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A Multi-Level Study Investigating the Impact of Workplace Civility Climate on Incivility and Employee Well-Being

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by

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DEDICATION

I would like to thank and dedicate this dissertation to my parents for leaving their homeland for a country where success is not guaranteed, but possible for anyone. My sisters, Katia and Karine, and now myself, have made our parents proud. I also dedicate this dissertation to my sisters for telling me that I am capable of anything I put my mind to. Especially, Katia, who used to force feed algebra to me and Karine, who introduced me to science and was the prime reason for my incessant curiosity and questioning of the status quo.

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ABSTRACT

This study used Zohar's (2000) multi-level model of climate to examine the extent to which shared perceptions of workplace civility climate relate to teacher job satisfaction, affective commitment, and counterproductive work behaviors (CWB-abuse) towards other teachers. Workplace civility climate is defined as employee perceptions of how management uses policies, procedures, and practices to maintain a civil workplace. An online-survey was used to assess a cross-sectional sample of K-12 teachers (N = 2222) nested in 207 schools in a large US school district. There was adequate agreement among teacher perceptions of school civility climate for aggregation and between-group variance of civility climate among schools. The results of hierarchical linear models revealed school-level civility climate perceptions were significantly negatively associated with lower levels of teacher experienced incivility, CWB-abuse and associated with higher levels job satisfaction and affective commitment, thus supporting four out of five hypotheses. However, school-level civility climate did not function as a moderator of the relationship between a teacher's experience of incivility and acts of CWB-abuse towards other teachers. The findings of this study provide evidence that shared perceptions of civility climate are associated with higher levels of individual-level employee well-being.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Organizational climate is a critical aspect of the work environment that has received attention in the reduction of aggressive behaviors (Kessler, Spector, Chang, and Parr, 2008; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin and Glew, 1996). The purpose of this study is to continue this line of research by investigating the impact of shared perceptions of workplace civility climate on individual employee outcomes. Climate is a construct that can be studied at the individual and group level (Zohar, 2002, Zohar & Luria, 2005). Most research on organizational climate begins by assessing individual perceptions of climate, typically referred to as psychological climate, and relates them to individual-level outcome variables (Jones & Jones, 1979). However, once researchers have obtained sufficient evidence that individual-level climate perceptions are associated with individual outcomes, then researchers investigate how group-level climate, typically referred to as organizational climate, relates to individual outcomes.

Zohar's (2000) multi-level model of climate explains how workplace civility climate functions as a group-level construct. Specifically, we seek to address two questions with this study. First, do individuals share perceptions of workplace civility climate at the group level? Secondly, if workplace civility climate functions as a group-level construct, then what association would it have with workplace incivility, job satisfaction, employee commitment and counterproductive work behaviors (CWB)? As a result, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) was used to address these questions in that it enables researchers to test the effects of group-level variables on individual outcome variables (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

First, a review of workplace aggression will address how incivility and related behaviors (e.g., verbal abuse, nastiness, and rudeness) differ from other forms of aggression and its importance to employee safety from aggression and well-being. Second, a review of climate will be presented that will define psychological and organizational climate and discuss how they contribute to the understanding and prevention of workplace aggression. Additionally, to provide evidence of extending safety climate to address incivility, this paper will review how two climate constructs (i.e., safety and violence prevention climate) are critical to understanding how climate contributes to the prevention of injuries from accidents and violence, respectively. Next, I will provide a review of research aimed at reducing aggressive behavior at work. More importantly, I will integrate the domains of safety and workplace aggression, by applying Zohar's (2003) multi-level model of climate to workplace civility climate. Lastly, hypotheses will be presented followed by the proposed methodology for conducting the current study.

Incivility and Verbal Aggression

Workplace incivility is a stressor that is defined as "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect (Andersson and Pearson, 1999, p. 457). Individuals can behave in an uncivil manner by being nasty, rude, discourteous, condescending, and impolite. Incivility is arguably the lowest form of negative workplace behavior when using Buss's (1961) typology of aggression, which conceptualizes aggression as having three dimensions: (1) physical-verbal, (2) active-passive and (3) direct-indirect. Specifically, these acts are of the lowest intensity and verbal, rather than being intense and physical.

However, incivility does overlap with slightly more intense, yet less frequent forms of aggression. Thus, it is important to review the attributes of incivility before we discuss its antecedents and outcomes.

There are three defining characteristics of incivility: violating workplace norms for respect, low intensity acts of aggression, and unclear intentions to harm an individual. First, we must address the characteristic of norms of respect within an organization. In their seminal work, Andersson and Pearson (1999) proposed that every organization has a moral code of respect for members. This moral code is thought to be shared among all organizational members and enables them to cooperate with each other (Hartman, 1996).

Additionally, workplace incivility shares some similarity with interactional justice, which is defined as the quality of interpersonal treatment received by an individual during the implementation of workplace procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986). Specifically, both constructs share the characteristics of respect and appropriateness of behaviors among employees within the boundaries of established norms within the organization. However, interactional justice addresses mistreatment by superiors towards employees; whereas, workplace incivility can be experienced by and targeted at employees at any level within the organizations (Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout, 2001; Penny & Spector, 2005).

Second, workplace incivility is the least intense form of workplace aggression. Incivility cannot be classified as aggressive behavior if you use the conventional definition for aggression. Specifically, aggression is characterized as behavior where there is intent to physically or psychological harm an individual, whereas the key criterion for incivility is ambiguous intent to harm an individual (Andersson & Pearson,

1999; Folger & Baron, 1996; Neuman & Baron, 1997). However, incivility overlaps with forms of aggression that can be identified as being intentional, yet nonphysical in nature. In particular, many of the well studied acts of aggression (e.g., bullying, abusive supervision, etc.) can be comprised of uncivil acts, but are labeled differently due to the characteristics such as the source, target, frequency, etc., of the negative acts. Furthermore, many of the related behaviors begin with uncivil acts, which tend to be more indirect (Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2004). As a result, there are several constructs of aggressive behaviors that overlap with incivility and these behaviors are discussed in the following section.

Workplace abuse and bullying overlap with incivility and are primarily transmitted verbally and are active-passive and direct-indirect in nature (Einarsen, 1999; Keashly, Harvey, & Hunter, 1997). Workplace abuse is defined as hostile verbal and non verbal behaviors (excluding physical contact) initiated by one or more individuals towards another that are aimed at undermining them to ensure compliance (Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994, p. 342). Employees who commit this act of mistreatment seek to attack an employee's feelings and thoughts about himself or herself as a competent employee (Keashly & Harvey, 2005). Workplace abuse and incivility are similar in that they share the characteristics of violating norms for behavior in organizations and do not include physical acts of harm from instigators.

Workplace bullying is generally defined as persistent negative interpersonal behavior experienced by an employee (Rayner & Keashly, 2005). That is, workplace bullying does not occur once, it occurs when an employee experiences a pattern of

negative interpersonal behavior from coworkers over a predetermined time period. In contrast to abuse, workplace bullying can include physical acts of aggression.

Additionally, bullying can also become the norm within an organization because of a failure to identify its occurrence or because there is not a process in place to address bullying (Field, 1996; Ishmael, 1999; Lewis, 1999; & Rayner, 1998). More importantly, even if organizations have processes in place, employees might not use them because of potentially negative consequences, such as retaliation (Keashly & Neuman, 2002). The overlap of workplace bullying and incivility is that the pattern of negative interpersonal behavior associated with bullying typically begins by being subtle and indirect, which is a core characteristic of workplace incivility.

Individual-level Incivility Studies

Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner (2001) conducted a study that involved the use of qualitative methods aimed at identifying the nature of workplace and how it affects employees and organizations. What they found is that employees who experienced workplace incivility described their feelings of negative states such as depressed, down, irritable, hurt, scared and angry. Furthermore, some employees wanted to get back at the coworkers by treating them in the same way they thought they were treated. Lastly, employees reported that they avoided uncivil coworkers or work altogether, by showing up late and leaving early, or just by taking unnecessary days off from work.

Cortina et al. (2001) revealed more specific findings than available empirical studies of workplace incivility. They used a series of regression models to identify the role of incivility in predicting important work outcomes. After controlling for demographic variables and reported job stress, they found that workplace incivility

significantly predicted five facets of job satisfaction (i.e., work, coworker, supervisor, pay and promotion). Job satisfaction for coworkers and supervisors had the largest increase in explained variance, 10 and 16 percent respectively, out of the five facets of job satisfaction.

In an experimental study, Porath and Erez (2007) examined the effects of rudeness on task performance and helpfulness of individuals. Rudeness was defined as a type of uncivil behavior that is insensitive or disrespectful in nature and enacted by a person that displays a lack of regard for others. The first experiment investigated how rudeness from an authority figure (i.e., the experimenter) influences performance and helpfulness. The results of the first experiment found that rude behavior from an authority figure significantly reduced performance on measures of task performance.

Using multivariate analysis of variance, they found that rudeness significantly affected the performance on the five aforementioned dependent variables. The mean ratings of task performance and helpfulness for the participants in the control group were significantly higher than participants exposed to the rudeness condition. Furthermore, a significant odds ratio of 9.0 revealed that people in the control condition, regardless of gender, were nine times more likely to help than those in the rudeness condition. In particular, participants in the control condition picked up an average of 7 pencils, whereas, the participants in the rudeness condition picked an average of two pencils.

The second experiment investigated how the rude behavior of an individual outside of the actor-instigator dyad affected performance. Individuals were exposed to direct and indirect rudeness. Indirect rudeness was operationalized as participants overhearing someone speaking rudely to another individual, whereas direct rudeness is

when people confront rudeness personally. Task performance was measured using complex cognitive tasks and helpfulness was assessed by identifying when individuals helped a researcher pick up fallen materials, i.e., a cup of pencils and pens were knocked over by a researcher. Specifically, task performance was operationalized by four tasks: number of anagrams solved, number of uses produced for brick, ratings of the creative uses for a brick, and ratings of how flexible the participants were in using the word brick. Whereas, helpfulness was operationalized by counting the number of pencils a participant picked up when the experimenter accidently knocked over a jar containing the pencils.

The results of the second experiment suggested that rude behavior from someone outside of the experiment does affect performance and helpfulness. The results of a MANOVA found that those exposed to rudeness from outside of the experiment performed worse than the control group on the five dependent measures of task performance and helpfulness. Furthermore, participants in the rude condition were less likely to help than participants in the control (i.e., neutral condition). Specifically, although the actor committing the rude act was outside of the primary dyad, participants in the control condition were 9 times more likely to help pick up books than the individuals in the rudeness condition. The aforementioned studies demonstrate how rude behavior of an individual can influence a peer or customer to respond with less output or rude behavior in-kind. It is also important to discuss how group-level incivility can impact individual and outcomes.

Group-level Incivility

The studies reviewed thus far have primarily dealt with incivility at the individual level. To date, there is only one study that examines incivility at the group level. Lim,

Cortina, and Magley (2008) investigated the impact of workgroup incivility on individual outcomes. Workgroup incivility was defined as the acts of aggression from coworkers as a group. The measurement of workgroup incivility was based on the ratings of coworker incivility, while excluding the score of the primary employee. This method has been used in studies addressing negative work behaviors such as interpersonal aggression (Glomb and Liao, 2003; Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). For example, incivility was measured from employee's A (i.e., primary) workgroup comprised of coworkers B through D. The coworkers' incivility scores were summed to form a value that represents workgroup incivility. They proposed that method of assessing workgroup climate significantly reduces the primary employee's bias and thus allows researchers to independently test the effects of group behavior on an individual.

Using structural equations modeling, they found that workgroup incivility related to job satisfaction and mental health. However, workgroup incivility was indirectly related to turnover intentions and physical health. Specifically, results supported the idea that job satisfaction and mental health mediated the relationship between workgroup incivility with turnover intentions and mental health, respectively. While other studies have provided evidence that observing aggression can adversely affect an individual, Lim et al.'s (2008) study provided evidence that it is possible for uncivil acts among employees to adversely affect outside observers.

Up to this point, the focus has been on the relationship between workplace incivility and its associated strains. The following sections of this study will shift to the issue of how the organization can address employees' experience of workplace incivility and related behaviors such as verbal aggression and nastiness. Limited attention has been

given to more macro environmental conditions, specifically organizational climate, that might create conditions that inhibit aggression at work. Einarsen (2000) stressed that researchers need to focus more on how organizational response to bullying and related aggressive behaviors affect their occurrence in the workplace.

Only a few studies have addressed how the social conditions of the workplace contribute to the occurrence of workplace aggression and violence. For example, in an effort provide a research framework for the study of organizational aggression and violence, O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin and Glew (1996) suggested how multiple social processes in the workplace can affect employees' engagement in acts of workplace aggression. Social learning theory explains how social factors in the environment and the individual's experience can contribute to aggressive behavior (Bandura, 1973). In fact, of all of the factors they discussed, they did not specifically mention organizational climate as a potential construct to represent organizational factors that influences the occurrence of violence. However, recent studies have investigated the role of climate in understanding and addressing workplace aggression and violence. The following studies demonstrate how climate can influence violence and verbal aggression in the organization.

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate is viewed as an abstraction of the environment based on employees' shared perceptions and is studied as a multi-level construct (Jones and James, 1992; Schulte, Ostroff, Shmulyian, and Kinicki, 2009; Zohar and Luria, 2005). Organizational climate can trace its beginnings to the interest in investigating how individuals form overall perceptions of the workplace, the idea being that individuals

create reliable cognitive representation of their entire social environment (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Lewin, 1951). However, the study of employee perception of the entire social environment evolved to the study of how specific climate dimensions related to employee outcomes (Hellriegal & Slocum, 1974). Currently, climate is studied in reference to a specific organizational goal, such as customer service and safety (Ostroff, Kiniki, & Tamkins 2003, Schneider, 2000, Zohar, 1980).

There are two primary conceptualizations of organizational climate: psychological and organizational climate. Psychological climate is typically defined as an individual's perception of the workplace; whereas, organizational climate is defined as the shared perceptions among members of an organization with regard to organizational policies, procedures, and practices (Jones and James, 1979; Reichers & Schneider, 1990; Rentsch, 1990). Although these operationalizations have significantly different interpretations, they both serve a purpose in organizational research.

Self-report Studies of Climate

Psychological climate, which is measured via self-report has several advantages. First, it is important to establish if employees' perceptions of policies, procedures, and practices relate to important employee outcomes. Although specific climates in organizations represent a shared perception among individuals, individuals might be affected differently from each other. That is, employee environmental perceptions and their reactions to those perceptions can vary between individuals.

Second, undertaking a multi-level climate study requires the aggregation of individual perceptions to assess climate at the group or organizational level. This can be costly and time consuming on the researcher and organization sponsoring the research.

As a result, individual-level studies are beneficial to researchers because the power (i.e., number of individual perceptions required for aggregation) required to achieve statistical significance at higher levels of analysis is often limited and increases the chances of making a type II error. This can lead to incorrect conclusions about the climate scale relationships with other variables. Thus, single-level studies are an efficient and resourceful way to investigate the extent to which employees possess individual perceptions of climate. The following section will review key climate constructs that have demonstrated climate's impact on employees and organizations

Safety Climate

Safety researchers have identified ways to promote safety in organizations. Specifically, the primary goal is to reduce and eliminate injuries from accidents in the workplace. Traditionally, researchers have investigated how individual and organizational factors contribute to employee safety from accidents. For example, it has been found that life experiences and behavior, like taking care of an elderly parent and substance abuse relate to an employee being involved in more accidents. Lastly, individual characteristics of negative affectivity and anxiety have been shown to relate to employees reporting more injuries and being involved in more accidents, respectively (Iverson & Erwin, 1997; Murray, 1997).

Researchers have also investigated how the work environment contributes to fewer accidents and employee safety. In addition to selection and training, researchers and practitioners have investigated the effect of work design such as ergonomics and human factor adjustments, equipment, and organizational constraints on employee accidents. Although researchers made significant strides by examining individual and

objective organizational characteristics effects upon safety, safety research took the next step and began addressing safety issues by taking into account the combination of individual and organizational factors that contribute to reduction of accidents and safety in the workplace. This approach led to the idea of safety climate. Safety climate is concerned with the perceptions employees form about the importance management places upon workplace safety and management action towards safety (Dedobbeleer & Beland, 1998; Flin, Mearns, O'Connor, & Bryden, 2000; Glendon & Stanton, 2000; Probst, 2004; Thompson, Hilton, & Witt, 1998; Zohar, 1980).

Safety climate has been related at the individual level to a number of safety outcomes such as, perceptions of safety (e.g., DeJoy, Schaffer, Wilson, Vandenberg, & Butts, 2004), workplace injury (e.g., Siu, Phillips & Leung, 2004), near misses (e.g., Zacharatos, Barling, & Iverson, 2005), safety behaviors and performance (Hofmann & Stetzer, 1996; Neal, Griffin, & Hart, 2000; Zohar, 2000). In addition, perceived safety climate has been related to employee well-being such as, job satisfaction and physical symptoms (Hayes, Perander, Smecko, & Trask, 1998) and psychological strains (Goldenhar, Williams, & Swanson, 2003).

A majority of safety climate research focus on job sectors such as manufacturing (e.g., Probst, 2004; Zohar, 2000), oil and chemical process refineries (Flin, Kearns, O'Connor, & Bryden, 2000), construction (e.g., Siu et al., 2004), assembly of products and retail (e.g., Dejoy et al., 2004) and hospitals/nursing (Hayes et al., 1998; Neal & Griffin, 2006; Neal et al., 2000). The focus of safety researchers within these types of industries is quite understandable given that they have convincingly shown that many of these workplaces are extremely hazardous to employee safety and health (Smith, Karsh,

Carayon & Conway, 2005). However, until recently there was a paucity of research that addressed safety from direct human action, such as violence and aggression.

Violence Prevention Climate

Violence prevention climate was perhaps the first climate measure that addressed safety from acts of aggression and violence. Violence prevention climate addresses employee perceptions of the policies, practices, and procedures regarding the control and elimination of workplace violence (Spector, Coulter, Stockwell, and Matz, 2007). To date, there have been two published studies on violence climate. Spector et al. (2007) developed a 7-item true-false violence climate scale. The study investigated how climate for preventing violence affect primarily Type-2 violence. Type-2 violence is one of four types of violence that occurs between an employee and customers, patients, or clients (Merchant and Lundell, 2001). Their study found that violence climate predicted physical violence and verbal aggression experienced by nurses. Lastly, their climate scale related to the nurses perception of danger from patients.

In a follow-up study, Kessler, Spector, Chang, and Parr (2008) further developed the violence climate survey. Specifically, the goals of the study was to improve the original violence climate scale by shifting from a true/false to a Likert response format, investigate if a more diverse sample of employees held perceptions of violence climate and investigate the dimensionality of the scale. Kessler et al. identified three dimensions for the violence climate scale: 1) Policies and procedures, 2) Practices and response, and 3) Pressure for unsafe practices. Their results provided evidence that employees do have perceptions for climate related to management's efforts to prevent aggression and violence.

First, Kessler at al., (2008) found that the employees in different workplaces have perceptions of management's effort to prevent violence and aggression among employees; whereas the original study asked nurses about violence from patients. Second, they found that the practices and response dimension was the most important to predicting physical violence and that policies/procedures and pressure for unsafe practices were more important to employee experience of verbal aggression. These findings suggest that the action of supervisors i.e., response to violent acts is more effective than just having stated policies.

The studies on violence climate lend support to the idea that safety climate can be extended into the domain of workplace aggression. However, the scale is limited in that it focuses on preventing physical violence in lieu of less aggressive behaviors such as incivility and emotional abuse. Furthermore, their scales assessed more overt and active forms of aggression and violence. A review of the violence climate scale shows that all of the items contain the word violence, which implies and is by definition a more harsh consequence than verbal aggression (Kessler at al., 2008). Thus, there is room in the literature to investigate how climate regarding an organizations' practices, policies, and procedures against nastiness, rudeness, and verbal aggression impact employees' experience of indirect, passive, and more frequently occurring acts of uncivil acts of aggression and organizational outcomes.

The aforementioned climate constructs have contributed greatly to the advancement of understanding of workplace safety from accidents, violence, and aggression. Yet, they are limited because the use of psychological climate precludes

researchers from relating group-level perceptions to individual level employee and organizational outcomes

However, safety climate research has moved beyond the individual level of analysis into a multi-level measurement of analysis. The investigation of safety climate at higher levels gives it the distinction of being labeled as an organizational climate variable; whereas the violence prevention and workplace civility climate constructs can only be viewed as a psychological climate variable because they have only been measured and studied at the individual level of analysis.

Workplace Civility Climate

Workplace civility climate is defined as employee perceptions of how management uses policies, procedures, and practices to maintain a civil workplace. Workplaces with high civility climates should have policies, procedures and more importantly, practices in place to reduce acts of rudeness and verbal aggression in the workplace. This is similar to the impact of high safety and violence prevention climates on the reduction of injuries from accidents and violence, respectively. Organizations can establish a climate of workplace civility in several ways.

First, the organization should adopt official policies and procedures for addressing workplace incivility and verbal abuse. Second, management, though line supervisors, can state and emphasize to employees how coworkers are to be treated. Lastly, supervisors and other senior-level leaders can act as models of how to treat coworkers. Such as engaging in discussions of employee treatment of coworkers during performance reviews, and providing employees with adequate means for addressing issues of verbal aggression in the workplace.

Ottinot (2008) conducted a study to develop and test a scale of workplace civility climate. The key strength of this study was the use of a multi-source design that involved obtaining employee self-report and a coworker report of climate. Obtaining data in this manner made it possible to examine if the climate report of one employee related to the outcomes of another employee in the same workplace. Thus, the degree of convergence between employee-coworker pairs made it possible to identify if the workplace civility climate is a shared phenomenon. The workplace civility climate scale assessed the extent to which employees perceive how management, through supervisors, use policies, procedures, and practices to maintain a civil workplace.

The study found evidence to support its claim that employees have and share perceptions regarding workplace civility climate. When examining only self-reports, workplace civility climate was inversely related to reports of experienced incivility, interpersonal aggression, and counterproductive work behavior towards coworkers. However, the primary finding of the study was that employee perceptions of workplace civility climate were significantly related to peer-reports of workplace civility climate.

Furthermore, peer-reports of civility climate related to the primary workers report of experienced incivility, interpersonal conflict, CWB towards coworkers and job satisfaction. Ottinot (2008) findings provided evidence that workplace civility climate relates to the occurrence of prevalent low intensity aggressive behaviors. Additionally, the findings provided evidence to suggest that workplace civility climate is shared among coworkers. Thus, the next step is to investigate workplace civility climate at a higher level of analysis. The next section will present the rationale for a multilevel approach to measuring workplace civility climate.

Multilevel Model of Workplace Civility Climate

A multilevel interpretation of climate can be described as socially construed indications of desired role behavior, originating at the same time, from policy and procedural actions of top management and from supervisory actions exhibited by supervisors who play a tactical role in the organization (Zohar, 2000; 2005). At its core, organizational climate refers to the shared perceptions among employees of an organization with regard to policies, procedures, and practices aimed at achieving an organizational outcome. Individual perceptions must be aggregated to a higher unit of analysis (e.g. group or organization) and the mean value of the aggregated perceptions represent climate for that unit (Reichers & Schneider, 1990).

Zohar (2000) proposed a model that defined policies, procedures, and practices in the context of a multilevel interpretation of organizational climate. The main assumption is that climate is a top-down process for the establishment and propagation of climate in the workplace. Policies define strategic goals and means of goal attainment and procedures provide tactical guidelines for action related to these goals and means. Supervisory practices relate to the implementation of policies and procedures in each subunit. Specifically, policies and procedures are established at the top level of an organization; while individuals lower in the hierarchy (i.e. supervisors) are responsible for turning the upper level directives into practices.

This interpretation proposes that climate perceptions can be assessed at two levels of analysis, such that policies and procedures relate to the organizational level of analysis and supervisory practices relate to the group-level of analysis. This study is interested in examining how group-level climate can further our understanding of the cross-level

effects of workplace climate. That is, do management actions relate to unique perception of policies and procedures among work groups?

This model was applied to workplace civility climate because organizations have begun to institute policies and procedures aimed at addressing and reducing employee mistreatment such as incivility and verbal abuse. However, when top level leaders establish policies and procedures they rarely take into account potential conflict between primary goals (e.g. excellent customer service and zero accidents) and competing goals, which Zohar (2000) refers to as efficiency goals (e.g., production and profitability). In fact, supervisors often bear the responsibility of reconciling intermittent incompatibility of primary and efficiency goals due to their proximity and professional obligation. Supervisors convey performance priorities and expectations through the feedback they provide to employees during production (Katz & Kahn, 1978). These interpersonal role episodes influence employees' attempts to intimately understand organizational priorities.

This model supports the notion organizations can foster workplace civility and discourage rude behavior. Specifically, top level leaders can institute policies and procedures that balance performance and respectful treatment of coworkers, make minor investments in employee education on workplace respect and incorporate a review of employees' treatment of coworkers when making selection decisions and in performance evaluations. These actions are referred to as procedures-as-pattern of influential organizational leaders, whereby the consensus of climate perceptions is based on the relative priority of civility, in lieu of the content of the procedures (Zohar, 2000, 2001).

Similarly, a group-level of analysis of civility climate occurs when employees assess if the actions of supervisors align into an internally consistent pattern with regards

to the relative priority of respectful treatment of coworkers versus efficiency goals. These group-level climate perceptions relate to practices-as-patterns of line supervisors responsible for tactical performance. Zohar (2000) conducted a longitudinal study where workers who reported safety-focused supervisory practices and reported fewer microaccidents (i.e., individual injuries reported by workers) when assessed after months.

These patterns will be present in many organizations because it would be difficult for organizations and supervisors to be inconsistent in the level of investment and practices regarding any primary goal, such as civility climate (Zohar, 2000). For example, it would be difficult for an organization to provide seminars on employee treatment, and neglect employee treatment in other aspect of the organization, such as performance reviews.

In addition to the conceptual issues, it is important to discuss methodological issues in applying a multi-level climate approach. Zohar (2002) proposed three criteria that must be met before aggregating perceptions to measure organizational climate. First, there must be sufficient agreement among individuals within a unit. Interpreting a value based on the aggregation of scores would not make sense if there was insufficient homogeneity of perceptions among the individuals. Additionally, if perceptions are going to be aggregated, then researchers must exclude individual-level variables that measure personal beliefs from models of climate, such that climate items should be descriptive of the environment instead of evaluative.

The second criterion is that units of analysis should correspond to natural social units, such as workgroups and departments. This criterion is not required when examining psychological climate, because individual responses of people who share the

same views are clustered together by statistical means (James and Jones, 1974). The drawback to the approach of aggregating responses of psychological climate is that many of the individuals whose responses are aggregated may have never met each other. The climate dimension should predict behavior that is tied to the dimension. For example, safety climate should relate to fewer accidents and increased safety behaviors.

Thus far, an explanation has been provided on how workplace civility climate can be measured and interpreted at the higher levels of analysis. The following section proposed a model that explains why group level climate perceptions lead to the occurrence of desired behavioral outcomes. Zohar (2002) proposed that climate perceptions affect behavior in that climate perceptions influence behavior-outcome expectancies, which in turn influence the prevalence of behavior.

Since group level climate perceptions relate to practices-as-pattern, then employees will be aware of their supervisors' priorities with regard to primary and efficiency goals. As a result, in the context of workplace civility climate, employees will be motivated to act respectfully in interpersonal situations, if they think that it will elicit positive feedback from their supervisor. For example, safety climate has been found to activate employees' prevention motivation, which made them more aware of the potential threats to workplace safety and losses associated with unsafe work behaviors (Wallace and Chen, 2006). Furthermore, employees will use practices-as-pattern to assist in performing desired role behavior in weak situations where there is no direct guidance from supervisors on how to act. Although this explanation has been used primarily for safety climates influence on safety behavior, it can be extended to explain how workplace civility climate perceptions reduce uncivil behaviors.

O'Leary, Griffin, and Glew (1996) proposed a model of organization-motivated aggression that explains how the environment can affect the prevalence of workplace aggression. Organization-motivated aggression (OMA) is defined as attempted injurious or destructive behavior initiated by either an organizational insider or outsider that is instigated by some factor in the organizational context. It is based on a social-learning perspective. Social-learning theory suggests that aggression is prompted by situational cues and reinforcers (i.e., external factors), rather than internal factors such as instincts and drives (Bandura, 1979).

They proposed that organizational conditions and practices can affect the occurrence of workplace aggression and violence through common instigators in the work environment, such as modeling of behavior, aversive treatment from coworkers, incentives for aggressive behavior, and the physical environment (O'Leary et al., 1996, p 232). In fact, they claimed that factors in the organization pertaining to policies and procedures influence the occurrence of violence and aggression in the workplace.

Overall, workplace civility climate acts as an organizational factor that will serve to influence the amount of uncivil behavior in the workplace. Organization-motivated aggression (OMA) explains how work environment conditions (i.e., individual characteristics and organizational factors) can prime employees to commit acts of aggression. Zohar's model explains why organizational factors (i.e., climate) can affect the occurrence aggressive behavior. In the following section, we will propose constructs that should be associated with workplace civility climate.

Correlates of Workplace Civility Climate

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which individuals like or dislike their job. Specifically, job satisfaction is an attitude variable that is concerned with how people feel about different and overall aspects of their job (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction can be studied as a general construct and a dimensional construct that assesses different facets (e.g., pay, promotion, supervision, etc.) of the job that an employee values (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, and Paul, 1989; Spector, 1997).

Organizational climate perceptions represent the beliefs people have about the policies, procedures, and practices of an organization. Climate perceptions describe certain aspects of the work environment such as the consistency with which supervisors adhere to established policies and procedures. On the other hand, job satisfaction perceptions are affective in nature. Furthermore, job satisfaction is an evaluative reaction to the organization based upon the interaction between the job environment and personal needs/values (Jones and Jones, 1974; Schneider and Snyder, 1975). Thus, it is critical for climate items and scales to be descriptive in nature to avoid representing constructs that are evaluative and affective in nature (Payne, Fineman, and Wall, (1976).

Studies have demonstrated a relationship between climate and job satisfaction. Hayes et al. (1998) conducted a study that validated a climate scale of workplace safety, which is defined as employees' perception of safety. The scale consisted of 5 dimensions: job safety, coworker safety, supervisor safety, management safety practices, and safety program policies. They found that supervisor safety and management safety practices dimensions were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction.

Kessler et al. (2007) used zero-order correlations to find a significant relationship between the three dimensions of violence prevention climate and job satisfaction. They also investigated the incremental prediction of the violence climate prevention dimensions over the effects of exposure to violence and verbal aggression. Their findings indicated that practices explained additional variance above exposure to aggression, and the same result was found with exposure to violence. Ottinot (2008) found that perceptions of workplace civility climate related to overall job satisfaction and specific facets. Specifically, workplace civility climate related to overall job satisfaction, satisfaction for supervision and coworkers.

Organizational Affective Commitment

Organizational commitment represents feelings of attachment and loyalty towards an organization. It reflects the extent to which employees are loyal and willing to remain with the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) posited that employees can have three primary reasons for remaining with an organization. They viewed organizational commitment as a psychological state that characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and it has implications for the decision of employees to remain at the organization (Meyer, Allen, and Smith, 1993).

Thus, they proposed a three component model consisting of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Normative commitment is based on employees feelings of obligation to the organization whereby remaining with the organization is the right thing to do. Continuance commitment reflects how employees investments in the organization and the consequence of leaving the organization. Lastly, affective

commitment is defined as an employee's emotional attachment and loyalty of an employee to an organization.

Affective commitment is the most theoretically applicable component of commitment for this study because it arises from favorable experiences in the workplace (Meyer et al. 1993). Specifically, employees expect a civil work environment, which makes it possible for employees to interact and complete tasks and objectives (Pearson, Andersson, and Porath, 2005). As a result, supervisory actions aimed at creating a civil work environment might be expected by employees, and when met, can be associated with higher levels of affective commitment.

DeCotiis and Summers (1987) developed a causal model that predicted employee motivation, performance, and turnover. They used reports from 367 supervisors and found support for the possibility that perceptions of organizational climate mediated the influence of personal characteristics, and perceptions of organizational structure and processes, on employee organizational commitment levels. Furthermore, Ostroff (1993) found a strong relationship between climate dimensions and organizational commitment.

Their study used a person-environment fit perspective where climate was used to represent the environment. The primary aim of the study was to investigate how environmental and personal characteristics (i.e., demographic, skills and abilities, and disposition) can interact to affect employee outcomes. They approached this question by examining how the interaction of 12 climate dimensions and personal characteristics relate to outcomes of teachers. The results indicated that climate accounted for 21% of the variance in teachers' commitment to their organizations.

Lastly, Schwepker (2001) examined the relationship between employee perception of ethics climate and organizational commitment in a sample of business-to-business salespeople in the United States of America. Ethics climate was defined as the presence and enforcement of codes of ethics, corporate policies on ethics, and top management actions related to ethics. Using regression analyses the study found that ethics climate related to organizational commitment, after controlling for a number of demographic variables. They concluded that the more employees reported a favorable ethics climate the more committed they were to the job.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) consist of volitional acts that harm or intend to harm the organization and its stakeholders, such coworkers, customers, and supervisors, with the key characteristic being that acts of CWB must be purposeful and not accidental (Spector & Fox, 2005). CWB has been labeled as other constructs such as deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), organizational retaliatory behavior (e.g., Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and aggression (e.g., Baron and Neuman, 1996). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) has been studied at the individual and organizational level.

At the individual level, employee acts of CWB have been shown to relate to the experience of workplace incivility. Penny and Spector (2005) examined the effects of workplace incivility on employee strains, specifically job satisfaction and counterproductive work behaviors (CWB). In addition to finding a negative relationship between workplace incivility and job satisfaction, as reported in previous studies, Penny and Spector (2005) found that experienced workplace incivility was positively correlated with self-reported acts of CWB directed at employees and the organization.

Ottinot (2008) is the only known empirical study that examines the relationship between a climate construct and CWB. The study proposed that workplace civility climate would be negatively related to CWBs and found that workplace civility climate had a significant negative relationship to counterproductive work behavior. Specifically, in addition to the mono-methodology of using self reports for the stressor and strains, a multi-source methodology made it possible to relate the peer reports of workplace civility climate to the self-reported CWB of the primary worker.

Peer-reports of workplace civility climate were significantly negatively associated with and self-reported CWB. Although only one study has been found that examines the relationship between climate and CWB, it s important to discuss findings of studies that investigated constructs that are related to climate. Tepper (2000) suggested that when employees experience mistreatment they feel that the organization has failed at implementing or enforcing policies and procedures aimed at addressing conflict. The perceptions of failure of the organization can be due in part to justice. In general, these studies claim that employees who are not treated fairly engage in CWB.

Justice theory has been used by researchers to explain why employees engage in acts of CWB. Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found that employee perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interaction justice were negatively related to a type of CWB called organizational retaliatory behaviors. Distributive justice refers to the perceptions individuals have regarding the fairness of outcomes. Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the process of rewarding and punishing individuals. Lastly, interactional justice refers to the degree to which employees affect by an organizational decision are treated with respect (Greenberg, 1990).

Counterproductive work behavior has been examined at higher levels of analysis. Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) conducted a study where they tested if group CWB can influence the CWBs committed by individual employees. After controlling for a number of demographic variables, job satisfaction and probability of punishment and the degree of close supervision, they found that workgroup CWB related to individual CWB. In addition, they investigated how the relationship between workgroup CWB and individual CWB differed as a function of tenure and task interdependence. They findings suggested that the longer a person has worked at an organization the more their individual CWB related to workgroup CWB. Also, the more interdependent tasks led to a stronger relationship between individual CWB and workgroup CWB.

Current Study

Purpose and Approach.

The goal of the current study is to investigate the effects of climate, specifically workplace civility climate, on employees' level of experienced incivility, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and counterproductive work behavior towards coworkers. In order to investigate workplace civility climate, administrative support, teachers, and administrators will be asked to rate their workplace (i.e., school) on workplace civility climate. The responses from employees from each school will be aggregated to produce a single estimate of workplace civility climate per school. This study will use HLM to test the effects of workplace civility climate on each of the individual level dependent variables.

Hypotheses

The first hypothesis is that employees working in climates of higher workplace civility climate will report lower levels of experienced incivility. Just as a good safety climate relates to fewer injuries from accidents, and violence prevention climate relates to reduced acts of experienced physical aggression, then the same concept should apply to workplace civility climate. That is, good workplace civility climate perceptions should elicit civil behaviors and vigilance of the employee about their treatment of coworkers. Specifically, organizations with high levels of workplace civility climate will have supervisors (i.e., administrators) that consistently discourage rudeness and verbal aggression among employees. More importantly, the supervisor's actions will act as the role episodes that will inform employees of the consequences for committing acts of incivility. Therefore,

H1: Employees working in civil workplace climates will report lower levels of experienced incivility.

The next two hypotheses address the relationship between workplace civility climate and strains of job satisfaction and affective commitment. Employees working in high civility climates will report more favorable attitudes towards their job and organization. Specifically, employees will experience higher levels of satisfaction for their job because organizations with higher levels of civility climate will tend to engage in activities that demonstrate to employees that the organization is concerned with their well-being. For example, supervisors will not ignore employee complaints of disrespectful behavior and will be able to maintain a civil climate, despite stressful working conditions. Additionally, employees will be more committed to the organization

when the organization, through supervisors, demonstrate their concern for employees by encouraging employees to review policies aimed at reducing verbally aggressive behaviors. Therefore:

H2: Employees working in civil workplace climates will report higher levels of job satisfaction.

H3: Employees working in civil workplace climates will report higher levels of affective commitment.

It is important to determine the effects of the workplace civility climate on the voluntary acts of negative behaviors of individuals in an organization. In theory, employees should commit fewer acts of voluntary behavior that harms the organization. Specifically, high levels of workplace civility climate should create a strong situation where employees who commit acts of CWB towards coworkers would be likely to perceive negative consequences for their aggressive actions.

H4: Employees working in civil workplace climates will report lower levels of CWB-Abuse.

The final hypothesis examines how workplace civility climate can impact the relationship between experienced incivility and the acts of CWB committed by the employee. It can be assumed that incivility still exists in workplaces despite there being a high level of workplace civility climate. Given that condition, employees who experience incivility can respond by committing acts of CWB towards other coworkers. This study proposes that the level of workplace civility climate will moderate that relationship, such that workplace civility climate will function more effectively when employees report experiencing fewer acts of incivility.

Specifically, at high levels of workplace civility climate employees who report low levels of experienced incivility will commit fewer acts of CWB than at low levels of civility climate. However, when employees experience higher levels of incivility, a high level of workplace civility climate will be ineffective such that it will be a sign that despite the organizations efforts, it has failed at addressing incivility. As a result, employees can retaliate by taking matters into their own hands and commit acts of CWB-abuse.

This implies that if the organizational efforts are ineffective against incivility among employees, it would be better off not addressing incivility at all. Additionally, it is possible that workplace civility climate is effective, but not for all employees. That is, even though the organization has a high level of civility climate, some employees might experience copious amounts of incivility and might react by taking matters into their own hands through counterproductive work behaviors towards coworkers. Therefore,

H5: Workplace civility climate will moderate the relationship between experienced incivility and CWB-abuse. Such that, when there is a low workplace civility climate, the relationship between experienced incivility and CWB-Abuse will be stronger. However, when workplace civility climate is low, the relationship between experienced incivility and CWB-Abuse will be stronger.

CHAPTER TWO

Method

Participants

Data were collected from 2222 employees, nested within 207 schools. A majority of participants were female (82.6%) and were Caucasian (75.0%), Black (10.5%), Hispanic (8.4%), and Asian (1.3%). Median statistic of teachers' age, history of employment posts, school tenure and district tenure was used due to the positively skewed data, As a result, teachers median age was 35 years and had a median tenure of 5 years at current school and 9 years in the district (see Table 1). Lastly, they held positions in elementary (57.7%), middle (22.4%), high (17.4%) and alternative (2.5%) grade-level posts.

Table 1. Frequencies and Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables

	n	Median	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Age	1285	35	24	58	34.98	6.74
Tenure School	2174	5	1	45	8.91	6.69
Tenure District	2174	9	1	46	11.96	8.91
Number of Schools Worked	2115	2	1	16	5.59	2.20

Measures

Demographic Variables. Participants were asked to indicate gender, age, and designation (i.e., support staff, administration, teachers, assistant principals, and principals). Additional demographic data were collected such as tenure at school, tenure in district, and the number of schools worked at during their career in the district. The school district recommended that participants should not be required to complete the demographics section of the survey. As a result, the demographics items were located at

the end of the online survey to reduce possible evaluation apprehension due to the request for demographic data (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Table 1 provides the number of participants who provided their demographic information.

Workplace Civility Climate, WCC. The 13 items of the workplace civility climate scale (Ottinot, 2008) were based on the literature on aggression prevention and existing measures of safety climate (Zohar, 1980; Hayes, et al., 1998) and violence climate (Spector et al., 2008). The items were theoretically derived to assess the extent to which employees perceive their direct supervisor discourages and is responsive to workplace incivility. The scale includes items as indicators that refer to supervisory monitoring and rewarding practices, individualized coaching of group members, and willingness to take time to address incivility even if it takes away from productive work time.

Participants are asked to rate the extent to which workplace civility climate items reflect their current work environment by the following instructions: "Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:" Immediately following the instructions was the stem, "My direct supervisor", which was used to precede each item. The items were presented in a 6-point likert scale ranging from 1= *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree* and five items were reversed scored (See Appendix A). The range of the scale is 13 to 78, whereby higher scores on the WCC measure indicate favorable perceptions of workplace civility climate. The Cronbach alpha was .88.

Experienced Workplace Incivility. Penny and Spector (2005) developed the workplace incivility scale, which is based on existing measures of similar constructs such as employee abuse and mobbing (Neuman & Keashley, 2002; Leymann, 1990). An 11-item shortened version of the measure developed by Penny and Spector (2005) (See

appendix B). Items were eliminated for the purposes of brevity and applicability to the sample. Six teachers, specifically two general education teachers from each phase of K-12 education (i.e., elementary, middle, and high school) used a scale from 1 (not at all applicable) to 4 (highly applicable) to rate the applicability of the incivility scale to their workplace.

Additionally, previous data were used to identify which incivility items occurred most often in various workplaces. Items were dropped if more than three teachers endorsed the item as being not at all applicable and had a mean of less than 1.10. In addition to assessing incivility from coworkers, the scale was adapted to assess incivility from students. Participants indicate how frequently they are subjected to uncivil acts by coworkers, students/parents. Items are presented in a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "never" to "several times a day." The original scale had a 5-point response format; however, Blau and Andersson (2005) suggested expanding the response options of incivility scales to capture acts of negative behavior that can occur multiple times a day. Scores can range from 11 to 66, where higher scores indicate higher experienced incivility. The Cronbach alphas for the incivility from students and coworkers was .94 and .93, respectively.

Counterproductive Work Behavior–Abuse, CWB-abuse. The abuse subscale of the short version of the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, and Kessler, 2006) was used for this study (appendix C). Participants completed a 14-item measure, but three items were dropped for the analyses due to poor representation of abuse towards teachers (e.g., told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for, came to work late without permission). Primary participants

indicated how often they performed each behavior in their current job during the last 30 days on a 6-point scale from 1 = *Never* to 6 = *Several times a day*, as recommended by Blau and Andersson (2005). Scores can range from 11 to 66, where higher scores indicate higher participation in CWB-abuse. The Cronbach alpha for this scale was .72.

Organizational Affective Commitment, Affective commitment was measured with the 8-item affective component of Meyer and Allen's (1997) scale. Items refer to the emotional attachment held by the employee to the organization (e.g. *"This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me"*). More importantly, items were adapted for school employees, whereby "organization" was replaced with "school". The word organization can be interpreted as the school district instead of the school. Thus, the aforementioned item changed to, *"This school has a great deal of personal meaning for me"* Two items are reversed scored and responses are made on 7-point scales (1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree)* (Appendix D). The range of possible scores is 8 to 56, where higher scores indicate higher levels of affective commitment. Cronbach alpha for this scale was .81.

Job Satisfaction. A three-item measure developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979) was used to assess overall job satisfaction. Three items assess overall job satisfaction, as opposed to satisfaction with particular facets of the job (e.g., pay, workload) and one of the items is reversed-scored ('In general, I don't like my job'). All job satisfaction items are rated on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 6 = *strongly agree*), with a range of 3 to 18 (see appendix E). Cronbach alpha for this scale was .87.

Procedure

Data Collection. Two-hundred and thirty-four principals within a large southeastern US school district contacted via e-mail to gain permission and asked to help in notifying school employees about the research questionnaire. Ninety-two percent (*n* = 216) of the principals agreed to participate and send a prepared e-mail to all employees that included school district approval letter, a description of the study and two survey links (Appendix F), yielding a 92 percent school response rate.

In the e-mail, there was a link for teachers under the label instructional staff, whereas the second link, labeled administrators, was for assistant principals and principals. Teachers were able to complete the survey at any time via an online survey tool (i.e. SurveyMonkey) during the following four months; however, they could not pause and save the survey to complete at another time. When teachers and administrators entered the survey, they had to select their job category, non administrative employees had to indicate if they were instructional or support staff, whereas administrators had to indicate if they were an assistant principal or principal.

The response rate during the first three weeks was less than 500 employees, so the district liaison was consulted to identify another approach to increasing awareness of the survey among employees. The liaison informed indicated that the school had recently posted several surveys and that employees might have survey fatigue. Thus, I obtained an electronic list of employee e-mails for all 216 schools, leaving out the 18 schools that declined to participate. The electronic file contained e-mail address for every employee per site (e.g., school). More importantly, to ensure that anonymity the e-mail addresses were formatted to be employees' ID numbers followed by the domain name (i.e.,

@sdxc.k12.xx us), thus not containing the actual names of employees. For example, the internal mail system would convert and recognize *180498@sdxc.k12.xx us* and send it to *john.doe@sdxc.k12.xx.us*. Approximately 9,000 e-mails were sent to all employees and several steps were taken to ensure the highest chance of participation. First, the county approval letter was attached to each e-mail to provide official district documentation. This was necessary because teachers receive many e-mail solicitations to participate in research. Second, the subject line for the e-mails read, "*Workplace Opinion & Well-Being Survey (SDXC Approved)*". Third, e-mails were sent to the primary researcher, who was labeled as an undisclosed recipient, and the employees at the target school were back carbon copied on the e-mail. Thus, each employee would only see "undisclosed recipients" as the sender (figure 1).

Overall, of the 9,000 e-mails approximately 1000 e-mails bounced back due to unretired e-mails from employees who were no longer working in the school district. Participating principals agreed to send at least one reminder e-mail and I sent subsequent e-mail reminders. Reminders were sent every 30 days during the study. Reminders also informed employees as to the extent of representation from certain grade-levels (i.e., elementary, middle, and high) depending on the response rate from that grade-level. A maximum of three e-mail reminders were sent to employees, unless the survey collectors for each school indicated that fewer than 6 employees per school completed the survey. The study closed on July 1, 2010.Of the remaining 8000 potential participants 3008 employees from 216 schools participated in the study, which yielded a response rate of approximately 38 percent. The average number of teachers per school was 10.73. The specific teacher response rate

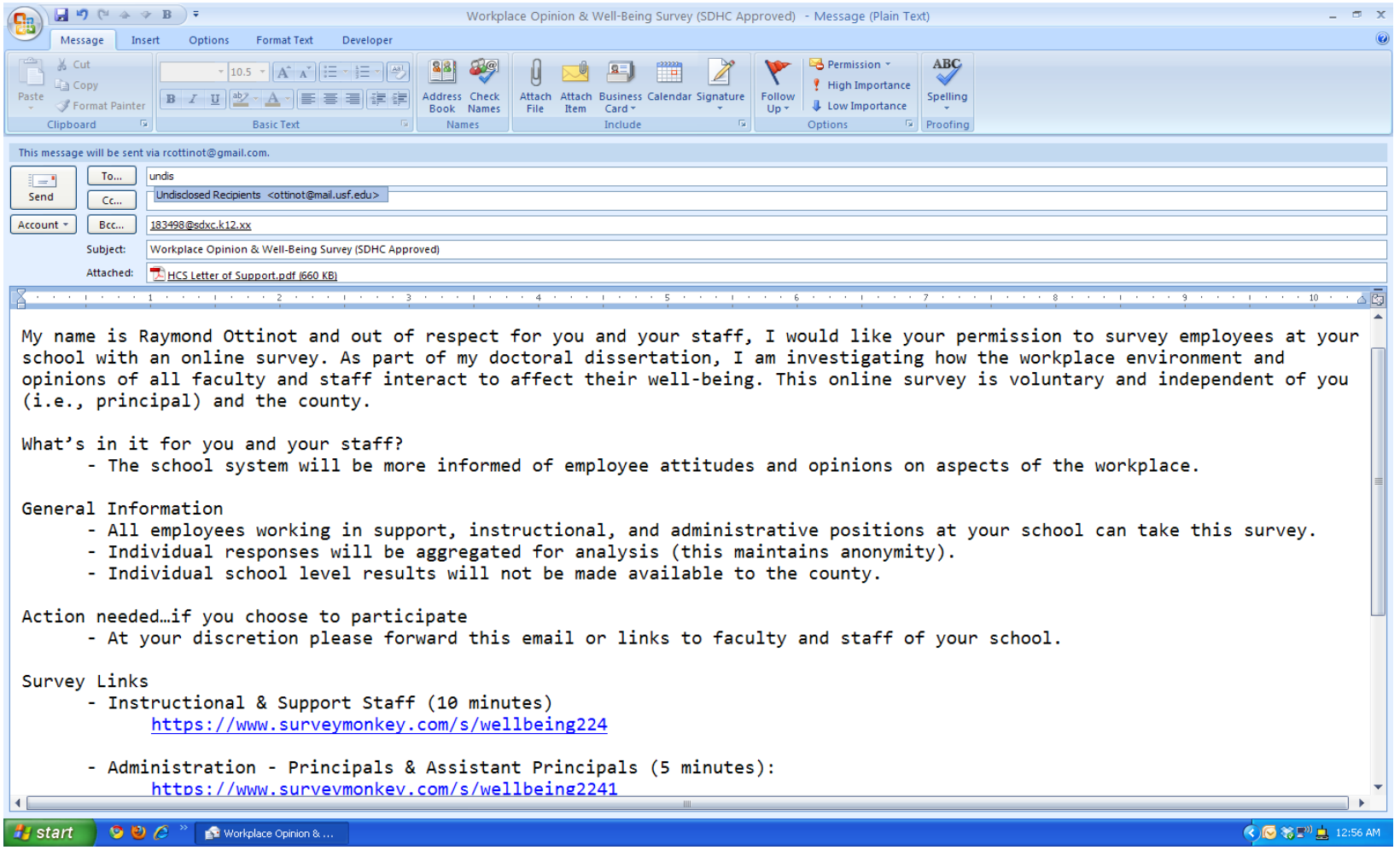

Figure 1. First direct e-mail request sent to school district employees.

could not be calculated because the e-mail addresses used to solicit employees could not be identified as being sent to a teacher, staff, maintenance and administrative employee. The lack of responses from all teachers in a school could be an indicator of nonresponse bias. However, it was possible to calculate how the total responses from each school correlated with individual-level hypotheses variables.

The number of teachers who participated from each school significantly correlated positively with grade-level post ($r = .16$, $p < .01$), incivility from students ($r = .11$, $p < .01$) and CWB-abuse ($r = .04$, $p < .05$) and negatively with job satisfaction ($r = -.07$, $p < .01$) and affective commitment ($r = -.06$, $p < .01$). These correlations indicate that the number of teacher responses from each school was positively associated with higher grade-level posts, tended to report higher levels of experienced incivility from students and increased participation in CWB-abuse.

However, when controlling for grade-level post (i.e., elementary, middle, etc.) the correlations between number of teachers per school and primary study variables did not reach significance. Furthermore, the response rate is associated with the grade-level post of the teachers, such that teachers working in upper grade-levels responded more than teachers from lower grade-levels. Thus, teacher responses from each school were not related to any primary study variables once grade-level post was held constant.

Participants who did not meet study criteria were excluded from the data analyses. Specifically, 243 support staff, 445 cases of incomplete workplace civility climate ratings, and 98 incomplete cases on CWB-Abuse ratings. Consequently, nine more schools were omitted because fewer than three eligible surveys were available for

analysis. As a result, 131 elementary, 42 middle, 27 high schools and 4 alternative schools in the district were surveyed for a total of 207 schools.

Analyses. Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) was used to address the primary hypotheses with HLM 6.08 (student edition) software. There are two primary issues related to hierarchical data that affect the estimates of an ordinary multiple regression analysis. First, employees working in a school system typically work in groups (i.e., schools). Employees working at a school share the experience of being in the same environment, that is physical environment, administration, and similar supervisory practices, which can lead to increased homogeneity of perceptions. Second, since employees will be sampled from schools, which are similar in terms of physical environment and supervisory practices, they will be more similar than if we randomly selected from the entire population of schools in the district.

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression analysis assumes that the random errors are independent. This assumption would be violated because the random error within nested data will include random error from employees and school-level, which makes them dependent (Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992). Lastly, many of the statistical tests will be based on the number of individuals instead of groups, because group level variables (i.e., schools) are assigned to individual level (i.e., employee). This issue can make it likely to produce type 2 error because the standard errors for the group level variables can easily be underestimated (Bryk and Raudenbush, 1989).

Cross-level models specify the effects group-level constructs have on constructs at the individual level (Rousseau, 1985). In this study, the primary questions are: How does workgroup civility climate affect the individual (i.e., teachers) experiences of

incivility, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and CWB towards coworkers? Hierarchical linear modeling enables researchers to test effects of higher level variables on individual level outcomes. At level-1, a within group model is estimated separately for each group and the individual level outcome variable is regressed onto the level-1 predictors. That is, the dependent variable is a function of the combination of a series of level-1 predictors, plus the intercept, so:

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}X_{ij} + \ldots \beta_{kj}X_k + r_{ij} \text{ (level-1 equation) (1)}$$

Where β_{0j} represents the intercept of group j, β_{1j} represents the slope of variable X_1 of group j, and r_{ij} represents the error (i.e., residual) for individual i within group j. However, at the next level (e.g., school), level-1 slopes and intercept (i.e., mean) become the dependent variables being predicted from level-2 variables: so,

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}G_1 + \ldots \gamma_{0k}G_k + U_{oj} \text{ (level-2 equation) (2)}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}G_1 + \ldots \gamma_{1k}G_k + U_{1j} \text{ (3)}$$

Where γ_{00} and γ_{10} are level-2 intercepts, and γ_{01} and γ_{11} represent level-2 slopes predicting β_{0j} and β_{0j} respectively from variable G_1. Lastly, u_{ij} represents the error (i.e., residual) for level-2. Level-2 equation represents the main effect of G_1 (i.e. group membership) on Y_{ij}. Whereas, equation 3 represents the interaction between G_1 and X_{ij}. That is, what is the moderating effect of G_1 on the relationship of X_1 and Y_{ij}.

In all, HLM makes it possible to examine the effects of level-1 variables on the outcome, and the effects of level-2 variables on individual level outcomes. More importantly the prediction of slopes and means makes it possible to model cross-level interactions, such that it is possible to identify differences in the relationship between level-1 variables and the outcome. A number of models were tested based upon the

model building steps created by Raudenbush and Bryk's (2002). Level-1 variables for this study are associated with school employees (i.e., teachers). These variables include the outcome variables of interest: experienced incivility, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and CWB-abuse. Level-2 reflects the group level, which refers to the specific school where the teacher is employed. Second level variable will be the mean rating for workplace civility climate per school. Lastly, the predictors will be grand mean centered.

When viewing regression from purely a mathematical standpoint, the slope values represent the expected change in Y_{ij} with a unit increase in X_{ij} and the intercept represents the value of Y_{ij} when X_{ij} is zero (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). However, the interpretation of these values in an applied condition takes on meaning because the most social constructs are interval and not ratio measurements. For example, it does not make sense for an employee and organizations to have zero standing on variables such as job satisfaction and climate. Centering is recommended to rescale level-1 predictors so that the intercept term is more interpretable.

As a result, the grand mean of level-1 predictors will be subtracted from each level-1 case (i.e., scale score of individual employees on level-1 variables). Once grand mean centering is completed then the intercepts can be interpreted differently. Specifically, an intercept will be equal to the expected value of Y_{ij} for an individual with an average level of predictor. As a result, when individuals' raw score on the level-1 predictor is equal to the grand mean, then the score on the outcome variable will be the same as the predictor. That is, the new interpretation will be that the average Y_{ij} adjusted for X_{ij} (Hoffman & Gavin, 1998). All models were created using the HLM 6.08 default,

restricted maximum likelihood estimation. The degree of freedom (*df*) was calculated using the default method, that is the number of level two records minus the total number of fixed effects. Descriptive statistics were used to inspect variables for normality given that interpretations of the statistical tests take into account violations of normality.

The next step involved running a fully unconditional model, where 4 separate models will estimate the variability in the dependent variable (e.g., CWB-abuse) for within schools and between schools. The notation for the fully unconditional model is:

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij} \qquad \text{(Level-1 equation)}$$

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j} \qquad \text{(Level-2 equation)}$$

where Y_{ij} and β_{0j} represent the outcome and mean outcome for each unit, respectively. Equation two represents level-2, whereby the intercept of level -1 variable (β_{0j}) becomes the outcome variable and where (γ_{00}) represent level-2 intercepts, respectively. Furthermore, the model produces intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC), which make it possible to calculate the degree of variability between schools. This type of correlation indicates the amount of variance in the dependent variable due to the employee's employment at a school.

After the four unconditional models are produced, four models addressed the relationship between workplace civility climate variable and the outcome variable within each school (Hypotheses 1-4). The models demonstrate that each school has its own unique relationship between the independent and dependent variables. As a result, several regression equations can be estimated for each school, which can be numerous and several types of output are reported. First, the fixed effects output of the model provides the slope and intercepts for each school. Second, the variance/covariance portion of the

output provides information about the extent to which the estimated regression equations differ across departments.

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij} \quad \text{(Level-1 equation)}$$

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}\,(combinedWCC) + u_{0j} \quad \text{(Level-2 equation)}$$

Hypotheses 1-4 was calculated by combining the workplace civility climate coefficient under fixed effects. A significant t-test for this coefficient indicated that the workplace civility climate variable significantly affects the dependent variable specified in the model. Lastly, the final model tests hypothesis 5, which proposes that workplace civility climate, will moderate the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and CWB-abuse. The model allows the random variance intercept and the random variance slope to covary. The following applies:

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{ij}(Predictor) + r_{ij} \text{ (level-1 equation)}$$

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}\,(combinedWCC) + u_{0j} \text{ (level-2 equation)}$$

$$\beta_{ij} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}\,(combinedWCC) + u_{ij} \text{ (level-2 equation)}$$

Conducting the aforementioned equations made it possible to examine fixed effects. Specifically, workplace civility climate will be a significant moderator if a significant t-test for the combined workplace civility climate coefficient indicated that the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and CWB-abuse varies as a function of workplace civility climate.

CHAPTER THREE

Results

Descriptives and Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive statistics for teachers (*N* =2222) and school-level (*N* = 207) study variables can be found in table 2 and 3, respectively. On average, teachers reported favorable civility climate (*M* = 55.96, *SD* = 12.84) for their school, which has a possible range of 13 to 78. Teachers reported low levels of incivility from coworkers (*M* = 14.58, *SD* = 5.50), incivility from students or parents (*M* = 19.83, *SD* = 9.00) and CWB-abuse targeted at peers (*M* =12.23, *SD* = 1.86), along with high levels of job satisfaction (*M* = 15.23, *SD* = 3.51) an affective commitment (*M* = 39.90, *SD* = 9.88).

The first step in data analysis was to test the factorial structure of the workplace civility climate scale. This was done with individual-level teacher civility climate scores (*N* = 2222) to preserve statistical power. Given that there were no theoretical assumptions concerning the internal structure of the scale, an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factor extraction with varimax rotation was performed. Three-factors had eigenvalues greater than one and all factors accounted for 49.79% of the variance in civility climate. The approach of retaining factors with eigenvalues of at least one tends to overestimate the true number of factors (Lance, Butts, and Michels, 2006).

Alternative methods of identifying the factor structure of a measure was used, such as identifying patterns of item content in proposed structure and the scree plot. There were no discernable differences in terms of item content among the suggested factors to warrant using a three factor structure. Furthermore, the third factor was primarily an artifact consisting of all negatively worded items and the cross loadings for

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities of Level-1 Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Workplace Civility Climate	55.96	12.84	(.88)	.09	-.02	.03	.00	.03	-.35	-.18	-.18	.39	.49
2. Gender	--	0.36	.04	--	.02	-.07	.03	.05	-.08	.02	.01	.02	.04
3. Tenure at school	7.47	6.69	.00	.02	--	.56	-.02	.24	.00	.01	.06	.07	.08
4. Tenure in district	11.96	8.91	.04*	-.02	.63**	--	.39	.35	-.01	-.03	.09	.06	.07
5. Number of Schools Employed	2.58	2.20	-.00	.01	.04	.43**	--	.12	.01	-.04	.03	-.05	-.06
6. Age	34.98	6.74	.02	.06*	.26**	.35**	.10**	--	-.07	-.03	-.03	.10	.09
7. Experienced Incivility (Coworkers)	14.58	5.50	-.39**	-.02	-.03	-.03	.01	-.08**	(.93)	.35	.21	-.28	-.30
8. Experienced Incivility (Studens/Parents)	19.83	9.00	-.24**	.10**	-.04	-.07**	-.05*	-.04	.38**	(.94)	.18	-.33	-.28
9. CWB-Abuse	12.23	1.86	-.22**	.03	.02	.01	.01	-.03	.30**	.26**	(.72)	-.22	-.18
10. Job Satisfaction	15.23	3.51	.41**	-.01	.08**	.08**	-.04	.09**	-.31**	-.38**	-.25**	(.87)	.70
11. Affective Commitment	39.90	9.88	.54**	.01	.12**	.12**	-.04	.08**	-.31**	-.32**	-.18**	.73**	(.81)

Note. $p < .05$*. $p < .01$**. N= 2115-2222. Zero-order correlations are below diaganol. Pooled-within correlations are above diaganol. Coefficient alphas are in parentheses.

Gender: 1 = Male, 2 = Female Tenure measured in years.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of Level-2 Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Workplace Civility Climate	55.99	5.77	--							
2. Tenure at School	7.48	3.11	.11	--						
3. Tenure in District	12.18	4.14	.08	.63**	--					
4. Experienced Incivility (Coworkers)	14.59	2.17	-.40**	-.09	-.05	--				
5. Experienced Incivility (Studens/Parents)	19.51	5.14	-.23**	-.12	-.08	.38**	--			
6. CWB-Abuse	12.19	0.70	-.40**	-.09	-.11	.42**	.38**	--		
7. Job Satisfaction	15.27	1.63	.55**	.26**	.17*	-.48**	-.48**	-.41**	--	
8. Affective Commitment	40.05	4.54	.63**	.26**	.20**	-.45**	-.45**	.27**	.81**	--

Note. $p < .05$**. $p < .01$**. N = 207. Tenure measured in years.

factors one and two were moderate. Further examination of the scree plot suggested a one to two factor solution (figure 2). Since the evidence for multiple factors was weak, civility climate was measured as an essentially unidimensional predictor variable.

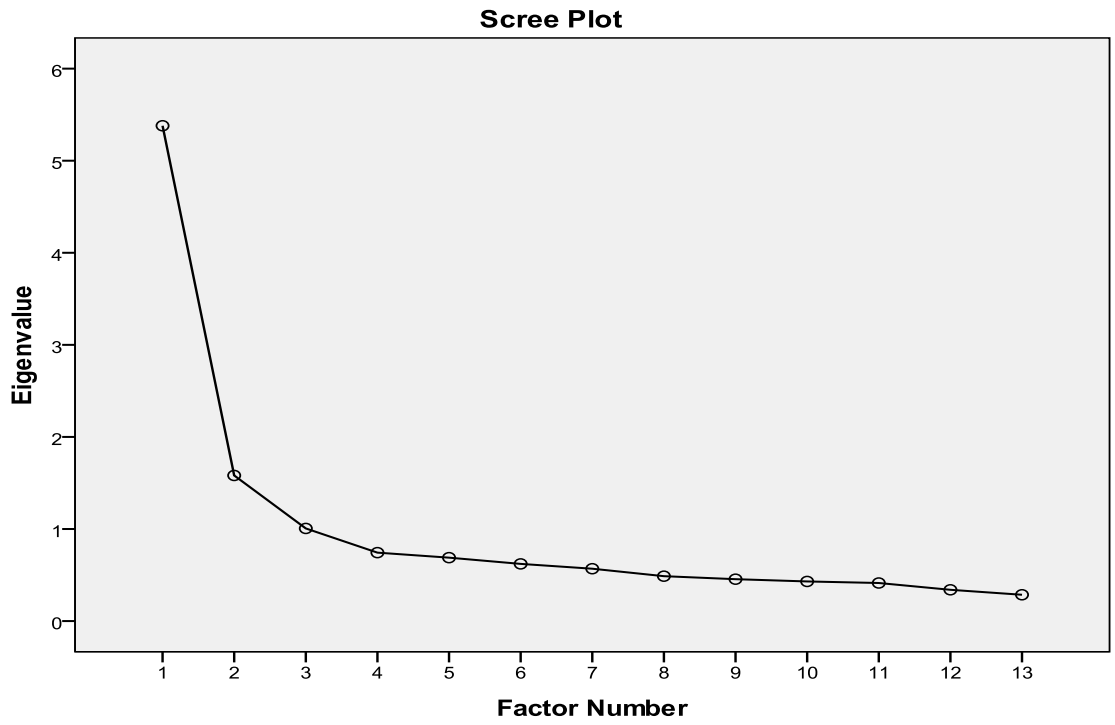

Figure 2. Workplace Civility Climate Scale Scree Plot

Next, it was essential to assess the similarity among coworkers within schools by calculating within-group agreement $r_{wg(J)}$, and the intraclass correlations of interrater agreement $ICC_{(1)}$ and reliability of the mean $ICC_{(2)}$ (LeBreton & Senter, 2007). Across the 207 schools, $ICC_{(1)} = .11$, $ICC_{(2)} = .68$ ($F_{(972, 972)} = 3.08$, $p < .05$), with an average $r_{wg(J)}$ for workplace civility climate was .78, using a null distribution which assumes equal probability of all response choices.

In summary, the $ICC_{(1)}$ indicated a moderate effect of school membership on teachers rating of climate; the obtained within-group agreement index of $r_{wg(J)}$ provided

evidence that there is moderate agreement of teachers perceptions of civility climate within a school (LeBreton & Senter, 2007). Lastly, the obtained $ICC_{(2)}$ value suggests that teachers' mean ratings reliably distinguish among the 207 schools. These findings provide enough evidence to justify aggregating individual civility climate scores to the group-level.

Individual-level Analysis

As seen in Table 2, teacher ratings of workplace civility climate significantly correlated positively with their tenure in the district ($r = .04$, $p < .05$). That is, teachers' perceptions of civility climate tend to increase with tenure. Teachers' perception of workplace civility climate was negatively correlated with incivility from coworkers ($r = -.39$, $p < .01$), incivility from parents or students ($r = -.24$, $p < .01$) and CWB-abuse ($r = -.22$, $p < .01$). Teachers' job satisfaction ($r = .41$, $p < .01$) and affective commitment ($r = .54$, $p < .01$) were also associated with favorable perceptions of workplace civility climate.

Group-level Analysis

This study employed a two-level hierarchical linear model to test all hypotheses whereby teachers (level-1) were nested in schools (level-2). Experienced incivility, CWB-abuse, job satisfaction and affective commitment are level-1 outcome variables, and level-2 variables were grade-level post, district tenure, school tenure, and mean workplace civility climate score (i.e., group (school)-climate). Table 3 displays the zero-order correlations among the level-2 variables. Grade-level post correlated significantly with tenure in district ($r = .20$, $p < .01$), incivility from students/parents ($r = .50$, $p < .01$), and CWB-abuse towards coworkers ($r = .19$, $p < .01$). These results are similar to the

level-1 correlations, with the exception of the correlation between grade-level post with tenure at school (r = .11, p = .13).

School-level civility climate (i.e., mean teacher climate scores from a school) significantly correlated negatively with incivility from coworkers (r = -.40, p < .01), incivility from students/parents (r = -.23, p < .01), and CWB-abuse towards coworkers (r = -.40, p < .01). School-level civility climate also correlated significantly with school-level job satisfaction (r = .55, p < .01) and affective commitment (r = .63, p < .01). On the contrary, school-level civility climate yielded contrasting results at the school-level compared to individual-level correlations. Specifically, school civility climate did not correlate significantly with grade-level post (r = -.09, p = .21), school tenure (r = .11, p = .13) and district tenure (r = .08, p = .23) (see Table 3).

Hierarchical Linear Modeling Analysis

In order to test the hypotheses, a fully unconditional model (Model 1) was conducted for workplace civility climate and four outcome variables: experienced incivility, CWB-abuse, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) for each school was calculated using a random effects variance component, which is the within- and between-groups variance for each variable. The ICCs from Model 1 provides the covariance estimates needed to determine the variability in the dependent variable between units (i.e., schools), specifically they make it possible to determine how much schools vary in their mean dependent variable score. More importantly, ICC also made it possible to examine the extent to which teacher ratings of their school's civility climate was affected by their employment at that school.

Table 4 provides the ICCs, variance of school means, and reliability of the ordinary least squares (OLS) estimates for each intercept. The estimate for the grand-mean civility score (γ_{00}) was 56.00 and has a standard error of .40 which yielded a 95 percent confidence interval of [54.75, 57.23]. The within-teacher variance (σ^2) of 146.19 represents the variation in civility climate at level-1; whereas between-school (τ_{00}) variance of 18.29 indicates the school-level variance of the true means.

The magnitude of variation among schools in their mean civility climate can be examined with a possible range for the school means. The estimate for the grand-mean civility score (γ_{00}) was 56.00 and has a school random effect coefficient of 18.29 with a 95 percent confidence interval of [47.60, 64.37]. Additionally, it is wise to test if the variance of the true school means (τ_{00}) is significantly greater than zero. This will reveal if it is okay to assume that all schools have the same mean. The chi-squared test statistic χ^2 (1, N = 206) = 239.11, p = .05 for final variance estimation components indicated there was significant variance among the civility climate school means.

The variance components made it possible to calculate the degree to which civility climate perceptions was between schools. The results indicate that 11 percent of the variance in civility climate is between schools. Lastly, ordinary least squares (OLS) reliability estimates are indicators of the reliability of estimates of each school's intercept and slope based on computing a regression equation for each school. The reliability estimate of 0.55 suggests that the reliability of the sample school means sufficiently reliable as indicators of the true means. There are no established values for what OLS estimates should be; however, the higher the better.

The results of the unconditional analyses for the remaining variables can be found in Table 4 and 5. In general, several ICCs indicated that incivility from students, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and tenure at school tended to differ based upon the school. Specifically, the average levels of civility climate and the aforementioned variables are higher in some schools than other schools. However, incivility from peer, CWB-Abuse and tenure in district do not differ by school.

The second model examines the effect of school-level workplace civility climate on teacher-level dependent variables (e.g., experienced incivility, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and CWB-Abuse) within each school. This model examines how the means for the outcome variables are predicted by group characteristics. Additionally, it is possible to assess if the means of level-1dependent variables vary significantly once civility climate is controlled.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that employees working in civility climates would report experiencing less incivility. The equation for incivility from peers and students/parents is as follows, $INCIVILITYPEERS_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(WCCMEAN) + u_{0j} + r_{ij}$. Hypothesis 1 was fully supported as a result of the significant t-statistics between civility climate and incivility from peers (-7.43) and students/parents (-4.74) (Table 5). The coefficient for the constant is the predicted experienced incivility from peers when all independent variables are zero, so when the school has a mean civility climate of zero, then the teachers' experience of incivility from peers and students and parents is predicted to be 14.57 and 19.59, respectively.

Table 4. Intraclass Correlation Coefficients for Unconditional Models of Workplace Civility Climate and Dependent Variables

Dependent Variable	ICC	Coefficient (γ_{00})	SE (γ_{00})	95% CI (γ_{00})	Range of School Means	OLS Estimates Reliability †	μ_{0j} Variance (τ_{00})	r_{ij} Variance (σ^2)
Workplace Civility Climate	0.11	55.99	0.40	[54.75, 57.23]	[47.61, 64.37]	0.55	18.29	146.19
Workplace Incivility from Peer	0.04	14.57	0.14	[13.84, 15.30]	[12.34, 16.80]	0.31	1.30	28.89
Workplace Incivility from Student	0.23	19.58	0.35	[18.42, 20.74]	[11.09, 28.07]	0.74	18.76	62.62
CWB-Abuse	0.04	12.22	0.05	[11.78, 12.66]	[11.51, 12.93]	0.28	0.13	3.34
Job Satisfaction	0.09	15.26	0.10	[14.64, 15.88]	[13.19, 17.33]	0.49	1.12	11.18
Affective Commitment	0.11	40.02	0.31	[38.93, 41.11]	[33.59, 46.45]	0.54	10.75	86.71
Tenure (School)	0.11	7.48	0.21	[6.58, 8.38]	[3.09, 11.87]	0.54	5.02	39.78
Tenure (District)	0.08	12.03	0.26	[11.03, 13.03]	[7.03, 17.03]	0.46	6.52	73.12

Notes. †Overall reliability of the OLS estimates for each of the intercept (Random effect of level-1 intercept).

Table 5.Hypotheses 1 through 4

Dependent Variable	Parameters	Coefficient	SE	t-ratio	df
	Fixed Effects				
Workplace Civility Climate	Intercept (γ_{00})	55.99**	.40	139.23	206
Experienced Incivility from Peers	Intercept (γ_{00})	14.57**	.14	102.68	206
Experienced Incivility from Students/Parents	Intercept (γ_{00})	19.58**	.35	55.75	206
CWB-Abuse	Intercept (γ_{00})	12.22**	.06	248.98	206
Job Satisfaction	Intercept (γ_{00})	15.26**	.10	145.65	206
Affective Commitment	Intercept (γ_{00})	40.02**	.31	129.86	206
Tenure (School)	Intercept (γ_{00})	7.48**	.22	35.36	206
Tenure (District)	Intercept (γ_{00})	12.03**	.26	46.13	206
	(Random Effects)Variance Estimates				
Workplace Civility Climate	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	146.19**	12.09	--	206
	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	18.29**	4.28	--	206
Experienced Incivility (Peers)	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	28.89**	5.37	--	206
	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	1.30**	1.14	--	206
Experienced Incivility (Students/Parents)	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	18.76**	4.33	--	206
	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	62.62**	7.91	--	206
CWB-Abuse	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	3.34**	1.83	--	206
	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	.13**	.36	--	206
Job Satisfaction	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	11.18**	1.06	--	206
	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	1.12**	3.34	--	206
Affective Commitment	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	86.71**	9.31	--	206
	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	10.75**	3.27	--	206
Tenure (School)	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	39.78**	6.03	--	206
	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	5.02**	2.24	--	206
Tenure (District)	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	73.13**	8.55	--	206
	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	6.52**	2.55	--	206

Notes. **$p < .01$.

The range of plausible values for school means on outcome variables, given that all schools having a mean WCC score of zero can be found in Table 4. Specifically, the possible range of means for experienced incivility from peers, holding group civility climate constant, decreases [13.31, 15.83] when compared to the range for the peer incivility unconditional model [12.34, 16.80]. However, when holding civility climate at zero, the range of means for experienced incivility from students/parents decreases to [11.72, 27.44] when compared to the unconditional student incivility model [11.09, 28.07].

Dividing the difference between the variance components of the unconditional and the means-as-outcome models by the unconditional model variance component [$(u_{0j(\textit{Unconditional Model})} - u_{0j(\textit{Model 2})}) / u_{0j(\textit{Unconditional Model})}$] makes it possible to account for the change in variance accounted for by controlling for school-level workplace civility climate and unconditional model. As a result, school –level civility climate accounts for the true between-school variance in experienced incivility from peers (68%) and student/parents (14%).

Additionally, it is important to check if outcome means vary significantly when civility climate is controlled. After conducting the analyses, a significant amount of variance remained to be explained in the majority of outcome variables after controlling for school-level civility climate. However, experienced incivility from peers was the only outcome variable that can be entirely explained by school-level civility climate. Final estimation components were used to test for the variance component for the intercept to be zero χ^2 (1, N = 206) = 239.11, p = .05 for incivility from peers that can be explained after controlling for school-level civility climate (see Table 5).

Table 5. Model 2: Hypotheses 1 through 4

Dependent Variable		Coefficient	SE	t-ratio	df
	Fixed Effects				
Experienced Incivility (Peers)	Intercept (γ_{00})	14.57**	0.12	--	205
	Workplace Civility Climate (γ_{01})	-0.16**	0.02	-7.43	
Experienced Incivility (Students)	Intercept (γ_{00})	19.59**	0.33	--	205
	Workplace Civility Climate (γ_{01})	-.28**	0.06	-4.74	
Job Satisfaction	Intercept (γ_{00})	15.25**	0.08	--	205
	Workplace Civility Climate (γ_{01})	0.16**	0.01	11.04	
Affective Commitment	Intercept (γ_{00})	39.96**	0.23	--	205
	Workplace Civility Climate (γ_{01})	0.52**	0.04	12.93	
CWB-Abuse	Intercept (γ_{00})	15.89**	.06	--	205
	Workplace Civility Climate (γ_{01})	-0.07**	.01	-7.41	
	Variance Estimates	Variance Compnen	χ^2		df
Experienced Incivility (Peers)	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	.42†	239.11		205
	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	28.93†			
Experienced Incivility (Students)	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	16.08**	755.00		205
	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	62.70**			
Job Satisfaction	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	0.28**	273.45		205
	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	11.22**			
Affective Commitment	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	2.24**	262.18		205
	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	86.73**			
CWB-Abuse	Intercept Variance (τ_{00})	0.10*	250.31		205
	Level-1 Variance (σ^2)	5.57*			

Notes. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .05$. † $p = .05$.

Hypothesis 2 and 3 proposed that employees working in civility climates would report experiencing more job satisfaction and affective commitment, respectively. The equation is as follows for job satisfaction and affective commitment, $JOBSAT_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(WCCMEAN) + u_{0j} + r_{ij}$. Hypothesis 2 and 3 were fully supported as a result of the significant t-statistics between civility climate and job satisfaction (11.04) and affective commitment (12.93) (Table 5).

The coefficient for the constant is the predicted job satisfaction of teachers when all independent variables are zero, so when the school has a mean civility climate of zero, then the teachers' job satisfaction and affective commitment is predicted to be 15.25 and 40.02, respectively. Furthermore, the variance component representing variation between schools decreases by a large amount for job satisfaction (1.12 to 0.27) and affective commitment (10.75 to 2.24). Furthermore, the possible range of means for job satisfaction, holding group civility climate constant, decreased [14.22, 16.30] when compared to the range of job satisfaction school-level means in the unconditional model [13.19, 17.33]. As a result, school –level civility climate accounts for 75% of the true between-school variance in job satisfaction.

Similarly, the possible range of means for affective commitment, holding group civility climate constant, decreased [37.09, 42.95] when compared to the range of school-level means of affective commitment in the unconditional model [33.59, 46.45]. Thus, school –level civility climate accounts for 79% of the true between-school variance in affective commitment. However, a significant amount variation among school job satisfaction and affective commitment remains after controlling for civility climate as indicated by the final estimation components provide the test for the variance component

for the intercept to be zero χ^2 (1, N = 205) = 273.45, p < .01 for job satisfaction and affective commitment χ^2 (1, N = 205) = 262.18, p < .01 .

Hypothesis 4 proposed that employees working in civility climates would report engaging in less CWB-abuse behavior. The equation for CWB-abuse is as follows: $CWB\_ABUSE_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(WCCMEAN) + u_{0j} + r_{ij}$. Hypothesis 4 was fully supported as a result of the significant t-statistics between civility climate and CWB-abuse (-7.41) (Table 5). The coefficient for the constant is the predicted CWB-abuse of teachers when all independent variables are zero, so when the school has a mean civility climate of zero, then the teachers' CWB-abuse is predicted to be 15.89 (Table 5).

The possible range of means for CWB-abuse, holding group civility climate constant, decreases [11.63, 12.81] when compared to the range of CWB-abuse in the unconditional model [11.51, 12.93]. Furthermore, the variance component representing variation between schools decreases by a large amount for CWB-abuse (0.13 to 0.09), which indicated that school-level civility climate explains a large proportion of school-to-school variation in CWB-abuse (31%). Lastly, a significant amount variation among school CWB-abuse remains after controlling for civility climate as indicated by the final estimation components provide the test for the variance component for the intercept to be zero χ^2 (1, N = 206) = 261.71, p < .01 for CWB-abuse.

Lastly, it was possible to estimate the conditional intraclass correlation and measure the degree of dependence among observations in schools that are of the same mean civility climate. Specifically, the between-school variance in model two is divided by the sum of between-school variance and within-school variance in model 2 $[(\tau_{00\ (Model\ 2)}\ /(\tau_{00\ (Model\ 2)}\ + r_{ij(Model\ 2)}]$ .The conditional intraclass correlation indicated that after

removing the effect of school civility climate, the correlation among teacher-scores in the same school, which had been .04 and .23 for experienced incivility from peers and students respectively, were reduced to .01 and .20, respectively. Additionally, after removing the effect of school civility climate, the correlation among teacher-scores in the same school, which had been .09 and .11 for job satisfaction and affective commitment respectively, were reduced to .02 and .03, respectively.

The final hypothesis proposed that school-level civility climate will moderate the relationship between experienced incivility and CWB-abuse. Such that the relationship between experienced incivility and CWB-abuse will be weaker when high levels of civility climate are present. Hypothesis 5 was not supported due to the nonsignificant t-ratio statistic (see Table 6).

Table 6. Model 3 Hypothesis 5: Cross-level Interaction Dependent Variable = CWB-Abuse

Indeprendent Variable	Parameter	Coefficient	SE	t-ratio	df
	Fixed Effects				
Workplace Civility Climate * Experienced Incivility (Peers)	Workplace Civility Climate (γ_{11})	0.00	0.00	0.41	205
Workplace Civility Climate * Experienced Incivility (Students)	Workplace Civility Climate (γ_{12})	0.00	0.00	0.09	205
	Variance Estimates				
Workplace Civility Climate * Experienced Incivility (Peers)	Intercept variance (τ_{00})	12.21	0.05	--	205
	Level-1 variance (σ^2)	2.62	1.61	--	205
	Slope variance (τ_{11})	.01	.11	--	205
Workplace Civility Climate * Experienced Incivility (Peers)	Intercept variance (τ_{00})	0.17	0.41	--	205
	Level-1 variance (σ^2)	2.81	1.67	--	205
	Slope variance (τ_{11})	0.01	0.07	--	205

Ancillary Analyses

Additional analyses were conducted to address questions about civility climate and experienced incivility. Specifically, what is the average of the 207 regression equations for intercept and slope? Lastly, how much do the regression equations vary from school to school? These questions can be addressed with the following equation:

$$\textit{(EXP\_INCIVILITY)}\ Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{ij}(WCC) + r_{ij}\ \text{(level-1 equation)}$$

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{ij} = \gamma_{10} + u_{ij}$$

In this model, level-1 workplace civility climate is entered as a predictor and is group-mean centered. Group mean centering β_{oj} is school mean outcome on experienced incivility. The parameters β_{0j} and β_{ij} vary across schools in the level-2 model as a function of a grand-mean and a random error. Specifically, γ_{00} is the average school means on experienced incivility across the population of schools and γ_{10} is the average workplace civility climate-experienced incivility regression slope across schools. Additionally, u_{0j} is the unique increment to the intercept associated with school *j*, where u_{ij} is the unique increment to the slope associated with school *j*. Lastly, the level-2 model specifies no level-2 predictor and is considered unconditional.

The variance of the slope for workplace civility climate is 0.02, $p < .01$ for incivility from peers and .02, $p < .01$ for incivility from students/parents, which supports rejecting the hypothesis that there is no difference in the slopes of workplace civility climate among schools. A 95% confidence interval of [11.71, 17.49] was found for the means of incivility from peers and [10.95, 28.21] incivility from students/parents when

civility climate is zero. Furthermore, a 95% confidence interval of [-0.43, 0.13] was found for climate-incivility (peer) slope and [-0.41, 0.15] for climate-incivility (student).

Lastly, the proportion of variance explained at level 1 can be assessed by comparing the residual variance from the unconditional models (Table 4) to the residual variance of the current model. As a result, using teacher-level civility climate as a predictor of experienced incivility from peers and students/parents reduced within-school variance by 22 and 8 percent, respectively (Table 7). That is, workplace civility climate accounts for 22 and 8 percent of the teacher-level variance in experienced incivility.

Table 7. Effects of Level-1 Civility Climate-Predicting Incivility from Level-1 Civility Climate

Dependent Variable	Slope variance (u_1)	95 % CI (Mean)	95 % CI (Slope)
Experienced Incivility from Peers	.02**	[11.71, 17.49]	[-0.43, 0.13]
Experienced Incivility from Students/Parents	.02**	[11.71, 17.49]	[-0.43, 0.13]

Note. ** $p < .01$.

CHAPTER FOUR

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine how civility climate functions at the school-level to relate to employee outcomes of workplace incivility, CWB towards employees, job satisfaction and affective commitment. The results provide empirical support for workplace civility as a group-level construct. The primary study findings suggested that teachers experience less incivility, commit fewer acts of CWB-abuse, and are more satisfied and affectively committed when they perceive supervisors are engaged in practices that maintain civility.

Zohar (2000) suggested that researchers should attempt to satisfy three validation criteria to establish a group-level construct. First, teachers needed to form homogenous perceptions concerning supervisor practices related to civility climate. The obtained interrater agreement (r_{wg}) suggested that teachers shared perceptions about the civility climate of their school. Second, perceptions must vary significantly between schools. $ICC_{(2)}$ for civility climate indicated that teachers' mean ratings reliably distinguish among schools. Lastly, the variance components from the unconditional model indicated that 11 percent of the variation in civility scores is between schools. These between-group differences support the multilevel model assumption that employees' climate perceptions are influenced by idiosyncratic supervisory practices and implementation of procedures, which allow for the formation of unique group-level climates.

More importantly, employees' perception of these supervisor patterns is as important as instituted policies and procedures. Specifically, many climate measures ask employees if policies and procedures were in place regarding the specific climate.

However, the presence of policies and procedures does not mean that they are effective in establishing the specific climate, where strategic goals are met (e.g., lower incivility) (Zohar and Luria, 2005). Thus, when generating items, it is important to focus on supervisors' implementation of policies and procedures in addition to the identification of policies and procedures.

Third, civility climate scores should relate to reduction of aggressive acts, which was demonstrated by school-level civility climate's negative relationship with experienced incivility from peers and reduced participation CWB-abuse towards other teachers. These relationships demonstrate that shared perceptions of civility climate are associated with fewer reports of aggressive acts among individual teachers. Specifically, support for hypothesis 1 demonstrates that instituted supervisory patterns-of-practices, as assessed by the group, are associated with less experienced incivility by individual teachers. Using teacher-level civility climate as a predictor explained 22 and 8 percent of experienced incivility from peers and students/parents, respectively at the individual level of analysis.

Positive findings for hypotheses 2 and 3 suggest that employees feel more satisfied with their workplace and are more emotionally committed when they perceive management as being concerned about maintaining workplace civility. Furthermore, the variance component representing variation between schools decreased by a large amount for job satisfaction and affective commitment after controlling for civility climate, such that school-level civility climate explained a large proportion of the school-to-school parameter variation β_{oj} in mean job satisfaction (75%) and affective commitment (79%). Specifically, the school means of job satisfaction and affective commitment did not vary

once group civility climate was controlled. This finding suggests that school-level climate is associated with higher school-level job satisfaction and affective commitment. Furthermore, this provides evidence that school-level civility climate can have a significant effect at the individual- and school-level outcomes.

However, civility climate correlated moderately with affective commitment. This can be due to affective commitment being based on values and desires to act in ways that are consistent with organizational membership (Snape and Redman, 2003). Specifically, teachers' values with respect to working in a civil work environment can be similar to the principals of the respective school and vice versa. However, the causality of this relationship cannot be determined with this study. Specifically, teachers might find schools that meet their criteria in terms of workplace civility climate, or schools (i.e., principals) might seek to recruit teachers whose values of workplace civility climate are more aligned with the organization.

Support for hypothesis 4 demonstrated that school-level civility climate related to teachers engaging in fewer acts of CWB-abuse. This is important because hypothesis 1 addressed how school-level climate relates to one's experience of aggression. The variance component representing variation between schools decreased significantly for CWB-abuse, which indicated that school-level civility climate explained a large proportion of school-to-school variation in CWB-abuse (31%). Whereas, hypothesis 4 found that school-level perceptions of civility climate related to engaging in aggression towards coworkers, the last hypothesis of the moderating effect of school-level civility climate was not supported. This hypothesis was attempting to partially address the concept of an incivility spiral, where acts of incivility can escalate after an actor and

target exchange uncivil acts (Andersson and Pearson, 1999). There was no reduction in the slope of the relationship between experienced civility and CWB-abuse as civility climate increased. This could be due to several reasons.

First, a means-as-outcomes model revealed that after controlling for workplace civility climate, a significant variation in school-means of CWB-abuse remained to be explained by other factors. This indicates that workplace civility climate does not account for a significant amount of the variance in why some schools have higher reports of CWB-abuse than others. This could be due to civility climate not being primarily aimed at addressing CWB towards organizational members, which are intentional acts that harm an individual or organization, but do not require intent to harm (Spector and Fox, 2005).

For example, a teacher (actor) could intentionally take a longer break than was required and cause another teacher (target) who was watching the class to have a shorter planning period. However, the aim was not to cause harm to the target or organization, because the actor was caught up in a conversation with a principal. Therefore, all incivility can be classified as CWBs, but not all CWBs can be classified as incivility. Workplace civility climate might not account for as much variance in why CWB-abuse occurs as other interpersonal and environmental variables such as personality to experience negative emotions and organizational constraints (e.g., frustration, organizational constraints, supervisory abuse, etc.) that account for more variance than experienced incivility.

Second, while experienced incivility is positively correlated with CWB-abuse, employees can commit acts of CWB-abuse for other reasons (e.g., procedural injustice) aside from experienced incivility. Workplace incivility occurs frequently and is

ambiguous as to the intent to harm, whereas CWBs towards coworkers are intentional acts that harm organizational members. Although the act might be intentional, the intent to harm is not required for it to be labeled as CWB. For example, a teacher might start an argument with a coworker out of frustration with a difficult student.

Limitations

Despite the contributions from this study, it is important to note several limitations. First, all participants were teachers and limits the generalizability of the study's findings. The structure of a grade school work environment is unique in that teachers interact more with customers (i.e., students) than with peers. The lack of interaction among teachers could naturally suppress the effects of civility climate. The supervisors would be less visible to employees due to location of direct reports. The typical response to this limitation would be to test the measure in different industries (e.g., service). However, it might be more important to examine how employee interaction and density affect civility climate and incivility. This would be equivalent to controlling for hazard level in safety climate studies (Zohar, 2000).

Another limitation involves the measurement of civility climate as a group-level construct. The school-level civility climate variable was calculated with a school's mean score on civility climate, which was dependent on individual teacher responses. Number of participants per school could have been affected by online administration, teachers' fear of losing anonymity, and workplace events (e.g., testing). This study was administered entirely online which could have influenced teachers to delay participation due to time flexibility. A paper-pencil survey could be distributed at the end of faculty meetings. That would allow for brief presentation and questions.

Additionally, the school district specified an ongoing issue that many employees feel that the district can identify employees because they hold unique positions. Lastly, various testing was being conducting at all grade-levels and this was an issue raised by several principals. Despite these limitations, the number of teacher responses per school did not correlate significantly with the primary study variables once grade-level post (e.g., elementary) was controlled.

The agreement indices used to justify aggregating the data suggested moderate agreement among teachers in schools. However, there are several potential reasons why agreement was not stronger. Climate strength is the degree to which employees share similar perceptions within a unit (Chan, 1998; Luria, 2008). A strong climate is indicated by high agreement in the perceptions of employees, whereas a weak climate is typically indicated by low agreement among employees (Payne, 1990; Rousseau, 1988; Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subirats, 2002).

First, the low intensity aspect of incivility and limited organizational focus can contribute to civility climate functioning as a weak situation, whereby supervisors might have little to no knowledge of policies related to mistreatment, but still rely on informal rules of conduct to maintain a civil climate (Anderson & Pearson, 1999). As a result, the strength of agreement could be due to inconsistent management structure. Specifically, assistant principals might be inconsistent in enforcing policies and procedures in the absence of the principal. For example, a principal could consistently delegate all decision making responsibilities to assistant principals. Or inconsistently delegate responsibilities to assistant principals, which would introduce more variance into supervisory practices than the former.

As a result, different management levels (e.g., principals and assistant principals) can be unaligned with respect to establishing and supporting policies, procedures and practices regarding uncivil workplace behavior. It is probable that lower ranking supervisors (i.e., assistant principals) of the organization would have a similar pattern in implementing the policies, procedures, and practices because the message from principals is inconsistent. Thus, the degree of agreement at higher levels of analysis could affect the variability of perceptions at lower levels of analysis.

Second, the quality of relationships between teachers and administration (i.e., principals and assistant principals) should be investigated because these interactions can apply between supervisors and direct reports. Kozlowski and Doherty (1989) showed that the quality of leader–member relationships contributed to shaping climate perceptions. Such that higher-quality relationships between supervisor and direct report related to higher levels of consensus on multiple climate dimensions.

Lastly, it is possible that teachers primarily interact with their peers between instruction and at faculty meetings. This lack of interaction among peers might hinder strong group-level perceptions from forming among coworkers (Gonzalez-Roma, Peiro, and Tordera, 2002). For example, Gonzalez-Roma, Ramos, Peiro, Rodriquez, and Munoz (1994) found that social interaction, defined as the frequency collaborative caseloads, among units related to high levels of climate strength.

Future Research and Conclusions

Workplace safety lacks clear and consistent construct definitions on the predictor and criterion sides (Clarke & Robertson, 2005). Safety researchers need to expand the safety domain to include safety from psychological danger, such as verbal aggression in

the work environment. Safety climate has been a key construct in the control and prevention of accidents. Recently, safety climate has been adapted to address the prevention of violence, and now workplace civility climate focuses on perceptions regarding supervisory monitoring and prevention of the lowest form of aggression, i.e., incivility.

Safety and aggression researchers must examine the relative contribution of each climate construct in predicting safety outcomes (i.e., tangible events such as accidents, injuries, reports of violence or harassment). This can be done by examining the set of climates as a configuration, which would produce more meaningful results than independent evaluations of climate (Schulte et al., 2009). This is important because examining the effects of different climate dimensions is done in an additive fashion. However, climates might interact and enforce each other such that the organizational climate (i.e., all dimensions of climate) is more effective as a whole than the sum of its parts.

Thus, one might find that high civility and violence climate relate to fewer instances of experienced incivility or aggression from customers, than when they are examined independently. Additionally, this construct should be studied longitudinally in order to understand the causal process between civility climate and incivility. That is, does civility climate predict experienced incivility or does experienced incivility affect climate. Furthermore, it will be possible to examine how individual and organizational variables affect school-level civility climate and vice versa.

Future research should attempt to replicate this study's findings with samples from multiple industries. This will make it possible to identify the degree to which

civility climate is present in different workplace settings. Climate constructs are typically bounded to industries that provide a context for the dimension in focus (i.e., safety, service, violence, and innovation). Civility climate might be a robust climate construct due to the ubiquity of incivility and verbally aggressive behavior. However, this characteristic stresses the importance of expanding the content of the civility climate scale. A potential solution is to conduct qualitative studies that ask supervisors about how they approach rudeness and uncivil behavior through common aspects of an organization (e.g., performance reviews, hiring, daily operations, and nonwork activities (lunches, parties, etc.).

In conclusion, this study integrates safety, aggression and climate research domains. It also provided further evidence that aggregated teacher perceptions of how management uses policies, procedures, and practices to maintain a civil workplace relate to lower levels of aggression and higher levels of employee job satisfaction and commitment. The participation from a majority of schools in this study provided enough power to measure civility climate at the group level and further expands our understanding of how the environment influences the occurrence of mistreatment among employees.

CHAPTER FIVE

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Workplace Civility Climate

Verbal abuse among employees in the workplace can be described as DISRESPECTFUL, RUDE, and IMPOLITE behavior. Incivility does not include sexual harassment in its definition. Using the following scale please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

1 = Disagree completely
2 = Disagree moderately
3 = Disagree slightly
4 = Agree slightly
5 = Agree moderately
6 = Agree completely

My direct supervisor…

1.Periodically provides suggestions on how to improve the quality of interpersonal relationships among coworkers.
2.Generally discusses the extent to which employees are getting along during my performance reviews or evaluations.
3.Ignores rude or discourteous behavior among employees as long as work gets done. (r)
4.Insists that employees show respect during all non-face-to-face communications (e.g., e-mail and phone) with coworkers or parents.
5.Maintains a respectful work environment among employees during periods of stressful work events (e.g., testing).
6.Participates in the spreading of nasty or hurtful gossip among employees. (r)

Appendix A: Workplace Civility Climate (Continued)

Verbal abuse among employees in the workplace can be described as DISRESPECTFUL, RUDE, and IMPOLITE behavior. Incivility does not include sexual harassment in its definition. Using the following scale please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

1 = Disagree completely
2 = Disagree moderately
3 = Disagree slightly
4 = Agree slightly
5 = Agree moderately
6 = Agree completely

My direct supervisor…

7.Supports or encourages the creation of employee social events (e.g., potluck, year-end celebrations, etc.).

8.Informs employees on where to find information on mistreatment policies or reminds employees to review policies.

9.Allows rude or discourteous behavior to occur among employees in his/her presence. (r)

10.Has a low tolerance for disrespectful behavior among employees.

11.Periodically inquires about the extent to which employees are getting along with each other.

12.Is completely unaware of ongoing disputes or arguments among employees. (r)

13.Does not get both sides of the story when addressing conflicts or minor disputes among coworkers

Appendix B: Experienced Workplace Incivility

In the past 30 WORKDAYS...How often have COWORKERS performed the following behaviors?

1 = Never	4 = Once or twice a week
2 = Once or twice	5 = Once a day
3 = Once or twice a month	6 = Several times a day

1.Put you down or was condescending to you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2.Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3.Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4.Would not talk to you, even when it involved work related issues.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5.Rolled eyes or sucked their teeth in reference to your comments or actions.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6.Treated you in a rude and/or disrespectful manner.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.Was excessively slow in returning your phone messages, memos, or e-mails without good reason for the delay.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8.Used profane language or cursed in front of you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9.Told you offensive or inappropriate jokes.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10.Yelled or raised his/her voice at you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11.Gossiped about you or talked about you behind your back.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12.Put you down or was condescending to you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13.Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix B: Experienced Workplace Incivility (Continued)

In the past 30 WORKDAYS...How often have PARENTS or STUDENTS performed the following behaviors?

1 = Never	4 = Once or twice a week
2 = Once or twice	5 = Once a day
3 = Once or twice a month	6 = Several times a day

1.Put you down or was condescending to you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2.Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3.Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4.Would not talk to you, even when it involved academic related issues.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5.Rolled eyes or sucked their teeth in reference to your comments or actions.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6.Treated you in a rude and/or disrespectful manner.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.Was excessively slow in returning your phone messages, memos, or e-mails without good reason for the delay.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8.Used profane language or cursed in front of you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9.Told you offensive or inappropriate jokes.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10.Yelled or raised his/her voice at you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11.Gossiped about you or talked about you behind your back to another student, parent, or teacher.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12.Put you down or was condescending to you.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13.Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix C: Counterproductive Work Behavior

How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?	Never	Once or Twice	Once or Twice per month	Once or twice per week
1.Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.Been nasty or rude to a parent or student.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.Left work earlier than you were allowed to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.Insulted someone about their job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.Started an argument with someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.Made an obscene gesture (e.g., the finger) to someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.Said something obscene to someone at work to make them feel bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.Did something to make someone at work look bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.Insulted or made fun of someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D: Organizational Affective Commitment Scale

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Moderately Disagree
3 = Slightly Disagree
4 = Uncertain
5 = Slightly Agree
6 = Moderately Agree
7 = Strongly Agree

1.I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with my current organization

2.I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own

3. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (r)

4. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to my organization (r)

5. My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me

6. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization

Appendix E: Job Satisfaction

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

1 = Disagree Very Much
2 = Disagree Moderately
3 = Slightly Disagree
4 = Agree Slightly
5 = Agree Moderately
6 = Agree Very Much

1.____ In general, I don't like my job. (r)

2.____ In general, I like working here.

3.____ All in all, I am satisfied with my job.

Appendix F: Letter to Principals & Forwarded to Employees

Survey on Workplace Attitudes

Hello Ms. XXXX:

My name is Raymond Ottinot and out of respect for you and your staff, I would like your permission to survey employees at your school with an online survey. As part of my doctoral dissertation, I am investigating how the workplace environment and opinions of all faculty and staff interact to affect their well-being. This online survey is voluntary and independent of you (i.e., principal) and the county.

What's in it for you and your staff?

- The school system will be more informed of employee attitudes and opinions on aspects of the workplace.

General Information

- All employees working in support, instructional, and administrative positions at your school can take this survey.
- Individual responses will be aggregated for analysis (this maintains anonymity).
- Individual school level results will not be made available to the county.

Action needed…if you choose to participate

-At your discretion please forward this email or links to faculty and staff of your school.

Survey Links

- Instructional & Support Staff (10 minutes) https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/wellbeing302
- Administration - Principals & Assistant Principals (5 minutes): https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/wellbeing3021

I appreciate your time and consideration in this matter, thank you for all that you do.

Best,

Raymond C. Ottinot