hospitality employees) Percent of sample identifying as non-male Percent of sample identifying as non-White
Instigated incivility construct	Setting (e.g., face-to-face, cyber-incivility) Target (e.g., coworker, supervisor) Measure name or description Measure reliability Time of reference (e.g., in the past year, in the past month)
Experienced and observed incivility constructs	Setting (e.g., face-to-face, cyber-incivility) Source (e.g., coworker, supervisor) Measure name or description Measure reliability Time of reference (e.g., in the past year, in the past month)
Correlate constructs[1]	Construct name Measure name or description Measure reliability
Effect size characteristics	Total effect as written in-text (e.g., $r = -.20$, $p < .01$) Effect size type (e.g., Pearson's *r* correlation, *t*-statistic) Effect size value Sample size (if different from sample characteristics) Length of time between measurement occasions Subsample sizes, averages, and standard deviations (for subsample

difference calculations)

Continuous moderator characteristics[2]	Construct name Sample mean and standard deviation Minimum and maximum scale values

1. Correlate constructs were categorized as follows: behaviors, coworker correlates, demographic variables, experienced incivility, job characteristics, job-directed attitudes, observed incivility, organization-level correlates, personal dispositions, physical health, psychological ill-being, psychological well-being, self-directed attitudes, supervisor correlates, and team correlates. Team, supervisor, and coworker correlates were aggregated to represent team constructs to obtain adequate sample sizes for analysis.
2. Moderator constructs were categorized as follows: agreeableness; anger; burnout and its subcomponents emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and personal accomplishment; civility norms; conscientiousness; coworker support; hostile attribution bias; hot temperament; incivility climate; interpersonal deviance; job demands and control; job satisfaction; job tenure; negative affect; desire for revenge; experienced incivility in general, from coworkers, from customers, and from supervisors; observed incivility in general, from coworkers, and from supervisors; procedural and interactional justice; organizational citizenship behavior; organizational commitment; task performance; turnover intentions; well-being in general, mental well-being, and physical well-being; work group civility and respect; and workload.