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Workplace Incivility, Emotional Intelligence, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Organisational Commitment in South African Employees

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A research report submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts by Research Report in the field of Psychology in the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg on 28 April 2021.

Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work, I have not submitted it for the degree of Master of Art at any other university.



Hayley Y. Dady

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Abstract

Many studies have investigated the effects of workplace incivility as a form of job stress and have established that workplace incivility has multiple negative impacts upon an employee's well-being. within the context of this research, workplace incivility was investigated in relation to its effects on counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Building upon Lazarus and folkman's transactional model of stress and coping, this research endeavour also aimed to examine the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationships between workplace incivility and counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Participants were able to access and complete six surveys online, namely, a self-developed demographic survey, Cortina's Workplace Incivility Scale, Spector's 10-Item Short Version of the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist, Spector's 10-Item Short Version of the Organisational Citizenship Behavior Checklist (OCB-C), Meyer and Allen's Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT). This resulted in a sample of 150 employees from various industries within the South African context.

Results of this research endeavour indicated that workplace incivility was significantly correlated with counterproductive workplace behaviour as well as the moderator variable, emotional intelligence. Simple regression analyses revealed that workplace incivility resulted in increased counterproductive workplace behaviour but not organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. However, it is noteworthy that workplace incivility did show correlations to the sub-factors of affective and continuance organisational commitment. These findings were, in part, supported by previous literature and empirical studies. While emotional intelligence was found to have a positive effect on all of the outcome variables

mentioned above, it did not have a moderating effect on the relationships between workplace incivility and the outcome variables. Secondary analysis of demographical variables indicated that experiences of workplace incivility varied depending on an individual's age.

Additionally, limitations of this research, recommendations for future research on this topic and practical recommendations were discussed.

Keywords: Workplace Incivility, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour, Organisational Commitment, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Coping, Stress.

Research Rationale

Research has indicated that workplace incivility has serious consequences for individual and organisational outcomes (Estes & Wang, 2008; Lee & Allen, 2002; Porath & Pearson, 2013; Schilpzand, De Pater, & Erez, 2016). While some research has been carried out internationally on these variables, to the researcher's knowledge, limited research has examined these variables in the south african context. The present study will advance previous research by exploring the relationship between workplace incivility and emotional intelligence in relation to counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment. This research will investigate whether emotional intelligence can serve to alter the adverse influence of workplace incivility on counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment.

The importance of this research is particularly relevant for both individuals and organisations in that it could create awareness of the implications posed by experiencing workplace incivility. This is particularly pertinent when considering the negative consequences of workplace incivility on increasing counterproductive workplace behaviour and diminishing organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment, not only for individual employees within an organisation but also for the larger organisation as a whole (Lim, 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2013).

Therefore, it is necessary to have a better understanding of workplace incivility, beyond its antecedents and consequences (Reio & Ghosh, 2009; Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, & Schad, 2016), to focus on the means of mitigating the adverse impact of these incidents. This is essential to better manage and understand the likely outcomes of such behaviours. Further, individuals and organisations will benefit from understanding if and how emotional intelligence is an effective resource enabling individuals to cope more constructively when

confronted by such interactions, and also how to, in theory and practice, build and promote those resources in employees within an organisation. Whilst both internal as well as external resources are likely to impact upon how an individual copes with workplace incivility, this study, given its stipulated scope, will focus on the internal resource of emotional intelligence as a coping mechanism in relation to the stressor of workplace incivility and the outcomes of counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour as well as organisational commitment.

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List of Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CLT	Central Limit Theorem
CMV	Common Method Variance
CWB	Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour
CWB-C-10	Counterproductive Work Behaviour-Checklist
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EI-PE	Emotional Intelligence Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions)
EI-SA	Emotional Intelligence Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness)
EI-M	Emotional Intelligence Factor 3 (Motivation)
EI-R	Emotional Intelligence Factor 4 (Resilience)
FFM	Five-Factor Model
HR	Human Resources
HREC	Human Research Ethics Committee
ICM	Interpersonal Circumplex Model
ICASA	Independent Communications Authority of South Africa
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
K	Kurtosis
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MAP	Velicer's Minimum Average Partial
MMR	Moderated Multiple Regression
OC	Organisational Commitment
OC-A	Organisational Commitment – Affective
OC-C	Organisational Commitment – Continuation

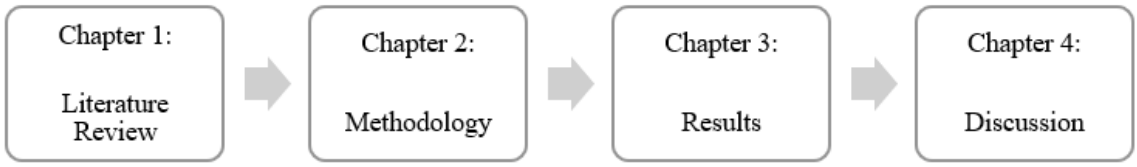
OC-N	Organisational Commitment – Normative
OCQ	Organisational Commitment Questionnaire
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behavioural
OCBI	OCB directed towards the individual
OCBO	OCB directed towards the organisation
OCB-C-10	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Checklist
SK	Skewness
SSEIT	Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test
TCM	Three-Component Model
WIS	Workplace Incivility scale

Chapter Layout

Figure 1 provides an outline for this research paper.

Figure 1

Chapter Layout



Chapter 1

This chapter will provide an overview of the key definitions and theories relating to workplace incivility, counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment as well as emotional intelligence. The relationship between workplace incivility and the variables listed above are also explored through the examination of theories and previous research findings.

Chapter 2

This chapter will provide an outline and overview of the methodology employed in this research study. The research aims, questions and hypotheses are formulated. After this step, the research design is delineated, concentrating on research paradigms, sampling techniques including a description of sample demographics, instruments utilised and data analysis techniques. Additionally, the procedure and ethical considerations related to this research endeavour are described.

Chapter 3

In this chapter, the focus will be to present the results obtained from the research surveys that were utilised. By relating to the hypotheses formulated in chapter 2, descriptive and inferential statistics will be presented.

Chapter 4

To conclude with the research, the results given in chapter 3 are interpreted. This includes presented arguments as to why the research endeavours results were obtained, again relating to the theories and previous research outlined in chapter 1. Finally, the limitations of the research are explored as well as providing recommendations for future research.

Chapter 1: literature review: theoretical and conceptual background

Introduction

The following chapter introduces a discussion of the literature as well as the previous studies conducted on the variables pertaining to the present research endeavour. The discussion is arranged in the subsequent manner so as to provide a theoretical departure point for this research. Firstly, a broad understanding of workplace incivility, including the antecedents and consequences thereof, is presented. This is followed by a discussion centred around the transactional model of stress and coping as a lens for understanding the outcome variables, which include organisational commitment behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive workplace behaviour, and how these variables relate to workplace incivility. The chapter will conclude by unpacking the concept of emotional intelligence and how this construct can be positioned as a coping mechanism to moderate the negative consequences of workplace incivility.

Over the past two decades, research in workplace incivility has continued to grow as a key area of interest by management scholars largely due to its ethical as well as practical implications for organisations (Mackey, Bishoff, & Daniels, 2019). Workplace incivility is widely experienced by employees, and in monetary terms costs organisations approximately $14,000 per employee per annum. This is predominantly as a result of work interruptions in addition to other means of physical or psychological disruption (Porath & Pearson, 2013).

Research has indicated that workplace incivility has serious consequences in relation to individual and organisational outcomes (Estes & Wang, 2008; Lee & Allen, 2002; Porath & Pearson, 2013; Schilpzand et al., 2016). While some research has been carried out internationally on these variables, to the researcher’s knowledge, limited research has examined these variables within the south african context. The present study will advance previous research by also exploring the relationship of workplace incivility, emotional intelligence, counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour

and organisational commitment. This research will further investigate whether emotional intelligence can serve to moderate the adverse influence of workplace incivility on counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment.

The importance of this research is particularly relevant for both individuals and organisations in that it could create awareness of the implications posed by experiencing workplace incivility. This is especially the case when considering the negative consequences of workplace incivility with regards to increasing counterproductive workplace behaviour and diminishing organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment for both individual employees as well as the larger organisation (Lim, 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2013).

Workplace Incivility is defined as "low-intensity deviant workplace behaviour with an ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviours are regarded as characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457). Studies of workplace incivility have tended to differ greatly in terms of their focus, reinforcing the inherent complexity of this topic. Workplace incivility can differ depending on the source of the behaviour (peer, co-worker, customer or manager) and also in regard to the type of incivility. Workplace incivility falls into three broad bands according to a meta-analysis conducted by Schilpzand et al. (2016), namely, experienced, witnessed and instigated.

When evaluating research focused on experienced Workplace Incivility, this research tends to focus primarily upon the behaviours, feelings and thoughts of individuals who are the targets of Workplace Incivility. Witnessed Workplace Incivility focuses on the behaviours, feelings and thoughts of individuals for those who are bystanders or onlookers but are not directly involved in this interaction. Instigated Workplace Incivility involves research focused on both the antecedents as well as outcomes for those who initiate these types of behaviours

against those they come into contact with within the working environment (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

Understandably, most of the current body of research focuses on experienced incivility within the workplace, and particularly the outcomes of such experiences. Within this focal point, it is valuable to look at both the antecedents as well as consequences of experienced Workplace Incivility.

Antecedents of Workplace Incivility

When unpacking the concept of workplace incivility, it is necessary to have an understanding of the antecedents of this pattern of behaviour within an individual, group or organisation. For the purposes of this discussion, the focal point will be around experienced rather than witnessed or instigated workplace incivility. The antecedents of experienced workplace incivility can include behavioural, contextual and dispositional factors that are likely to aid in predicting uncivil workplace conduct (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Behavioural antecedents of workplace incivility, such as an individual having a high dominating or alternatively low integration conflict management style, has been found to significantly predict both instigator as well as targeted individual incivility in comparison to other conflict management styles (Trudel & Reio, 2011). Other variables found to associate with experienced workplace incivility were the targeted individual's interpersonal and organisational counterproductive behaviour. These behaviours in targeted individuals were found to vary from cursing or making derogatory comments about a colleague to taking items of property that they were not allowed to (Meier & Spector, 2013).

In terms of contextual or situational variables concerning workplace incivility, the body of research is still quite limited (Schilpzand et al., 2016) and as such there are likely

unexplored factors that could shed more light on the contextual antecedents of workplace incivility. However, what has been established is that experiencing less stress within one's role and higher workgroup expectations or norms of civility have been shown to reduce the occurrence of various forms of uncivil workplace conduct, including workplace incivility (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012; Walsh et al., 2012). There is also evidence to suggest that team-based interventions are effective at reducing supervisor enacted workplace incivility but not peer-related workplace incivility within the work context (Leiter, Spence Laschinger, Day, & Gilin-Oore, 2011; Spence Laschinger, Leiter, Day, Gilin-Oore, & Mackinnon, 2012).

Finally, it has also been shown that dispositional variables can be attributed to experienced workplace incivility. Here, studies have shown that individuals from racial minorities (Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013), those of a younger age (Lim & Lee, 2011), and in particular individuals from generation X (born 1965 to 1980) versus the baby-boomer generation before them (born 1946 to 1964) (Leiter, Price, & Spence Laschinger, 2010) are more likely to experience workplace incivility. In terms of gender differences, there appears to be a slight disparity within the current body of research with Lim and Lee's (2011) study, reporting that men experience more frequent workplace incivility as compared to their female counterparts, whilst Cortina (2001) indicated that woman report a greater number of uncivil interactions with male colleagues.

Although some of the findings are equivocal, within this backdrop, it is valuable to note that certain behavioural, contextual, and dispositional factors predispose individuals to be more likely to experience workplace incivility.

Consequences of Workplace Incivility

Research has indicated that workplace incivility has serious consequences for individual and organisational outcomes (Estes & Wang, 2008; Lee & Allen, 2002; Porath & Pearson,

2013; Schilpzand et al., 2016). The importance of this research cannot be downplayed, particularly when considering the negative consequences of experienced workplace incivility on increasing counterproductive workplace behaviour and diminishing organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment, not only for individual employees within an organisation but also larger groups and the organisation as a whole (Lim, 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2013).

From an individual perspective, targets of workplace incivility assess and recognise uncivil actions as unfair. This results in both cognitive as well as affective impairments which are not limited to immediately after the event but can also have a enduring impact upon the individual (Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000). From a psychological perspective, it has been shown that repeated exposure to workplace incivility can result in generalised psychological distress such as anxiety and depression (Cortina, 2001). Another study by Yamada (2000) noted similar consequences and additionally sleep disturbances, mood swings, feelings of shame, guilt and embarrassment, low self-esteem, and increased stress. Pearson et al. (2000) further noted that individuals lost productivity time at work after experiencing instances of workplace incivility by worrying about the incident after the fact in addition to worrying about future contact with the instigator of these uncivil actions. This also extended to lost productivity in an attempt to avoid the instigators of workplace incivility.

At an organisational level, workplace incivility poses similar consequences to sexual harassment when looking at the loss of target time, productivity, and increased turnover (Lim & Cortina, 2008). However, in contrast to sexual harassment, workplace incivility, as well as the repercussions thereof, often goes unreported within organisations, partially because workplace incivility is more challenging to detect and effectively curtail than sexual harassment. What is clear is that workplace incivility is also pervasive and detrimental to the overall health and success of the organisation. This goes as far as to be destructive to

organisational interactions, damaging to the organisation's reputation (both internally and externally to the organisation) as well as creating ripples of consequences that tend to impact customer satisfaction and the bottom line of the organisation (Pearson & Porath, 2005).

Whilst people are typically concerned with the impact of workplace incivility upon the individuals directly involved in that interaction, although this is beyond the scope of this study, one cannot ignore the outcomes for witnesses. Figure 2 below illustrates that merely witnessing acts of workplace incivility can lead to dysfunctional ideation, reduced creativity and reduced citizenship behaviour within the workplace as well as decreased task performance and increased workplace withdrawal. This is further compounded by reportedly lower health satisfaction, being more likely to experience negative affects and emotional exhaustion (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Further to this point, empirical papers published regarding witness perceptions of workplace incivility tend to report that women find these incidents to be more inappropriate and emotionally upsetting than their male counterparts (Montgomery, Kane, & Vance, 2004).

Beyond looking at experienced and witnessed workplace incivility, it is also important to consider instigator incivility, and its antecedents. While research on instigated workplace incivility has predominantly focused on the targets' attitudes, characteristics, perceptions and situational variables as the antecedents for these uncivil actions (Schilpzand et al., 2016), research has shown that lower levels of job satisfaction and perceived injustice correlated strongly with instigated workplace incivility (Blau & Andersson, 2005). Blau (2007) also observed that when employees felt that there had been a contractual breach in terms of the trust or good faith by an employer, illegitimacy in decisions made by management and perceptions of distributive and procedural unfairness that this tended to correlate with increased instigated uncivil conduct. This research further showed that individuals who instigated uncivil behaviour reported higher levels of depression and work strain, showing

that workplace incivility has negative consequences for perpetrators, victims and witnesses alike.

Figure 2

Outcomes of Witnessed Incivility (Sourced from Schilpzand et al., 2016)

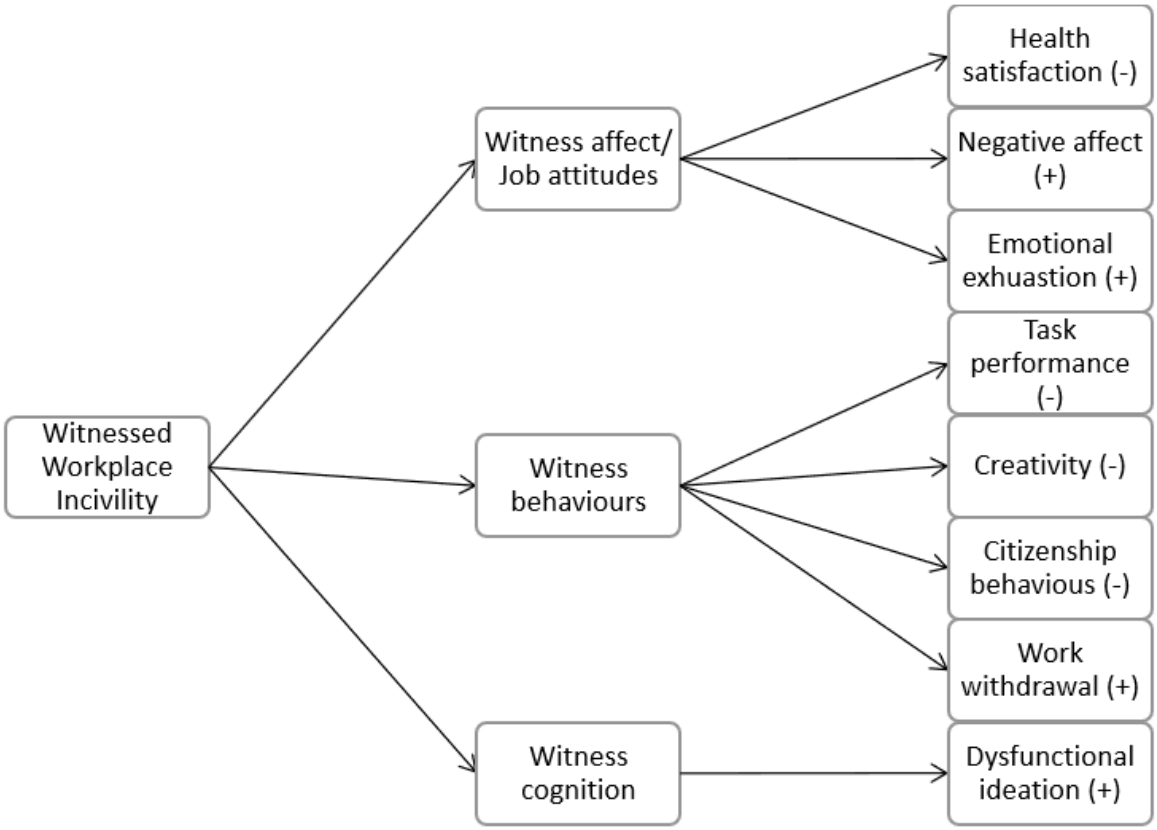
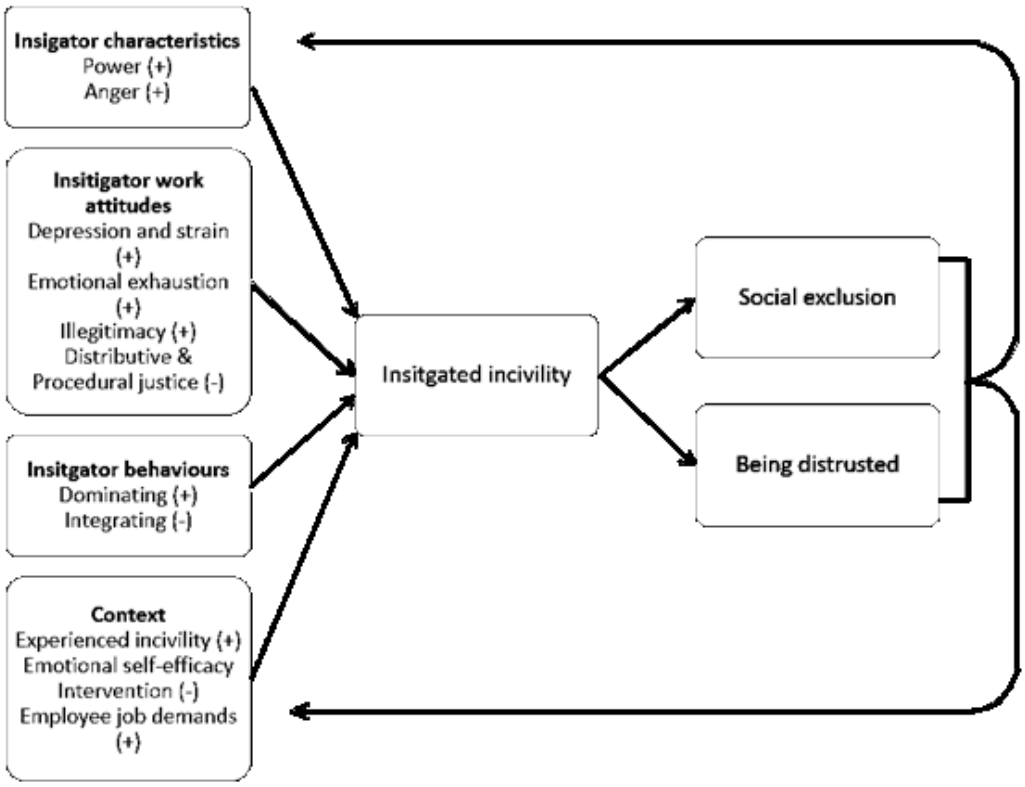


Figure 3 below draws together antecedents and outcomes and depicts how experiencing workplace incivility can contribute to an individual being more likely to instigate uncivil acts against another individual in the workplace. This can further exacerbate this undesirable behaviour. In such a manner, this behaviour can become a vicious cycle or downward spiral of escalating workplace incivility within the organisation.

Figure 3

Antecedents to and Outcomes of Instigated Incivility (Adapted from Schilpzand et al., 2016)



This research postulates that a better understanding of workplace incivility, beyond its antecedents and consequences (reio & ghosh, 2009; torkelson et al., 2016) to focus on means of mitigating the adverse impact of these incidents, is therefore necessary to better manage and understand the likely outcomes of such behaviours. Subsequently, individuals and organisations will benefit from understanding whether or not, and how emotional intelligence is an effective resource enabling individuals to cope more constructively when confronted by such interactions, and also how to, in theory, build and promote those resources in employees within an organisation. Whilst both internal as well as external resources are likely to impact upon how an individual copes with workplace incivility, this study, given its stipulated scope, will focus on the internal resource of emotional intelligence as a coping mechanism in

relation to the stressors of counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour as well as organisational commitment.

The intention of this research is to discuss and examine the literature pertaining to workplace incivility contextualised within south african organisations as well as the effect on various outcome variables. This includes the potential impact of workplace incivility upon organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive workplace behaviour. Moreover, the discussion will focus on the role of emotional intelligence as a possible moderator between these relationships.

Background to Workplace Incivility

Miner et al. (2017) acknowledge that the seminal article on workplace incivility, which has given rise to the subsequent two decades of research that have been dedicated to this area of inquiry, focusing on rude and discourteous behaviour in the workplace, was written by Andersson and Pearson in 1999, in their paper titled “Tit for tat? The spiralling effect of incivility in the workplace”. This article has proved to be a primary theoretical foundation, setting a lens for viewing workplace incivility from a social interactionist perspective (Schilpzand et al., 2016). However, Schilpzand et al. (2016) note the lack of a theoretical model underpinning research on the interconnectedness of antecedents and consequences of various types of workplace incivility, namely, experienced, instigated and witnessed.

Within this body of research, workplace incivility is shown to be a versatile construct that can be incorporated into various theories and models. For instance, Porath and Pearson’s (2012) article on appraisal theory and the emotional and behavioural responses to workplace incivility, the cognitive–motivational–relational theory (Bunk & Magley, 2013), the model of aggression by Dollard-Miller (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012), the group identity lens model (Kern & Grandey, 2009), power theories (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004) and the social

exchange theory (Scott, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013). However, the focus of research to date has focused on instigator and target characteristics accompanying workplace incivility, and consequences on the individual as well as the organisation as a result of uncivil treatment. Furthermore, a focus on moderators that influence the experiences of workplace incivility has been a focus of this research (Schilpzand et al., 2016). In addition, there is research that has focused on organisation intervention strategies to try prevent occurrences of workplace incivility (Osatuke et al., 2009).

In terms of the theory surrounding the construct of workplace incivility, there are few core characteristics that tend to be central in this pattern of behaviours. Firstly, incivility is purported to be ambiguous in terms of its intention to cause harm, meaning that for those involved in these uncivil interactions it is potentially unclear if the behaviours was deliberate or not. This is a primary differentiator between workplace incivility and other forms of workplace mistreatment, such as workplace bullying or sexual harassment, wherein the behaviours are clearly deliberate. Secondly, workplace incivility is conceived as being dysfunctional and causing some form of harm or distress to the recipient. Thirdly, this pattern of behaviour is determined to be deviant in the sense that it breaches social norms concerning expectations pertaining to respect and demonstrating courtesy towards others in the workplace. Andersson and Pearson (1999) acknowledged that whilst norms for respectful behaviour may vary between different organisations, there will typically be an overarching expectation of encouraging cooperation between colleagues. Fourthly, as phrased by Andersson and Pearson (1999, p. 468), workplace incivility is “tit-for-tat” in that when a person engages in this behaviour, the recipient of these actions is likely to reciprocate further uncivil behaviour which serves to perpetuate this cycle of events.

This final point is considered pivotal in explaining how seemingly insignificant acts of incivility can, at times, escalate to the level of workplace violence when not successfully

curtailed (Miner et al., 2017). For example, repeated instances of workplace incivility, such as demeaning comments, can eventually result in a more serious form of retaliation or aggression.

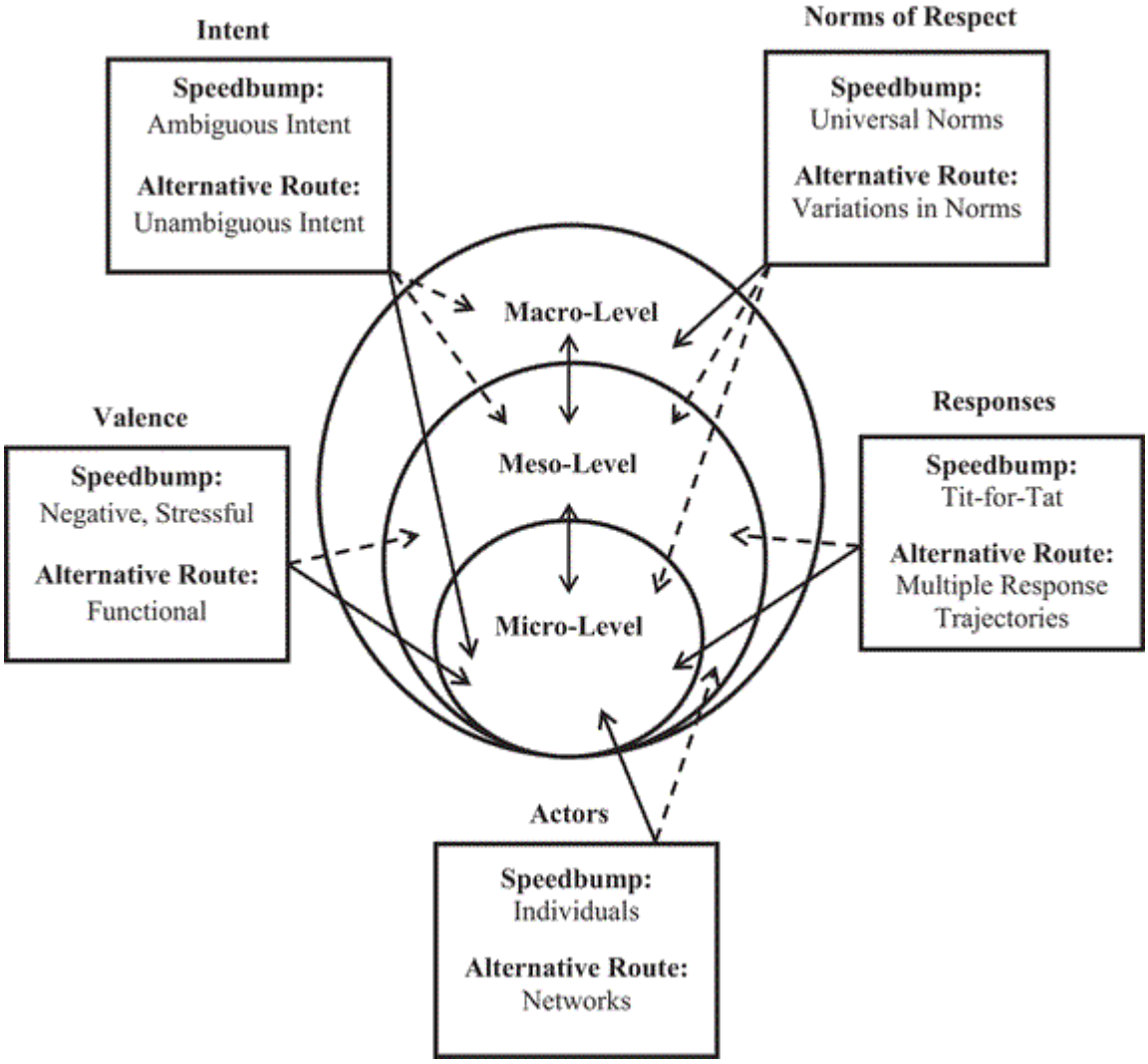
Some critics of Andersson and Pearson (1999) posit alternatives to these assumptions above, leaning towards a nuanced version of workplace incivility which challenges these core assumptions. Miner et al. (2017, p. 2) suggest that in some instance's workplace incivility has a "clear intention to cause harm, be functional, be norm-abiding, show various response trajectories, and be a network phenomenon". Within this approach, they challenge the conception that workplace incivility predominantly happens at a micro-level or individual level, indicating that ecological theories also give credence to focusing on social and environmental contexts. A further explanation of this critique will follow below.

Critique of Andersson and Pearson's (1999) 'tit-for-tat' Model

As mentioned above, some critics of Andersson and Pearson (1999) posit alternatives to the inherent assumptions that were proposed pertaining to workplace incivility. This has led Miner et al. (2017) to challenge the conception that workplace incivility predominantly happens at a micro-level or individual level, proposing that ecological theories could provide merit to focusing on social and environmental contexts in this regard. Figure 4 below illustrates how assumptions pertaining to workplace incivility can be reconceptualised to focus on social and environmental contexts as well.

Figure 4

Workplace Incivility as an Organisational System (Sourced from Miner et al., 2017)



The first assumption that is challenged is the notion that workplace incivility is ambiguous in its intention to cause harm to the target. Thus, asserting that uncivil behaviour will be subtle in nature and that it may be difficult for targeted individuals as well as witnesses to determine whether the incivility is intentional or could be credited to some further factors, such as, instigator oversight, personality or stress. This has served as a core distinction between other forms of workplace mistreatment which are intentional in nature, such as bullying, harassment or violence. However, Miner et al. (2017) argue that defining

acts of workplace incivility as being low in intensity and ambiguous in terms of their intent to harm someone else without explicitly assessing this connection is slowing workplace incivility research. This is predominately because it blends discrete elements of interpersonal behaviour, which could lead to an inaccurate understanding of workplace incivility. Hershcovis (2011) agreed with this sentiment, indicating that it is necessary to examine the intensity and intent of these uncivil actions in order to fully understand workplace mistreatment.

The second assumption that was problematic for Miner et al. (2017) was the belief that workplace incivility must be dysfunctional. Whilst there is evidence documenting a wide array of negative consequences accompanying workplace incivility in empirical research, taking this view inherently leads researchers to overlook alternative outcomes and, as such, limits a full understanding of workplace incivility. There could be situations in which workplace incivility might be conceived as appropriate or functional, and that these evaluations are likely to depend on organisational as well as occupational norms regarding respectful behaviour. An example of this could be a construction employee harshly reprimanding a peer for not wearing appropriate safety equipment, which could serve to communicate and emphasise critical organisational and/or occupational values pertaining to safety directly to their peer, and indirectly to others.

The third assumption that is challenged, is the belief that there will be universal norms for civil workplace conduct and respect in organisations that are likely founded on societal standards relating to civil behaviour. In this way, organisational as well as cultural/contextual differences within an organisation may be overlooked when defining the sorts of behaviours which would characterise workplace incivility (Miner et al., 2017).

The fourth assumption that Miner et al. (2017) found problematic was the focus on workplace incivility being 'tit-for-tat', with Andersson and Pearson (1999) postulating that workplace incivility can spiral or worsen into more extreme forms of aggression. This proposes an interactionist perspective of workplace incivility. However, Miner et al. (2017) challenge that workplace incivility will not always unfold in this manner, with Taylor, Bedeian, and Kluemper (2012) suggesting that this interaction may be less orderly, with more complex incivility patterns emerging. As part of this critique, Miner et al. (2017) argue that retaliation to workplace incivility may be asymmetrical, meaning that some individuals' responses to workplace incivility may be extreme or disproportionate when compared with the initial instigating behaviour. Furthermore, there is also the possibility that retaliation will not come from the individual that experienced the initial uncivil behaviour but rather from a third party, witness, or ally of the targeted individual.

The fifth assumption that is challenged by Miner et al. (2017) is the focus on existing research on a dyadic relationship between the instigator and the targeted individual in these enactments of workplace incivility. This assumption leads to researchers focusing on workplace incivility at an individual level and perhaps overlooking the broader organisational system. This poses the need to also focus on group dynamics and corresponding processes in examinations of workplace incivility.

In summation, this section provides a brief history of workplace incivility, describing how this became a core focus of many HR departments as well as some of the core theories surrounding workplace incivility. A primary focus within the area of study of workplace incivility has predominantly centred around concerns like the antecedents and consequences thereof. While a critique of Andersson and Pearson's (1999) 'tit-for-tat' model has been offered, it is important to note that this research is still focused at the micro-, individual-level while remaining cognisant of the possible variations that Miner and colleagues' critiques

suggests. The following sections will define workplace incivility and discuss these antecedents to workplace incivility and the outcomes of workplace incivility in greater detail.

Defining workplace incivility

Workplace incivility can be defined as "low-intensity deviant workplace behaviour with an ambiguous intent to harm the target, and in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviours are regarded as characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457). There is often confusion between workplace incivility and workplace bullying which can both be conceptualised as deviant work behaviours, especially as workplace incivility is easily misconstrued as bullying (Branch, 2008).

In contrast to workplace incivility, workplace bullying pre-dates the research focus on workplace incivility. Workplace bullying has evolved from being a taboo topic within organisational life which was acknowledged but very rarely spoken about to being a central focus in both research and legislation. Today, workplace bullying is a well-established as well as a highly recognised social stressor for employees (Samnani & Singh, 2012). Workplace bullying can be defined as "situations where an employee, repeatedly and over a prolonged time period is exposed to harassing behaviour from one or more colleagues (including subordinates and leaders)" (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018, p. 73). Another important characteristic is that the targeted individual is unlikely to be able to defend themselves against this systematic mistreatment. As such, workplace bullying is a persistent pattern of behaviour or abuse. Whilst workplace incivility is also characterised by deviant behaviour, a core differentiation is that workplace incivility is usually lower in intensity and only happens occasionally with an ambiguous intent to cause harm (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Whilst workplace incivility from a lay perspective has been largely overlooked and is generally not well-understood in the field of human resource development, the overall indication is that workplace incivility is a frequent occurrence within organisations (Estes & Wang, 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2013). Moreover, the adverse impact has both physiological as well as psychological consequences for those involved (Lim, 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2013). Yet, workplace incivility has not typically been associated with significant legal consideration when compared to other forms of workplace mistreatment which seem to garner more attention, such as sexual harassment and workplace bullying (Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008). This is despite workplace incivility being more pervasive in the workplace than other forms of mistreatment (Rosen, Koopman, Gabriel, & Johnson, 2016).

As mentioned previously, workplace incivility manifests in a number of serious outcomes for both individuals and organisations (Estes & Wang, 2008; Lee & Allen, 2002; Porath & Pearson, 2013; Schilpzand et al., 2016). These outcomes have been demonstrated to diminish organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment for individuals, groups of employees and in some instances the organisation as a whole (Lim, 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2013).

As previously acknowledged, individuals experience both cognitive as well as affective impairments which are not limited to immediately after the event but can also have a long-lasting impact upon the individual (Pearson et al., 2000). It was also noted that individuals who experienced Workplace Incivility lost productivity time at work due to worrying about the incident and future contact with the instigator This was further compounded by lost productivity in an attempt to avoid the instigator. It has also been observed that merely witnessing acts of workplace incivility can lead to dysfunctional ideation, reduced creativity and reduced organisational citizenship behaviour within the workplace as well as decreased task performance and increased workplace withdrawal (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

Psychologically, a common consequence of workplace incivility is generalised psychological distress, such as anxiety and depression (Cortina, 2001). Yamada (2000) noted similar consequences and additionally sleep disturbances, mood swings, feelings of shame, guilt and humiliation, reduced self-esteem and increased stress. Witnessing workplace incivility has also been associated with reportedly lower health satisfaction, being inclined to experience negative affect and emotional exhaustion (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

What is clear is that workplace incivility at an organisational level is also pervasive and detrimental to the overall well-being and success of the organisation. This goes as far as being destructive to organisational interactions, damaging to the organisation's reputation (both internally and externally to the organisation) as well as creating ripples of consequences that tend to impact customer satisfaction and the bottom line of the organisation (Pearson & Porath, 2005).

Physiologically, experiences of workplace incivility have been linked with conditions ranging from migraines to heart disease as a result of the individual experiencing psychological distress (Lim, 2008). In their research, Porath and Pearson (2013) noted that not only can workplace incivility result in decreased quality of work, lower effort afforded to tasks and increased absenteeism in various forms, but can, in addition, impact customer relationships and satisfaction which in turn impacts upon the company's bottom line. As organisations start to focus more on ecological, economic and social sustainability, this has resulted in the notion of the 'triple-bottom-line' (Ramsden, 2015). In this regard, these incidents can impact team spirit, reduce creativity in the organisation and managing such incidents incurs additional costs and takes up the time of various management functions in the organisation. It was also noted that incidents of workplace incivility correlated to higher reported turnover intentions for affected employees and reduced organisational commitment.

In terms of organisational outcomes, it has been noted that workplace incivility has severe consequences for financial outcomes of organisations as well. In the United States of America, it is estimated that workplace incivility costs organisations around $23.8 billion per annum as a result of direct and indirect consequences like absenteeism and turnover. This is further compounded by employees reporting more negative emotions regarding their jobs and employers, thereby impacting organisational commitment (Spence Laschinger, Cummings, Wong, & Grau, 2014).

Whilst the focus of research has primarily been on the consequences of workplace incivility, there are also organisational antecedents that can promote it. Motives for engaging in such behaviour is a recent area of focus for researchers and has suggested that organisational variables, for instance, job insecurity, lacking social support and high job demands, correlate with the perpetration of workplace incivility. The strongest correlation to engaging in workplace incivility occurred when individuals were exposed to workplace incivility by their co-workers (Torkelson et al., 2016). In this way, it is apparent from the research that workplace incivility can also lead to a cycle of counterproductive workplace behaviour in that it may increase such behaviours. In such an environment in which workplace incivility flourishes, positive work behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment can be diminished not only by employees who are the target of workplace incivility but also by individuals witnessing these negative interactions (Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001).

As demonstrated above, workplace incivility differs from workplace bullying as well as outright aggressive or violent behaviour perpetrated against one’s colleagues but nevertheless the consequences of this pattern of behaviour are still severe for both organisations as well as individuals subjected to these sorts of behaviours.

Theoretical Framework for the Present Research

The intention of assuming a conceptual or theoretical framework in which to conceptualise this area of research is that it provides guidance in terms of the way in which variables are measured and their inter-relationships. While numerous theoretical models have been applied to the understanding of workplace incivility (Bunk & Magley, 2013; Kern & Grandey, 2009; Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004; Porath & Pearson, 2012; Scott et al., 2013; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012), this research endeavour adopted the Lazarus and Folkman (1984) transactional model of stress and coping in order to study the phenomenon of workplace incivility.

Andersson and Pearson's (1999) article on Workplace Incivility has served as a foundation for subsequent research focused on uncivil behaviour within the workplace. This has also become one of the most influential theoretical articles around the concept of workplace incivility. This understanding of workplace incivility conceptualises this behaviour as "generally ambiguous in its intent to harm, negative, norm-violating, reciprocal, and dyadic" (Miner et al., 2017, p. 2). There are many complexities associated with workplace incivility that cannot be accounted for completely by the work of Andersson and Pearson (1999), such as Bunk and Magley (2013) who proposed a model of understanding workplace incivility based on cognitive–motivational–relational theory of emotions, which strongly focuses on optimism and emotionality playing an important role in determining job-related outcomes as a result of experienced workplace incivility.

Other theoretical frameworks for understanding Workplace Incivility have focused on incivility as a social stressor, in particular, with the research by Kern and Grandey (2009) also placing emphasis on the role of 'surface-level characteristics' of an individual, such as race. With these variables too often being noted as the basis for microaggressions and the subsequent starting point of uncivil treatment. A focus on surface-level characteristics has

been a prominent focus also apparent in Miner-Rubino and Cortina's (2004) research which placed emphasis on the role of organisational contexts perceived to be hostile towards woman.

Alternatively, Scott et al. (2013) proposed a social-exchange based model as an explanation of the antecedents of workplace exclusion, highlighting the apparent importance of context when understanding the perpetrator-target relationship. Finally, it was also noted that the Dollard–Miller (1939) model of aggression could provide a framework for an understanding of how an individual perceives stressful workplace demands and consequently how they respond to these demands. This provides an explanation as to how these responses can potentially intensify from comparatively mild interactions to increasingly intense behaviours based on how the individual perceives the stressor (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012).

Whilst the model chosen for this research endeavour is Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping, it is acknowledged that this model shares some commonalities with the Dollard–Miller model of aggression and other aforementioned models in that it places emphasis on the individual's perceptions of uncivil actions. It also allows for the incorporation of a variable, such as emotional intelligence, which may be interlinked with/representative of the theory of emotions. In addition, this model and method of analyses allow for the examination of surface variables, that is, demographics which may serve to explain differences in perceptions of and responses to workplace incivility. It was also felt that the transactional model of stress and coping was the most appropriate theoretical framework given the nature of the variables and research questions posed. It was deemed to be appropriate as a framework for undertaking the study of the variables in this research endeavour as it provides a clear 'process' and a set of pathways as to how these variables are interrelated. A further explanation of the transactional model of stress and coping is

presented, including how the variables under study and the research questions posed within the present research fit into this model.

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) – Stages and Processes

The transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) serves as the theoretical framework for this research endeavour, which can encompass organisational and individual stressors, individuals' cognitive appraisals of these stressors and individual responses to the stress which can both be voluntary or involuntary in nature. The transactional model of stress and coping conceptualises the stress process as a continual transaction between external demands, in this instance, workplace incivility and personal resources, namely emotional intelligence in which the individual strives to maintain a sense of balance. As such, it was noted by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) that individual responses to external stressors and to outcomes, within the context of this study, manifestations of counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment, vary greatly depending on personal characteristics. This model of stress postulates that an individual's reactions will depend on their cognitive appraisals of an event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

This will be the framework in which to interrogate how experiences of workplace incivility correlate to counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour as well as organisational commitment and could potentially be moderated by emotional intelligence. According to this theory, when individuals are exposed to specific stressors, they will engage in an assessment of that stressor, termed cognitive appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The cognitive appraisal involves a primary as well as a secondary cognitive appraisal of the stressor experienced, influencing the importance of this

event to the individual's well-being. During the primary cognitive appraisal stage, the individual will either evaluate the event or interaction as being irrelevant, benign-positive, or stressful (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). A benign-positive cognitive appraisal refers to situations in which the individual's cognitive appraisal of the event is likely to be enhancing of their well-being. An evaluation of irrelevant indicates that the individual does not view the event as having any implications upon their well-being whilst events evaluated to be stressful will often be situations that can include the threat of harm or loss to the individual or actual harm or loss to the individual. This model also notes that individuals can perceive an event as being a challenge. A situation which is evaluated as a challenge refers to situations wherein there is a potential for the individual to grow or develop from facing this particular stressor (Crozet, 2020). A diagrammatical depiction of the transactional model of stress and coping is depicted in Figure 5 below.

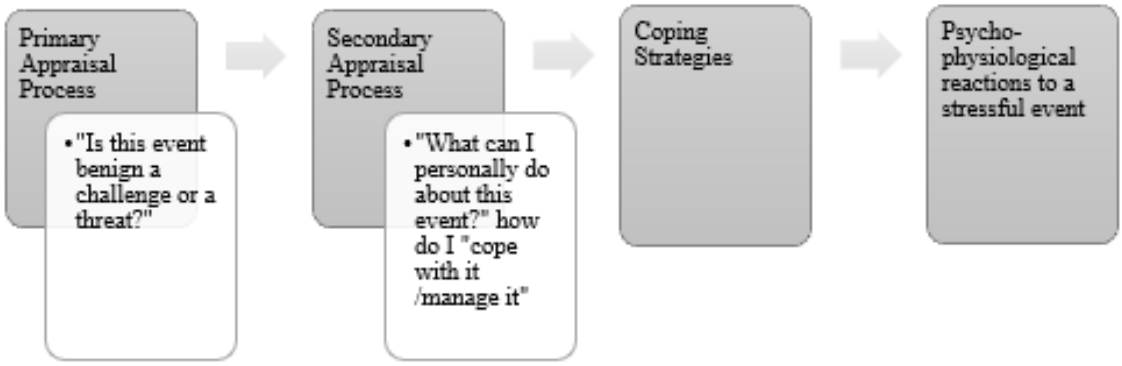
However, within the context of this study, given the reported consequences of Workplace Incivility in the literature, it is likely that this demand will be perceived as a threat with potential to harm. It is in the instance of experiencing stress or harm, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), that individuals start to mobilise coping resources. For the purpose of this research, Emotional Intelligence was proposed to be the coping response to the threat posed.

Within the model, after the primary cognitive appraisal, the individual will engage in a secondary cognitive appraisal of the event. In this stage, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), the individual will assess the coping resources that they already possess and the likelihood that the coping mechanisms available to them will be appropriate and effective for responding to the situation. The degree of stress the individual will experience as well as the magnitude of their response to these events will be determined by their primary and secondary cognitive appraisals of the event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). If during this process

of cognitive appraisal, individuals perceive that they do indeed possess the resources to cope with the stressor, then they will perceive the event as being less stressful. Conversely, if after the cognitive appraisal process the individual perceives that they do not possess sufficient resources to cope, they will perceive the event as being more stressful.

Figure 5

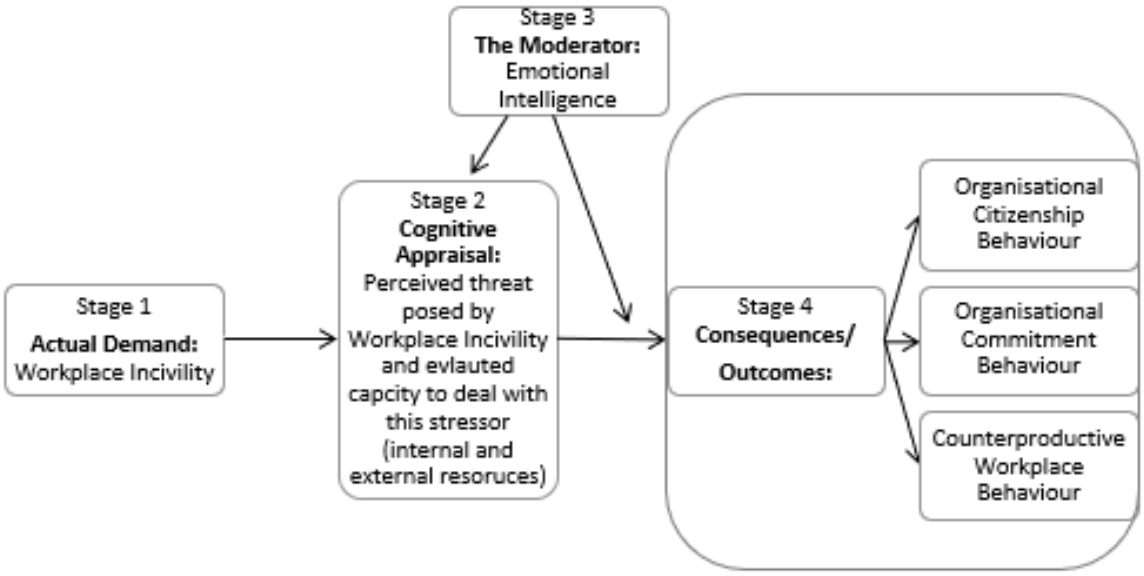
Transactional Model of Stress of Coping (Adapted from Cox and Mackay, 1981; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).



Within the context of this study, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment and counterproductive workplace behaviour in response to experienced workplace incivility will likely vary greatly depending on an individual's cognitive appraisal of an event and were proposed as the reactions or outcomes to the stressor event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This variation is due to individual factors such as personality traits, emotional intelligence, past-coping experiences as well as external resources. All of these can intervene during the process of cognitive appraisal and either amplify or reduce an individual's perception of their ability to successfully cope with the demand/stressor. A diagrammatical depiction of the variables under study within the framework of the transactional model of workplace incivility is shown in Figure 6 below.

Figure 6

Transactional Model of Workplace Incivility (Adapted from Middleton, 2018)



Within the scope of the current research, workplace incivility has been defined as the stressor or actual demand that is experienced in stage one of Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping. The dependent or outcome variables that were measured are counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment, which will form stage four of the model: consequences/outcomes to psycho-physiological reactions to a stressful event. In addition to the outcome variables stated above, emotional intelligence was selected as the coping resource within stage three that is anticipated to mitigate the relationship between workplace incivility and counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment.

In-between the third stage and the fourth/final stage (consequences/outcomes stage), it is proposed that emotional intelligence will have a moderating effect. The purpose of this research endeavour is not to refute that individuals will experience workplace incivility as a

stressor but rather to suggest that when Emotional Intelligence is higher or more developed, the individuals in questions will possibly perceive less threat in the cognitive appraisal stage and/or will not experience the potential negative outcomes of the stressor as severely. This is likely to be a function of them having an effective coping resource in place, for instance emotional intelligence. Conversely, when an individual has lower levels of emotional intelligence, they are likely to perceive more stress during the cognitive appraisal stage and/or experience greater negative outcomes associated with exposure to workplace incivility.

The present research has conceived workplace incivility as a workplace stressor and has framed this stressor within the transactional model of stress and coping, an elaboration of how this model and how the variables under study fit into the general literature on stress needs to be undertaken.

Workplace Incivility as a Workplace Stressor

Work-related stressors are defined as "These stressors may be classified as being either chronic or acute" (Hurrell, Nelson, & Simmons, 1998, p. 348). Chronic stressors tend to be prevalent over an extended duration and are defined as being continually problematic in nature, whilst acute stressors tend to be extreme in nature, often experienced over a shorter timeframe and experienced as a threat to the individual's well-being (Day & Livingstone, 2011). Within Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping, stressors like the above result in a cognitive appraisal in which an individual determines if they have the resources to successfully overcome the challenge/stressor posed.

More broadly, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) in their seminal literature distinguished between the different types of stressors that an individual is likely to experience. Stressors can be classified as 'cataclysmic phenomena' when they are events of a large magnitude that affect large numbers of people and fall outside the realm of human control. These events can

often be described as being both chronic and acute in nature. An example of a cataclysmic phenomenon would be a natural disaster such as a tornado or, from an alternative perspective, due to its protracted nature, the COVID-19 pandemic.

Conversely, major changes that only affect a small group of individuals are classified as life event stressors. These stressors, similar to cataclysmic phenomena again fall outside of an individual's control and can include stressors such as the death of a family member. These types of stressors are likely to occur more frequently than cataclysmic phenomena but affect less individuals as a result. 'Daily hassles' are the final type of stressor outlined by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) and are classified as small events that are generally perceived to cause an irritation or perhaps distress to the individual but would not be defined as chronic or acute in nature. Given the nature of daily hassles, such as an individual's car breaking down on the way to work or an important meeting, it is less likely that an isolated daily hassle would constitute a significant stressor for an individual within Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping. Workplace incivility is likely to initially manifest as daily hassles but can become more severe over time. These experiences are likely to be perceived as more chronic rather than acute in nature but nevertheless ongoing and leading to distress.

Within Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping, and within the context of this study, workplace incivility acts as a stressor. When evaluating the consequences of workplace incivility, it becomes clear that this uncivil conduct has serious ramifications for the individuals involved and requires individuals to cognitively appraise these events, determining the potential threat posed to them by these actions. As it is unlikely that workplace incivility can be completely eliminated within a working environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), this poses a unique stressor that most employees will likely face

and will need to decide upon, in terms of how they respond to this stressor within the course of their careers.

A correlation between workplace incivility and workplace stress has long been established in empirical research (Beattie & Griffin, 2014; Cortina, 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005). Research has demonstrated that employees tend to report experiencing heightened levels of stress on days in which their exposure to workplace incivility is greater. Beattie and Griffin (2014) further noted that individuals with lower personal resources, defined in their research as core self-evaluation, reported more significant correlations between workplace incivility and their level of work engagement.

Mahfooz, Arshad, Ali Nisar, Ikram, and Azeem (2017) noted that ostracism in particular, which is a form of workplace incivility, had an adverse impact on targeted employees, resulting in increased job stress and reduced job performance. They further noted that adverse experiences or pressures negatively affect the individual's capability to handle the inherent demands of their job and also potentially reduce social interactions and in turn social coping resources available to the individual within the workplace.

Workplace Incivility and outcomes – the present research

Whilst there are a variety of undesirable outcomes associated with workplace incivility when considering the aforementioned literature, for the scope of this research, the emphasis was upon three organisational outcome variables, that is, counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment. While it has been acknowledged in the literature that workplace incivility can have hugely detrimental effects on individual outcomes, given the limited scope of this study, only organisational outcomes were examined. The rationale for the identification and inclusion of these three specific variables within the present research endeavour will be outlined below.

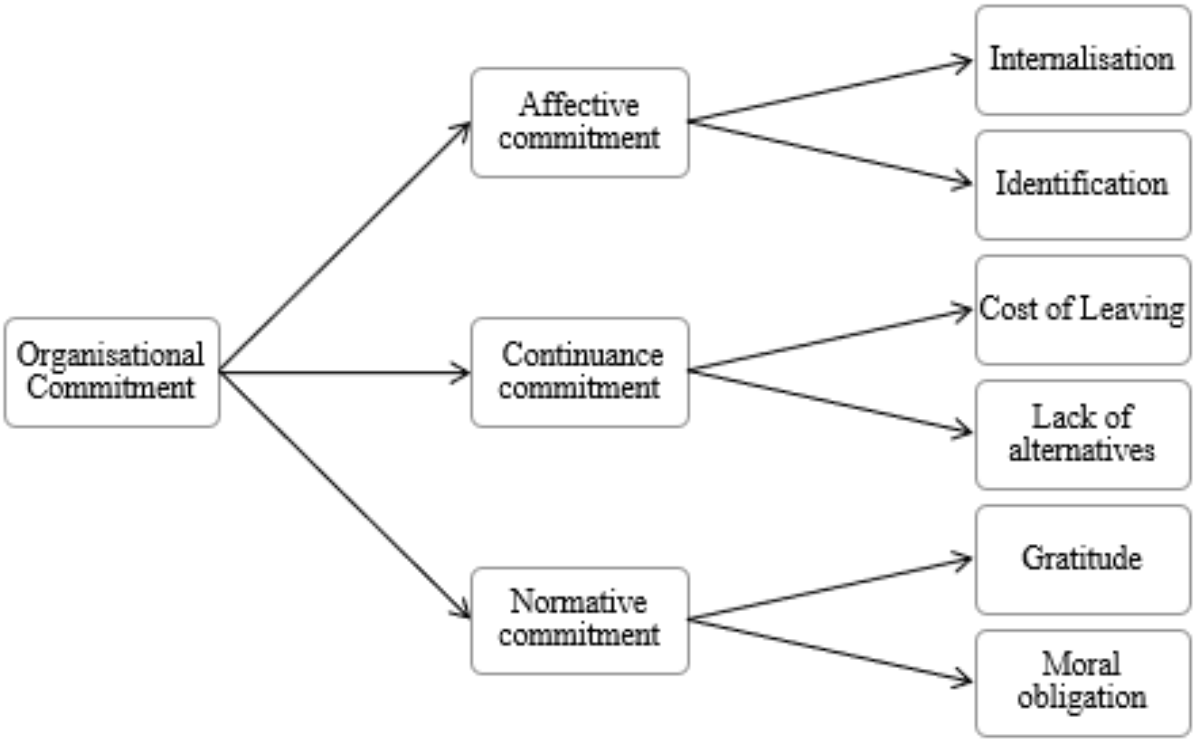
Experiences of workplace incivility have been shown to correlate to numerous attitudinal, behavioural, and cognitive outcomes. In respect to attitudinal and cognitive outcomes, this has been shown to correspond to reduced organisational commitment as well as individual motivation (Guo & Kumar, 2020). This issue will be further explored below where organisational commitment is defined and thereafter, where the relationship between workplace incivility and organisational commitment as outlined within previous research, is explicated upon.

Defining Organisational Commitment Behaviour

Organisational commitment (OC) can be conceptualised as comprising of three main components, namely, acceptance of organisational goals, readiness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation and finally a motivation to preserve one's affiliation as a member of the organisation (Pitt, 2012; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). This was in stark contrast to earlier conceptualisation of OC, that viewed OC as a solitary construct "based on an attitudinal perspective, embracing identification, involvement and loyalty" (Manetje, 2009, p. 37). A more contemporary understanding of OC is made of various elements typically grouped into the three subsets of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Middleton, 2018). Whilst this contemporary understanding of OC is acknowledged, within the scope of this research endeavour it was decided to focus on OC as an overall construct rather than conducting analysis down to the three subsets.

Figure 7

Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model of Organisational Commitment



This Three-Component Model (TCM) by Meyer and Allen (1991) is structured around three core components of OC (refer to Figure 7). The first of the three subsets to a contemporary understanding of OC is affective commitment to the organisation. This refers to a given employee's attachment, participation and identification with the organisation. This form of OC manifests in the individual's psychological attachment or conscious thoughts and links to their desire to stay in employment with the organisation without consideration of other constraining factors such as money or alternative employment opportunities (Field & Buitendach, 2011). Continuance commitment pertains to the individual's feeling of commitment to the organisation linked often to a fear of loss (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), for instance, unemployment and the corresponding absence of income/wages or pressure from others to remain employed by the organisation (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Finally, Mowday et al. (1979) described Normative commitment as

the feeling of responsibility an employee will experience and that will motivate them to stay with the organisation. These three types of commitment can be characterised as a psychological state in that these factors either characterise the employee's given relationships with the organisation or these factors will have an impact on an individual's willingness to continue to work for the organisation, as such having an implication on individual turnover intentions (Middleton, 2018). In essence, individuals with higher levels of affective commitment will stay with the organisation for the reason that they want to, while individuals with higher levels of continuance and normative commitment will stay as they perceive that they have to.

A strong focus has been on identifying the correlations between OC as conceptualised by the TCM and commitment consequences which are often viewed through the lens of individual behaviours. In this way, it has been demonstrated that all three factors correlate to turnover intention (Middleton, 2018) and actual turnover, on the job behaviours as well as employee health and well-being (Supriyanto, 2016).

Both the antecedents as well as consequences of OC are likely to be of particular interest to managers in various organisations as it has long been established through empirical research that organisational objectives become almost unattainable when the commitment of an organisation's employees are lacking (Tella, Ayeni, & Popoola, 2007), thus making OC vital in relation to the attainment of organisational outcomes. Low levels of organisational commitment are often associated with negative consequences with regards to the attitudes and behaviours of employees. This extends to employees rejecting longer tenures, lower expressions of loyalty as well as involvement with the organisation, decreased motivation, performance and decreased compliance with organisational policies (Manetje, 2009).

Core precursor factors to OC include organisational variables such as "equity, feedback, job challenge, role clarity, goal clarity, and goal difficulty, peer cohesion,

receptiveness by management, personal importance, participation, and dependability" (Manetje, 2009, p.42). Further, OC requires the identification and internalisation of organisational values, whereby the individual desires a rewarding relationship with the organisation and their personal goals are congruent with the values of the organisation (Manetje, 2009).

While there are numerous precursors to OC within the context of this study, workplace incivility will be looked at as an antecedent to OC~~c~~ with the proposition being that the more prevalent the experiences of workplace incivility the lower the reported levels of OC~~oc~~ will become. A discussion of this interrelationship follows below.

Workplace Incivility and Organisational Commitment Behaviour

Empirical research spanning approximately the last 30 years has demonstrated a negative association between workplace incivility and individuals' behaviours, particularly in terms of OC (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). In the research by Zia-ud-Din, Arif, and Shabbi (2017) it was shown that workplace incivility had negative implications upon OC and increased absenteeism.

Extensive focus has also been placed on the role of OC as a mediator for workplace incivility (Kabat-Farr, Cortina, & Marchiondo, 2018; Zia-ud-Din et al., 2017). Interactions between workplace incivility and OC have been well documented with Kabat-Farret et al. (2018) finding that individuals that scored high in terms of OC reported more negative emotions, for instance, guilt compared to their less committed counterparts, suggesting almost counterintuitively that individuals who report higher levels of commitment to the organisation are more inclined to be negatively impacted when negative interpersonal interactions arise. This suggests that there exists a detrimental relationship between workplace incivility and OC. In other words, individuals who experience negative

interpersonal interactions, such as workplace bullying or workplace incivility even though they report having higher levels of OC, are more inclined to experience negative emotions as a result than their colleagues that report lower levels of OC. This suggests that when individuals are more committed to their organisation their experiences of aversive behaviours are likely to be perceived more negatively as it does not align to their own internalised commitment to the organisation. Given this detrimental relationship between workplace incivility and OC, this supported the current scope of this research endeavour to determine if emotional intelligence can moderate this relationship.

Pearson and Porath (2005) noted that when workplace incivility was not effectively curtailed within an organisation, organisational loyalty or commitment often diminished. This was further compounded by individuals in their research reporting that they would often leave their jobs solely based on their experiences of workplace incivility within the organisation they were choosing to exit. Thus, it appears that the association between workplace incivility and reduced OC ultimately progresses into turnover.

Moreover, the negative correlation between workplace incivility and OC was further confirmed by Guo and Kumar (2020) who not only demonstrated this correlation but also that psychological capital was identified as a mediating variable that was effective in mediating the relationship between workplace incivility and OC. This further supports the findings that individuals with effective coping resources, in this instance psychological capital, possess a greater range of psychological resources to produce positive workplace behaviours. Although psychological capital is a different coping resource to emotional intelligence, this study does indicate the role that coping resources can play in moderating the relationship between workplace incivility and OC, giving further credence to exploring the possibility that emotional intelligence could moderate this aversive relationship.

In light of the established research documenting a link between workplace incivility and OC outlined above, this served as a determinant for focusing on the relationship between these two variables within this research endeavour.

The following section will serve to define organisational citizenship behaviour and thereafter, the relationship between workplace incivility and organisational citizenship behaviour as outlined within previous research, is expounded upon.

Defining Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) denotes behaviours that are voluntary and that extend beyond the individual's explicit contractual obligations to the organisation, serving to better organisational functioning in one way or another (Lee & Allen, 2002; Organ, 1988). Organ (1988) goes so far as to state that OCB is an important factor contributing to the overall survival and sustainability of an organisation. Examples of such behaviours would be actions that serve to enhance the overall functioning of the organisation, through assisting one's colleagues when they are inundated with work, being mindful of how one's own behaviours and opinions may affect others, volunteering for tasks outside of one's area of responsibility that are beneficial to the organisation, such as internal improvement projects or social committees and adhering to information rules or norms designed to maintain order and organisational cohesion (Dalal & Carpenter, 2018).

A meta-analysis by Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) identified that at an organisational level, OCB positively correlated with workforce efficiency, customer satisfaction and productivity. At an individual level, OCB seems to have importance to managerial ratings of employee performance, employee turnover intentions, absenteeism and reward allocation decisions. More specifically, while initially OCB was conceptualised as being voluntary and not rewarded by the organisation, contemporary research has

acknowledged that these actions are typically noted and rewarded in an employee's performance appraisals (Dalal & Carpenter, 2018).

Understandably when considering the various consequences of OCB, a substantial amount of research has been dedicated to determining the antecedents of OCB (Chahal & Mehta, 2011; O'Grady, 2018; Organ, 2006; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Soto & Rojas, 2019). While antecedents do not constitute a part of this study, a consideration of these antecedents remains important and therefore is discussed. In particular, leadership was noted by O'Grady (2018) as having a strong influence on employees' readiness to engage in OCB. Furthermore, Chahal and Mehta (2011) note that transformational, transactional and authentic leadership are all associated with driving behaviours associated with OCB, indicating the importance of leadership styles when promoting OCB. Despite this acknowledgement, given the scope of this study, leadership styles or characteristics were not included as part of the scope of this research.

Some of the core themes within this area of focus have demonstrated that role perceptions, particularly role ambiguity and conflict, negatively relate to OCB. Further areas of research have centred around numerous individual dispositional attributes, such as motivation, job satisfaction and OC (Organ, 2006). Fairness perceptions with regards to procedural justice and distributive justice have likewise been shown to positively correlate with OCB.

OCB is often investigated by looking at two dimensions of OCB: OCB directed toward individuals (OCBI) and OCB directed towards the organisation (OCBO). OCBI refers to behaviours that will instantly advantage certain individuals in the organisation and correspondingly contribute to organisational effectiveness (Lee & Allen, 2002; Mohammad, Habib, & Alias, 2011). OCBO, instead, refers to behaviours benefitting the organisation without actions or behaviours aimed especially towards any organisational member. The

behaviours are often viewed as benefiting the organisation in general (Mohammad et al., 2011). Podsakoff et al. (2009) characterised OCBO as organisational compliance based on its strong focus on the internalisation of organisational policies and rules. Within the scope of the current research, the scale of OCB utilised investigates elements of both OCBO and OCBI, however this is reported upon as an overall score of OCB.

Overall, the construct of OCB is often viewed as being prosocial in nature, meaning that it is directed towards the betterment of individuals or the organisation, or alternatively as proactive which implies a change orientation. Prosocial OCB can be seen as maintaining or improving the social context within the workplace whilst proactive OCB (both OCBO as well as OCBI) can be seen as changing or enhancing various aspects of the organisation with the express intention of initiating positive modifications (Berry, Chiaburu, Oh, Li, & Gardner, 2005). As a result, organisations have started to focus more on ecological, economic and social sustainability that has brought about the concept of the 'triple-bottom-line', which often seeks to address issues such as environmentally friendly business operations, assisting communities in need and importantly addressing social asymmetries amongst employees (Ramsden, 2015). Employees are becoming increasingly concerned with issues pertaining to fairness and are inclined to make decisions about the responsibility or irresponsibility of an organisation which subsequently influences OCB (Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera, & Williams, 2006).

Within the context of this study, workplace incivility will be looked at as an antecedent to OCB with the proposition being that the higher the level of experienced workplace incivility the lower the reported levels of OCB will be and vice versa. A discussion of this interrelationship follows below.

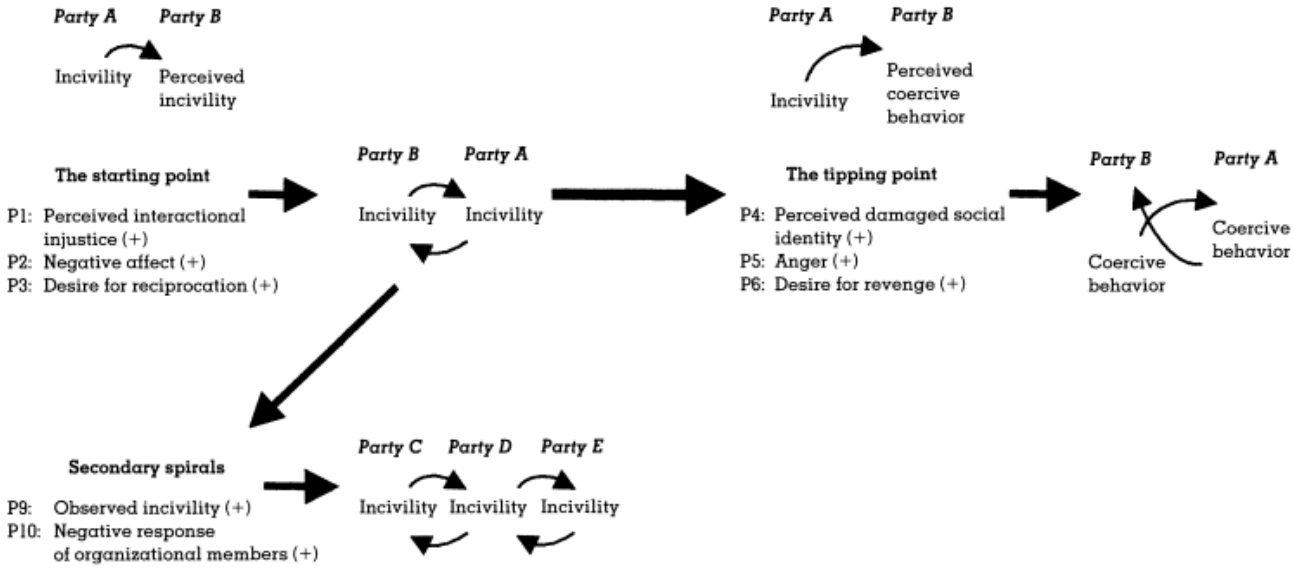
Workplace Incivility and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Research has observed that employees become less willing to engage in OCB subsequent to being exposed to rudeness in the workplace (Porath & Erez, 2007). Research on these variables has typically applied the 'tit-for-tat' framework of workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) as a theoretical foundation explaining the connection between workplace incivility and OCB. It is suggested that targeted individuals of uncivil behaviour may retaliate against these instigators or their organisation while disengaging from OCB (Taylor et al., 2012). Further, Porath and Erez (2007) found that individuals who were exposed to workplace incivility were also less likely to engage in OCBs towards innocent individuals uninvolved in the incident they had experienced. This proposes that while the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB may be a well-established relationship, the 'tit-for-tat' framework of workplace incivility may not be the only explanation for reduced OCB in response to experiences of workplace incivility (Liu, Zhou, & Che, 2018). Thus, the 'tit-for-tat' framework of workplace incivility validly describes the 'spiralling effect' of workplace incivility from perceived wrongdoing to subsequent coercion or aggression in response. These are noted to intensify into a spiral of conflict, in which workplace incivility can still lead to lowered OCB even towards innocent parties, exclusive of the dyadic spiral mentioned above when characterising workplace incivility.

A more detailed discussion of the spiral effect mentioned above is demonstrated in Figure 8 and the below discussion.

Figure 8

Anderson and Pearson's (1999) Conceptual Framework for the Spiralling Effect of Incivility in the Workplace



As demonstrated in Figure 8 above, this spiral effect often begins with what Andersson and Pearson (1999) termed the 'starting point', in which they noted that violent incidents within organisations usually began when a norm or social convention had been violated. This is further compounded by negative affect and a desire for reciprocation-retaliation. Within this initial cycle of workplace incivility, both the instigator as well as initial target of the workplace incivility can choose to depart from this cycle, continue the uncivil interaction or alternatively result in secondary spirals, impacting individuals not involved in the initial interaction. Eventually, the starting point escalates to the tipping point which will often be experienced by individuals as the 'last straw that broke the camel's back' and become characterised by experiences of anger, desire for revenge and escalating coercion/aggression. As previously mentioned, this can be not only directed towards the instigator but towards others innocent of any workplace incivility.

Applying the transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) in addition to sense-making theory, Mackey et al. (2019) proposed that psychological sense-making capability effectively moderated the adverse effects of experiencing workplace incivility on workplace outcomes, such as job satisfaction, OCB and turnover intent. Sense-making theory refers to the process in which an individual gives meaning to their experiences. This theoretical approach was introduced in the 1970s as an alternative to views that had focused predominantly on decision-making when attempting to understand organisational processes which focused more on the process of constituting meaning (Weick, 1969; Weick & Sutcliffe, 2005).

This research by Mackey et al. (2019) integrates the transactional model of stress and coping with sense-making theory as an explanation as to why enactment is part of sense-making and an effective means of neutralising the consequences of workplace incivility. Enactment is defined as "individuals' capabilities to psychologically create, make sense of, restructure, and/or eliminate features of their demands" (Hochwarter & Thompson, 2012, p. 336). As part of their research, Mackey et al. (2019) hypothesised that higher levels of individual enactment enable individuals to neutralise the negative impact of workplace incivility on OCB by minimising their indecision or doubt during the second stage of cognitive appraisal within Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping. This research supported that lower levels of enactment had a negative consequence on individuals' cognitive appraisals of workplace incivility and resulted in reductions in job satisfaction and OCB, in addition to increases in turnover intention. However, an unanticipated result from this research was that higher levels of enactment went beyond neutralising the adverse consequences of workplace incivility to in fact produce positive changes in OCB.

Reflecting on the current area of focus for this research endeavour and the above findings by Mackey et al. (2019) gives credence to applying the transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) to understanding the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB. With the possibility that similarly to enactment, emotional intelligence can perhaps not only neutralise the adverse impact of workplace incivility but possibly also have a positive influence in OCB. Consequently, the inclusion of these interrelationship based on previous research was deemed to be appropriate.

The following section will serve to define counterproductive workplace behaviours and thereafter, the relationship between workplace incivility and counterproductive workplace behaviours as outlined within previous research, is expounded upon.

Defining Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

Counterproductive workplace behaviours (CWBs) are regarded to be anti-social as opposed to pro-social behaviours and as such are typically detrimental to the organisation. They include overt aggression, sabotage, theft and withholding of outputs (Spector, n.d.). CWB is also occasionally referred to as deviant workplace behaviour (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Importantly and similarly to the definition of OCB offered above, CWB is conceived as an intentional action. As such, accidental or unintentional damage of organisational property would not constitute CWB (Sackett & Devore, 2001). From the above, it is apparent that CWB is stereotypically conceptualised negatively, with individuals engaging in CWB posing a high ‘risk’ to the organisation and being characterised as undesirable employees (Arthur & Woehr, 2013). In this sense, CWB is viewed in the light of a dichotomy, with individuals either posing a risk or no risk to the organisation and those around them.

Spector et al. (2006b) categorised CWB into five categories or sub-facets, namely, abuse, sabotage, production deviance, theft, and withdrawal. Abuse involves behaviours that are harmful physically or psychologically to those around an individual and tend to reduce the effectiveness of those targeted by these behaviours. Sabotage, on the other hand, tends to be focused on undermining the physical property of an organisation while production deviance is focused on actions that destroy or impede the work process. Theft is considered a form of aggression against the organisation and may result from multiple factors ranging from the economic needs on the part of the perpetrator to perceived injustice or overall dissatisfaction in one's workplace. Finally, withdrawal involves an individual reducing the amount of productive time one works to less than what the organisation would require or expect. With all of these categories of CWB, employees might engage in these behaviours as an emotional reaction or retaliation to events that have transpired. Alternatively, it can be a deliberate, planned behaviour that is not necessarily a retaliation against any specific previous event (Bibi & Karim, 2013).

Various theoretical positionings have been utilised to understand CWB and aggressive behaviour in the workplace. Utilising the integrated model of aggression, Neuman and Baron (2005) proposed that negative emotions such as anger, hostility and shame play a central role in the perpetration of violence in the workplace. Within this understanding of CWB, aggression is understood to be triggered by environmental factors or stressors which lead to the development of negative emotions or cognitions. This subsequently leads to the individual appraising the event as a threat and deciding to respond to the event stimuli in a potentially aggressive manner. These situational variables can lead to primary and secondary cognitive appraisals of the stressful event and a resulting aggressive behavioural choice from one or more of three paths. The first possibility is to focus on the role of cognitions (memories or hostile thoughts), a secondary possibility is affect which can prime angry or hostile feelings in

an individual and thirdly, arousal. These paths can lead to events perceived as stressors to be appraised as being of a greater threat than they truly are in reality (Spector, Fox, & Domagalski, 2006a).

Whilst this is one way of understanding or conceptualising CWB, retaliation theory postulates that these behaviours are often enacted due to feelings that one has been wrongly or unfairly treated. With the case of retaliation theory, special focus is given to perceptions of injustice (Folger & Skarlicki, 2005). Within this understanding, it is not only experiencing injustice but also witnessing perceived injustices perpetrated against others that can trigger such actions in an individual.

Spector and Fox (2005) created a model to understand CWB that placed a central focus upon emotions in response to workplace stressors as a central means of understanding the perpetration of these behaviours. When an event is perceived or appraised by the individual as being stressful (these stressors can include negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety and depression) this can contribute to an individual either immediately or at a later point engaging in CWB (Spector et al., 2006a). Further to this, it was noted that those who perceived themselves as having greater control in these situations were less likely to appraise these events as stressful. As can be seen, this model aligns clearly with the transactional model of stress and coping where workplace incivility is perceived of as stressful and an injustice leading the individual to respond to this with manifestations of CWB.

Understanding the antecedents of CWB from a dispositional perspective has been a strong focus of empirical research. Evidence has supported that individual differences, in particular trait-anger and self-control, are strong determinants of CWB as well as broader enactment of violence and aggression in the workplace. Trait-anger, which is a prominent predictor of workplace aggression, can be viewed as an individual's affective predisposition

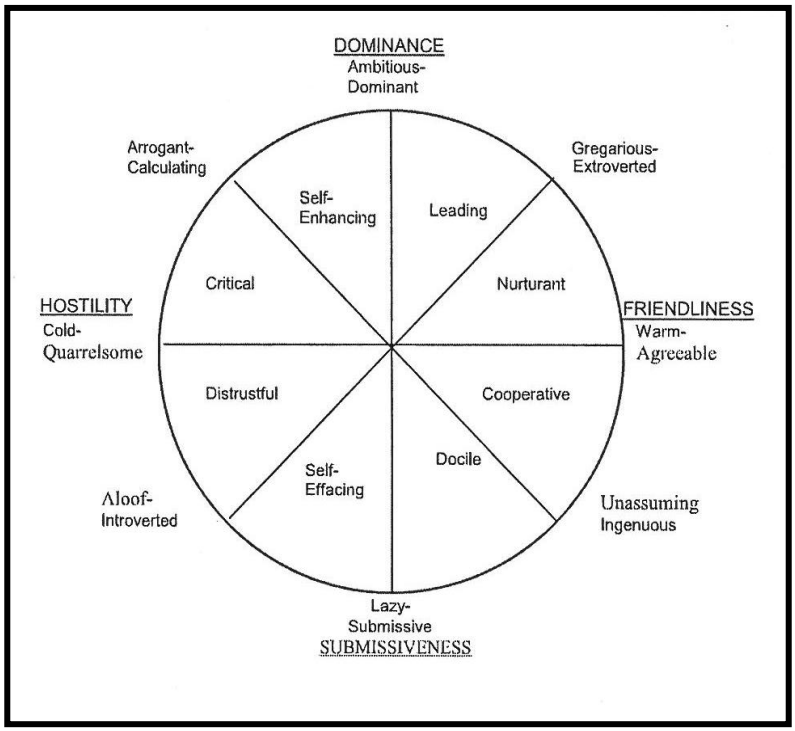
to experience feelings of anger over time and across situations which is often characterised as also being chronic in nature (Spector et al., 2006a).

Following on from this dispositional understanding of CWB, Lee et al. (2013) investigated gender differences in terms of various personality factors within the Five-Factor Model (FFM) and two other circumplex personality dichotomies, namely dominance-submissiveness and hostility-friendliness, and an individual's propensity to engage in CWB. They established that in men agreeableness from the FFM and pleasantness significantly negatively predicted CWB. However, a similar relationship between these variables was not present in women. Conversely, emotional stability from the FFM significantly negatively predicted CWB in women but not in men. This research showed that beyond the FFM, the two aforementioned circumplex personality traits of dominance-submissiveness and hostility-friendliness are a useful supplement to understanding interpersonal aggression in the workplace. Subsequent research on the Interpersonal Circumplex Model (ICM) of personality proposed by Wiggins (1996) in respect to predicting CWB (refer to Figure 9) has shown that this model can capture unique information that the FFM is not always capable of explaining (Gonzalez-Mulé, Degeest, & Mount, 2013).

As depicted in Figure 9, the ICM consists of the two main dimensions mentioned above (dominance-submissiveness and hostility-friendliness) with an additional eight octant scales plotted between these dimensions (Bernstein, 2013). While this model consists of other octants, as mentioned above, research has indicated that two of these do have relevance in relation to the manifestation of CWB.

Figure 9

The Interpersonal Circumplex Model (Sourced from Wiggins, 1996)



Workplace Incivility and Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

Besides the negative consequences of workplace incivility already discussed above, workplace incivility has been shown to relate to increased perpetration of CWB (Liu et al., 2018; Schilpzand et al., 2016). Empirical research has demonstrated that there is a positive correlation between workplace incivility and CWB as well as a negative correlation between CWB and emotional intelligence, with the interaction between workplace incivility and emotional intelligence providing an explanation for the variance within the five facets of CWB (abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal behaviour) that were part of the model of CWB utilised in the research by Bibi and Karim (2013). Furthermore, emotional intelligence was shown to be a significant moderator between workplace incivility and CWB, which aligns, in part, to the research hypotheses of this research endeavour (refer to page 60 below)Chapter 0 below. In this regard, this research suggests that training focused

on appropriate etiquette as well as developing employee's EI may be beneficial in mitigating the negative consequences of CWB (Bibi & Karim, 2013; Kile, Eaton, deValpine, & Gilbert, 2018).

A precedent has been set within scholarly research that workplace incivility is often conceptualised as a workplace stressor and CWB as an emotional response to these actions (Bibi & Karim, 2013; Chen & Spector, 1992; Fox & Spector, 1999). Within the sub-facets of CWB, withdrawal behaviour has been shown to be one of the most prominent responses to uncivil treatment in the workplace (Bibi & Karim, 2013), suggesting that withdrawal is often the coping resources most employees revert to when attempting to cope with instances of workplace incivility (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010). Second to withdrawal, Bibi and Karim (2013) found that counterproductive deviance was the second most prevalent response to workplace incivility, whilst sabotage and theft were the least preferred response strategies for individuals within their study. One of the observations herein was that the nature of the job is likely to be an important factor in determining the selected CWB response.

In conclusion, the links between workplace incivility, CWB, OCB and OC are deemed to be crucial variables, warranting further consideration, if indeed greater exposure to perceived workplace incivility is related to these outcomes, namely, higher likelihood of engaging in CWB and lower likelihood of maintaining or engaging in OCB and OC. As supported by the literature above, this is likely to have serious ramifications not only for individual employees in terms of physical as well as physiological outcomes but also upon the overall organisation. While similar studies have been conducted outside of the South African context, it is necessary to explore the nature of these inter-relationships within the South African context instead of making broad generalisations from international research. Given the diversity of the South African population and the current racial climate, it is possible that intersections of race and gender could exacerbate problems of workplace

incivility. Consequently, part of the analysis discussed in the methodology chapter will explore demographic differences of race, gender, age and tenure in relations to the aforementioned variables.

Contrasting the Interrelation of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

According to Dalal and Carpenter (2018) there is strong evidence in terms of the antecedents as well as construct definitions to view OCB and CWB as strongly negatively correlated, with some researchers even going as far as conceptualising these two factors as opposite ends of a singular behavioural continuum. However, this belief is not often supported by empirical research with meta-analyses showing a -.32 correlation between CWB and OCB. While this does indeed show a negative correlation, the strength of this correlation is considered to be weak (Dalal & Carpenter, 2018). To examine this possibility in greater depth, it is necessary to go back to the question philosophers, such as John Locke and Thomas Hobbes, have been debating for years as to whether or not humans are inherently good or bad (Dalal & Carpenter, 2018). When we view organisations within this framework it would intuitively make sense that if people are either good or bad this should correspondingly correlate with these two constructs.

Both constructs are conceived as being intentional behaviours that an individual consciously chooses to partake in. They are often structured on the basis of there being a target object, organisational asset or other persons within the organisation which are the focus of these actions (Dalal & Carpenter, 2018). At a between-person level of analysis, both CWB and OCB are viewed as differences in job performance and will correspond to individual differences in behaviour (dispositional traits). This suggests that some people will have the disposition to engage in either of these behaviours or not. For instance, it has been

demonstrated that the personality construct, conscientiousness, correlates positively to OCB and negatively to CWB. While this finding suggests that CWB and OCB may share some personality constructs in common, the magnitude of these correlations vary in strength, with the relationship between CWB and conscientiousness being stronger than the relationship between OCB and conscientiousness. This serves to cast some doubt over whether or not these constructs are as closely related as would first be assumed (Dalal, 2005). Further to this, an analysis of the antecedents of both CWB and OCB do not provide a compelling argument to support the notion that CWB and OCB are opposite ends of the same continuum (Dalal & Carpenter, 2018).

Core antecedents of OCB appear to be role perceptions; particularly role ambiguity and conflict which have been demonstrated to negatively relate to OCB. Furthermore, numerous individual dispositional attributes, such as motivation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee age, have also been shown to be antecedents of OCB (Organ, 2006). In contrast, trait-anger and self-control are strong determinants of CWB as well as broader enactment of violence and aggression in the workplace (Spector et al., 2006a).

Coping with Workplace Incivility

Corresponding to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) definition of coping described above, coping refers to an individual's response to a stressor that is aimed at reducing the psychological and physical strain associated with that particular event. As such, the intention of this research is to go beyond simply exploring the impact of workplace incivility on organisational outcomes, but to also interrogate how emotional intelligence may assist individuals to effectively cope with the stressor of workplace Incivility. An individual's cognitive appraisal of an event forms an integral part of the process of successfully or unsuccessfully coping with a stressor. Whilst it is apparent from the literature that workplace

incivility has the potential to be envisaged as a stressor, it is also capable of creating negative consequences for the outcome or dependent variables outlined. It is postulated that an individual's access to internal resources, such as emotional intelligence, may enable or better their ability to cope with this stressor.

Defining Coping

Traditional approaches to understanding the coping process emerged from animal experimentation as well as psychological ego theories of psychology (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Based on animal experimentation, coping often focused on the concepts of drive or activation, whereby coping is conceptualised as actions or behaviours that reduce either drive or activation. As such, the focus is predominantly on the avoidance of these negative stimuli. Conversely, psychological ego theories have had a tendency to focus on coping traits instead of coping processes, which, as a result, emphasises dispositional factors/traits that dispose an individual to react in a particular manner (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p. 141), coping is defined as "constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person". This definition of coping offers a process-orientated approach that also aids in distinguishing between coping and naturally occurring adaptive behaviour such as the innate drive to avoid negative stimuli seen in animal research (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Following on from this, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) asserted that an individual's perception or cognitive appraisal of the demands of an event comparative to their ability to successfully cope with this challenge can result in balance or imbalance. An individual achieves balance when they 'feel' they possess the 'capacity to cope' with the supposed threat, whilst imbalance occurs when they 'feel' that they do not (Bernstein, 2013).

Empirical research has established a relationship between available internal and external resources an individual has, past-coping experience and personality, and how these resources impact the way in which the individual will likely perceive the demands associated with a particular situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Internal resources are those resources that are inherent to the individual and that can assist the individual in effectively coping with a stressor, including elements such as certain personality traits like hardiness and sense of coherence (Antonovsky, 1979; Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982; van den Heuvel, Demerouti, & Bakker, 2014), psychological capital, namely "hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy" (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007, p. 549), and in particular Emotional Intelligence are of particular interest for this research. External resources, on the other hand, refer to resources that are available to an individual, such as organisational or social support (van den Heuvel et al., 2014).

Apart from the concept of coping being theorised as internal or external to the individual, Webster, Brough, and Daly (2016) explained that coping at the highest level can be viewed as an adaptive process. As part of this explanation, coping is enacted after a perceived stressor exposure but before a physiological or psychological outcome has occurred. For the purpose of this study, emotional intelligence was chosen as the internal coping resource. As will be elaborated upon below, there are links posited between emotional intelligence and the other outcome variables mentioned in this study (OC, OCB and CWB), and therefore the intended focus on emotional intelligence as a coping resource. The construct of emotional intelligence, its role as a coping resources and its inter-relationship with the variables in this study are elaborated upon in greater depth below.

Defining Emotional Intelligence and its Role as a Coping Resource

Emotional intelligence dates back to the evolution of humankind; in order to survive it was crucial for our ancestors to cope and get along with others. Sophisticated mapping techniques of the brain have supported this notion, showing that many thought processes are related through the brain's emotional centres as part of the physiological process of converting information into an action or response (Stein & Book, 2011). Charles Darwin published a seminal book detailing the role of emotional expression in relation to adaptation and subsequently survival in the 1870s (Darwin, 1965, originally published in 1872).

In the early 1980s, Gardener define eight forms of intelligence as part of his work on examining the intelligence quotient, that is IQ of individuals. Although Gardner (1983) did not utilise the term 'emotional intelligence', two of Gardner's eight multiple intelligences, namely interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, can be conceived as the foundation for contemporary theories of emotional intelligence. Interpersonal intelligence pertains to how an individual demonstrates sensitivity towards the feelings and needs of others as well as an ability to cooperate when working with others. Intrapersonal intelligence, on the other hand, is concerned with introspection and an individual's ability to understand how their feelings and emotions shape their responses to events or individuals (gardner, 1983). Consequently, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence can be seen to provide the foundation for contemporary models of emotional intelligence. The term Emotional Intelligence (EI) was later defined by Salovey and Mayer (1990, p. 189) as "a subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions".

In 1995 Daniel Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ* generated initial interest in the role EI has on our lives. This was the first publication to provide a meta-analysis of existing research and present this understanding to lay readers in

an easily accessible and coherent manner. This is considered to be the turning point from EI being considered a soft skill or a 'nice-to-have', to a factor that was likely to determine individuals' success, both in their personal lives as well as in a work context. Further, this effect of EI extends far beyond forming good relationships to also influencing our coping resources (Stein & Book, 2011).

Differentiating between Emotional Intelligence and IQ

As acknowledged above, Gardner's (1983) early definition of intelligence arguably contained certain elements of EI. That being said, it is important to distinguish between the concept of EI and Intelligence Quotients (IQ). IQ was designed as a means of creating a standardised psychometric assessment, with the intent being to compare scores/results among and between different age groups in order to provide an indication of an individual's relative intellectual functioning compared to their age (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2013). An IQ score provides a means of comparing an individual to a respective norm group. For example, if an individual has a higher IQ (the average is 100) they will, in theory, be equipped to pass all sorts of examinations or challenges with ease. This is often the foundation of how intelligence and subsequently success is defined within contemporary schooling systems. A core of this definition is a focus on an individual's analytical, logical and rational reasoning abilities. However, what this definition of intelligence often overlooks is how these individuals will go about interacting with others (Stein & Book, 2011). Research has shown that IQ does not consistently predict success in life, with Wagener's (1997) research yielding a correlation of .20 and .30. This inspired researchers to examine EI and how this relates to success in life with a specific focus on individuals' ability to interact with others and contain and manage their own emotions when going about achieving their goals and objectives.

EI can be conceived as an "array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Bar-On, 1997, p. 14). Whilst an individual might have the ability to solve a problem in a rational and logical manner, they often experience challenges in terms of personal, social and the survival aspects of overall intelligence (Stein & Book, 2011). More commonly, EI is often referred to in layman's terms as 'street smarts'.

Over time, models of EI have become more nuanced, focusing on the various sub-dimensions that are likely to underpin an individual's ability to recognise their own emotions as well as those of others, comprehend emotional cues that are conveyed in a non-verbal manner and use this resulting information to guide their thinking and actions. Three prominent models of EI are frequently referenced in empirical research and are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1

Three Different Models of Emotional Intelligence

SALOVEY AND MAYER (1990)	BAR-ON (1997-2002)	SCHUTTE (1998)
Emotion Management	Intrapersonal Skills	Perception of Emotion
Emotional Perception	Interpersonal Skills	Managing Own Emotions
Emotional Integration	Adaptability	Managing Others' Emotions
Emotional Understanding	Stress Management	Utilisation of Emotion
	General Mood	

As part of this research endeavour, it was decided to utilise the Schutte (1998) Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test as this measure of EI has been utilised within the South African context and across various demographic groups (Jonker & Vosloo, 2008). Furthermore, the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test is derived from the EI

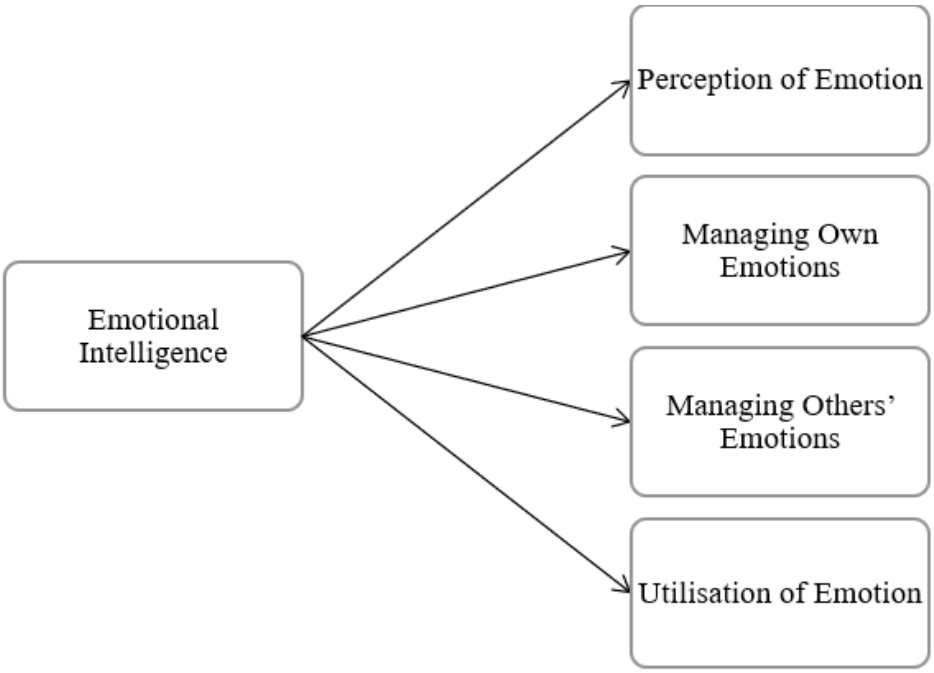
model of Salovey and Mayer (1990) as well as being closely related to the EQ-I model of EI (Bar-On, 1997).

Components of Schutte's (1998) Model of Emotional Intelligence

The four dimensions of the EI model, according to Schutte (1998), are perception of emotions, managing emotions in self, managing others' emotions (which can also be conceptualised as social skills) and utilising emotions (refer to Figure 10). These factors link to the definition and dimensions of EI proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990).

Figure 10

Schutte's (1998) Model of Emotional Intelligence



Firstly, perceptions of emotions correspond to one's appraisal of emotions in oneself as well as others, therefore including verbal as well as non-verbal appraisal of emotions. Secondly, managing own emotions refers to the verbal as well as the non-verbal expression of an individual's emotions. Third, managing others' emotions as a construct refers to the ability

to use emotions to motivate as well as regulate the emotions of those around oneself. Finally, utilisation of emotion involves using emotions as part of the problem-solving process (Alston, 2009).

Emotional Intelligence: Main and Moderating Effects

The definition of EI provided by Salovey and Mayer (1990) mentioned above, provides the foundational belief of how EI can serve as a coping mechanism for workplace stressors. This is achieved by enabling individuals either directly experiencing or alternatively witnessing Workplace Incivility to not only understand their own emotional reactions in response to these events but also their cognitive appraisal of the likely emotional states and reactions of their colleagues. This enhanced understanding of their own as well as others' emotional states would be expected to lessen the perceived threat or associated stress posed by such encounters. Consequently, this would result in individuals perceiving these events as less stressful and moderating the adverse influence of workplace incivility on CWB, OCB and OC.

Of particular interest is the role of EI as an influence on how individuals' cognitive appraisals of stressful events vary. EI can be conceptualised as a cluster of psychological traits that influence an individual's cognitive appraisal of their own as well as others' actions. Carmeli's (2003) research indicated that senior managers with higher EI reported more positive work attitudes, were more willing to engage in altruistic behaviours and had better work outcomes. It was further noted that EI moderated the impact of work-family conflict on work commitment. Research like this suggests that individual traits like higher EI may serve to alter an individual's cognitive appraisals of stressful situations, consequently making them evaluate these instances as being less severe. This supports the research question into whether EI would moderate CWB, OCB and OC in relation to Workplace Incivility in the South

African context. In addition, in terms of main effects, independent of whether one experiences workplace incivility or not, it is proposed that EI would lead to less CWB and higher OCB and OC (Bibi & Karim, 2013).

Further to this, previous studies have demonstrated that EI serves as a moderator between workplace incivility and CWB (Bibi & Karim, 2013). There is a long-established negative relationship between EI and the likelihood of employees engaging in deviant behaviour (Deshpande, Joseph, & Shu, 2005; Jung & Yoon, 2012; Khalid et al., 2009; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000), with people with greater EI showing a greater inclination to control their emotions and perceive engaging in CWB as being more unethical (Deshpande et al., 2005).

Relating Emotional Intelligence to Workplace Incivility and the Outcome Variables

In this research, the direct effect of EI and the effect of EI as a moderator between workplace incivility and the outcome variables will be examined. The intention of EI as a moderator within this research is to determine if EI will be able to buffer the negative relationship between workplace incivility and the various selected outcome variables, namely, CWB, OC and OCB. While the intention is to examine the moderator effect of EI, the main/direct effect of EI will also be examined within the moderation analyses.
Results from previous empirical research suggest that EI can serve as an effective moderator against workplace incivility as well as decreasing an individual's likelihood of engaging in deviant behaviour, such as CWB. There is an established negative relationship between EI and employees engaging in deviant behaviour (Mayer et al., 2000). Furthermore, Deshpande et al. (2005) noted that individuals with more developed EI consider CWB to be more unethical than those with lower EI, and EI may assist individuals to better control their

emotions and consequently be less likely to engage in these undesirable behaviours (Khalid et al., 2009).

This research will subsequently scrutinise if EI has a direct effect on the levels of workplace incivility, CWB, OC and OCB. Thereafter the moderating effect of EI in the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (workplace incivility and CWB; workplace incivility and OC; and workplace incivility and OCB) will also be analysed. This hypothetical relationship is supported by Kern and Grandey (2009) who note that various scholars have identified workplace incivility as a stressor and EI as a prominent protective factor against this stress (Bibi & Karim, 2013). As mentioned above, the transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) was selected as the theoretical framework in which to explore these research questions. The transactional model of stress and coping is well aligned to the established literature surrounding these constructs and clearly explains the 'process' through which these variables could interact.

Conclusion

The discussion above provides the background and core motivation for this research, with research on Workplace Incivility reporting significant deleterious consequences for individuals' general health and well-being. Furthermore, workplace incivility is associated with a variety of negative organisational outcomes. Within the scope of this research endeavour, the focus will be on CWB, OC and OCB as outcome variables. As such, it is believed that research into the possible relationships of workplace incivility, CWB, OCB and OC will provide useful insights to organisations. The study of such variables is of significance, as shown in the discussion above, as the negative consequences of workplace incivility and CWB are far-reaching in terms of both individual as well as organisational well-being (Arthur & Woehr, 2013; Lim, 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2013). Greater insights

into these relationships and the possible moderating influence of EI can be utilised in informing organisational processes, interventions, and thereby outcomes. Conceivably, interventions focused on developing EI within a working population could enhance an individual's ability to cope with incidences of workplace incivility they are likely to encounter as well as guiding interventions to effectively reduce workplace incivility (Arthur & Woehr, 2013) and thereby reduce CWB whilst promoting OCB and OC.

Accordingly, this research scrutinises whether workplace incivility has a negative bearing on the above-mentioned outcome variables and whether or not EI can moderate this effect, utilising a transactional model of stress and coping. Research in this field would further promote exploration and understanding of possible interactions between these variables, which may aid professionals within organisational psychology to better understand and guide intervention strategies.

In the following chapter the research questions and hypotheses proposed within this framework, a detailed outline of the methodology to be used including data analyses, procedure and major ethical considerations will be explicated upon.

Chapter 2: Methodology

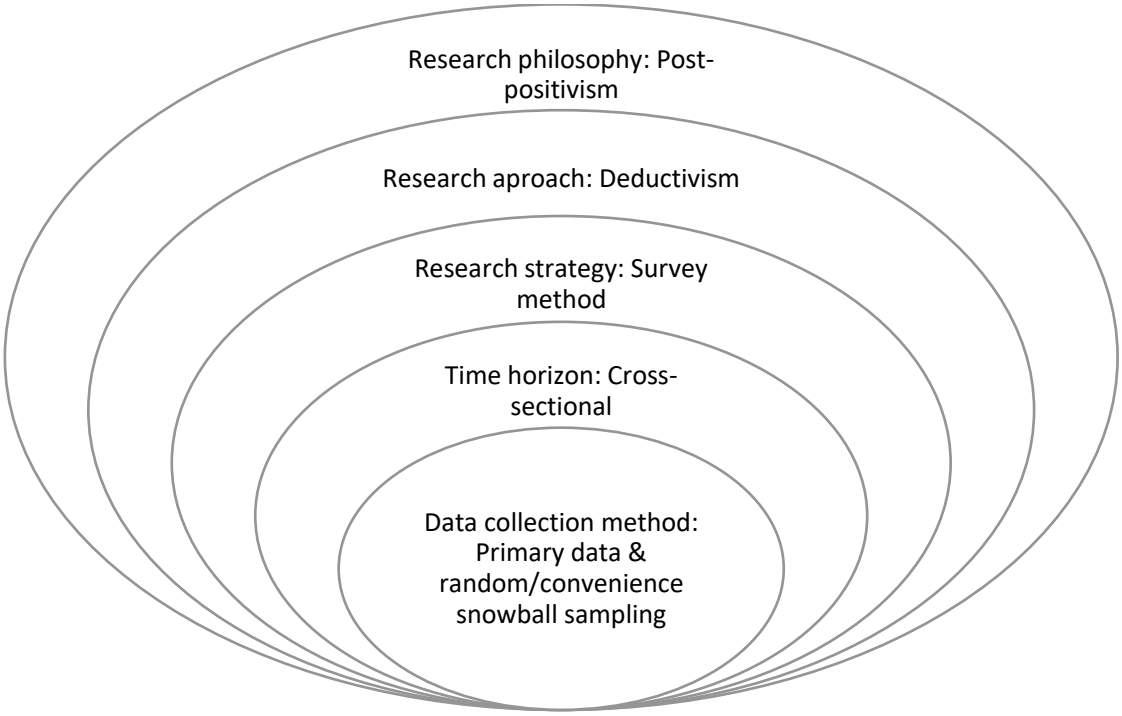
Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the research questions and hypotheses as supported by the literature review and theoretical frameworks as mentioned in Chapter 1. Moreover, the research design and methodological approach that were given due consideration during this research endeavour will be elaborated upon below. As such, this chapter will provide an overview of the sample and sampling procedures utilised, research procedures, research instruments, research paradigms, statistical analyses and finally, the ethical considerations that were considered in conducting this research. This was given due consideration to ensure scientific rigour within the research process as well as adherence to best practice and ethical standards stipulated by the University of the Witwatersrand's Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC). Finally, this chapter expands on how this proposed topic could add valuable insights and information to the body of knowledge about these topics within the South African context.

The research process was originally outlined and conceived using the conceptual framework of the various layers of Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill's (2016) 'research onion' (refer to Figure 11). In this way the research is defined from the outer to inner layers of the 'research onion'; from defining the research philosophy, namely post-positivism, to the data collection methods. All of this will be outlined below in order to provide an initial departure point for the researcher to later develop and expand upon (Saunders et al., 2016).

Figure 11

Saunders et al. (2016) 'Research Onion'



Research Aims

The aim of this outlined research was to explore the possibility that correlations exist between perceived experiences of Workplace Incivility and CWB, OCB and OC within the lens of Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Transactional Model of Stress and Coping. Furthermore, it was explored whether there was a possibility that EI would serve as a moderating variable, with individuals with better developed EI being better equipped to cope with or mitigate the relationships between perceived Workplace Incivility and the outcome variables. Therefore, it is postulated that those with greater EI will be less likely to engage in CWB as well as being more likely to engage/maintain any OCB and OC behaviours despite experiences of perceived Workplace Incivility.

The present research acknowledged that correlations identified from self-reported data would not allude to causality (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012), but nonetheless, expand

knowledge and understanding of the inter-relatedness of these variables. This was the rationale for expressing the research questions and hypotheses stated below, so as to highlight the intention of identifying correlations or interdependencies between Workplace Incivility and CWB, OCB and OC without assuming that any causality may or may not exist.

Psychological research is often posed with a dilemma, admitting that randomised experiments yield optimal conditions for inferring causality. However, in behavioural research the manipulation of independent variables is often unfeasible or in some instances simply unethical (Rohrer, 2018). In this instance, the manipulation of the independent variable, Workplace Incivility, would have been unfeasible due to the cross-sectional nature of the research design as well as being deemed unethical to deliberately subject individuals to incidents of Workplace Incivility over a period of time.

Research Questions

The research questions that were formulated are as follows:

I. Is there a correlation between experiences of Workplace Incivility and CWB?

II. Is there a correlation between experiences of Workplace Incivility and OCB?

III. Is there a correlation between experiences of Workplace Incivility and OC?

IV. Does EI or the sub-factors of EI serve to moderate the relationship between experiences of Workplace Incivility and CWB?

V. Does EI or the sub-factors of EI serve to moderate the relationship between experiences of Workplace Incivility and OCB?

VI. Does EI or the sub-factors of EI serve to moderate the relationship between experiences of Workplace Incivility and OC?

Hypotheses

The corresponding research hypotheses that were formulated are as follows:

I. Employees who experience Workplace Incivility will have lower OCB and OC as well as higher CWB.

II. EI will moderate/buffer the positive association between Workplace Incivility and CWB. That is, those who experience Workplace Incivility, with higher EI, will be less likely to engage in CWB than those with lower EI.

III. EI will moderate/buffer the negative association between Workplace Incivility and OCB. That is, those who experience Workplace Incivility, with higher EI, will be more likely to engage in OCB than those with lower EI.

IV. EI will moderate/buffer the negative association between Workplace Incivility and OC. That is, those who experience Workplace Incivility, with higher EI, will be more likely to demonstrate OC than those with lower EI.

Research Design

What will follow will be a discussion of the research methodology utilised in this research endeavour, which was set within a post-positivist, deductivist, quantitative, survey approach. This created an accurate and efficient means of gathering meaningful data pertaining to the hypothesised relationships between the above-identified variables. As such, this research design provides a basic outline or plan for the researcher as to how the research will be conducted in practice.

For the purposes of this study a quantitative approach was followed. This approach was chosen because it would allow the researcher to statistically analyse data in an objective manner. This would allow for generalisations to be inferred and, in some instances, predictions made from the data. Finally, this approach made it possible to investigate the

relationships between the independent, dependent and moderating variables outlined in the chapter above (Leedy & Ormrod, 2018).

A survey methodology was employed based on its complementary nature to deductive research and the fact that it enables a large volume of data to be collected in a relatively economical fashion. This was one of the requirements to determine if a correlation existed between the variables stated above, by ensuring that the sample group was large enough to be representative of the target population (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). As such, the goal was to examine the correlation coefficients to explore the extent of the relationship between these variables.

The intention of this research report was to conduct quantitative research, and as a result, a survey method approach was required to allow for the proposed statistical analysis which will be outlined in the Data Analysis section below (refer to page 77). The objective of a survey design is to gather an accurate representation of the individuals being studied. As such, this is a method in which the researcher is still required to understand the demand of the topic or subject matter and determine the most applicable question content as well as the medium for gathering the information via the surveys constructed. Consequently, it was determined that the most applicable approach would be to utilise established surveys, utilised in previous research. Details pertaining to the surveys utilised can be found below.

Further, as this study sought to investigate the nature of the relationship between experiences of Workplace Incivility and CWB, OCB, as well as OC within the lens of a Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) within South African organisations, a cross-sectional design was employed instead of a longitudinal approach. A cross-sectional approach allowed for a greater volume of data to be gathered rapidly as well as permitting data to be collected on multiple variables with clear definitions and permits for distinct start and completion stages (Holm, Hofmann, & Laake, 2015). Despite these

advantages, it is important to note that the data and findings will consequently only provide a descriptive insight as to the existence of a correlation, moderating factors and the interdependencies of these variables at that point of time and not the enduring nature of any such relationship or interaction if one or more is to exist.

Furthermore, as a cross-sectional approach only provides insight into a single respondent's views at a singular point in time, it is susceptible to common method variance (CMV), which refers to a systematic method error which results from the use of a single individual/rating as a source of data (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan, & Moorman, 2007). In order to mitigate the potential impact of CMV, it is necessary to enhance the causal inferences that in turn enhance the validity of the research findings derived from data gathered in this manner. This can be achieved by using multiple respondents and, where possible, multiple data sources and multiple time periods (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan, & Moorman, 2007). It is acknowledged that within the scope of this research endeavour the latter two recommendations were not feasible.

Research Paradigm

For the purposes of this research, a post-positivist philosophical framework was proposed. Post-positivism is a metatheoretical stance that both critiques as well as amends positivism which suggests that reality exists independently to the phenomenon being studied or observed and what's more, adopts an empirical approach to research (Straker, n.d.). Requiring the researcher to separate oneself from the subject matter can be quite challenging in the social sciences and necessitates that the researcher abides by findings even when the integrity of the data is questioned. As such, a critique of positivism is that it can be conceived as inflexible (Saunders et al., 2016). A further critique is centred around concepts of neutral knowledge as well as a dualistic approach of thinking.

In contrast, post-positivism acknowledges that the background, knowledge and beliefs of the researcher can influence their interpretation of the events that they observe. In this sense, to ensure objectivity, it is necessary to recognise the possible effects of biases and meaning in how one creates new knowledge (Ryan, 2006). Post-positivism is characterised by a broader field of inquiry, an acknowledgement that practice and theory can rarely be separated and the importance of the researcher's incentives for and obligations towards conducting the research (Ryan, 2006).

As the research questions expressed above are to determine if a relationship does exist between experiencing workplace incivility and CWB, OCB and OC, a deductive approach is complementary to this objective. Deductivism is centred around the formulation of a hypothesis and thereafter formulating a research process to either confirm or disconfirm this stance. A deductivist approach is typically considered complementary to a post-positivist approach which allows for the formulating of a hypothesis and the empirical testing of the anticipated results to a predetermined and suitable level of probability (Snieder & Larner, 2009).

Sample and Sampling

The sections below outline the sampling procedures utilised as well as sampling criteria within the targeted population for this area of enquiry. There is also a detailed breakdown of the final sample of 150 participants that was obtained within this research endeavour after the data cleaning process had been concluded.

The objective of any sample is to be able to make inferences pertaining to the general population from which that sample data was derived. As such, the goal is to limit sampling error as far as possible by using stringent sampling procedures. These sampling procedures are outlined below, with the intent being to try account for natural differences that are likely

to occur between the sample and the corresponding natural population (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012).

Sampling Procedure

The target sample for the proposed research were working professionals over the age of 18 years, who work within the South African context. The intent was not to select participants based on demographic constructs but to rather attain a realistic representation of working individuals in the working world without attempting to manipulate participant characteristics further. Thus, the eligibility of responses for inclusion in the study, the discriminating factor, was individuals who were not currently employed or working for themselves in a context wherein they did not have colleagues. The rationale being that respondents must be employed by an organisation large enough to permit interpersonal dynamics (individuals that were self-employed and/or working in small corporates with less than three people were not eligible to participate). Additionally, due to the medium utilised to collect responses, it was necessary for all research participants to have access to a computer or similar device with internet connectivity. Access to participants was achieved through the use of three mechanisms:

- Gaining access to South African organisations after gaining consent from Human Resource Departments,
- Online social media platforms and
- Subsequent snowball sampling.

Regardless of the mechanism utilised to reach the target population, all participants were provided with a copy of the participant information sheet (refer to Appendix A) and provided with access to the online encrypted survey link. In terms of approaching organisations to participate, Human Resource (HR) directors or business partners were approached via various social networks and provided with the participant information sheet

(refer to Appendix B) as to determine if the organisations that they represent would be willing to participate by providing access to their employees. For organisations that consented to participate in the outlined research, their HR team or administrator was provided with a template email (refer to Appendix C) which could be sent to all employees within the organisation. The template email included an invitation to participate, the participant information sheet and the encrypted survey link.

Data was collected via various surveys that are conducive to online administration, which could be rapidly disseminated via an online encrypted survey link either internally within an organisation or through a survey platform to individuals within the South African working population. Virtual social networks, such as Facebook and LinkedIn, were also utilised to distribute the survey, in addition to direct requests to individuals to complete the survey. A Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form (refer to Appendices B and D) was provided to comply with ethical considerations, clearly stipulating the purpose of the research, benefits of participation, assurance of confidentiality, and anonymity. The Participant Information Sheet also clearly stated that the responses collected would only be used for research purposes. In addition, respondents were required to tick the consent form before proceeding to fill in the survey. Respondents, on completing the survey via virtual social networks, were requested to forward the survey link to other individuals that met the criteria for participation (namely, individuals over 18 years of age and not self-employed within an organisation of less than three individuals), creating an exponential discriminative snowball sample. Snowball sampling is frequently utilised in social research, particularly when the identified population for research is not located in a specific space and entails the researcher asking participants who partake in the research to give the researcher access to their peers/colleagues from the same population (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). A non-probabilistic sampling strategy of working professionals occurred as a result.

A non-probabilistic sampling strategy yielded various advantages, such as permitting for the swift and cost-effective collection of data from a heterogenous population of South African working professionals. However, the limitation associated with this survey procedure is primarily one of community bias, due to the anticipated difficulty of working professions who may have limited time or interest in participating in research which is not directly related to their work. In theory, it is also likely that respondents would forward the survey to individuals in their social/working networks that were also likely to be very similar to them, and avoid individuals with potentially differing profiles or characteristics, therefore manipulating the characteristics of the sample (Saunders et al., 2016). An additional concern pertains to non-response bias and this is the rationale for the selection of a snowball sampling process to maximise the number of respondents. Although in applying this sampling process, this poses the risk of community bias and potentially a non-representative sample.

Sample Description

The demographic information of the sample is provided in Table 2 below. In terms of the sample gathered, most of the sample appeared to be Caucasian 74.7%, with Black (10.0%), Coloured (8.0%) and Indian (7.3%) participants comprising the remainder of the sample group. In terms of the gender distribution, slightly more woman completed the survey (58.0%) than men (42.0%). In regard to the age distribution, the sample comprised predominantly of participants between the ages of 25-34 years (58.7%), followed by participants between the ages of 35-44 years (18.0%). Participants between the age of 45-54 and 55-64 years represented 11.3% and 4.0% of the sample respectively, whilst participants between the ages of 18-24 years represented 8.0% of the sample (refer to Appendix E).

Table 2

Demographic Information from the Sample

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	18-24	12	8.0
	25-34	88	58.7
	35-44	27	18.0
	45-54	17	11.3
	55-64	6	4.0
Gender	Male	87	58.0
	Female	63	42.0
Race	Black	15	1.0
	Coloured	12	8.0
	Indian	11	7.3
	White	112	74.7
Education	Degree	29	19.3
	Secondary	27	18.0
	Diploma	24	16.0
	Post-graduate	70	46.7
Job Level	Administrator	23	15.3
	Executive	8	5.3
	Individual Contributor / Consultant / Professional	66	44.0
	Intern	4	2.7
	Middle Manager	20	13.3
	Senior Manager	18	12.0
	Team Leader	11	7.3
Tenure	Less than 6 months	7	4.7
	6 months - 1 year	18	12.0
	1-2 years	29	19.3
	2-3 years	19	12.7
	3-5 years	26	17.3
	5-10 years	30	20.0
	10 or more years	21	14.0
Industry	Banking/Insurance/Finance	25	16.7
	Consulting	45	3.0
	Engineering/ Construction/ Mining	11	7.3
	Health Care	9	6.0
	Information Technology	12	8.0
	Manufacturing	12	8.0

Other	17	11.3
Retail/ Marketing	11	7.3
Transport/Logistics	8	5.3
Total	150	100.0

Most of the sample appeared to be in possession of postgraduate degrees (46.7%). Further to this, the number of participants with degrees (19.3%), post-matric diplomas (16.0%) and matric certificates (14.7%) were quite similar. Whilst only 3.3% had a grade 10/11 (which indicates only a small number of the sample had not achieved a matric certificate). For this reason, it was decided to combine responses from individuals who either had a matric or grade 10/11 into a combined category of 'secondary education' resulting in this group comprising 18.0% of the overall sample. In terms of job level, most of the sample reported that they were employed in individual contributor/professional roles (44.0%), followed by administrative roles (15.3%). The representation of middle managers (13.3%) and senior managers (12.0%) within the sample was quite similar. Finally, the remaining 15.3% of the sample comprised of Team leaders (7.3%), Executives (5.3%) and Interns (2.7%) respectively (refer to Appendix E).

The majority of participants reported working for organisations in excess of 500 employees (37.0%) or alternatively, in organisations of between 11 and 50 employees (33.0%). Due to uncertainties regarding the accuracy of the data combined above, for instance, individuals known to be from the same organisation reporting significantly different organisational sizes, it was determined that despite this being a potentially interesting area of inquiry, this demographic variable would not form part of secondary descriptive statistics at a later point. Finally, in terms of job tenure reported, the greatest number of participants were in the category 5-10 years (20.0%) and 1-2 years (19.3%), followed closely by 3-5 years (17.3%), 10 or more years (14.0%), 2-3years (12.7%) and 6 months to 1 year (12.0%). Less than 6 months (4.7%) made up the remainder of the sample (refer to Appendix E).

As there were too many varying organisations within the sample of respondents, it was further decided to cluster certain industries into the category ‘other’ if that job industry represented less than 5% of the sample responses. Furthermore, certain industries were logically combined, for example combining mining, construction and engineering into one industry category. In the end, analysis was conducted on the following organisational groups, namely, Banking/Insurance/Finance, Consulting, Engineering/Construction/Mining, Healthcare, Information Technology, Manufacturing, Retail/ Marketing, Transport/Logistics and Other. This decision was made as it would have been difficult to draw statistically valid conclusions for the remaining industries (refer to Appendix E).

Organisational Sample

One organisation in particular was approached which was a global management consulting firm, although only employees based within the South African office were eligible to participate in this research. Within this organisation it was possible to gain access to many individual contributors, teams and leaders as well as individuals from different educational backgrounds. The environment was described by the Manager of Talent Solutions, as a high-pressure context in which individuals need to manage their stress levels effectively in order to achieve their objectives.

Permission for employees to participate in the study was requested from a departmental manager within a human capital consulting firm. Other organisations were also formally approached but the organisation mentioned above was the only organisation to agree to an organisational-wide distribution of the research survey. Once this permission had been granted, all employees were sent email correspondence (refer to Appendix C) from the contact person in the organisation containing an encrypted link to anonymously complete the various surveys. As previously stated, all participants were required to be working

professionals over the age of 18 with access to a computer or smart phone device and the internet and in employment in an organisation of more than three people at the time of completing the surveys.

Social Media

To further enhance the sample size, it was decided to share the encrypted link on social media platforms such as LinkedIn and Facebook. On these platforms, it was specified that participation was voluntary and completely anonymous for participants over the age of 18 and in employment in an organisation of more than three people at the time of completing the survey. A link to the participant information sheet (refer to Appendix A) was provided as well as the contact details of the researcher should the participants have any additional questions or require support.

The use of social medial was also intended and is deemed to have been successful in increasing access to a more diverse range of organisations and individuals who may have been interested in partaking in this research. All participants completing the link via social media or snowball sampling were directed to the same survey link as the organisational participants and, as such, received an identical participant information sheet and surveys. Once data was downloaded, as part of the data cleaning process, the IP addresses of all respondents as well as any other personally identifying data were deleted to ensure the participants' anonymity and confidentiality was guaranteed before commencing with any form of data analysis or reporting.

Instruments

The following instruments were utilised to measure the constructs outlined above in order to answer the stated research objectives and questions:

Self-Developed Biographical Survey

In order to collect demographic information from participants a biographical survey was utilised. This included questions pertaining to gender, age, race, highest educational qualifications and length of tenure at their current employer (refer to Appendix F). The biographical survey did not record any personally identifying details so to protect the identity of individuals who chose to participate in this research. The purpose of collecting demographics was to describe the sample collected and enable secondary analysis to determine if there were differences in the variables being investigated within these different demographic splits.

The Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS; Cortina, 2001)

The Workplace Incivility scale (WIS) was used as a measure of workplace incivility and consists of 10 items that assess the frequency with which respondents have experienced each of the statements provided to them (Cortina, 2001). A 5-point Likert scale is used ranging from (1) “once or twice a year” to (5) “every day”, with higher scores being indicative of greater exposure to workplace incivility. Overall levels of workplace incivility were calculated by averaging the total points for each item. The minimum total score a participant could receive is 1, while the maximum total score a participant could receive is 5. An example of a sample item is: “During the past year while employed at your organisations, have you been in a situation where your supervisor/co-workers addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately” (refer to Appendix G – Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina, 2001)~~Appendix G – Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina, 2001)~~).

Cortina (2001) reported a Cronbach’s alpha of .89 for the items utilised in the WIS, demonstrating high reliability and cohesiveness. An adapted version of Cortina’s WIS was

validated in the South African banking industry and yielded Cronbach alpha scores ranging between .76 and .91, indicating acceptable reliability coefficients for use in a South African sample (Smidt, de Beer, Brink, & Leiter, 2016). The Cronbach alpha within the current research endeavour was .90, demonstrating a high degree of internal consistency reliability.

The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour-Checklist (Spector, 2010)

In order to measure OCB, the OCB 10-item survey was used (Spector, 2010). The OCB-C-10 requires participants to respond to 10 self-reported statements on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) "never" to (5) "every day" according to how often the participant reports engaging in the behaviours presented in the statement items. Higher scores on this scale are indicative of an individual more frequently engaging in OCB, whilst lower scores would allude to a more modest predisposition or perhaps disinclination to engage in OCB. Overall levels of OCB were calculated by averaging the total points for each item. The minimum total score a participant could receive was 1, while the maximum total score a participant could receive was 5. A sample item includes: "How often have you done each of the following things on your present job? Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge." (refer to Appendix H).

Various reiterations of the OCB-C have returned Cronbach alpha scores ranging between .89 and .94 (Spector, n.d.) indicating excellent scale internal consistency reliability. In the South African context, the 20-item version of Spector's OCB Checklist provided an internal consistency reliability ranging between .79 and .85 (Herholdt, 2015). The OCB-C-10 was selected due to ease for participant completion due to its shorter length as well as sound psychometric properties (internal consistency reliability) for the items contained in this survey regardless of version (Herholdt, 2015; Spector, 2010, n.d.). The Cronbach alpha

within the current research endeavour was .87, demonstrating a high degree of internal consistency reliability.

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer & Allen, 1991)

Meyer and Allen (1991) developed and refined a measure of OC, namely, the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) that measures three dimensions of commitment, including affective, continuance and normative organisational commitment. The survey consists of 24 items which make use of a 7-point Likert scale ranging for (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree", with some items being negatively phrased necessitating reverse scoring for these items. Overall levels of OC were calculated by averaging the total points for each item that loaded onto the three dimensions of OC, taking into consideration reverse coding. The minimum total score a participant could receive was 1, while the maximum total score a participant could receive was 7 for each sub-scale as well as an overall measure of OC.

Item responses were then averaged for the three facets to provide a composite commitment score. In a South African study, this instrument yielded a Cronbach alpha score of between .74 and .83 (Dockel, Basson, & Coetzee, 2006) representing strong scale reliability. This scale within the South African context has provided Cronbach alpha values ranging from .73 to .87 (Bagraim, 2003) indicating that the tool is suitable for use with a South African sample. A sample item includes: "One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here" (refer to Appendix I).

The OCQ, apart from providing an indication of overall OC, also provides insights into the three sub-components of contemporary OC discussed above, namely:

I. Affective commitment

II. Continuance commitment

III. Normative commitment.

For the purposes of this research, only the overall calculation of OC was utilised and not the corresponding sub-components. The combination of these three components within the TCM provide an indication of an individual's overall OC (Supriyanto, 2016). The Cronbach alpha within the current research endeavour was .80, demonstrating a high degree of internal consistency reliability.

The Counterproductive Work Behaviour-Checklist (Spector, 2010)

Spector's (2010) 10-item short version of the Counterproductive Work Behaviour-Checklist (CWB-C-10) was utilised to measure CWB. This survey requests participants to rate how frequently they have engaged in the stated behaviours on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) "never" to (5) "every day". Overall levels of CWB were calculated by averaging the total points for each item. The minimum total score a participant could receive was 1, while the maximum total scores a participant could receive was 5.

In this measure, high scores on the scale are suggestive of an inclination to readily engage in CWB, whilst lower scores suggest a lesser likelihood. A sample item includes: "How often have you done each of the following things on your present job? Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies" (refer to Appendix J). The Cronbach alpha score for the measure is reported at .90 (Spector et al., 2006b) indicating excellent scale reliability. However, to the researcher's knowledge, the CWB-C-10 has not been utilised or validated on a South African sample. The Cronbach alpha value within the current research endeavour was .78, demonstrating a high degree of internal consistency reliability.

The Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (Schutte, 1998)

The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) is a tool measuring general Emotional Intelligence (EI) based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model of EI. The SSEIT was chosen as it had been previously utilised in the South African context (Jonker & Vosloo, 2008) and, unlike other alternatives like the EQ-I measure based on the Bar-On model of EI accessible through JvR, it is possible to self-score the SSEIT which made the SSEIT a more suitable choice for the subsequent statistical analysis that would follow.

The assessment requires the participant to indicate the degree to which they agree with the 33 statements contained in the survey on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree". Overall levels of EI were calculated by averaging the total points for each item. Furthermore, the four sub-dimensions of EI were each scored and averaged individually. The minimum total score a participant could receive was 1, while the maximum total score a participant could receive was 5 for each sub-scale as well as an overall measure of EI. High scores on this scale are suggestive of higher EI, whilst lower scores would indicate lower EI. A sample item includes: "I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them." (Refer to Appendix K).

Internal analysis of consistency yielded a Cronbach alpha of .90 for the 33 items utilised in the measure (Schutte, 1998), demonstrating strong scale reliability. Within a South African sample, the SSEIT yielded acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients of .54 to .70 for the various subdimensions measured of the tool (Jonker & Vosloo, 2008).

The SSEIT comprises of four sub-factors, namely:

I. Perception of Emotion
II. Managing Own Emotions
III. Managing Others' Emotions
IV. Utilisation of Emotion

As part of the analysis, the research looked at overall EI as well as the four sub-factors to determine if the sub-factors measured yield any discernible differences from overall EI in their ability to moderate the adverse impact of Workplace Incivility. The Cronbach alpha value within the current research endeavour was .84 for the overall SSEIT instrument, demonstrating a high degree of internal consistency reliability. The Cronbach alpha values for sub-scales I-IV were .83, .77, .74 and .69, respectively, demonstrating an acceptable degree of internal consistency reliability for the sub-scales as well. However, it is important to note that after conducting an exploratory factor analysis, the four sub-factors of the SSEIT were not established within the sample and an adapted four-factor structure has been proposed in the Chapter 3: Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis below (refer to page 97). The presence of differing factors to the SSEIT four sub-factor model has also been observed by Jonker and Vosloo (2008) within the South African context who proposed a six-factor structure for the SSEIT instrument.

Procedure

In order to gain access to the target population outlined above, the researcher approached the Human Resource departments within various South African organisations who were provided with an information sheet (physically or via email), providing an overview of the purpose of the study (refer to Appendix B). For organisations that chose to participate, their Human Resources department was provided with a template email that could be emailed to employees internally (refer to Appendix C). In addition to approaching organisations to participate, individuals were approached directly, via social networks, such as Facebook and LinkedIn, to overcome geographical limitations. This survey was conducted over a four-month period and it is estimated to have taken approximately 30-minutes for respondents to complete. Any respondent that completed the survey twice was flagged and

their second completion of the survey was deleted. Identified individuals as well as employees in participating organisations who elected to participate in the research outlined in the participant information sheet (refer to Appendix A) were provided with a link via email which enabled them to access a secure encrypted website where they could fill in the survey. Individuals who had completed the survey themselves were encouraged to forward the survey on to colleagues and peers with the intent of creating an exponential discriminative snowball sample. To this end, response patterns within the sample suggest that this strategy was successful as a means of collecting data when considering the clusters of industries that responded. At the end of the four-month period, the link to the survey was deactivated, and all responses recorded were kept in a password protected computer leading up the point of data analysis and will remain stored in this way post-analysis.

As part of the participant information sheet (refer to Appendix A), participants were made aware that findings from the analysis of the data would be published in the University of the Witwatersrand online research repository. It was further explained that this analysis could be utilised for publication and conference proceedings. All findings presented in this fashion will remain completely anonymous and confidentiality has been ensured by not recording any personally identifying data. In addition, all publications and presentations of the findings from this research are done in the form of general trends only, thus ensuring that no single participant's responses or organisational cohort can be identified.

Data Analysis

The data was collected via the Google Survey platform and was automatically captured into an Excel document, which aided in reducing data capturing errors that are often associated with manually capturing data or using a paper and pencil method (Strader, 2012). The aim for this study was to reach at least 150 viable responses based on the criteria outlined

above. At the end of the data collection process when the survey was finally deactivated, 155 responses had been collected. Thereafter, data analysis began with 150 viable survey responses being utilised for subsequent analyses. The data analyses and statistical methods utilised in this research endeavour included:

- Cleaning of the data
- Internal Consistency Reliabilities
- Descriptive Statistics
- Exploratory Factor Analysis
- Pearson's Correlation Coefficients
- Moderated Multiple Regression (MMR)
- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The data analysis thereof was conducted using IBM Statistics SPSS 24. The results from these analyses will be detailed in Chapter 3. However, a description of these methods and techniques are outlined below.

Cleaning Data

It was determined from the onset of this research endeavour that as part of good practice, data cleaning was necessary as a preliminary step before further statistical analysis could commence. There were 155 participants who completed the surveys (any incomplete responses were immediately discarded). However, there were five participants who did not meet the criteria stipulated above in Sample and Sampling. These criteria were then revised:

- All participants partaking should be between the ages of 18 and 65 years, and
- who are not self-employed.

The last criterion (who are not self-employed) was later disregarded if the participants did not also meet the other elimination criteria, as the rationale was that self-employed

individuals collaborating with or managing a team would still have opportunities to experience the variables being measured and would provide an additional area of analysis. This resulted in 150 participant responses being utilised for the final statistical analyses.

In addition, there were a few items within the survey questions that were recoded as these items needed to be reverse scored. This included items 4, 5, 6 and 8 from the Affective commitment scale, items 1 and 4 in the Continuance commitment scale and items 2, 3 and 8 from the Normative commitment scale in the OCQ (refer to Appendix I). Furthermore, items 5, 28 and 33 from the SSEIT (refer to Appendix K) were also reverse-scored items which necessitated them being re-coded.

Finally, when cleaning the data, before analysis it was decided to combine certain related industry groups, for example, combining mining, construction and engineering into one industry category and classifying industries that represented less than 5% of the sample responses into an 'other' category.

Internal Consistency Reliability

Thereafter, the next stage in the data analysis process was to calculate the Cronbach alpha coefficients of the various research instruments utilised. A Cronbach's alpha is defined as a "generalisation of the Kuder-Richardson formula that estimates the average of all split-half reliability correlations when each test item has more than two responses" (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012, p. 591). This overcame the limitations of the Kuder-Richardson formula that was not well suited to responses that had more than two options, like Likert scales. The formula for a Cronbach's alpha is as follows:

$$\alpha = \frac{N\bar{c}}{\bar{v} + (N-1)\bar{c}}$$

This was conducted in order to investigate the freedom from measurement error and reliability of the scales for Workplace Incivility, CWB, OCB, OC and EI. A Cronbach's alpha

score of .7 is generally regarded as acceptable for research in the social sciences, with anything lower indicating a sub-optimal level of reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). As such, any scales or sub-scales within this research endeavour that produced a Cronbach's alpha score lower than this cut-off level were excluded from further analysis.

Descriptive Statistics

The study used descriptive statistics to examine the frequencies of the demographic variables in the sample. In addition, descriptive statistics were used to establish the normality of the data as this has important implications for specific data analysis techniques which are based on assumptions of normality. The means and standard deviations, minimum and maximum values, skewness and kurtosis coefficients were also analysed for each of the variables under study, that is, workplace incivility, EI, OCB, OC and CWB, to ascertain if the data collected in this study was normally distributed (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). Based on the Central Limit Theorem (CLT), a sample size greater than 30 respondents is considered sufficient for data to be considered to follow a normal distribution (Brase & Brase, 2014). Data was considered to be normally distributed when skewness coefficients fall within the range of -1 and 1 and when the corresponding kurtosis value lies between 3 and -3 (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012).

Assumptions of normality were examined for respondents' responses on all the instruments, namely:

- Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS)
- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Checklist (OCB-C-10)
- Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)
- Counterproductive Work Behaviour Checklist (CWB-C-10)
- Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT).

Skewness and Kurtosis.

Skewness is defined as the distribution of the asymmetry within a dataset. Kurtosis, conversely, "is a measure of the peakedness of a distribution", with a flatter distribution being referred to as a platykurtic and a steeper gradient being called leptokurtic (Pettijohn, Potter, & Siever, 2012, p. 76). Skewness can be calculated by subtracting the mean from the mode of the dataset (Ho & Yu, 2015).

Both skewness and kurtosis provide us with an approximation of the degree of normality of distributions or lack thereof within a dataset. In order for data to be considered normally distributed, skewness coefficients should fall within a range of -1 to 1 whilst kurtosis coefficients should fall within a range of -3 to 3 (Ho & Yu, 2015).

Figure 12

Example of Monomodal Distributions



As shown in Figure 12, a normal distribution has a skewness of 0 yielding a 'bell-shaped' or symmetrical curve when the data is visualised on a graph. If the distribution is skewed to the right, this indicates that the mean is more than the median and as such has a positive skewness, whilst negative skewness would indicate that the median is more than the mean and that the data would be skewed to the left (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2013).

Once the means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values, skewness and kurtosis coefficients were also analysed for each of the variables under study, the study proceeded to conduct factor analyses on EI and the four corresponding sub-scales.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to determine the fundamental factor structure of EI, before the relationship between the other outcome variables could be analysed. This step was necessary as the SSEIT measure of EI is not a singular construct of EI and consists of four sub-components (perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilisation of emotion; Schutte, 1998). As such, the EFA was performed for the purposes of this research to ensure that the same constructs that were purported in the SSEIT were evident within this current sample. This was necessary to determine the underlying factor structure of the SSEIT before the relationship with the other variables could be analysed.

An EFA is a statistical technique utilised to identify and importantly explore the underlying factor structure of this group of variables with the added advantage of not imposing a determined structure on the output. Before an EFA could be conducted, there were certain assumptions pertaining to the data that needed to be met:

- The variables must be measured by at least on an interval scale
- The data must be normally distributed
- There must be the presence of random, independent sampling
- There must be no outliers in the dataset
- The sample size must be larger than 200
- There must be sphericity in the dataset
- There must be the existence of a correlation of at least .3 between the variables

- There must be homogeneity/homoscedasticity, meaning that the error variances of the dataset are the same for all possible combinations of independent variables (Field, 2013).

In regard to the sample size being smaller than required in the present study, Field (2009) has noted that different 'rules of thumb' have been established in terms of minimum sample sizes, with some suggesting that a minimum sample size of 10 participants per variable is sufficient. Based on this 'rule of thumb', the current sample size would then be sufficient (Williams, Onsman, & Brown, 2010). Nevertheless, the adequacy of the sample size was further tested using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. The KMO is an assessment of the proportion of variance amongst the identified variables that is likely to be a common variance. Values for the KMO range from 0 to 1, wherein values above .5 are considered suitable in terms of sample size (Williams et al., 2010).

In addition to this, sphericity was tested utilising bartlett's test of sphericity, which is a technique to determine if there are redundancies between variables in the study. In this instance, the value from the bartlett's test of sphericity should be statistically significant in order for the variables to be suitable for running an EFA (Williams et al., 2010). Eigenvalues as well as a Cattell's scree plot were used to determine the number of factors used to describe the SSEIT tool. Eigenvalues serve to condense the variance of each factor in a correlation matrix. Any items with a value greater than 1 were retained in the analysis as they signify common factors worth analysing (Field, 2009). Following from this, the Cattell's scree plot assists to visualise the eigenvalues obtained in a plotted graph (Catell, 1966). This aided in determining the number of factors to retain in the factor analysis. A cattell's scree plot plots the eigenvalues obtained in descending order of their reported degree against their factor numbers and ascertaining where the visualised slope levels off. This 'level off' refers to the

point in the scree plot where the steep slope breaks and indicates the number of meaningful factors (D'agostino & Russell, 2005).

Velicer's minimum average partial (MAP) as well as parallel analysis were also conducted to further ensure the robustness of these analyses (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004). A MAP test seeks to determine what factors are common and serves to identify the best factor solution, rather than to find the cut-off point for the number of factors (Ledesma & Valero-Mora, 2007). Parallel analysis is a Monte Carlo simulation technique wherein the focus is placed on determining the number of factors obtained from the actual data are likely to account for more variance than components derived from a random data source (Laher, 2011). Both parallel analysis and the MAP test should result in the same decision regarding the number of factors to retain (Bernstein, 2013).

Pearson's Correlation Coefficients

It was determined, based on the sample size as well as the distribution of the data, that a pearson's correlation coefficient would be the most appropriate means to determine if a correlation, that is a relationship, exists between workplace incivility and CWB, OCB and OC. Thus, this method enabled the researcher to answer research questions I to VI (refer to page 59).

A Pearson's correlation coefficient is defined as "correlation used to evaluate linear (straight-line) relationships" and is commonly utilised in behavioural research (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012, p. 596). The coefficient produced by a Pearson correlation coefficient calculation provide a value ranging from -1 to 1, and this calculation estimates the degree of a linear relationship between the variables in question. A correlation of 1 will indicate a perfect positive linear relationship, whereas a value of -1 would indicate a perfect negative linear relationship. Scores nearing 0 would indicate a lower or non-existent relationship between the

variables being measured in this research (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). The formula for a Pearson's correlation coefficient is as follows (Levin & Fox, 2014):

$$r = \frac{SP}{\sqrt{SS_x\, SS_y}}$$

In order to run a Pearson's correlation there are a few basic assumptions that need to be met (Ong, Roberts, Arthur, Woodman, & Akehurst, 2016), including:

- The existence of a linear relationship between variables denoted as X and Y
- The variables denoted as X and Y must be independent of one another
- Random independent sampling must be utilised as part of the research design
- The variables denoted as X and Y must be continuous and randomly distributed variables
- The variables denoted as X and Y must be interval or ratio in measurement
- The variables denoted as X and Y must be normally distributed
- There must be homogeneity in variance.

In relation to this study, it was assumed that all the above criteria had been met as the independent and dependent variables were independent of one another at a construct level. With regards to random assignment, it is acknowledged that complete random independent sampling could not be guaranteed, although it was assumed that most individuals in the target population, namely working professionals, would have access to either a computer or smart phone in order to access the survey and therefore have equal opportunity to participate in the research. This assumption is supported by data released by the Independent Communications Authority of South Africa (ICASA) which reported that smart phone penetration within South Africa has now reached over 80% of the population (ICASA, 2019). As such, it was determined that it was safe to assume that the target population would have equal opportunity to participate in the research.

Moderated Multiple Regressions (MMR)

With the intention of answering the other research questions posed, namely research questions I to VI (refer to page 59), it was necessary to compute a Moderated Multiple Regression (MMR) between the identified outcomes variables (CWB, OCB, OC) as to determine if the moderating variable (EI) has any influence on the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. This technique was developed by Saunders (1956) from standard multiple regression. MMR aims to test for significance, as to explain the observed variance in each of the dependent variables as a consequence of the independent variable, identified moderating variable and the interaction term. The interaction term is the joint effect of two variables accounting for the variance in the dependent variable in addition to the combination of their individual effects upon the independent variable. The MMR technique of data analysis, therefore, offers a more comprehensive explanation of the dependent variable (Cohen, 1978).

In order to successfully compute an MMR, there are a number of assumptions or criteria that must first be fulfilled (Field, 2013), such as:

- The dependent variables ought to be interval or ratio in scale
- The presence of only one independent variable
- There must be independence of observations (independence of residuals)
- There must be a linear relationship between the dependent variables and the independent variable for each group of the moderator variable
- There needs to be homoscedasticity (homoscedasticity is when the recorded error variances of the data are all consistent with all possible combinations of independent and moderator variables)
- An absence of multicollinearity (multicollinearity occurs when two or more independent variables are highly correlated)

- There must not be any significant outliers
- The residuals (errors) must be normally distributed.

Independence of observations could be presumed, as all respondents within this study who had completed the surveys only had one set of scores and were therefore only sampled once. Some surveys are known to have been completed by individuals that work for the same organisation due to the sampling design, but individual responses are still unique and there is no evidence to suggest that individuals' responses to the survey would be linked in any way, therefore, one can assume that the observations are independent.

A simple slope analysis would also need to be conducted in instances where significant moderation is established between variables.

Secondary Analysis of Biographical Variables

Although a secondary analysis did not form part of the research questions, a secondary analysis of the biographical variables was explored to determine if any differences exist with regards to Workplace Incivility and factors such as race, gender, age, level of education or tenure.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Single-factor analysis of variance or one-way ANOVAs were conducted to establish if there were discernible differences in the levels of Workplace Incivility experienced between various races, genders, ages, levels of education and tenure groups.

An ANOVA is a statistical technique utilised to determine if the means of a variable in question differ from one group to another. The mean for the variable of interest, in this instance Workplace Incivility, is computed for each treatment group or group of interest. This is a form of hypothesis test used to evaluate the mean differences between two or more

separate groups. This involves computing an *F*-ratio to determine if the *F*-ratio is large enough to indicate a statistically significant mean difference (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). For a one-way ANOVA, a number of underlying assumptions must be met (Field, 2013). These are as follows:

- A normal distribution of the data, which requires the assumption of normality
- There should be equality of variance between the groups, requiring that there is homogeneity of variance
- The use of random sampling when collecting data from the population
- Independence of observations, meaning statistical independence of the group of scores that will be analysed
- The dependent variables ought to be interval or ratio in scale.

The results of this secondary analysis of biographical variables are detailed in Chapter 3

Ethical Considerations

Permission to carry out the proposed research was acquired and approved by the University's Ethics Committee – Non-Medical to ensure that the study complied with all ethical obligations. As such, the application was submitted to the University's HREC for the approval of the study before commencing with any data collection. The requirements for ethical clearance were met (refer to Appendix L). The protocol number for ethical clearance is MORG/17/008 UG. Once ethical clearance was obtained, the survey was made available electronically and circulated as described above in the procedure section.

Ethical considerations that were taken into account pertained to informed consent, ensuring anonymity and confidentiality of all participants, not advantaging or disadvantaging potential participants for choosing to participate or not participate, the right to withdraw from participation, voluntary participation and the storage and protection of all data collected

during the course of this research and after the research had been completed (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012).

To ensure that all participants provided informed consent, prospective participants were asked to complete an informed consent form (refer to Appendix D) and were provided with a participant information sheet (refer to Appendix A), outlining the purpose of the research being conducted, that participation thereof is voluntary and anonymous as well as providing contact details for the researcher, supervisor and contact person at the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Witwatersrand should they have any queries or concerns. Moreover, the surveys utilised would not necessitate the participants to identify themselves or provide personally identifying data, such as identity numbers, as to protect participants' identities. Organisations involved in this research also remained anonymous and participants were not asked to disclose who their employers were. Finally, all data collected was stored on secure, password-protected devices that was only accessible to the researcher and research supervisor. This safeguarded that both categories of ethical responsibility (responsibility to ensure the welfare and dignity of participants involved and responsibility to ensure that published reports of the research) are accurate and honest (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012), as well as the conditions of confidentiality and anonymity are fulfilled.

Human Resource departments within South African organisations were provided (physically or via email), with the information sheet (refer to Appendix B) once the study had been approved and clearance had been granted. This sheet provided an overview of the purpose of the study, the voluntary nature of participation and the fact that no employee or organisation were advantaged or disadvantaged in any way if they elected to participate or not participate in the study. Furthermore, the information sheet emphasised that all employees have the right to withdraw from the study before the submission of the survey responses. However, it was necessary to highlight that once the survey is submitted on the online

platform, informed consent would be deemed to have been given and participants were unable to withdraw from the study.

Concerning anonymity and confidentiality, no identifying information was requested on the surveys, such as name, ID number, staff number etc. Consequently, no single employee's responses could be identified and would thus, remain anonymous. It is, however, acknowledged that IP addresses can serve as an identifier of individual responses and as such, all IP addresses were deleted immediately once the data was downloaded by the researcher, and to this end, only the researcher and their supervisor had access to this data, thus further ensuring anonymity is protected throughout the research process. No deception was used in this research endeavour. The information sheet (refer to Appendix A and B) also explained how data and subsequent findings would be stored and how the results would be presented and communicated with participant employees or organisations should they wish to receive feedback on the findings of this research. Participants and organisations were also made aware that the research findings would be published in the University of the Witwatersrand online research repository and may be used for publication and conference proceedings. All findings published in this manner would once more remain completely anonymous and confidentiality would be ensured. In addition, all publications and presentation of these research findings were done in the form of general trends only, thus ensuring that no single participants' responses or organisation could be identified. Finally, all the data was stored in a password protected computer and the results of this research endeavour were presented in the form of a summary that identified general trends with no single employee's or organisational group's responses being identifiable.

In addition to the information sheet provided to the Human Resource departments, participant information sheets were also provided to employees, which contained the same information that is outlined above (refer to Appendix A). If participants did require any

supplementary information regarding the study before or after completing the surveys, they were provided with the researcher and supervisor's contact details within the information sheets. Participants were also advised that if they experienced any adverse impact after completing the survey, they could contact the researcher or supervisor who would arrange counselling or debriefing free of charge for them by clinical/counselling psychologists at the Emthonjeni Centre at the University of the Witwatersrand.

Conclusion

This chapter addressed the overarching research design as well as the research methods utilised within this research endeavour. This further outlined the research questions and hypotheses, research paradigms, sample and sampling procedures, instruments utilised, procedure, data analysis techniques and assumptions underpinning each of these and finally ethical considerations taken into consideration during the course of this research.

The next chapter will provide an overview of the research findings from this research endeavour.

Chapter 3: Results

Introduction

In this chapter what will follow will be a presentation of the results of the statistical analyses attained from the data that was collected as part of the study outlined above. The first results to be presented will be internal consistency reliabilities for all scales and sub-scales of the variables measured. Descriptive statistics concerning the outlined variables will be presented followed by the other statistical analysis techniques applied, specifically, Pearson's correlations, linear regressions, multiple moderated regressions and, finally, a secondary analysis of biographical variables using ANOVA's. Accordingly, the following results will be presented in the order in which the statistical analyses were conducted. This chapter will conclude with a summary of these results.

Internal Consistency Reliability

As a first step in the statistical analysis process, it was necessary to establish the internal consistency reliability for all variables. As such, it was necessary to calculate Cronbach alpha (α) coefficients for each of the five scales as well as the sub-scales within the Schutte (1998) SSEIT measure of EI as well as the OCQ (Meyer & Allen, 1991) measure of OC (refer to Table 3 and Table 4). The reliability coefficients for all of the scales measured demonstrated a high degree of internal consistency reliability. As such, all Cronbach α coefficients were above the recommended and acceptable level ($\alpha = > .7$) as outlined in Chapter 2 above. As all scales met these minimum criteria, none of the scales or any of the items within these scales were excluded from further statistical analysis.

Table 3

Reliability Coefficients for Main Scales

Scale	No. of items	Cronbach alpha (α)
WIS	10	.90
CWB-C-10	10	.76
OCB-C-10	10	.87
OCQ	24	.83
SSEIT	18	.84

Note. WIS = Workplace Incivility Scale. CWB-C-10 = Counterproductive Work Behaviour-Checklist. OCB-C-10 = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Checklist. OCQ = Organisational Commitment Questionnaire. SSEIT = Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test.

With regards to the sub-scales measured for OC, the OCQ sub-scales for affective and continuation commitment yielded an acceptable Cronbach α. However, the analysis showed that by removing item 2 on this scale, "I believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation", the internal consistency reliability for this sub-scale could be improved from .51 to .73 and thus meet the criteria outlined in Chapter 2. This also improved the overall Cronbach α for OCQ to .83.

Table 4

Reliability Coefficients for OCQ Sub-Scales

Scale	No. of items	Cronbach alpha (α)
OCQ-Affective commitment	8	.86
OCQ-Continuation commitment	8	.76
OCQ-Normative commitment	8	.73

Note. OCQ = Organisational Commitment Questionnaire.

Descriptive statistics

To determine levels of workplace incivility, CWB, OCB and OC within the sample, descriptive statistics were computed. These findings are presented in the sections below.

Means and Standard Deviations

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics, skewness and kurtosis values for each variable in the study.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics, Skewness and Kurtosis Values for each Variable

Variable	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range	Kurtosis	Skewness
WIS	1.69	.74	1.00	4.10	3.10	1.37	1.35
CWB-C-10	1.55	.42	1.00	3.40	2.40	2.33	1.22
OCB-C-10	3.38	.70	1.10	5.00	3.90	.40	-.14
OCQ	4.25	.75	2.25	6.00	3.88	.27	-.29
OCQ – Affective commitment	4.31	1.20	1.00	7.00	6.00	-.08	-.33
OCQ – Continuation commitment	4.63	1.20	1.13	6.75	5.63	-.29	-.48
OCQ – Normative commitment	3.83	.79	1.75	5.75	4.00	-.40	.42
EI	3.79	.48	1.95	4.89	2.95	1.25	-.57
EI – Perception of Emotions	3.65	.72	1.50	5.00	3.50	.25	-.53
EI – Emotional Self-Awareness	3.86	.70	1.00	5.00	4.00	1.72	-.94
EI – Motivation	3.96	.63	2.00	5.00	3.00	.83	-.93
EI – Resilience	3.65	.64	2.00	5.00	3.00	-.04	-.16

Note. WIS = Workplace Incivility Scale. CWB-C-10 = Counterproductive Work Behaviour-Checklist. OCB-C-10 = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Checklist. OCQ = Organisational Commitment Questionnaire. EI = Emotional Intelligence.

Based on the results above, and the histograms in Appendix M, levels of workplace incivility in this sample appeared to be relatively low (*M* = 1.69, *SD* = .74; refer to Appendix M, Graph 1) indicating that individuals who participated in the research did not report frequently experiencing workplace incivility. A possibility to be considered here is that these

results might have been impacted by social desirability bias. Social desirability bias is often encountered in surveys that ask about taboo or unsocial topics, such as workplace incivility. As a consequence of respondents experiencing self-presentation concerns, respondents are more likely to underreport socially undesirable activities and, conversely, overreport socially desirable activities (Krumpal, 2013).

Levels of CWB within this sample also appeared to be relatively low (*M* = 1.55, *SD* = .42; refer to Appendix M, Graph 2) further suggesting that social desirability bias may have been present within the sampled group as individuals also reported a very low propensity for engaging in CWB, with very few individuals reporting to frequently partake in these sorts of behaviours.

Conversely, levels of OCB appeared to be slightly high (*M* = 3.38, *SD* = .70; refer to Appendix M, Graph 3). Levels of OCQ, as well as the corresponding sub-scales, appeared to be relatively normal or average (*M* = 4.28, *SD* = .81; refer to Appendix M, Graphs 4-7). Finally, levels of EI, in addition to the corresponding sub-scales, appeared to be slightly high (*M* = 3.79, *SD* = .48; refer to Appendix M, Graphs 8-12).

Normality: Skewness and Kurtosis

Skewness and kurtosis values were utilised to measure the normality of the data. With regards to the distribution of the data collected (refer to Table 2), most of the scales measured yielded a normal distribution: OCB (K = .40, SK = -.14), OC (K = .27, SK = -.29) and EI (K = 1.25, SK = -.57), all falling within a range of -1 to 1 (Ho & Yu, 2015). The only exceptions being the Workplace Incivility (K = 1.37, SK = 1.35) and CWB (K = 1.22, SK = 1.22). This indicates that these scales had a slight positive skew and indicated that these scales would need to be normalised before further statistical analyses would be possible.

In terms of the distribution of the data, it was noted above that the WIS and CWB had a slight positive skew. As a first step, box and whisker plots (refer to Appendix N) were plotted to further analyse the distribution of data and determine if there were any outliers within the data that were causing this skew. This analysis determined that no data points should be removed. As such, logarithmic transformations were necessary to normalise the data.

The kurtosis of the various scales measured all fell within acceptable ranges to show that the data was normally distributed in this regard. Further to the above, histograms were used to establish a normal distribution of the data (refer to Appendix M).

Logarithmic Transformations.

Performing a logarithmic (log) transformation involves transitioning from comparing arithmetic means to comparing geometric means (Field, 2013). Performing a log transformation was necessary to address the normality of the data collected within these scales and enable further statistical analyses where a normal distribution is an assumption for analysis.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics, Skewness and Kurtosis Values after Logarithmic Transformation

Variable	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range	Kurtosis	Skewness
WIS-Log	1.93	1.68	.00	.61	.61	-.53	.67
CWB-C-10-Log	1.75	.11	.00	.53	.53	-.09	.45

Note. WIS = Workplace Incivility Scale. CWB-C-10 = Counterproductive Work Behaviour-Checklist.

Further to the above, histograms were used to establish a normal distribution of the data after the log transformations had been completed (refer to Appendix O).

Central Limit Theorem

Finally, in terms of the descriptive statistics, it was noted that there were some deviations observed in the shapes of the histograms (refer to Appendix M). However, it was determined that this would not be problematic in terms of the current research endeavour for two reasons. Firstly, after the log transformation of the workplace incivility and CWB scales, the assumptions pertaining to kurtosis and skewness showed that all values fell within the acceptable ranges of +3 and -3 for kurtosis and -1 and +1 for skewness. Secondly, the assumption of central limit theorem was felt to have been met. This theory requires that in order for a sample to be considered to be normally distributed, the sample size needs to be greater than 30 (Field, 2009). The sample size for the research in question was fairly large (n = 150) and consequently, it met the above requirement.

Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in order to determine the fundamental factor structure of the workplace incivility scale. This was achieved by conducting maximum likelihood and promax rotation as extraction techniques. These were utilised as they are acknowledged by Field (2009), as some of the most common methods within EFA.

Testing for Assumptions

Before conducting an EFA, a few assumptions needed to be met. This involved testing for sphericity as well as outliers. The normality of the data with respect to the SSEIT was established above (refer to Table 5). Furthermore, correlations between all items measuring EI were examined and are presented below (refer to Table 7). EI was also tested using an interval scale and the sampling process was random and independent in nature.

Table 7

Factorability of the Final Correlation Matrix for the Emotional Intelligence Items

	EI-f11_R	EI-f42	EI-f12	EI-f23	EI-f13	EI-f35	EI-f14	EI-f15	EI-f45	EI-f26	EI-f16	EI-f27	EI-f17	EI-f46	EI-f28_R	EI-f18	EI-f19
EI-f22	.01	.03	.01	.35	.05	.27	-.05	.13	.19	.13	-.02	.19	-.00	.14	.43	-.09	-.06
EI-f11_R	--	.02	.24	.05	.36	.34	.41	.20	.04	.13	.18	.01	.43	-.07	.20	.36	.15
EI-f42		--	.31	.0	.03	.11	-.00	.11	.45	.06	.20	.19	.04	.36	-.01	.03	.17
EI-f12			--	.31	.36	.19	.19	.45	.24	.39	.64	.20	.39	.27	.17	.22	.23
EI-f23				--	.35	.37	.13	.26	.20	.30	.36	.63	.18	.29	.39	.04	.13
EI-f13					--	.48	.52	.34	.15	.19	.37	.25	.58	.23	.24	.35	.44
EI-f35						--	.29	.10	.08	.25	.18	.29	.31	.09	.28	.07	.08
EI-f14							--	.28	.11	.12	.26	.11	.71	.18	-.00	.54	.52
EI-f15								--	.20	.30	.48	.30	.29	.26	.11	.21	.32
EI-f45									--	.01	.19	.24	.09	.49	.01	.04	.20
EI-f26										--	.52	.34	.26	.14	.33	.07	-.02
EI-f16											--	.33	.40	.26	.13	.20	.27
EI-f27												--	.11	.35	.35	-.05	.11
EI-f17													--	.23	.14	.50	.55
EI-f46														--	.06	.25	.38
EI-f28_R															--	-.14	-.02
EI-f18																--	.52

Outliers.

While there was the presence of some extreme scores in the dataset and the impact on the distribution of scores has been discussed above, it is significant to note that no consistent outliers were identified within the collected dataset and the data subsequently normalised to account for these factors.

Sample Size & Sphericity.

The sample size for this research endeavour of 150 participants did not meet the assumptions set out in Chapter 2 above. However, it is noted by Field (2009) that different ‘rules of thumb’ have been established by various theorists, with some suggesting that, at minimum, a sample size of 10 participants per variable is sufficient. Based on this ‘rule of thumb’ the current sample size would meet this requirement (Williams et al., 2010).

As an alternative, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was applied (refer Table 8). The KMO statistic for this research was .78. As this result was above .5, the sample size was deemed suitable to conduct an EFA (Williams et al., 2010).

Table 8

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.778
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square (χ^2)	1047.12
	df	153
	p	<.001

Following from the recommendations of Williams et al. (2010), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also conducted to establish the sphericity within the dataset. The result from this test was significant ($\chi^2(1047.12)$, $p < .001$), indicating that there was sphericity within the data. Thus, this assumption was met.

Exploratory Factor Analysis on Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test

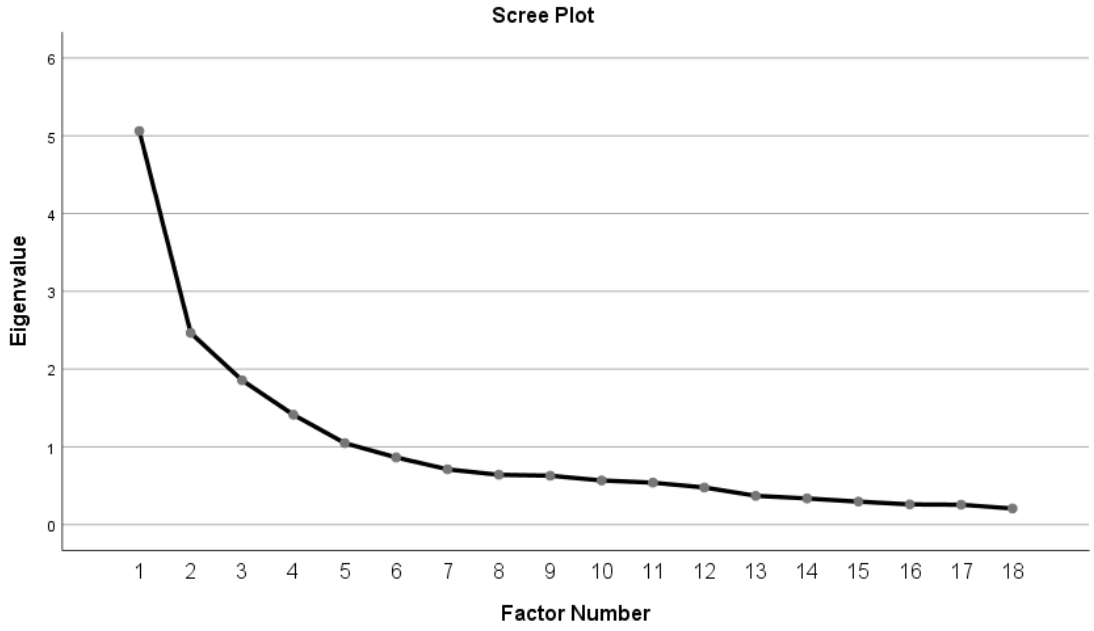
It was necessary to conduct an EFA with maximum likelihood and promax rotation as the SSEIT measure of EI is not a singular construct of EI and consists of four sub-components (perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilisation of emotion; Schutte, 1998). Maximum likelihood is a commonly used extraction method in factor analysis (Williams et al., 2010). The eigenvalues obtained in this analysis are presented in the scree plot (refer to Figure 13) below.

Following the methods mentioned above, a preliminary EFA was conducted not limiting the number of factors that could be extracted. This provided credence that the SSEIT was not a single factor model, although this method returned nine different factors and due to substantial factor cross-loading and poor percentage of variance explained by this model, it

was determined to limit the number of factors to five. The occurrence of differing factors to the SSEIT four sub-factor model has also been observed by Jonker and Vosloo (2008) within the South African context who proposed a six-factor structure for the SSEIT instrument. This provides merit to considering other factor models for the SSEIT instrument.

Figure 13

Exploratory Factor Analysis Scree Plot



In the first iteration of a five-factor model, the first factor of the SSEIT accounted for 21.22% of the variance. However, the pattern matrix showed that items EI-f38, EI-f31, EI-f32, EI-f21 and EI-f41 loaded with values of less than .30. As such, it was decided to remove these items from subsequent analyses.

In the second iteration of the five-factor model, the first factor of the SSEIT now accounted for 22.67% of the variance, indicating that the removal of those items had improved the robustness of the model. However, the pattern matrix now showed that items EI-f43, EI-f29 and EI-f25 loaded with values less than .30 subsequent to items being removed

for this iteration. As such, it was decided to also remove these items from subsequent analyses in order to further refine the EFA.

In the third iteration of the five-factor model, when evaluating the pattern matrix, it was noted that EI-f37 was cross-loading on factor one (.37) and factor five (.38). Whilst these both met the minimum threshold set as an initial criterion, and given that the correlation to both factors was similar, it was decided to remove this item as it did not clearly load onto either factor and its loading was not very high.

Upon the fourth iteration of the five-factor model, it was noted that there were six items that loaded onto the fifth factor, however three of the items also had cross-loadings. At this stage, the fifth factor was appearing to be problematic, not only due to cross-loadings but the eigenvalue for the fifth factor had dropped to .95 which was below the 1.0 minimum criteria for an eigenvalue as outlined in Chapter 2: Exploratory Factor Analysis (refer to page 83). As such, it was decided to reduce the model to four-factors.

Upon the first iteration of the refined four-factor model, the first factor of the SSEIT now accounted for 22.20% of the variance. The analysis of the pattern matrix now showed that items EI-f33 and EI-f34 no longer loaded with values greater than .30. As such, it was decided to remove these items from the subsequent analyses in order to further refine the EFA.

In the second iteration of the four-factor model, the first factor of the SSEIT now accounted for 23.41% of the variance, indicating that the removal of those items and reduction in the overall number of factors had improved the robustness of the remaining factors. When evaluating the pattern matrix, it was noted that EI-f44 was cross-loading on factor three (.47) and factor four (.47). Whilst these both met the minimum threshold set as an initial criterion, and given that the correlation to both factors was similar, it was decided to remove this item as it did not clearly load on either factor. Analysis of the item question

further supported this decision since item EI-f44 (“When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me”) seemed to correlate with both factors and did not seem to aid in distinguishing between the factor constructs adequately.

In the third iteration of the four-factor model and moving towards a further refinement of the EFA, the minimum loading for all items was adjusted to .40. With this refinement to the criteria and when evaluating the pattern matrix, it was noted that EI-f110_R no longer loaded with a value greater than .40 (.34) and was subsequently removed. The removal of this item improved the percentage of variance explained by the first factor of the SSEIT to 24.20% in the fourth iteration of the four-factor model. Following on with the revised criteria and when evaluating the pattern matrix, it was noted that EI-f36 no longer loaded with a value greater than .40 (.32) and was subsequently removed.

In the fifth iteration of the four-factor model, the first factor of the SSEIT now accounted for 25.31% of the variance, indicating that the removal of those items and reduction in the overall number of factors had improved the robustness of the remaining factors. However, the eigenvalue for factor four had dropped below 1.0. The evaluation of the pattern matrix showed that EI-f24 was only just meeting the minimum criteria to load onto factor two (.44). It was decided to remove this item as there was a cross-loading with factor three (.35) that would have met the initial criteria set for the EFA. Analysis of the item question further supported this decision since item EI-f24 (“When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last”) seemed to correlate with both factors and did not seem to aid in distinguishing between the factor constructs adequately.

In the final iteration of the four-factor model, the first factor of the SSEIT now accounted for 25.33% of the variance, further reaffirming that the removal of those items and reduction in the overall number of factors had improved the robustness of the remaining factors. This was decided to be the final four-factor model for the SSEIT in this research

endeavour as all factors met the criteria outlined above. The final pattern matrix, showing the factor loadings of each SSEIT item to the final four factors is presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Final Pattern Matrix

	Factor 1 – Perceptions of Emotion	Factor 2 – Emotional self-awareness	Factor 3 – Motivation	Factor 4 – Resilience
EI-f14	**.87**	-.09	.01	-.04
EI-f17	**.81**	.14	.00	-.08
EI-f18	**.68**	-.02	-.22	.10
EI-f19	**.64**	-.08	-.12	.34
EI-f13	**.59**	.07	.27	-.02
EI-f11_R	**.51**	.07	.10	-.27
EI-f16	.01	**.91**	-.13	.04
EI-f12	.05	**.72**	-.09	.10
EI-f26	-.08	**.62**	.18	-.16
EI-f15	.14	**.43**	.01	.15
EI-f23	-.04	.12	**.65**	.17
EI-f28_R	-.04	.03	**.64**	-.14
EI-f22	-.08	-.21	**.58**	.11
EI-f27	-.11	.12	**.56**	.27
EI-f35	.30	-.06	**.54**	-.13
EI-f46	.10	-.04	.10	**.72**
EI-f45	-.03	-.04	.09	**.63**
EI-f42	-.12	.14	-.06	**.51**

Note. Factor loadings over .40 appear in bold.

As seen in Table 10 there were four eigenvalues that was greater than 1.0. This is further supported by the scree plot (refer to Figure 13). The first factor of the SSEIT accounted for 25.34% of the explained variance. These four factors combined accounted for 48.93% of the total explained variance. As such, it appears that the EFA supports an adapted four-factor structure for the SSEIT utilised. Based on the eigenvalues, the scree plot and the proportion of variance explained, four factors were extracted.

Table 10

Eigenvalues and Proportion of Variance

	Eigenvalues	Proportion of Variance
EI Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotion)	4.56	25.34
EI Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness)	1.94	10.79
EI Factor 3 (Motivation)	1.21	6.74
EI Factor 4 (Resilience)	1.09	6.06

As a further confirmation of the four-factor model proposed above and in order to supplement the eigenvalues, parallel analysis as well as Zwick and Velicer's (1986) minimum average partial (MAP) tests were conducted. A MAP test involves computing a principal component analysis followed by an analysis of matrices of partial correlations. A second recommendation when determining the number of factors involves "extracting eigenvalues from random datasets that parallel the actual dataset with regard to the number of cases and variables" (O'Connor, 2000, p. 397). An MAP and parallel analysis were conducted based on the programme by O'Connor (2000) for SPSS. These methods further confirmed the four-factor model established above.

Internal Consistency Reliabilities of refined EI scales

As a follow on from the above, it was deemed necessary to ensure that the internal consistency reliability of the EI scale and sub-scales had maintained their integrity after the new four-factor model had been delineated. Cronbach α analyses indicated that all sub-scales of the four-factor model for the moderating variable had an acceptable level of internal consistency (refer to Table 11).

Table 11

Reliability Coefficients for the Emotional Intelligence Scale and Sub-Scales

Scale	No. of items	Cronbach alpha (α)
Overall EI Scale	18	.84
Factor 1 – Perceptions of Emotion	6	.83
Factor 2 – Emotional Self-Awareness	4	.77
Factor 3 – Motivation	5	.74
Factor 4 – Resilience	3	.69

Pearson's Correlation Coefficients

As a next step in the analysis, Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated to establish if a relationship existed between workplace incivility, CWB, OCB, OC and EI. This further served to describe the nature of the relationship between these variables. A few assumptions were checked and confirmed before the data was analysed.

Testing for Assumptions

After conducting the log transformations in order to normalise the data for the scales measuring workplace incivility and CWB, all assumptions of a Pearson's correlation coefficient were satisfactorily met. All of the variables measured were measured on an interval scale and the sampling techniques were random in nature.

Correlation Coefficients

Table 12 presents the correlations between the variables in the study. Supplementary to the above, it is clear that workplace incivility was positively, significantly, and moderately related to CWB ($r = .53$, $p < .01$). This suggests that increased exposure to workplace incivility in an organisation appears to be linked to an increased likelihood for the individual to engage in CWB. However, there were no significant correlations identified between workplace incivility and the two other independent variables, OCB and OC.

Despite not being a focal point for this research, it was observed that EI was significantly correlated with all of the other variables measured in this study (all *ps* < .01). This demonstrated positive, albeit weak relationships to OCB (*r* = .23) and OC (*r* = .20), as well as negative weak relationships to workplace incivility (*r* = -.26) and CWB (*r* = -.30). This proposes that individuals with higher overall levels of EI are more likely to engage in OCB and OC as well as being less likely to report experiencing workplace incivility or engage in CWB.

Table 12

Pearson's Correlations for Workplace Incivility, CWB, OCB, OC and EI

	CWB	OCB	OC	EI	EI-PE	EI-SA	EI-M	EI-R
WIS	.53**	.16	-.14	-.26**	-.11	-.22**	-.37**	-.00
CWB	--	.00	-.18	-.30**	-.17*	-.24**	-.36**	-.00
OCB		--	.15	.23**	.14	.15	.16	.27**
OC			--	.20*	.14	.15	.17*	.09
EI				--	.75**	.79**	.66**	.50**
EI-PE					--	.41**	.23**	.18*
EI-SA						--	.40**	.30**

Note. ∗ = $p < .05$, ∗∗ = $p < .01$. WIS = Workplace Incivility Scale. CWB = Counterproductive Work Behaviour. OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. OC = Organisational Commitment. EI = emotional intelligence. EI-PE = Perceptions of Emotion factor. EI-SA = Emotional Self-Awareness factor. EI-M = Motivation factor. EI-R Resilience factor.

Despite there being no significant correlations identified between workplace incivility and OC, an analysis was also conducted to determine if there were correlations between the sub-factors of the OC scale and the independent and moderating variables (refer to Table 13). It was observed that workplace incivility was significantly correlated with OC-A (*r* = -.43, *p* < .01) indicating a moderate negative relationship, and significantly correlated with OC-C (*r* = .16, *p* < .05) indicating a very weak positive relationship. Nevertheless, this suggests that when exposed to greater levels and severity of workplace incivility in an organisation,

individuals appear to experience reduced OC-A but a somewhat increased likelihood of experiencing increased OC-C.

It was also noted that OC-A was significantly correlated with the overall EI scale (r = .29), EI – Emotional Self-Awareness (r = .24) and EI – Motivation (r = .34), indicating weak positive relationships with these variables (all $ps < .01$). This suggests that there is a relationship between various factors of EI and an individual's experiences of OC-A in particular. Conversely, there were no significant correlations identified between OC-N and Workplace Incivility or EI.

Table 13

Pearson's Correlations for Workplace Incivility, OC Sub-Scales and EI

	EI	EI-PE	EI-SA	EI-M	EI-R	OC-A	OC-C	OC-N
WIS	-.26**	-.11	-.22**	-.36**	-.00	-.43**	.17*	.02
EI	--	.75**	.79**	.66**	.50**	.29**	.03	.08
EI-PE		--	.41**	.23**	.18*	.12	.14	.01
EI-SA			--	.40**	.30**	.24**	.00	.05
EI-M				--	.25**	.34**	-.13	.15
EI-R					--	.11	.02	.04
OC-A						--	.10	.41**

Note. $* = p < .05$, $** = p < .01$. WIS = Workplace Incivility Scale. EI = emotional intelligence. EI-PE = Perceptions of Emotion factor. EI-SA = Emotional Self-Awareness factor. EI-M = Motivation factor. EI-R Resilience factor. OC-A = Organisational Commitment – Affective. OC-C = Organisational Commitment – Continuation. OC-N = Organisational Commitment – Normative.

Linear regressions: main effects

Simple linear regressions were conducted in order to determine the main effects of workplace incivility on CWB, OC and OCB. In other words, this was to predict the value of variables (CWB, OCB and OC) based on the value of workplace incivility.

Linear Regression: Effect of Workplace Incivility on Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

Table 14 shows the predictive relationship between workplace incivility and CWB, and $R = .53$ indicates a moderate correlation. $R^2 = .28$ which indicates that 28% of the change in CWB can be explained by workplace incivility. $F(1, 148) = 58.50$, $p < .001$ shows that this model is statistically significant. Thus, this model statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that workplace incivility predicts levels of CWB.

Table 14

Regression Table between Workplace Incivility and CWB

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.53	.28	1 148	58.50	<.001

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of CWB based on workplace incivility (refer to Table 15). The regression equation is as follows: CWB = .11 + .35 (workplace incivility).

Table 15

Regression Table between Workplace Incivility and CWB

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	.11		9.25	<.001
Workplace Incivility	.35	.53	7.65	<.001

Linear Regression: Effect of Workplace Incivility on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Table 16 shows the predictive relationship between workplace incivility and OCB, and $R = .16$ indicates a very weak correlation. $R^2 = .026$ which indicates that 3% of the change in OCB can be explained by workplace incivility. $F(1, 148) = 3.88$, $p = .051$ shows that this model is not statistically significant. Thus, this model does not statistically significantly predict the outcome variable. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that workplace incivility predicts levels of OCB.

Table 16

Regression Table between Workplace Incivility and OCB

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.16	.03	1 148	3.89	.051

Linear Regression: Effect of Workplace Incivility on Organisational Commitment

Table 17 shows the predictive relationship between workplace incivility and OC, and $R = .14$ indicates a very weak correlation. $R^2 = .02$ which indicates that 2% of the change in OC can be explained by workplace incivility. $F(1, 148) = 2.88$, $p = .092$ shows that this model is not statistically significant. Thus, this model does not statistically significantly predict the outcome variable. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that workplace incivility predicts levels of OC.

Table 17

Regression Table between Workplace Incivility and OC

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.14	.02	1 148	2.87	.092

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

Table 18 shows the predictive relationship between EI and OCB, and $R = .30$ indicates a weak relationship. $R^2 = .09$ which indicates that 9% of the change in CWB can be explained by EI. $F(1, 148) = 14.67$, $p < .001$ shows that this model is statistically significant. Thus, this model statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that EI predicts levels of CWB.

Table 18

Regression Table between EI and CWB

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.30	.09	1 148	14.67	<.001

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of CWB based on EI (refer to Table 19). The regression equation is as follows: CWB = .44 + -.07 (EI).

Table 19

Regression Table between EI and CWB

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	.44		6.34	< .001
EI	6.34	-.30	-3.83	< .001

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Table 20 shows the predictive relationship between EI and OCB, and $R = .23$ indicates a weak correlation. $R^2 = .05$ which indicates that 5% of the change in OCB can be explained by EI. $F(1, 148) = 8.43$, $p < .01$ shows that this model is statistically significant. Thus, this model statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that EI predicts levels of OCB.

Table 20

Regression Table between EI and OCB

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.23	.05	1 148	8.43	<.01

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of OCB based on EI (refer to Table 21). The regression equation is as follows: OCB = 2.10 + .33 (EI).

Table 21

Regression Table between EI and OCB

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	2.10		4.73	< .001
EI	.34	.23	2.90	< .01

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Organisational Commitment

Table 22 shows the predictive relationship between EI and OC, and $R = .20$ indicates a weak correlation. $R^2 = .04$ which indicates that 4% of the change in OC can be explained by EI. $F(1, 148) = 6.26$, $p < .05$ shows that this model is statistically significant. Thus, this model

statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that EI predicts levels of OC.

Table 22

Regression Table between EI and OC

R	R^2	df	*F*	*p*
.20	.04	1 148	6.26	.013

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of OC based on EI (refer to Table 23). The regression equation is as follows: OC = 3.06 + .32 (EI).

Table 23

Regression Table between EI and OC

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	3.06		6.38	< .001
EI	.32	.20	2.50	< .05

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions) on Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

Table 24 shows the predictive relationship between EI – Perceptions of Emotions and CWB, and $R = .17$ indicates a very weak correlation. $R^2 = .03$ which indicates that 3% of the change in CWB can be explained by EI – Perceptions of Emotions. $F(1, 148) = 4.58$, $p < .05$ shows that this model is statistically significant. Thus, this model statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that EI – Perceptions of Emotions predicts levels of CWB.

Table 24

Regression Table between EI – Perceptions of Emotions and CWB

R	R^2	df	*F*	*p*
.17	.03	1 148	4.58	.034

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of CWB based on EI – Perceptions of Emotions (refer to Table 25). The regression equation is as follows: CWB = .27 + -.023 (EI – Perceptions of Emotions).

Table 25

Regression Table between EI – Perceptions of Emotions and CWB

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	.27		5.89	< .001
EI	-.03	-.17	-2.14	< .05

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions) on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Table 26 shows the predictive relationship between EI – perceptions of emotions and OCB, and $R = .14$ indicates a very weak correlation. $R^2 = .02$ which indicates that 2% of the change in OCB can be explained by EI – perceptions of emotions. $F(1, 148) = 3$, $p = .085$ shows that this model is not statistically significant. Thus, this model does not statistically significantly predict the outcome variable. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that EI – perceptions of emotions predicts levels of OCB.

Table 26

Regression Table between EI – Perceptions of Emotions and OCB

R	R^2	df	*F*	*p*
.14	.02	1 148	3.00	.085

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions) on Organisational Commitment

Table 27 shows the predictive relationship between EI – perceptions of emotions and OC, and $R = .14$ indicates a very weak correlation. $R^2 = .02$ which indicates that 2% of the change in OC can be explained by EI – perceptions of emotions. $F(1, 148) = 3.11$, $p = .080$ shows that this model is not statistically significant. Thus, this model does not statistically significantly predict the outcome variable. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that EI – perceptions of emotions predicts levels of OC.

Table 27

Regression Table between EI – Perceptions of Emotions and OC

R	R^2	df	*F*	*p*
.14	.02	1 148	3.11	.080

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness) on Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

Table 28 shows the predictive relationship between EI – emotional self-awareness and CWB, and $R = .24$ indicates a weak correlation. $R^2 = .06$ which indicates that 6% of the change in CWB can be explained by EI – emotional self-awareness. $F(1, 148) = 9.06$, $p < .01$ shows that this model is statistically significant. Thus, this model statistically significantly

predicts the outcome variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that EI – emotional self-awareness predicts levels of CWB.

Table 28

Regression Table between EI – Emotional Self-Awareness and CWB

R	R^2	df	*F*	*p*
.24	.06	1 148	9.06	<.01

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of CWB based on EI – emotional self-awareness (refer to Table 29). The regression equation is as follows: CWB = .32 + -.04 (EI – Emotional Self-Awareness).

Table 29

Regression Table between EI – Emotional Self-Awareness and CWB

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	.32		6.54	< .001
EI – Emotional Self-Awareness	-.04	-.24	-3.01	< .01

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness) on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Table 30 shows the predictive relationship between EI – emotional self-awareness and OCB, and $R = .15$ indicates a very weak correlation. $R^2 = .02$ which indicates that 2% of the change in OCB can be explained by EI – emotional self-awareness. $F(1, 148) = 3.55$, $p = .062$ shows that this model is not statistically significant. Thus, this model does not statistically significantly predict the outcome variable. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that EI – emotional self-awareness predicts levels of OCB.

Table 30

Regression Table between EI – Emotional Self-Awareness and OCB

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.15	.02	1 148	3.55	.062

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness) on Organisational Commitment

Table 31 shows the predictive relationship between EI – emotional self-awareness and OC, and $R = .15$ indicates a very weak correlation. $R^2 = .02$ which indicates that 2% of the change in OC can be explained by EI – emotional self-awareness. $F(1, 148) = 3.28$, $p = .072$ shows that this model is not statistically significant. Thus, this model is not statistically significantly able to predict the outcome variable. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that EI – emotional self-awareness predicts levels of OC.

Table 31

Regression Table between EI – Emotional Self-Awareness and OC

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.15	*.02*	*1* *148*	*3.28*	*.072*

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 3 (Motivation) on Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

Table 32 shows the predictive relationship between EI – motivation and CWB, and $R = .36$ indicates a weak correlation. $R^2 = .13$ which indicates the change in CWB can be explained by EI – motivation. $F(1, 148) = 21.78$, $p < .001$ shows that this model is statistically significant. Thus, this model statistically significantly predicts the outcome

variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that EI – motivation predicts levels of CWB.

Table 32

Regression table between EI- Motivation and CWB

R	R^2	df	*F*	*p*
.36	1.28	1 148	21.78	<.001

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of CWB based on EI – motivation (refer to Table 33). The regression equation is as follows: CWB = .42 + -.06 (EI – motivation).

Table 33

Regression Table between EI – Motivation and CWB

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	.42		7.86	< .001
EI – Motivation	-.06	-.36	-4.67	< .001

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 3 (Motivation) on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Table 34 shows the predictive relationship between EI – motivation and OCB, and R = .16 indicates a very weak correlation. R^2 = .03 which indicates that 3% of the change in OCB can be explained by EI – motivation. $F(1, 148) = 3.85$, $p < .05$ shows that this model is not statistically significant. Thus, this model is statistically significantly predicting the outcome variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that EI – motivation does not significantly predict levels of OCB.

Table 34

Regression Table between EI – Motivation and OCB

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.16	.03	1 148	3.85	.052

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of OCB based on EI – motivation (refer to Table 35). The regression equation is as follows: OCB = 2.68 + .18 (EI – motivation).

Table 35

Regression Table between EI – Motivation and OCB

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	2.68		7.43	< .001
EI – Motivation	.18	.16	1.96	.052

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 3 (Motivation) on Organisational Commitment

Table 36 shows the predictive relationship between EI – motivation and OC, and R = .17 indicates a very weak correlation. R^2 = .03 which indicates that 3% of the change in OC can be explained by EI – motivation. $F(1, 148) = 4.22$, $p < .05$ shows that this model is statistically significant. Thus, this model is statistically significantly predicting the outcome variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that EI – motivation predicts levels of OC.

Table 36

Regression Table between EI – Motivation and OC

R	R^2	df	*F*	*p*
.17	.03	1 148	4.22	.042

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of OC based on EI – motivation. The regression equation is as follows: OC = 3.47 + .20 (EI – Motivation).

Table 37

Regression Table between EI – Motivation and OC

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	3.47		8.97	< .001
EI – Motivation	.20	.17	2.05	<.05

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 4 (Resilience) on Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

Table 38 shows the predictive relationship between EI – resilience and CWB, and R = .01 indicates no correlation. R^2 = .00 which indicates that 0% of the change in CWB can be explained by EI – resilience. $F(1, 148) = .00$, $p = .955$ shows that this model is not statistically significant. Thus, this model is not statistically significantly able to predict the outcome variable. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that EI – resilience predicts levels of CWB.

Table 38

Regression Table between EI – Resilience and CWB

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.01	.00	1 148	.00	.955

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 4 (Resilience) on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Table 39 shows the predictive relationship between EI – resilience and OCB, and R = .24 indicates a weak correlation. R^2 = .06 which indicates that 6% of the change in OCB can be explained by EI – resilience. $F(1, 148) = 8.70$, $p < .01$ shows that this model is statistically significant. Thus, this model statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable and is a good fit for the data. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that EI – resilience predicts levels of OCB.

Table 39

Regression table between EI – Resilience and OCB

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.24	.06	1 148	8.70	<.01

Based on the above, it is possible to use a regression equation to predict employees' levels of OCB based on EI – resilience (refer to Table 40). The regression equation is as follows: OCB = 2.44 + .26 (EI – resilience).

Table 40

Regression Table between EI – Resilience and OCB

	Beta	Standardised Beta	*t*	*p*
(constant)	2.44		7.52	< .001
EI – Resilience	.26	.24	2.95	<.01

Linear Regression: Effect of Emotional Intelligence Factor 4 (Resilience) on Organisational Commitment

Table 41 shows the predictive relationship between EI – resilience and OC, and $R = .09$ indicates a very weak correlation. $R^2 = .01$ which indicates that 1% of the change in OC can be explained by EI – resilience. $F(1, 148) = 1.09$, $p = .299$ shows that this model is not statistically significant. Thus, this model is not statistically significantly able to predict the outcome variable. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that EI – resilience predicts levels of OC.

Table 41

Regression Table between EI – Resilience and OC

R	*R²*	df	*F*	*p*
.09	.01	1 148	1.09	.299

Multiple Moderated Regression

The results relating to the MMR analysis will be discussed below, with a summary of the MMR model for the independent variable, moderator variables and dependent variables being presented. The rationale for conducting MMRs was determined if the EI factors identified above moderated the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB, OCB and OC.

Testing of Assumptions

In order to conduct an MMR, a few statistical assumptions needed to first be met. Firstly, normality of the data, outliers and homoscedasticity were established as noted above. Also, as previously established, all variables were measured on an interval scale and there were at least two independent variables measured on an interval scale. There was also the presence of random and independent sampling and independence of observations. The assumptions pertaining to a linear relationship between variables based on the moderator variable was also met. Consequently, only multicollinearity needed to be tested for.

Multicollinearity.

It is advised that predictor variables should not be highly correlated with one another (Field, 2009) in order to run an MMR. Multicollinearity can prove to be problematic when running multiple regression analyses as this can make it more challenging to identify specific estimates of the regression coefficients when predictor variables are highly correlated (Field, 2009). As such, it was necessary to assess multicollinearity which can be assessed via two means. Firstly, it was necessary to assess the correlation coefficients between the predictor variables, with correlations above .70 being indicative of multicollinearity (Field, 2009). Referring to Table 12, the correlation coefficient between workplace incivility and EI was $r = .26$, $p < .05$, which is less than the cut-off point of .70. Secondly, multicollinearity can be assessed by evaluating the tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) statistics. The tolerance value should be below .20 and the VIF statistic in this analysis should be below 10 (Field, 2009).

Table 42

Tolerance and VIF values

	Tolerance	VIF
Workplace Incivility	.92	1.09
EI	.92	1.09

As can be noted above, in Table 42 the tolerance values were greater than .20 (.92) and the VIF statistic was less than 10 (1.09). Consequently, the assumption of absence of collinearity was met.

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB could be moderated by EI – perceptions of emotions. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 43.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 58.50$, $p < .001$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB, and the second step was significant, $F(1, 148) = 4.58$, $p < .05$, for the relationship between CWB and EI – perceptions of emotions. This shows that workplace incivility and EI – perceptions of emotions have separate main effects on CWB, which supports the findings from the linear regressions (refer to Table 14 and Table 24 above)

Table 43

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI – Perceptions of Emotions

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.55	.30	20.53	3	146	<.001

From the results presented in Table 44, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – perceptions of emotions indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .814$. This indicates that EI – perceptions of emotions does not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB.

Table 44

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI – Perceptions of Emotions

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	.16	.07	2.36	<.05
Workplace Incivility	.39	.22	1.77	.078
EI – Perceptions of Emotions	-.01	.02	-.79	.430
Workplace Incivility X EI – Perceptions of Emotions	.01	.06	.81	.814

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB could be moderated by EI – perceptions of emotions. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 45.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 3.89$, $p < .05$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB, however, the second step was not significant, $F(1, 148) = 2.30$, $p = .085$, for the relationship between OCB and EI – perceptions of emotions. This shows that workplace incivility but not EI – perceptions of emotions has a separate main effect on OCB (refer to Table 16 and Table 26 above).

Table 45

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI – Perceptions of Emotions

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.25	.06	3.15	3	146	<.05

From the results presented in Table 46, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – perceptions of emotions indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .223$. This indicates that EI – perceptions of emotions did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB.

Table 46

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI – Perceptions of Emotions

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	3.15	.50	6.31	<.001
Workplace Incivility	-1.19	1.61	-.74	.461
EI – Perceptions of Emotions	.03	.13	.20	.841
Workplace Incivility X EI – Perceptions of Emotions	.53	.43	1.22	.223

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OC could be moderated by EI – perceptions of emotions. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 47.

The first step in this regression analysis was not significant, $F(1, 148) = 2.88$, $p = .092$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OC, and neither was the second step in the analysis, $F(1, 148) = 3.11$. $p = .080$. This shows neither EI – perceptions of emotions or workplace incivility has a separate main effect on OC (refer to Table 17 and Table 27 above).

Table 47

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Perceptions of Emotions

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.19	.04	1.79	3	146	.152

From the results presented in Table 48, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – perceptions of emotions indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .955$. This indicates that EI – perceptions of emotions did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and OC.

Table 48

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Perceptions of Emotions

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	3.89	.54	7.16	<.001
Workplace Incivility	-.64	1.75	-.37	.714
EI – Perceptions of Emotions	.13	.14	.90	.371
Workplace Incivility X EI – Perceptions of Emotions	.03	.47	.06	.955

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB could be moderated by EI – emotional self-awareness. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 49.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 58.50$, $p < .001$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB, and the second step was significant, $F(1, 148) = 9.06$, $p < .01$, for the relationship between CWB and EI – emotional self-awareness. This shows that workplace incivility and EI – emotional self-awareness have

separate main effects on CWB, which supports the findings from the linear regressions (refer to Table 14 and Table 28 above).

Table 49

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI – Emotional Self-Awareness

R	R^2	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.56	.31	22.12	3	146	<.001

From the results presented in Table 50, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – emotional self-awareness indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .102$ This indicates that EI – emotional self-awareness did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB.

Table 50

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI – Emotional Self-Awareness

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	.28	.07	3.90	<.001
Workplace Incivility	-.00	.21	-.01	.994
EI – Emotional Self-Awareness	-.05	.02	-2.44	.016
Workplace Incivility X EI – Emotional Self-Awareness	.09	.06	1.64	.102

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB could be moderated by EI – emotional self-awareness. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 51.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 3.89$, $p < .05$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB, however, the second step was not

significant, $F(1, 148) = 3.55$, $p = .062$, for the relationship between OCB and EI – emotional self-awareness. This shows that workplace incivility but not EI – emotional self-awareness has a separate main effect on OCB (refer to Table 16 and Table 30 above).

Table 51

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI- Emotional Self-Awareness

R	R^2	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.25	.07	3.36	3	146	<.05

From the results presented in Table 52, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – emotional self-awareness indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .563$. This indicates that EI – emotional self-awareness did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB.

Table 52

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI- Emotional Self-Awareness

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	2.23	.54	4.15	<.001
Workplace Incivility	1.70	1.53	1.11	.267
EI – Emotional Self-Awareness	.26	.14	1.90	.059
Workplace Incivility X EI – Emotional Self-Awareness	-.23	.40	-.58	.563

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OC could be moderated by EI – emotional self-awareness. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 53.

The first step in this regression analysis was not significant, $F(1, 148) = 2.88$, $p = .092$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OC, and neither was the second step in the analysis, $F(1, 148) = 3.28$, $p = .072$. This shows neither EI – emotional self-awareness nor workplace incivility has separate main effect's on OC (refer to Table 17 and Table 31 above).

Table 53

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Emotional Self-Awareness

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.19	.03	1.73	3	146	.164

From the results presented in Table 54, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – emotional self-awareness indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .707$. This indicates that EI- emotional self-awareness did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and OC.

Table 54

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Emotional Self-Awareness

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	3.67	.59	6.28	<.001
Workplace Incivility	.12	1.67	-.07	.942
EI – Emotional Self-Awareness	.18	.15	1.19	.237
Workplace Incivility X EI – Emotional Self-Awareness	-.17	.44	-.38	.707

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence Factor 3 (Motivation)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB could be moderated by EI – motivation. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 55.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 58.50$, $p < .001$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB, and the second step was significant, $F(1, 148) = 21.78$, $p < .001$, for the relationship between CWB and EI – motivation. This shows that workplace incivility and EI – motivation have separate main effects on CWB, which supports the findings from the linear regressions (Refer to Table 14 and Table 32 above).

Table 55

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI – Motivation

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.56	.32	22.40	3	146	<.001

From the results presented in Table 56, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – motivation indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .659$. This indicates that EI – motivation did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB.

Table 56

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI – Motivation

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	.01	.10	2.17	<.05
Workplace Incivility	-.44	.31	1.42	.157
EI – Motivation	-.03	.02	-1.04	.299
Workplace Incivility X EI – Motivation	.03	.08	-.44	.659

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence Factor 3 (Motivation)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OC could be moderated by EI – motivation. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 57.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 3.89$, $p < .05$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB, and the second step was also significant, $F(1, 148) = 3.85$, $p < .05$, for the relationship between OCB and EI – motivation. This shows that workplace incivility and EI – motivation have separate main effects on OCB, which supports the findings from the linear regressions (Refer to Table 16 and Table 34 above).

Table 57

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI – Motivation

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.28	.08	4.26	3	146	<.01

From the results presented in Table 58, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – motivation indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .832$. This indicates that EI – motivation did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB.

Table 58

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI – Motivation

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	2.21	.72	3.08	<.01

Workplace Incivility	.54	2.26	.24	.810
EI – Motivation	.25	.17	1.43	.155
Workplace Incivility X EI – Motivation	.13	.57	.22	.823

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence Factor 3 (Motivation)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OC could be moderated by EI – motivation. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 59.

The first step in this regression analysis was not significant, $F(1, 148) = 2.88$, $p = .092$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OC, however, the second step in the analysis, $F(1, 148) = 4.21$, $p = .042$, for the relationship between OC and EI – motivation was statistically significant. This shows that workplace incivility has a separate main effect on OC (refer to Table 17 and Table 36 above).

Table 59

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Motivation

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.19	.04	1.75	3	146	.160

From the results presented in Table 60, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – motivation indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .858$. This indicates that EI – motivation did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and OC.

Table 60

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Motivation

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	3.81	.79	4.83	<.001
Workplace Incivility	-.83	2.48	-.34	.738
EI – Motivation	.13	.19	.69	.489
Workplace Incivility X EI – Motivation	.11	.62	.18	.858

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence Factor 4 (Resilience)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB could be moderated by EI – resilience. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 61.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 58.50$, $p < .001$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB, however, the second step in the analysis was not, $F(1, 148) = .00$, $p = .955$ for the relationship between CWB and EI – resilience. This shows that workplace incivility and EI – resilience have separate main effects on CWB, which supports the findings from the linear regressions (refer to Table 14 and Table 38 above).

Table 61

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI – Resilience

R	R^2	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.48	.23	14.88	3	146	<.001

From the results presented in Table 62, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – resilience indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, *p* =

.602. This indicates that EI – resilience did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB.

Table 62

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI – Resilience

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	.91	.43	2.14	<.05
Workplace Incivility	.40	.23	1.69	.094
EI – Resilience	.05	.12	.41	.683
Workplace Incivility X EI – Resilience	-.03	.06	-52	.602

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence Factor 4 (Resilience)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB could be moderated by EI – resilience. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 63.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 3.89$, $p < .05$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB, and the second step was significant, $F(1, 148) = 8.70$, $p < .01$ for the relationship between OCB and EI – resilience. this shows that workplace incivility and EI – resilience has a separate main effect on OCB (refer to Table 16 and Table 39 above).

Table 63

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI – Resilience

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.31	.10	5.31	3	146	<.01

From the results presented in Table 64, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. the interaction term workplace incivility X EI – resilience

indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, p = .100. This indicates that EI – Resilience did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB.

Table 64

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI – Resilience

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	.22	.47	6.11	<.001
Workplace Incivility	-.65	1.89	-1.28	.203
EI – Resilience	-.06	.13	.83	.409
Workplace Incivility X EI – Resilience	.17	.51	1.66	.100

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence Factor 4 (Resilience)

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OC could be moderated by EI – resilience. the results of this analysis are presented in Table 65.

The first step in this regression analysis was not significant, $F(1, 148) = 2.88$, $p = .092$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OC, and neither was the second step in the analysis, $F(1, 148) = 1.09$, $p = .299$, for the relationship between OC and EI – resilience. This shows neither EI – resilience nor workplace incivility has a separate main effect on OC (refer to Table 17 and Table 40 above).

Table 65

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Resilience

R^2 change	*F change*	*df1*	*df2*
.04	5.97	1	146

From the results presented in Table 66, it is evident that EI – resilience moderated the effect of workplace incivility on OC, as was evidenced by the statistically significant increase in total variation explained of .06, $F(3.34) = 5.97$, $p < .05$. Additionally, there were no tolerance levels under .20 (.92) and VIF levels over 10 (1.09) (refer to Table 42 above) for the moderator (EI) and independent variables (workplace incivility) which indicated that there were no issues with multicollinearity.

From Table 65 above, the R^2 change indicates the increase in variation that can be explained by the adding of the interaction term. Thus, there is a 3.8% increase in the variation explained by the adding of the interaction term. This increase is statistically significant ($p < .05$). Hence, we can conclude that EI – Resilience does moderate the relationship between workplace incivility on OC.

Table 66

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Resilience

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.25	.06	3.34	3	146	<.05

Table 67 indicates that we have moderation. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI – resilience indicates that we have successful moderation as the results are significant, $p < .05$ (Field, 2009). This is further confirmed with the significant *p*-value (.008) for workplace incivility. Table 67 indicate that it is the moderator variable, namely EI – resilience that is producing the change in levels between workplace incivility and OC, and not as a result of extraneous variables or workplace incivility in isolation.

The regression equation is as follows: OC = 4.91 + (-5.60 x workplace incivility) + (-.15 x EI – resilience) + (1.37 workplace incivility X EI – resilience).

Table 67

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Resilience

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	4.91	.51	9.56	<.001
Workplace Incivility	-5.59	2.07	-2.70	<.01
EI – Resilience	-.15	.14	-1.07	.285
Workplace Incivility X EI – Resilience	1.37	.56	2.45	<.05

A simple regression graph (refer to Appendix Q) was subsequently run to examine the nature of the relationship between these variables. This was done to ascertain if EI – resilience acted as a booster or buffer to the relationship between workplace incivility and OC. The results are presented in Table 68.

Table 68

Simple Slopes Analysis between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI – Resilience

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Low EI – Resilience	-.33	.11	-2.90	<.01
Mid EI – Resilience	-.14	.08	-1.70	.085
High EI – Resilience	.05	.11	.41	.681

For low EI – resilience, workplace incivility, b = -.33, $t(146)$ = -2.90, p < .01, for EI – resilience, experiences of workplace incivility provide a -.33 impact on individuals' levels of OC. For average EI – resilience, workplace incivility, b = -.14, $t(146)$ = -1,74, p = .085, for EI – resilience, there is no relationship between workplace incivility and OC. For high EI – resilience, workplace incivility, b = .047, $t(146)$ = .41, p = .681, for EI – resilience, there is no relationship between workplace incivility and OC. The results indicate that whilst medium and high EI – resilience may not be significant, low levels of EI – resilience correspond to individuals reporting lower levels of OC after experiencing workplace incivility.

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB could be moderated by EI. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 69.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 58.50$, $p < .001$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB, and the second step in the analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 14.67$, $p < .001$, for the relationship between CWB and EI. This shows that workplace incivility and EI have a separate main effect on CWB (refer to Table 14 and Table 18 above).

Table 69

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI

R	R^2	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.56	.31	22.04	3	146	<.001

From the results presented in Table 70, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .863$. This indicates that EI did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB.

Table 70

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, CWB and EI

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	.228	.11	2.58	<.05
Workplace Incivility	.26	.35	.74	.463
EI	-.04	.03	-1.57	.119
Workplace Incivility X EI	.02	.09	.17	.863

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB could be moderated by EI. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 71.

The first step in this regression analysis was significant, $F(1, 148) = 3.88$, $p < .05$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB, and the second step was significant, $F(1, 148) = 8.43$, $p < .01$, for the relationship between OCB and EI. This shows that workplace incivility and EI has a separate main effect on OCB (refer to Table 16 and Table 20 above).

Table 71

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.33	.11	6.02	3	146	<.01

From the results presented in Table 72, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .408$. This indicates that EI did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB.

Table 72

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OCB and EI

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	2.10	.78	2.68	<.01
Workplace Incivility	-1.11	2.53	-.44	.663
EI	.29	.20	1.44	.151
Workplace Incivility X EI	.56	.67	.83	.408

Moderated Multiple Regression for Workplace Incivility, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence

An MMR was conducted to ascertain whether the relationship between workplace incivility and OC could be moderated by EI. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 73.

The first step in this regression analysis was not significant, $F(1, 148) = 2.88$, $p = .092$, for the relationship between workplace incivility and OC, however, the second step in the analysis, $F(1, 148) = 6.26$, $p = .013$, was statistically significant for the relationship between OC and EI. This shows that only workplace incivility has a separate main effect on OC (refer to Table 17 and Table 22 above).

Table 73

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI

R	*R²*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.23	.06	2.82	3	146	<.05

From the results presented in Table 74, it is evident that we do not have moderation between the identified variables. The interaction term workplace incivility X EI indicates that we do not have a successful moderation as the results are not significant, $p = .692$. This indicates that EI did not moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and OC.

Table 74

MMR Table between Workplace Incivility, OC and EI

Variable	*Beta*	Std. Error	*t*	*p*
Constant	3.30	.96	3.44	<.01
Workplace Incivility	-1.65	3.28	-.50	.612
EI	.27	.25	1.10	.271
Workplace Incivility X EI	.35	.88	.40	.692

Secondary Analysis of Demographic Variables

Gender and Workplace Incivility

The overall grand mean for workplace incivility across both gender categories was 1.69. The means obtained by each gender category are presented in Table 75 and Figure 14 below. The mean obtained for women was 1.73 and for men was 1.63. As a low score on the WIS was indicative of experiencing lower levels of workplace incivility, this indicates that women report experiencing more workplace incivility than men. However, it is again noted that reported levels of workplace incivility across all groups are low.

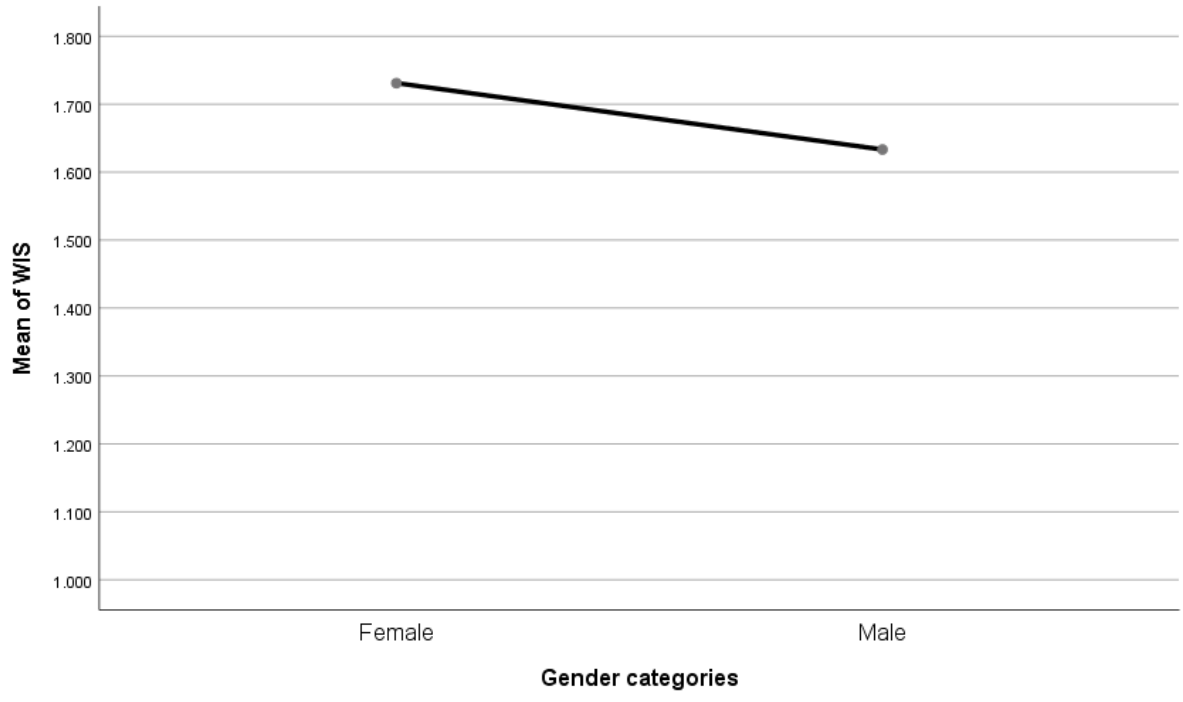
Table 75

Descriptive Statistics – Gender Categories and Workplace Incivility

Gender categories	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Women	87	1.73	.76
Men	63	1.63	.71

Figure 14

Plotted Means – Gender Categories and Workplace Incivility



As presented in Table 76, the overall model for the ANOVA was not significant, indicating that there were no significant differences between the gender categories and the independent variable of workplace incivility. That is to say, there were no significant differences observed between the mean scores for workplace incivility on the basis of the gender categories within this sample.

Table 76

One-way ANOVA – Gender Categories and Workplace Incivility

Source	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Model	1	.35	.64	.426
Error	148	.55		

Race and Workplace Incivility

The means obtained by each specific racial group are presented in Table 77 and Figure 15 below. The lowest mean score obtained was for Black South Africans (1.38), followed by Coloured South Africans (1.51) and Indian South Africans (1.65). The highest mean, which was larger than the grand mean of 1.69, was for White South Africans (1.75). As a low score on the WIS was indicative of experiencing lower levels of workplace incivility, this indicates that White South Africans report experiencing more workplace incivility than other groups. However, it is again noted that reported levels of workplace incivility across all groups are low.

Table 77

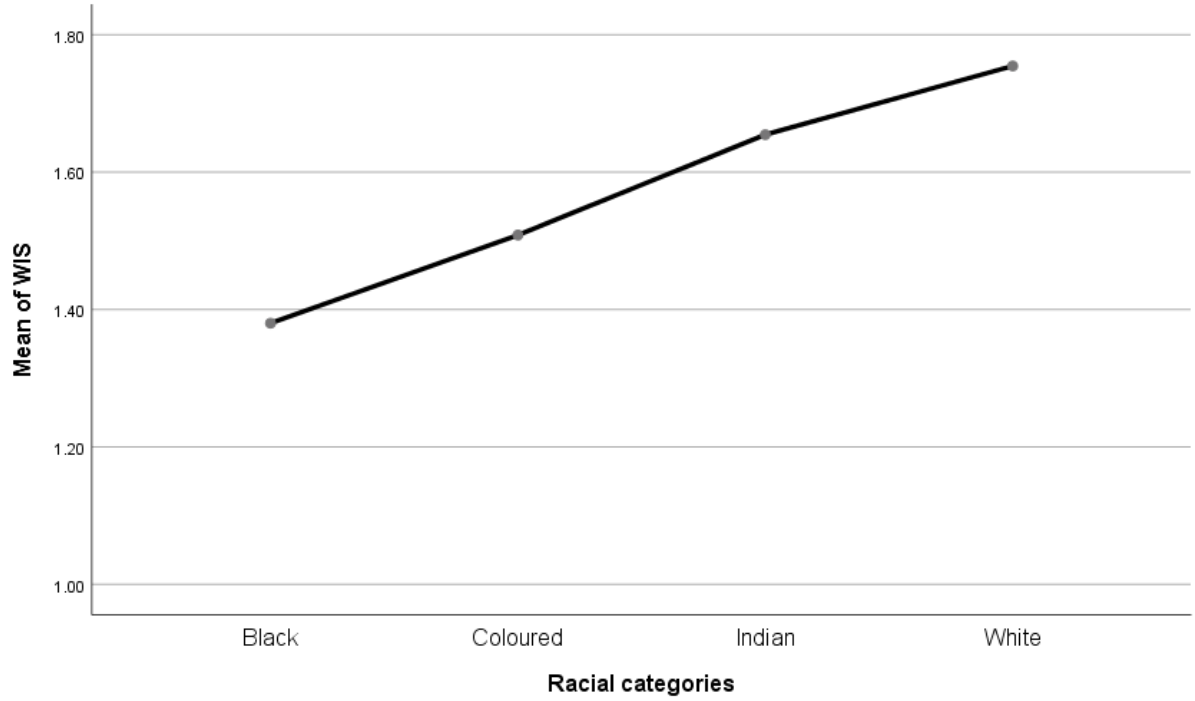
Descriptive Statistics – Racial Categories and Workplace Incivility

Racial categories	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Black	15	1.38	.43
Coloured	12	1.51	.79

Indian	11	1.65	.62
White	112	1.75	.77

Figure 15

Plotted Means – Racial Categories and Workplace Incivility



As presented in Table 78, the overall model for the ANOVA was not significant, indicating that there were no significant differences between the various racial categories and the independent variable of workplace incivility. That is to say, there were no significant differences observed between the mean scores for workplace incivility on the basis of the various racial categories within this sample.

Table 78

One-way ANOVA – Racial Categories and Workplace Incivility

Source	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Model	3	.77	1.42	.238
Error	146	.54		

Tenure and Workplace Incivility

The means obtained by each specific tenure group are presented in Table 79 and Figure 16. The lowest mean obtained was for the tenure category 10 or more years (1.47), followed by 1 to 2 years (1.55), 2 to 3 years (1.62), 3 to 5 years (1.63) and less than 6 months (1.67). The highest mean scores, which were larger than the grand mean of 1.69, were for 6 months to 1 year (2.06), followed by 5 to 10 years (1.86). A low score on the WIS was indicative of experiencing lower levels of workplace incivility although it is again noted that reported levels of workplace incivility across all groups are low. It is also noted that there is no discernible pattern in terms of experiences of workplace incivility and tenure.

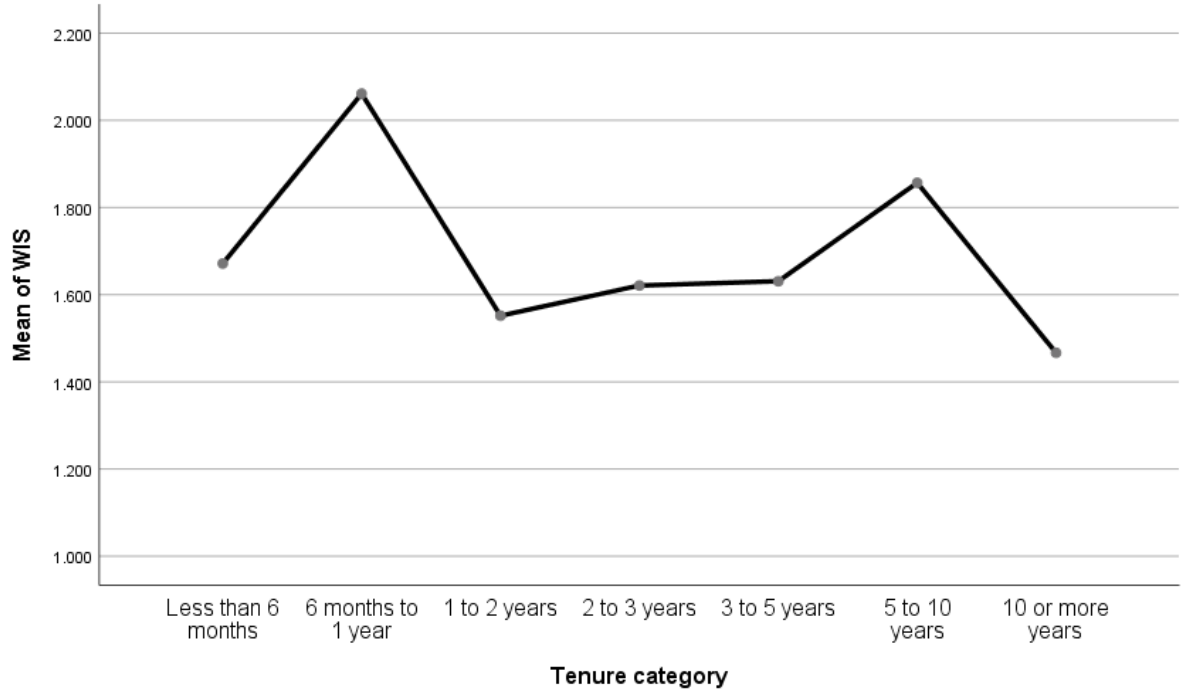
Table 79

Descriptive Statistics – Tenure Categories and Workplace Incivility

Tenure categories	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Less than 6 months	7	1.67	.83
6 months to 1 year	18	2.06	1.01
1 to 2 years	29	1.55	.69
2 to 3 years	19	1.62	.58
3 to 5 years	26	1.63	.63
5 to 10 years	30	1.86	.81
10 or more years	21	1.47	.57

Figure 16

Plotted Means – Tenure Categories and Workplace Incivility



As presented in Table 80, the overall model for the ANOVA was not significant, indicating that there were no significant differences between the various tenure categories and the independent variable of workplace incivility. That is to say, there were no significant differences observed between the mean scores for workplace incivility on the basis of the various tenure categories within this sample.

Table 80

One-way ANOVA – Tenure Categories and Workplace Incivility

Source	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Model	6	.85	1.59	.154
Error	143	.54		

Educational Level and Workplace Incivility

The means obtained by each specific educational level group are presented in Table 81 and Figure 17. The lowest mean obtained was for the educational level category Grade 10/11 (1.44), followed by degree and postgraduate degree (1.61). The highest mean, and larger than the grand mean of 1.69, was Matric (Grade 12; 1.92) and post-matric diploma (1.85). As a low score on the WIS was indicative of experiencing lower levels of workplace incivility, this indicates that individuals with a Matric (Grade 12) or post-matric diploma report experiencing more workplace incivility than other groups. However, it is again noted that reported levels of workplace incivility across all groups are low.

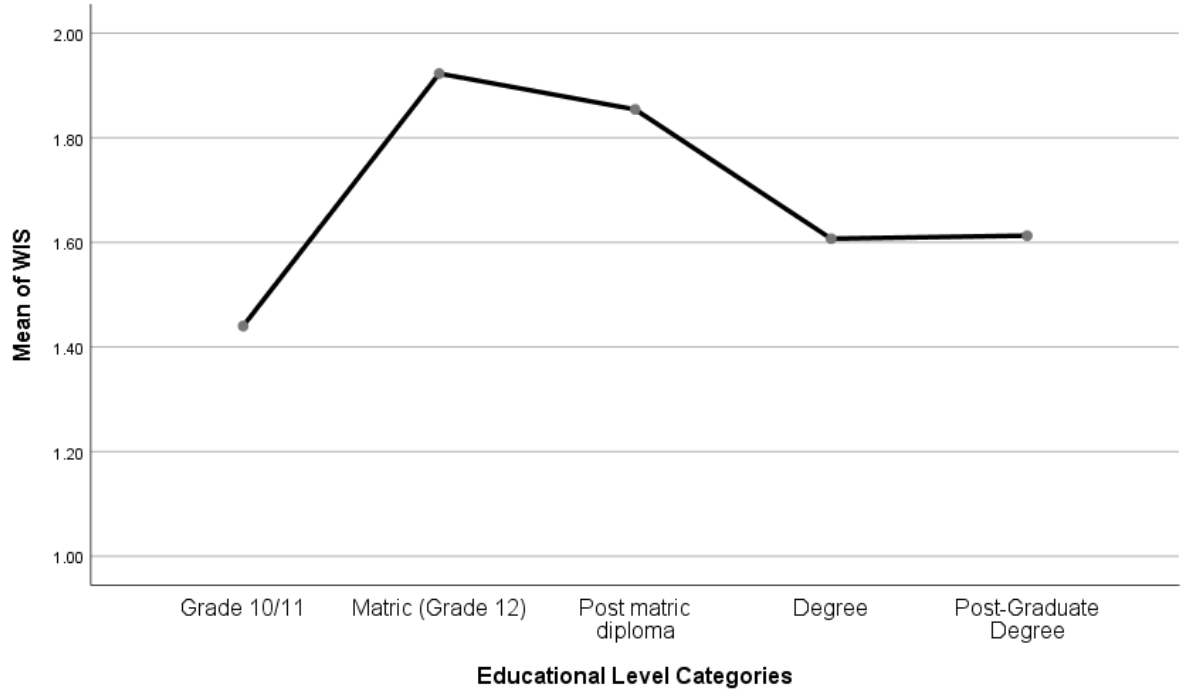
Table 81

Descriptive Statistics – Educational Level Categories and Workplace Incivility

Educational level categories	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Grade 10/11	5	1.44	.34
Matric (Grade 12)	22	1.92	.91
Post-matric diploma	24	1.85	.99
Degree	30	1.61	.62
Postgraduate degree	70	1.61	.63

Figure 17

Plotted Means – Educational Level Categories and Workplace Incivility



As presented in Table 82, the overall model for the ANOVA was not significant, indicating that there were no significant differences between the various educational level categories and the independent variable of workplace incivility. That is to say, there were no significant differences observed between the mean scores for workplace incivility on the basis of the various educational categories within this sample.

Table 82

One-way ANOVA – Educational Level Categories and Workplace Incivility

Source	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Model	4	.69	1.274	.283
Error	145	.54		

Industry and Workplace Incivility

The means obtained by each specific industry group are presented in Table 83 and Figure 18. The lowest mean obtained was for the industry category Transport/Logistics (1.40), followed by Banking/Insurance/Finance (1.48), Engineering/ Construction/Mining (1.56) and Manufacturing (1.65). The highest mean scores, which were larger than the grand mean of 1.69, were Healthcare (1.97), Other (1.88), Information Technology (1.83), Retail (1.80) and Consulting (1.71). A low score on the WIS was indicative of experiencing lower levels of workplace incivility although it is again noted that reported levels of workplace incivility across all groups are low.

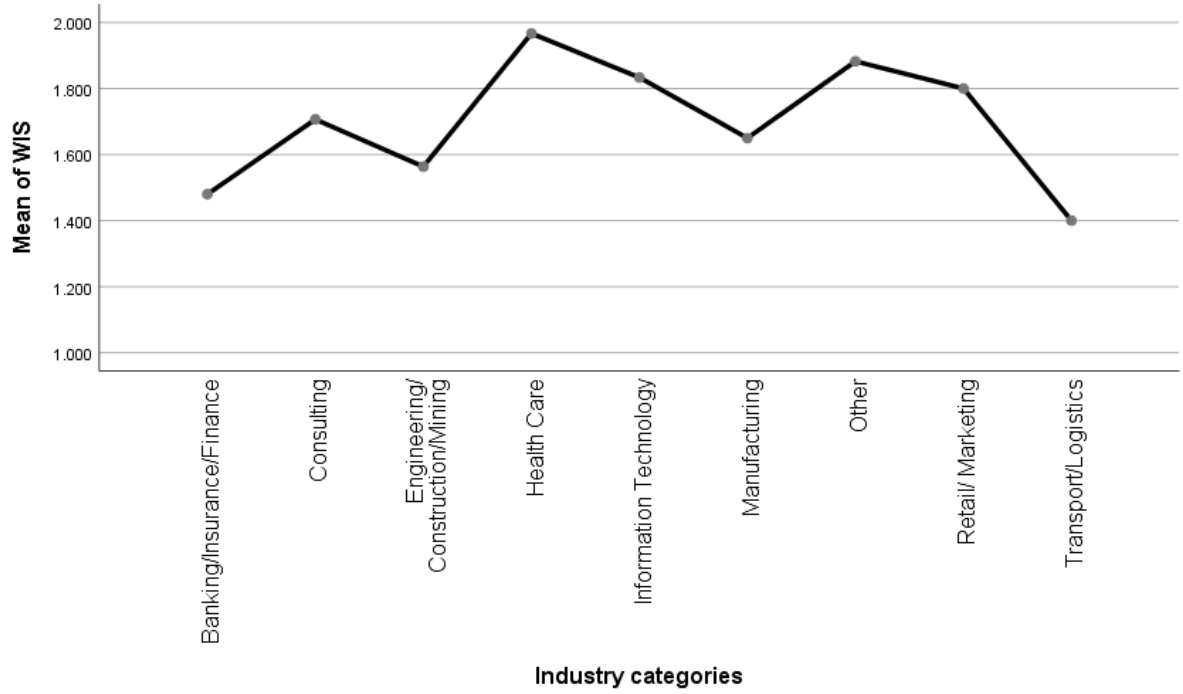
Table 83

Descriptive Statistics – Industry Categories and Workplace Incivility

Industry categories	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Banking/Insurance/Finance	25	1.48	.57
Consulting	45	1.71	.71
Engineering/Construction/Mining	11	1.56	.59
Healthcare	9	1.97	.93
Information Technology	12	1.83	.86
Manufacturing	12	1.65	.84
Other	17	1.88	1.01
Retail/Marketing	11	1.80	.67
Transport/Logistics	8	1.40	.32

Figure 18

Plotted Means – Industry Categories and Workplace Incivility



As presented in table 84, the overall model for the anova was not significant, indicating that there were no significant differences between the various industry categories and the independent variable of workplace incivility. That is to say, there were no significant differences observed between the mean scores for workplace incivility on the basis of the various industries within this sample.

Table 84

One-way ANOVA – Industry Categories and Workplace Incivility

Source	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Model	8	.46	.83	.575
Error	141	.55		

Age and Workplace Incivility

The means obtained by each specific age category are presented in Table 85 and Figure 19. The lowest mean obtained was for the age category 55 to 64 years (1.40), followed by 45 to 54 years (1.42) and 35 to 44 years (1.43). The two highest mean scores, which were larger than the grand mean of 1.69, were 18 to 24 years (1.94) and 25 to 34 years (1.81). A low score on the WIS was indicative of experiencing lower levels of workplace incivility, with these results suggesting that as individuals get older, they report experiencing less workplace incivility.

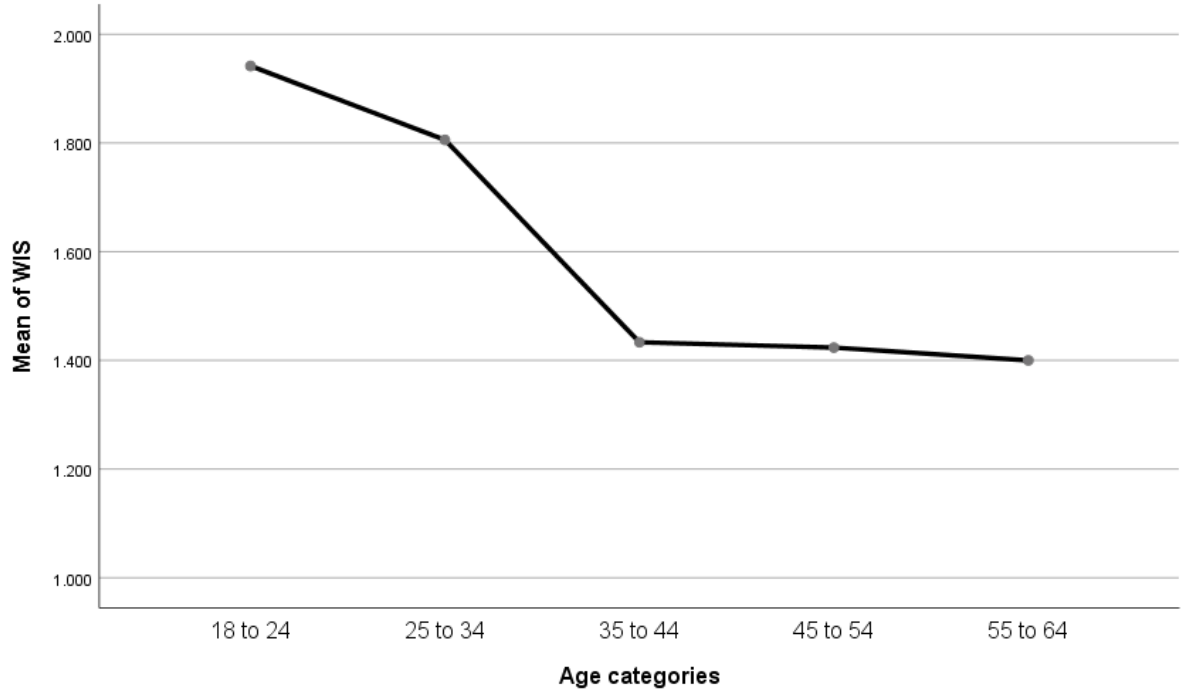
Table 85

Descriptive Statistics – Age Categories and Workplace Incivility

Age categories	*n*	*M*	*SD*
18 to 24	12	1.94	.88
25 to 34	88	1.81	.78
35 to 44	27	1.43	.55
45 to 54	17	1.42	.56
55 to 64	6	1.40	.52

Figure 19

Plotted Means – Age Categories and Workplace Incivility



As presented in Table 86, the overall model for the ANOVA was significant, indicating that there were significant differences between the various age categories and the independent variable of workplace incivility. That is to say, there were significant differences observed between the mean scores for workplace incivility on the basis of the various age categories within this sample.

Table 86

One-way ANOVA – Age Categories and Workplace Incivility

Source	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Model	4	1.36	2.59	<.05
Error	145	.53		

With the purpose of identifying specific differences between the groups, Tukey post-hoc tests were conducted (refer to Table 87). With regard to differences between age category

means, age categories 18 to 24 and 25 to 34 yielded higher mean scores than the older age categories, although these differences were not statistically significant.

Effect sizes were calculated using *Cohen's d* (Huck, 2009). As can be seen in Table 87, the effect sizes varied substantially (.02 to .75). Moderate effect sizes were reported for the differences between 25 to 34 and 35 to 44 year olds as well as 25 to 34 and 45 to 54 year olds. Large effect sizes were reported for the differences between 18 to 24 and 35 to 44 year olds, 18 to 24 and 55 to 64 year olds as well as 18 to 24 and 45 to 54 year olds. However, none of these differences were statistically significant (all *ps* > .05).

Table 87

Tukey Post Hoc Tests – Age and Workplace Incivility

Group comparison	Mean difference	Simultaneous 95% confidence limits		Cohen's *d*	*p*
		Lower band	Upper band		
18 to 24 and 25 to 34	.14	-.48	.75	.16	.97
18 to 24 and 35 to 44	.51	-.19	1.20	.70	.26
18 to 24 and 45 to 54	.52	-.24	1.27	.71	.32
18 to 24 and 55 to 64	.54	-.47	1.54	.75	.57
25 to 34 and 35 to 44	.37	-.07	.81	.56	.14
25 to 34 and 45 to 54	.38	-.15	.91	.57	.28
25 to 34 and 55 to 64	.41	-.44	1.25	.62	.68
35 to 44 and 45 to 54	.01	-.61	.63	.02	1.00
35 to 44 and 55 to 64	.03	-.87	.94	.06	1.00
45 to 54 and 55 to 64	.03	-.93	.97	.04	1.00

Job Level and Workplace Incivility

The means obtained by each specific age category are presented in Table 88 and Figure 20. The lowest mean obtained was for the job level category Executives (1.33), followed by Senior Manager (1.47) and then Administrators (1.58). The highest mean scores, which were larger than the grand mean of 1.69, were Interns (2.43), whilst Middle Managers (1.70), Team Leaders (1.76) and Individual Contributor/Consultant/ Professional (1.76) recorded similar means. A low score on the WIS was indicative of experiencing lower levels of workplace incivility, although it is again noted that reported levels of workplace incivility across all groups are low with the exception of the intern category.

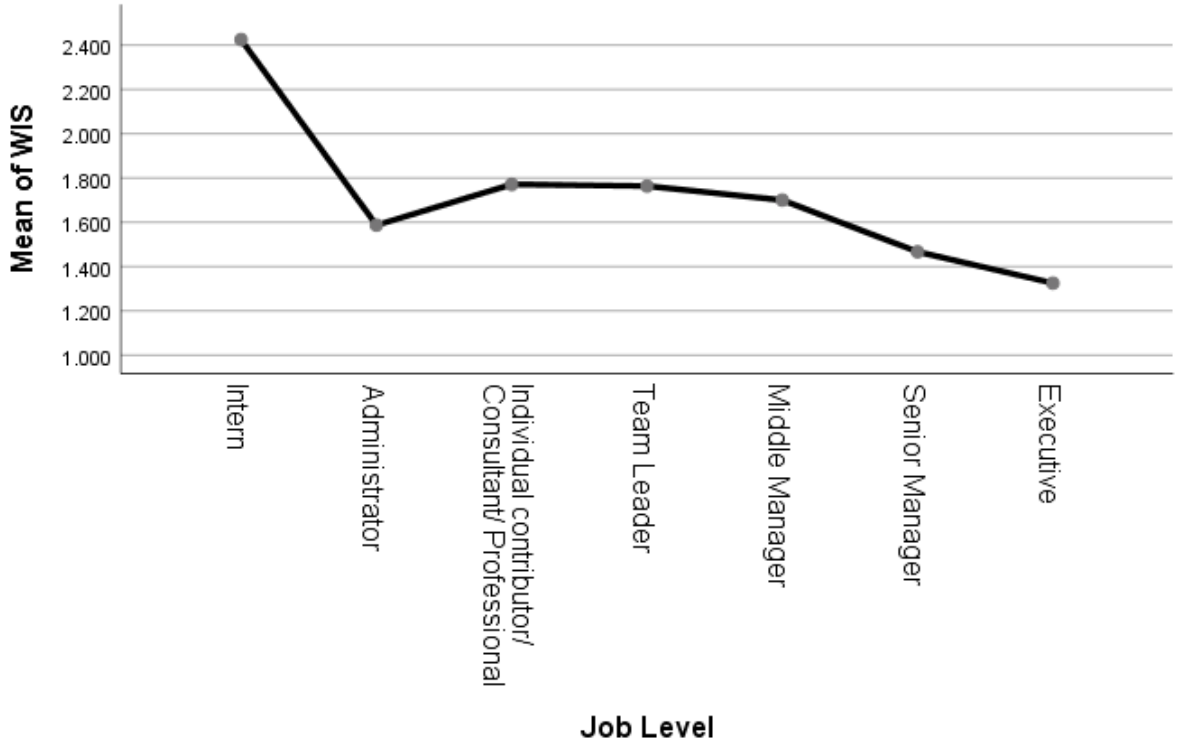
Table 88

Descriptive Statistics – Job Level Categories and Workplace Incivility

Job level categories	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Intern	4	2.43	.64
Administrator	23	1.59	.86
Individual contributor/ Consultant/Professional	66	1.77	.80
Team leader	11	1.76	.62
Middle manager	20	1.70	.6
Senior manager	18	1.47	.49
Executive	8	1.33	.39

Figure 20

Plotted Means – Job Level Categories and Workplace Incivility



As presented in Table 89, the overall model for the ANOVA was not significant, indicating that there were no significant differences between the various job level categories and the independent variable of workplace incivility. That is to say, there were no significant differences observed between the mean scores for workplace incivility on the basis of the various job levels within this sample.

Table 89

One-way ANOVA – Job Level Categories and Workplace Incivility

Source	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Model	6	.811	1.51	1.78
Error	143	.53		

Summary of Results

Statistical analyses were conducted once all of the assumptions underlying the statistical technique of a moderated multiple regression were fulfilled. The analyses revealed that:

I. Workplace incivility was strongly positively correlated with CWB as had been hypothesised, with individuals experiencing more workplace incivility also reporting to more frequently engage in CWB.

II. Workplace incivility did not show significant positive or negative correlations with the other two dependent variables of OCB and OC.

III. Despite no significant correlations between workplace incivility and OC, there was a moderately strong negative correlation between workplace incivility and OC-A, indicating that individuals experiencing more workplace incivility also reported lower levels of affective commitment to their organisations.

IV. EI provided moderate positive correlations to OCB and OC, as well as moderate negative correlations to workplace incivility and CWB.

V. EI and the sub-factors of EI do not moderate the relationships between experiences of workplace incivility and CWB.

VI. EI and the sub-factors of EI do not moderate the relationships between experiences of workplace incivility and OCB.

VII. EI and three of the sub-factors of EI (perceptions of emotions, emotional self-awareness, and motivation) do not moderate the relationships between experiences of workplace incivility and OC.

VIII. EI – Resilience moderated the relationships between experiences of workplace incivility and OC.

Chapter 4: Discussion

Introduction

The research endeavour outlined above aimed to support both theorists and practitioners in gaining a deeper understanding of the relationships between workplace incivility, CWB, OC, OCB and EI, in order to further contribute to the limited but growing body of research on workplace incivility in the South African context. The results from this research produced some significant findings that are worth exploring in greater depth: experienced workplace incivility was associated with individuals reporting a greater propensity to engage in CWB and lower reported levels of OC-A. Contrary to what would have been expected, experienced workplace incivility was associated with individuals reporting higher levels of OC-C.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the implications of the results indicated by the data analysed in the previous chapter in addition to their implications for research and practice. This chapter will also discuss the limitations of this research endeavour, recommendations for future research on this topic, and practical recommendations for individuals and organisations.

Workplace Incivility and Organisational Commitment Behaviour

The findings presented above in the results section indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between workplace incivility and the overall construct of OC, with the data further indicating that it is not possible to conclude that workplace incivility predicts levels of OC within the sample collected. These findings do not align with the prevailing argument presented in the literature review above, which suggested a negative correlation between these variables. Explanations for these contrary results will be elaborated on below and include a stronger focus on the sub-dimensions of affective and continuation commitment.

Whilst the overall construct of OC did not show any statistically significant relationships to workplace incivility, it is noteworthy that the sub-factors OC-A and OC-C did show moderate and very weak correlations, respectively, to workplace incivility. OC-A had a moderate negative correlation to workplace incivility, indicating that as individuals experienced more workplace incivility, their affective commitment to the organisation declined. This observation pertaining to a negative correlation between workplace incivility and OC-A is further supported by empirical research which has established that workplace incivility has the potential to be more detrimental to individuals who report higher levels of OC-A (Guo, Qui, & Gan, 2020; Liu, Zhou, & Che, 2019).

This is aligned with the prevailing argument presented in the literature review above. This is further supported by Kabat-Farr et al. (2018) who noted that individuals who scored high in terms of OC reported more negative emotions, for instance guilt, than their less committed counterparts, when they experienced workplace incivility, suggesting almost counterintuitively that individuals who report to be more committed to the organisation are more likely to be negatively impacted when negative interpersonal interactions arise. As previously indicated, in these instances, individuals who are more committed to their organisation are likely to experience workplace incivility more negatively as it does not align to their own internalised commitment to the organisation. This is to say that individuals who experience negative interpersonal interactions, such as workplace Incivility, even though they report higher levels of OC are more likely to experience negative emotions. This could provide an explanation for the negative relationships between workplace incivility and OC-A. This suggests that when individuals are more committed to their organisation, their experiences of aversive behaviours are likely to be received more negatively as it does not align to their own internalised commitment to the organisation. This is likely to have

implications for organisations when attempting to address turnover intentions within employees experiencing workplace incivility.

Workplace incivility and OC-C yielded a very weak correlation, indicating that when individuals experienced more workplace incivility, their feeling of commitment to the organisation linked often to a fear of loss (Meyer et al., 2002), increased. Within the South African context, this may be due in part to the high levels of unemployment within the country, currently conservatively reported to be 30.1% (Stats SA, 2020) with some noting that, in light of the current lockdown restrictions associated with the COVID-19 pandemic, that this figure could be as high as 42% (Omarjee, 2020). As such, it is likely that OC-C showed this very weak positive correlation as despite experiencing workplace incivility, these individuals are likely to feel that they have no option but to stay within their organisation due to limited options in the career market. While this is likely to moderate turnover intentions within these groups of employees, OC driven by a fear of loss is unlikely to yield positive organisational outcomes.

Workplace Incivility and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The findings presented above indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between workplace incivility and OCB, with the data indicating that it is not possible to conclude that workplace incivility predicts levels of OCB within the sample collected. These findings do not align with the prevailing argument presented in the literature review.

Research by Porath and Erez (2007) indicated that employees become less likely to engage in OCB following being exposed to workplace rudeness or similar forms of incivility, which is further supported by the ‘tit-for-tat’ framework of workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). While it is noted that no statistically significant relationship was observed

between these variables, it is important to again highlight that for this research, overall reported levels of workplace incivility were low (*M* = 1.69, *SD* = .74; refer to Appendix L, Graph 1), whilst OCB appeared to be slightly higher than what would have been anticipated (*M* = 3.38, *SD* = .70; refer to Appendix L, Graph 3). A possible explanation to explain this counterintuitive finding is that given the cross-sectional nature of this research endeavour, it is possible that individual's higher levels of OCB attenuated their experiences of workplace incivility, or perhaps within the sample, higher levels of OCB resulted in individuals being less inclined to engage in workplace incivility from the onset.

Another possible explanation for this incongruence is offered by Mackey et al. (2019) who integrated the transactional model of stress and coping with sense-making theory. Sense-making theory refers to the process in which an individual gives meaning to their experiences. This integration of models serves as an explanation as to why enactment could influence an individuals' ability to make sense of the demands of a situation (Hochwarter & Thompson, 2012). Part of this sense-making process could offer an effective means of neutralising the consequences of workplace incivility. As part of their research, Mackey et al. (2019) observed that higher levels of individual enactment enabled individuals to neutralise the adverse impact of workplace incivility on OCB by reducing their experiences of uncertainty during the second stage of cognitive appraisal, as described within Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping. This research further demonstrated that higher levels of enactment went beyond neutralising the adverse effects of workplace incivility and was in fact revealed to produce positive changes in OCB which could be a possible explanation for the results presented above.

It was also noted briefly in the literature review (refer to page 34) that leadership appears to have a strong influence on employees' willingness to engage in OCB. To this end, it is acknowledged that leadership variables have been shown to drive team spirit and morale

along with cohesiveness of the employees (O'Grady, 2018). Taking the above into consideration, it is plausible that the organisations or individuals that participated in this research endeavour could have had leaders that promoted OCB. As Chahal and Mehta (2011) note, since transformational, transactional and authentic leadership are all associated with driving behaviours associated with OCB (refer to page 34), it is likely that leadership styles is an important consideration when promoting OCB which was not included as part of the scope of this research. Pragmatically, organisations and HR teams should be encouraged to consider the prevailing leadership styles within their organisations when considering interventions associated with OCB. If leadership was indeed having an influence on individuals' willingness to engage in OCB, this could serve to explain not only why OCB still remained high (refer to Table 5) and uncorrelated to workplace incivility for the most part (refer to Table 12), but could also serve to explain why reported levels of workplace incivility were lower. As such, leadership styles could have served to model certain behaviours within these organisations that led to a lower occurrence of workplace incivility. To further build upon this point, workplace incivility might have further been moderated by the leadership styles mentioned above, whereby these leadership styles were able to attenuate/overcome any negative influence of workplace incivility experienced by individuals upon their reported levels of OCB.

Workplace Incivility and Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour

The present study's findings indicated that experienced workplace incivility is associated with a greater propensity of employees engaging in CWB. This is in line with the argument presented in the literature review. It was argued that workplace incivility has been shown to relate to increased perpetration of CWB (Liu et al., 2018; Schilpzand et al., 2016). This is a noteworthy finding, as to the researcher's knowledge, the present study is the first to

examine the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB in the South African context and to examine this relationship across a broad range of industry sectors, organisational levels and varying individual characteristics.

The findings of this research suggest that South African employees experience similar consequences as a result of experiencing workplace incivility. This is an important finding as this aligns to the meta-analysis by Schilpzand et al. (2016) who noted that workplace incivility often incites those targeted by these behaviours to engage in retaliatory and deviant behaviour as well as absenteeism/withdrawal from work. The findings of this research endeavour align with these arguments, as the sampled employees reported higher levels of CWB when they were faced with greater exposure to the stressor of workplace incivility. This was also supported by Liu et al. (2018) who indicated that employees exposed to more workplace incivility responded to that stressor through means that were not only associated with financial consequences for the organisation but also various negative employee outcomes, such as CWB. These consequences were shown to extend to impaired job attitudes, increased health-related concerns, and reduced well-being (Lim et al., 2008). In some organisations this was shown to lead to decreased productivity levels and negatively impacted the organisation's bottom line either through intentional or unintentional CWBs in response to workplace incivility (Bibi & Karim, 2013).

Since it has been demonstrated in previous research as well as the research outlined above that experienced workplace incivility can result in employees being more likely to engage in CWB, which poses negative consequences not only for the impacted individual but also the organisation, organisations need to endeavour to combat the effects of workplace incivility by the creation of strategies that equip individual employees as well as teams to effectively cope with the effects of workplace incivility as a stressor. Despite the above, within the present research endeavour further negative impacts of workplace incivility were

not observed in relation to the outcome variable of OCB. This, nevertheless, behoves managers to take cognisance of the fact that it is possible that other important outcomes, such as those mentioned in previous research (Bibi & Karim, 2013; Spector, 2010), could have been negatively implicated/affected by this relationship.

The Role of Emotional Intelligence

In the literature review, it was argued the EI was a positive coping resource for aiding employees in dealing with workplace incivility. EI's relationship with the outcome variables (CWB, OCB and OC) in addition to EIs role in moderating the relationship between workplace incivility and the outcome variables will be discussed below.

Associations between Emotional Intelligence on Individual Outcomes

EI was found to act as a significant predictor of all of the main outcome variables in the study, namely, CWB (inverse relationship), OCB and OC. This shows that overall EI is visibly associated with determining an employee's proclivity for engaging in CWB, OCB or OC. This also demonstrates that employees in the sample with higher levels of overall EI were more likely to engage in greater OCB and OC compared to those with lower levels of EI as well as being less likely to engage in CWB, due as manifested in the inverse relationship between these two variables. This is supported by numerous researchers who have long-established a negative relationship between EI and the likelihood of employees engaging in CWB, in particular Mayer et al. (2000). As mentioned in the literature review, Mayer et al. (2000) observed that EI served to decrease an individual's likelihood of engaging in deviant behaviour such as CWB.

Deshpande et al. (2005) noted that individuals with more developed EI consider CWB to be more unethical than those with lower EI, and EI may assist individuals to better control

their emotions and consequently be less likely to engage in these undesirable behaviours (Khalid et al., 2009). This is supported by the results presented above which demonstrated that overall EI (r = -.30, p < .01) as well as EI – perceptions of emotions (r = -.17, p < .05) and EI – emotional self-awareness (r = -.24, p < .01) were shown to be significantly and inversely correlated to CWB. Furthermore, overall EI (R^2 = .09) as well as EI – emotional self-awareness (R^2 = .06) indicates that 9% and 6%, respectively, of the change in CWB can be explained by these variables. This suggests that developing employees' EI, particularly in terms of their perceptions of emotions and emotional self-awareness, may assist individuals in resisting the urge to engage in CWB.

EI was shown to have a positive relationship in terms of an individual's propensity to engage in both OCB and OC. In particular, individuals with more developed EI – resilience seemed more inclined to engage in OCB, whilst individuals with more developed EI – motivation reported to being more likely to engage in OC. This suggests that resilience, as a component of EI, is pivotal in enabling employees to engage in OCB and that motivation or positive affect is a crucial part of OC for employees. In light of these findings, organisations would be encouraged to focus on developing EI, particularly the sub-factors of EI – motivation and EI – resilience when wanting to bolster OCB and OC within the organisation.

The role of EI as a moderating variable in this research endeavour will be discussed next. This will be done through the lens of a stressor-coping mechanism relationship.

Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Relationships between Workplace Incivility and CWB, OCB and OC

Previous research studies were noted to have found a moderating effect of EI on various stressor-outcome relationships. Examples of these stressors that have been shown to be moderated by EI include various workplace stressors such as: the relationship between

workplace incivility and CWB (Bibi & Karim, 2013; Deshpande et al., 2005), students' propensity to engage in deviant behaviour relative to their reported levels of sportsmanship (Khalid et al., 2009) and aid individuals in better balancing work-family conflict (Carmeli, 2003). EI has also been shown to correlate positively with OCB and negatively with CWB (Jung & Yoon, 2012).

The present research endeavour hypothesised that EI would serve as a moderator between workplace incivility and the outcome variables of CWB, OC and OCB. However, this hypothesis was not supported by the findings presented above. There are many conceivable reasons why the moderating effect of EI was not found within this research endeavour, and these potential reasons will be discussed below.

The first possible set of explanations will examine research where EI was expected to moderate stressor-outcome relationships, that is, act as a coping mechanism, and did not show any moderation. Despite the above research indicating that EI has been an effective moderator between various stressors and individual/organisational outcomes, there are a few studies where the moderating effect of EI was not found. While Bibi and Karim (2013) found that EI was capable of moderating the relationship between workplace incivility and further aversive outcomes like CWB, there has been other empirical studies which have not supported the buffering properties of EI. Carter and Loh (2017) indicated that EI would be an effective buffer against workplace incivility, noting that EI had been associated with reduced levels of anxiety, depression, and stress. Their research demonstrated that EI could moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and depression and stress. However, in line with the current research, EI was unable to significantly moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and anxiety. Given the ambiguous nature of workplace incivility, it was suggested by Carter and Loh (2017) that workplace incivility caused ongoing worrying thoughts, resulting in targeted individuals ruminating upon these events and perhaps

anticipating future encounters of workplace incivility. As such, their cognitive resources for effectively coping with workplace incivility may have become depleted regardless of their levels of EI.

Further studies focusing on EIs ability to moderate stress have also demonstrated that EI may not consistently provide an effective coping resource. It has been noted that EI does not necessarily predict an individual's choice in coping resources, nor moderate the relationship between workplace stress and coping (Mazzella Ebstein et al., 2019). While lower overall levels of resilience, which is sometimes grouped as a sub-factor of EI, have been shown to significantly predict post-traumatic stress, overall trait EI has not been shown to moderate the relationship between resilience and post-traumatic stress. Despite no moderation effect, it was suggested that EI might protect some individuals from post-traumatic stress when these individuals also have higher levels of empathy (Nightingale, Spiby, Sheen, & Slade, 2018).

Other studies examining the relationship between personality disorder traits and adjustment also found contrary results from that of their initial hypotheses, where EI did not moderate this relationship. In this instance it was argued that certain personality disorder traits might have been responsible for interfering with certain skills associated with EI which provided a possible explanation for the lack of moderation (Shead, Scott, & Rose, 2016). Furthermore, Cheung and Tang (2012), in a longitudinal study, found that EI was not able to moderate the relationship between emotional dissonance and work-to-family inference. These studies provide a foundation for arguments to follow below that certain extraneous variables not measured within the scope of this research endeavour could have been responsible for EI not moderating the relationship between workplace incivility and the outcome variables.

Further, when examining if EI could moderate the relationship between emotional labour strategies and personal outcomes (affective well-being, emotional exhaustion, and job

satisfaction), Johnson and Spector (2007) were able to establish other variables, such as gender and autonomy, that were able to moderate this relationship. However, contrary to their initial hypothesis, EI was not able to moderate the relationship between emotional labour strategies and personal outcomes.

Other strong possible arguments as to why EI did not moderate the hypothesised relationships relate to the cross-sectional nature of the study, timing effects, cognitive appraisal processes, withdrawal as well as other coping resources other than EI, social desirability bias, experience and mastery and the influence of personality variables. all of these possible explanations will be explored in greater depth in the discussion below.

with regard to cross-sectionality, the current research endeavour was cross-sectional in nature, thus only capturing participants' responses at a single point in time. the timing effects of a cross-sectional research design like in the present research endeavour, could provide an explanation as to why the moderating effect of EI was not observed. According to Bernstein (1992), for one to observe a moderating effect, participants in the research need to be observed, measured or questioned at the precise time when they are utilising the coping resource in question. within the scope of the current research endeavour, it is possible that participating employees were not surveyed at the exact time when they were experiencing the stressor (workplace incivility) and consequently making use of their EI as an internal resource to cope with workplace incivility. if the data was captured after individuals had already utilised the internal resource of EI, although the employees in question did experience workplace incivility and did use EI to cope with it. If the process of moderation was already completed, all that may have been observed was recorded lower levels of workplace incivility, the presence of EI, and no effect on the outcome variables in relation to this interaction.

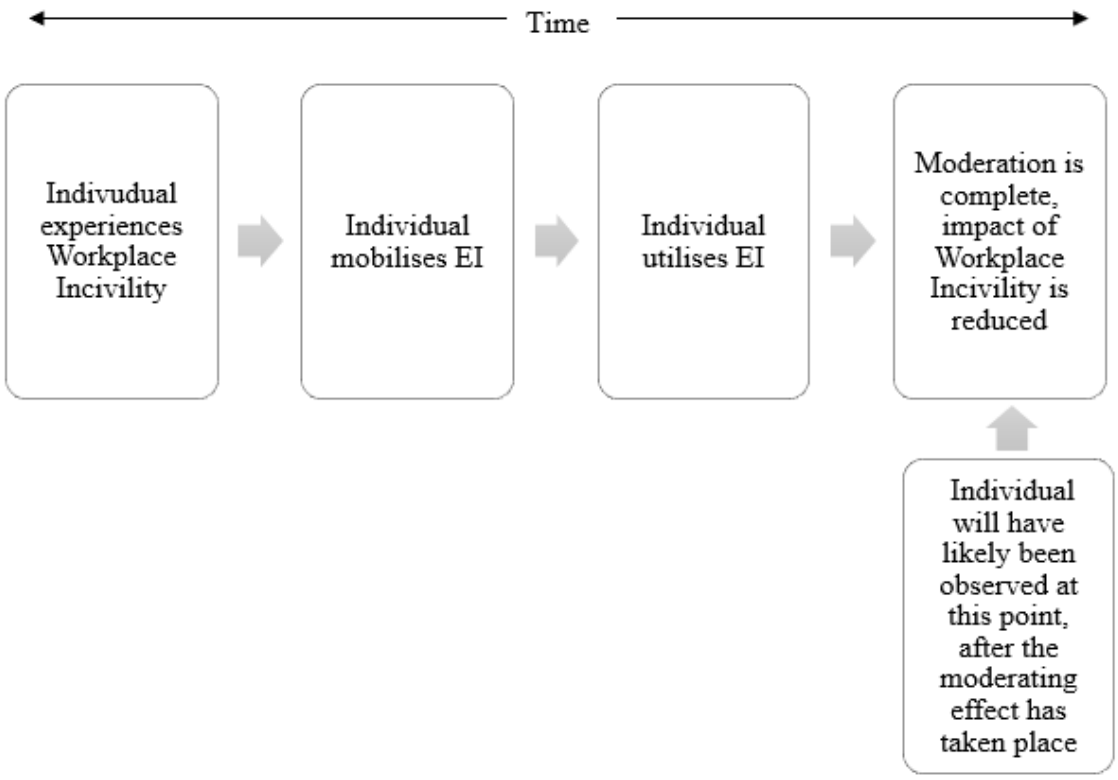
A further elaboration on this timing effect is the possibility that when considering an individual's cognitive appraisal of experiencing workplace incivility, as outlined in Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping, it is possible that the individual may have in fact perceived the workplace incivility they had experienced to be more severe as a result of the primary and secondary cognitive appraisal processes in the past, however now upon reappraisal at a later stage, the individual could conceivably re-evaluate the stressor as no longer being as severe (Crozet, 2020). Thus, the individual might have previously experienced workplace incivility to be more severe than they reported at the time of completing the survey and since individuals were not currently perceiving workplace incivility to be particularly threatening or stressful at the time of the survey, they would not have had a need to utilise EI as a mechanism to cope with this stressor. This may provide a further explanation as to why there was an absence of the moderating effect of EI in this study. This would mean that at the point of completing the survey, all that might have been reported was the after-effect of moderation (that is, no evident effect as the process had been completed), and/or the main effect of reduced stressor cognitive appraisal. Thus, all that would be evidenced at the time was relatively higher levels of EI as well as lower experienced workplace incivility as a result of the moderation having already taken place.

Thus, within the current research endeavour, participating employees may not have had accurate retrospective perceptions of how stressful they initially perceived their experiences of Workplace Incivility to be, with the coping resource of EI already being utilised (in the past) either to reduce cognitive appraisals or to moderate more stressful cognitive appraisals and their outcomes, thereby influencing employees' perceptions (downwards) of the severity of these events in the present. This suggests that the actual time when EI was being mobilised and utilised to moderate the effects of workplace incivility may not have been captured when the survey was deployed. consequently, by not capturing the sample responses at the exact

moment at which the interaction occurred, only the post-interaction levels of the construct's effect with an accurate indication of the individuals' levels of EI (higher levels of EI contributed to better OC and OCB as well as lower levels of CWB) were identified, and subsequently why there was no observation of moderating effects. Refer to Figure 21 for a diagrammatical depiction of the timing effect.

Figure 21

The Timing Effect of the Moderating Process



Interlinked with the explanation offered above is another possibility, which is linked to the cognitive appraisal process outlined in the transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). If individuals participating in this research engaged in a primary cognitive appraisal of workplace incivility that they experienced and had higher levels of EI at that point in time, it is possible that they could have appraised this uncivil behaviour as less

threatening or stressful. This would not suggest that individuals do not perceive workplace incivility as a stressor, but rather that when confronted by these situations they do not perceive them to be as severe and as a result do not engage in a secondary cognitive appraisal of this experienced workplace incivility as a threat. within the current study, this is a possibility as a large percentage of the sample had average-to-above-average levels of EI suggesting that they may have recognised workplace incivility as a deviant behaviour to some extent, but being more emotionally self-aware, were able to attribute these behaviours to other causes other than deliberate action/intention on the part of the instigator. This could explain the lower reported levels of workplace incivility as individuals attributed these uncivil actions to other causes, such as perceiving the events to be less severe and feeling that they could effectively cope with these behaviours when responding to the survey questions. this could provide an explanation for why some of the main effects emerged from the results, but why the moderation effect of EI was not observed.

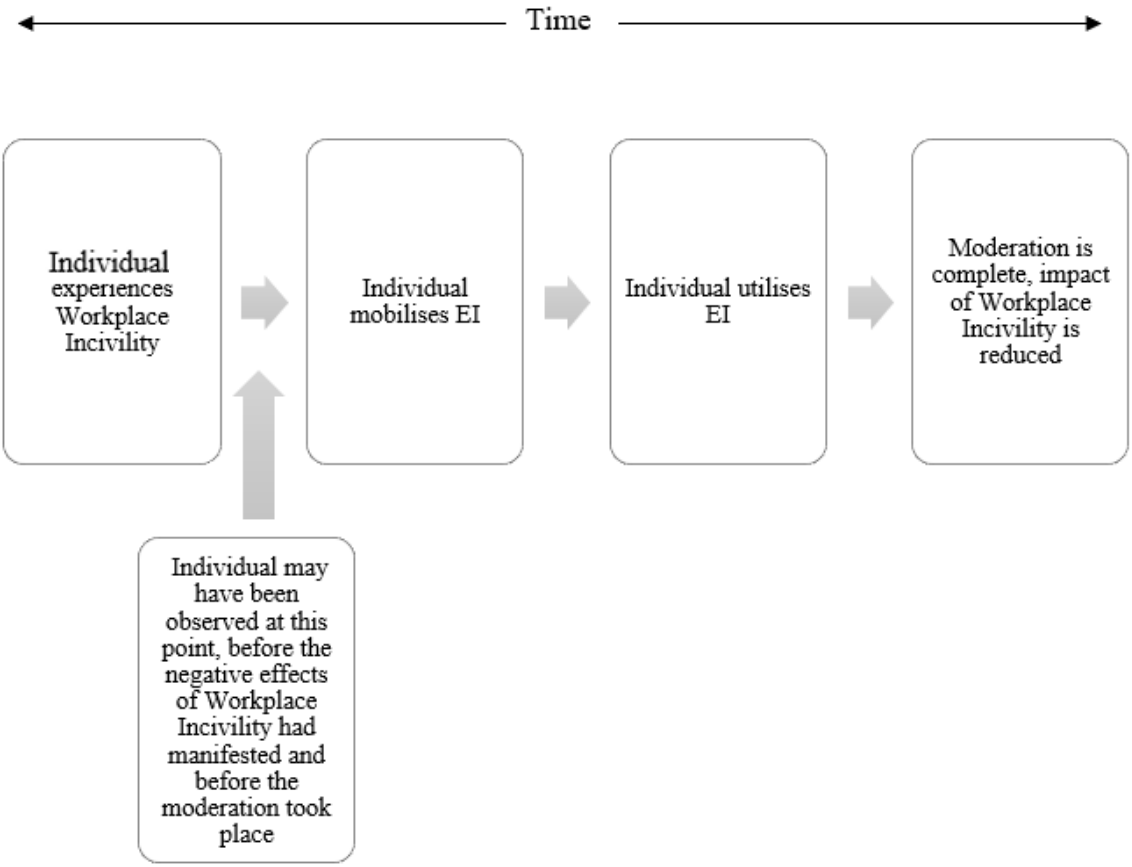
An alternative timing effect explanation is that proposed by Ford et al. (2014) who conducted a meta-analysis of longitudinal studies to examine the role of time in stressor-strain relationships. This explanation is, to some extent, also interlinked with the argument on cross-sectionality. They identified two type of effects, namely, synchronous effects and lagged effects of stressors. Synchronous effects are more cross-sectional in nature, presenting with higher levels of the stressor concurrently to higher levels of the strain (Ford et al., 2014). Conversely, lagged effects tend to be longitudinal in nature and are characterised by stressors that develop over time and, thus, there is a delayed development of the strain (Ford et al., 2014). In the context of this research endeavour, the impact of workplace incivility on the outcome variables (CWB, OCB and OC) can, to some extent, be understood from the lens of lagged effects. While forms of psychological distress may develop in close proximity to a stressor event, other consequences may develop over a longer time period. Accordingly,

employees could have been experiencing workplace incivility to some extent at the time of participating in this research, but the effects of that workplace incivility on their propensity to engage in CWB, OC and OCB may still be to come. This suggests that even if the employees participating is this research did have higher levels of EI, which they could deploy as a coping mechanism to deal with workplace incivility, the interaction or moderating effects of EI noted above might not have been observable as the stressor because it had not yet become severe enough or as yet, resulted in negative effects on the individual to warrant a cognitive appraisal that the event was severe enough to enact EI to deal with workplace incivility. therefore, it is possible that individuals' experiences of workplace incivility and the outcome variables were recorded before any interaction had occurred. Refer to Figure 22 showing a depiction of the lagged effects in the moderating process.

A further possible explanation which also builds upon the timing effect arguments is to consider the timing effects of workplace incivility and EI. This is to suggest that if an individual has higher levels of EI, they could potentially use this EI to retrospectively appraise and in that way cope with workplace incivility. this would explain how when responding to the survey, individuals reported experiencing less workplace incivility as they had already engaged in a cognitive appraisal process and had used EI to moderate the impact of workplace incivility in regards to the likelihood of them engaging in the outcome variables (CWB, OCB and OC). As such, EI would have already been mobilised and utilised as a coping mechanism. This serves to explain why EI had main effects on the outcome variables in question and, as such, provides an explanation as to why moderating effects were not observed.

Figure 22

Lagged Effects in the Moderating Process



To sum up the above explanations, there are numerous timing effects as well as considerations around the cognitive appraisal process of a stressor which may have operated singularly or in combination which could have influenced whether the process of mobilising and utilising a coping mechanism, in this instance EI, as well as whether the potential moderating effect was actually evident and recorded.

Beyond timing effects, a second argument is that a precedent has been set within scholarly research that workplace incivility is often conceptualised as a workplace stressor and CWB as an emotional response to these actions (Bibi & Karim, 2013; Chen & Spector,

1992; Fox & Spector, 1999), which aligns to the hypotheses of this research endeavour. Within the sub-facets of CWB, withdrawal behaviour has been shown to be one of the most prominent responses to uncivil treatment in the workplace (Bibi & Karim, 2013), suggesting that withdrawal is often the coping resource most employees revert to when attempting to cope with instances of Workplace Incivility (Krischer et al., 2010). Consequently, it is possible that withdrawal strategies, rather than an individual relying on EI, could be the coping mechanism most frequently utilised when responding to workplace incivility and can explain why main effects were observed but not a moderating effect of EI – as the sub-facet of CWB (withdrawal) is actually being mobilised and utilised as a coping mechanism rather than EI. Further to withdrawal behaviour, Bibi and Karim (2013) found that counterproductive deviance was the second most prevalent response to workplace incivility whilst sabotage and theft were the least preferred response strategies for individuals within their study. One of the observations by Bibi and Karim (2013) was that the nature of the job is likely to be an important factor in determining the selected CWB response. As such, there is the possibility that the nature of the job types within the present sample influenced the manifestation of workplace incivility as well as the outcome variable of CWB and could explain why both of these variables were reported at lower severities to what would have been expected.

Another possibility, as a third explanation to account for the lower scores for workplace incivility (M = 1.69, SD = .74; refer to Appendix L, Graph 1) and CWB (M = 1.55, SD = .42; refer to Appendix L, Graph 2) indicating that individuals who partook in the research did not report to frequently experience workplace incivility or CWB, is that the results of these measures might have been impacted by social desirability bias. While it has been argued that higher levels of EI could have served to reduce perceptions of workplace incivility at the cognitive appraisal stages, social desirability is also an important factor in under-reporting

certain experiences and behaviours. Social desirability bias is often encountered in surveys that ask about taboo or antisocial topics, such as workplace incivility.

With regard to under-reporting workplace incivility, respondents may not have been able to acknowledge themselves as victims/targets of workplace incivility and could have been driven by a need to protect their self-esteem and ego. This postulates that self-reported experiences of workplace incivility may have been downplayed to avoid being labelled as a 'victim', and as such, responses might have been the by-product of individuals' fears of admitting to or confronting the fact that one has been the target of workplace incivility (Jennifer, Cowie, & Ananiadou, 2003). Furthermore, labelling oneself as a 'victim' has the potential to negatively impact upon an individual's self-esteem. Even by just internally acknowledging these events, this can be interpreted as personal weakness (Hunter, Mora-Merchan, & Ortega, 2004). This serves as an explanation as to why individuals might have shied away from reporting experiences of workplace incivility even in an anonymised survey. It is possible that individuals would have tried to avoid their true emotions and experiences pertaining to these events with the purpose of protecting their sense of self-esteem and reaffirming their status as a 'non-victim' (Sham, 2012).

Following on from this, individuals experiencing workplace incivility might have been engaging in a process of 'perception shifting' whereby they reappraised these negative interactions in an attempt to reduce associated feelings of inferiority or vulnerability (Hunter et al., 2004; Jennifer et al., 2003). This draws parallels to elements of psychoanalytic theory wherein the reportedly lower experienced levels of workplace incivility can be attributed to a Kleinian notion of projective identification (Sham, 2012). Projective identification is defined as "the process by which specific impulses, aspects of the self or internal objects are imagined to be located in some object external to oneself" (Rycroft, 1968, as cited in White, 2004, p. 274). While projective identification has been more commonly associated with the

perpetrators of deviant behaviours, Sham (2012) argues that the same principle provides an explanation for why targeted individuals fear admitting to a victim status to themselves or others. This could either manifest as denial or repression of these events in order to avoid confronting the reality of experiencing these aversive workplace interactions (White, 2004).

Within the scope of the current research endeavour, it is thus possible that individuals responding to the survey questions might have engaged in one or more of these self-preservation tactics described above. Furthermore, they could have over-inflated their reported levels of workplace incivility in order to perpetuate their self-image of 'fineness' (Sham, 2012). Whilst this cannot be confirmed definitively, psychoanalytic theories and processes could provide another explanation and rationale for the individuals avoiding confrontation with situations that require them to admit to being a victim and the stigma which is associated with this label, or, conversely, say it was worse, that is, over-report but show themselves as survivors.

With regard to CWB as this is a deviant anti-social behaviour, respondents may clearly have underreported their engagement in some of the behaviours contained within the survey as a consequence of respondents experiencing self-presentation concerns, resulting in respondents being more likely to overreport socially desirable activities and, conversely, underreport socially undesirable activities (Krumpal, 2013). This is an inherent challenge in self-report surveys because, whilst they provide insight into individuals' personal thoughts and opinions, they can also prove to be troublesome in that they make the assumption that participants will accurately self-report on their behaviours without being influenced by social desirability, self-promotion and/or the need to protect their identity/ego/sense of self (Stangor, 2011). This could further provide an explanation for the skewed data collected for both the workplace incivility and CWB scales within this research endeavour. This is to suggest that

individuals might have been engaging in social desirability bias, self-promotion or self-protection when responding to the survey questions.

A fourth possible explanation posits that experience and mastery could play a pivotal role in effectively coping with stressors in the workplace, such as workplace incivility. A higher perception of mastery on the part of the individual when dealing with workplace stressors could influence the extent to which the individual needs to rely upon EI to successfully cope with the stressor (Bernstein, 1992; Mausbach et al., 2006; Zanbar, Kaniasty, Ben-Tzur, & Dekel, 2021). This suggests that if an individual has previous experience dealing with a particular stressor (workplace incivility), then they may have developed successful mechanisms to cope with workplace incivility. This would mean that at the time that individuals' perceptions of workplace incivility were being captured, these individuals could have already learnt how to cope with workplace incivility based on their past experiences, and therefore all that would have emerged from the cross-sectional timing of the sampling process could conceivably be individuals who have successfully managed workplace incivility in the past, thus explaining the lower perceptions of workplace incivility in this regard. Consequently, individuals genuinely do not view experiences of workplace incivility as overly threatening or stressful when responding to the self-report survey. This could also help to explain the results of the ANOVAs for the demographic variable of age and workplace incivility, which indicated that individuals under the age of 35 perceive Workplace Incivility to be more severe than their older counterparts. Although as mentioned above, while the ANOVA model for age was significant, the post hoc tests were not significant. Nevertheless, it is still possible that the lower means which were noted by older individuals could be attributed to experience and mastery. Based on the argument outlined above, it is possible that older individuals have had more time to develop mastery and, as such, perceive their experiences of workplace incivility to be less severe. These findings regarding age

differences align with the prevailing argument presented in the literature review above, which indicated that younger individuals (Lim & Lee, 2011), and in particular individuals from generation X (born 1965 to 1980) versus the baby-boomer generation before them (born 1946-1964; Leiter et al., 2010) are more likely to experience Workplace Incivility.

A fifth possibility that could explain the lack of moderation between workplace incivility and the outcome variables is that personality variables could play a significant moderating role. It is noted that there is a wide array of personality variables that can have a bearing on an individual's capability to cope effectively with stress. Within the ICM model, the two main dimensions (dominance-submissiveness and hostility-friendliness) and the eight octant scales plotted between these dimensions are likely to have an impact on the type of coping resource the individual utilises in response to workplace stressors. For example, the dominance dimension can tend towards dominance-hostility which is often characterised by an arrogant or calculating demeanour, or dominance-friendliness which is characterised by a gregarious or extroverted demeanour. Correspondingly, submissiveness can also tend towards submissiveness-hostility which is often characterised by a shy or passive-aggressive demeanour, or submissiveness-friendliness which is characterised by an unassuming or overly accommodating demeanour (Bernstein, 2013). These differences could allude to differing coping mechanisms for different individuals. Furthermore, individuals who are highly assertive have been shown to be better able to cope with stress broadly, as they are more likely to view these stressors as a challenge instead of a threat (Tomaka, Palacios, Colotla, Concha, & Herrald, 1999), which could inadvertently influence their cognitive appraisal of the workplace stressor. Further, building upon this premise that personality variables could provide alternative coping mechanisms and, as such, explain the lack of a moderating effect for EI, individuals high in the FFM dimensions of extraversion and conscientiousness were noted by Connor-Smith and Flachsbart (2007) to utilise more problem-solving techniques

when dealing with stress, and thus be more effective when coping with stress. These findings suggest that other resources in the form of personality types or traits could have been utilised to cope with workplace incivility. Since the measurement of personality was beyond the scope of this research endeavour, it is plausible that the traits mentioned above or perhaps other pertinent personality traits could have been present within the individuals who participated and served to moderate workplace incivility and thereby diminish the importance of EI as a moderator.

Finally, a number of other extraneous variables could have influenced the relationships between the variables in this research endeavour and subsequently concealed the moderating effect of EI. For example, Geldart et al. (2018) established that social support, particularly from co-workers, reduced the negative impact of workplace incivility upon individual outcomes such as anxiety, depression and hostility. Furthermore, social support in addition to perceptions of greater personal control have been associated with diminishing the association between witnessed or experienced workplace incivility and an individual subsequently becoming an instigator of workplace incivility (Holm, Torkelson, & Bäckström, 2015). As such, this provides credence that it is possible that other variables, for example social support, could have also moderated the relationship between workplace incivility and the outcome variables in this research endeavour, as individuals may have utilised social support from those around them to cope with workplace incivility. Therefore, it is possible that social support rather than EI may have been operating and accounted for EI providing no evidence of moderation. Building upon this explanation, individuals with higher levels of EI tend to also have stronger social support networks or structures in place (Bernstein, 2013), further supporting that these two variables may have been working in parallel. EI and social support have been demonstrated to work in conjunction as moderators for the relationship between emotional labour and burnout, showing that these variables can have a buffering effect on the

negative outcomes associated with other forms of workplace stressors (Da-Won & Young-Hee, 2012). Furthermore, EI and social support have been shown to significantly predict individuals' subjective well-being (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008). These findings provide further support that EI may not have been operating in isolation to moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and the outcome variables.

Further to this point pertaining to extraneous variables, other antecedents of workplace incivility could have also been extraneous variables in that they influenced the relationship between workplace incivility and the outcome variables and subsequently concealed the moderating impact of EI. For example, Trudel and Reio (2011) noted that individual conflict management styles (high dominating style or, alternatively, low integration conflict management style) significantly predicted the likelihood as well as forms of workplace incivility that individuals engaged in. In particular, it was noted that high dominating as well as low integrating styles predicted both the likelihood of someone engaging in workplace incivility as well as their likelihood of being targeted by acts of workplace incivility.

Regarding contextual or situational extraneous variables concerning workplace Incivility within this study, Schilpzand et al. (2016) acknowledge that the body of research focusing on this area of enquiry is still quite limited. Nevertheless, experiencing less stress and higher workgroup expectations or norms of civility have been shown to reduce the occurrence of uncivil workplace conduct (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012; Walsh et al., 2012). From a dispositional standpoint, studies have shown that individuals from racial minorities (Cortina et al., 2013), those of a younger age (Lim & Lee, 2011), and in particular individuals from generation X (born 1965 to 1980) versus the baby-boomer generation before them (born 1946-1964; Leiter et al., 2010) are more likely to experience workplace incivility. As such, it is possible that these variables could have in part or in combination influenced the

relationship between workplace incivility and the outcome variables, and as a result concealed the moderating impact of EI.

Given the limited scope of this research, it was not possible to measure every possible contributing variable to an individual's ability to effectively develop coping mechanisms in response to workplace incivility. As such, other coping mechanisms likely to be relevant to the individual's performance or ability to moderate these adverse influences within their environment might have been mobilised and utilised by individuals participating in this research to cope with workplace incivility rather than EI, which could explain why no moderating effects for EI were observed.

Conclusion

It is apparent from the above discussion that workplace incivility has severe implications for individuals as well as organisations in terms of increased CWB and OC-C and reduced OC-A. However, contrary to the hypotheses outlined above (refer to page 60), it appeared that EI did not contribute to moderating the stressor-coping mechanism relationship between workplace incivility and the outcome variables of CWB, OC and OCB. Possible explanations for this lack of moderation are offered above. This is supported by other research studies not always identifying the buffering effects of EI in different stressor-coping mechanism relationships.

While the moderating effect of EI in the inter-relationship between workplace incivility and the outcome variables were not supported, this research endeavour still provides a valuable contribution to the growing body of knowledge on workplace incivility in the South African context. It is important to note that given the limited scope and timeframe associated with this research that this study focused on a limited number of variables within a narrow time frame. As such, it is advised that further research needs to be conducted to examine a far

wider range of different outcome variables, potential moderating variables and theoretical frameworks in relation to workplace incivility. In addition, it would also be of value to examine the implications of workplace incivility longitudinally, so that it may be possible to examine the process of workplace incivility as it unfolds. Furthermore, workplace incivility could also be examined not only from the perspective of experienced workplace incivility, but to also include instigated and witnessed workplace incivility.

Another consideration within the current global context would be to examine workplace incivility within the context of working from home due to lockdowns in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. This would serve to contribute to the ever-expanding knowledge of workplace incivility in the South African context. The findings of this research endeavour along with future findings will better enable individuals and organisations to identify, manage and perhaps eventually prevent workplace incivility as well as the negative consequences associated with this behaviour.

Limitations of the Current Study

Limitations are defined as issues that are likely to negatively affect the research or may be difficult for the researcher to control, and as such could affect the conclusions drawn from the study. This can include constraints regarding the generalisability of results, applications to real life or the utility of the results garnered as a result of the research design utilised at the onset of the research endeavour (Price & Murnan, 2004).

While the research provided various important findings and insights into this field of inquiry, it is acknowledged that this research is not without limitations/weaknesses. These include: (1) cross-sectional design, (2) unrepresentative demographical nature of the sample, (3) sample size and time constraints limiting the data collection process and (4) measures/methods of data collection. In addition, it is noted by the researcher that the scope

of the study precluded the possibility of measuring a vast array of extraneous variables that could have played a role in the relationships in question.

Given the scope and timeline of this research project and that it is cross-sectional in nature, it is important to acknowledge the limitations of this approach. This approach meant that it was only possible to explore the experiences of individuals at a singular point in time and, as such, it would not provide any conclusions regarding causality. As a result of participants only completing the survey once, it was not possible to provide insights into the sequences of events in which these variables will unfold (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). In essence, we do not know if exposure to the stressor (experienced workplace incivility) occurred as a precursor or subsequent to the dependent variables. In addition, it was not possible to explore if there were any antecedent conditions that may have precipitated the enactment of workplace incivility by perpetrators upon targets of such behaviour.

Furthermore, there were limitations pertaining to the sample method, namely that of snowball sampling, with the main limitation of an exponential discriminative snowball sample being that it is non-representative in nature. It creates a systematic bias in that individuals are likely to forward the survey to peers similar to themselves and, as a consequence, bias is likely to occur within the sample (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012) resulting in diminished generalisability and potentially limiting the external validity of the research. This is apparent, as outlined in Chapter 2: Sample and Sampling, (refer to page 63) where it was indicated that the underlying demographic characteristics of the sample were not representative of the broader South African population. A fair proportion of the sample comprised of white females with post-graduate degrees between the ages of 25 to 34 years working in individual contributor/professional roles. While the majority of the sample comprised of white individuals, according to Stats SA (2019), the white population is estimated at 7.9% of the total South African population whilst, conversely, South Africa has a

black population of approximately 80.7% which is not reflected in the research sample. This raises concerns regarding the generalisability of these results. Moreover, women are reported to comprise 51.2% of the population in South Africa (Stats SA, 2019), however, woman accounted for 58% of the sample for this study which means this is not totally indicative of the typical gender distribution of the South African population, particularly when taking into further consideration other demographic variables such as race.

The study also required the use of a computer or another internet enabled mobile device in order to access the survey, and this could have hindered some participants from accessing the survey. However, as previously recognised, smart phone penetration within South Africa at the time of this research commencing had reached over 80% of the population (ICASA, 2019) and therefore the potential limitations herein are considered to be minimal, particularly considering that the research focused on working professionals who would have been anticipated to have access to a work computer. However, while most individuals in the country may have had access to a device, less may have had sufficient access to data outside of work and may have been reluctant to use the little data they had on filling out the survey. In addition, not all people working from home would have had high quality internet connectivity. A lack of electricity or load shedding could also have affected individuals' ability to log into the survey. This could have reduced the sample size and demographics of the sample with regard to who could and could not respond based on device, data, and connectivity access limitations.

Furthermore, time constraints limited the data collection process thereby limited the number of possible respondents that could partake in the survey. This was necessitated by the need to move to commence with data cleaning and statistical analysis and eventually required the conclusion of the data collection process. As a result, the final sample for this study was only 150 individuals. From the perspective of being able to carry out an EFA, this is not ideal

and may have somewhat compromised the data that resulted from this analysis (Faber & Fonseca, 2014). As previously mentioned, a number of items were dropped from the SSEIT measure of EI as they did not load onto any particular factor and this reduction of items may have impacted upon the ability of the construct to moderate the relationships proposed.

Finally, a self-report method was utilised to gather responses, which is often a source of criticism within any research design. Often self-report methods result in respondents responding to the survey in a socially desirable manner rather than reflecting their true beliefs and attitudes. Particularly with the focus being on workplace incivility as well as the outcome variables of CWB, OC and OCB, it is likely that social desirability bias crept into the sample, in which respondents gave answers that were socially approved of in order to make the situation appear better or perhaps worse than it actually was (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). Consequently, the reported levels of all of these variables could potentially be inflated or deflated. This is particularly of concern when the survey was distributed internally within an organisation. The research attempted to minimise the impact thereof by ensuring participants were made aware that their responses were completely anonymous and confidential, and that no personally identifiable data was recorded or shared with anyone other than the researcher. However, as mentioned, some participants in order to protect their sense of self may have under-reported, despite the survey being anonymised. In these instances, it is possible that while the survey was ‘anonymous’, individuals still downplayed these negative experiences as a means to protect their own self-esteem. Other potential explanations for under-reporting can be due to memory lapses of individuals responding in which they struggle to fully recall the frequency and severity of their experiences (Gemming, Jiang, Swinburn, & Ni Mhurchu, 2014). Another possible explanation for under-reporting pertains to an individual’s self-esteem. Ferns (2006) noted that under-reporting of experiences of Workplace Incivility was often associated with lower levels of self-esteem.

It is important to consider the potential impact of social desirability on responses, particularly when respondents are responding to questions around workplace incivility, OC, OCB and CWB. Social desirability is defined as "the tendency for people to present themselves in a generally favourable fashion" (Holden & Passey, 2009, p. 441), and became a pertinent concern when utilising self-report assessments focused on personality or attitudes as individuals were likely to respond in a manner that they believed would be socially acceptable or culturally appropriate. As such, it is possible that certain responses in the survey may have been inadvertently minimised despite the research attempting to mitigate this concern by ensuring anonymity of respondents and reiterating that data collected would only be utilised for academic purposes. In fact, anecdotally, certain respondents indicated a distrust of the survey method and expressed concern that their responses would become known by their managers or peers and the corresponding consequences thereof.

Recommendations for Future Research

While this study satisfied its purpose of contributing to the literature and research on workplace incivility, particularly for the South African context, there are nevertheless several opportunities for supplementary research.

Given the scope of this research project making use of a cross-sectional research design and acknowledging the limitations mentioned above, potential follow up research stemming from this topic would pertain to exploring the nature of any such correlations that may exist and determining if and what the causal links are between workplace incivility and CWB, OCB and OC within the context of a study that is longitudinal in nature (Smidt et al., 2016). This would enable follow up research to describe the nature of causality and directionality of such relationships (Taris & Kompier, 2006).

It would also be advisable to conduct future research within the South African context with a larger sample size as this will allow the results from the statistical techniques applied to hold greater statistical power and ensure they meet all assumptions required to accurately carry out these techniques. It is further acknowledged that the current study is likely to be non-representative of the South African population at large, in terms of demographics particularly focused around race and educational level and a larger sample size may further aid in ensuring a more representative sample of the South African population.

Whilst the impact of using an online survey method is considered to be marginal due to the current research focusing on working professionals who are anticipated to have access to a work computer with internet, it is acknowledged that there could have also been a need to measure experiences of individuals from lower income levels or blue collar workers who may not necessarily have access to a computer or internet enabled smart phone. As such, future research may need to consider incorporating these demographic groups and making allowances for completion of the survey via paper and pencil.

Other possibilities would be to explore the possible impact of demographical factors or industry characteristics on these variables and hypothesised relationships. Although no reported differences in demographics were evidenced in the present sample, when conducting the secondary analysis of biographical variables this could be a reflection of the lack of representativeness in the sample with regard to certain demographics. This may also be true for smaller groupings of individuals within the demographic subsets of this research endeavour. Targeting more specific groups in terms of sector and job level would provide a greater depth of information pertaining to populations where these factors may be more prevalent. Beyond demographic factors or industry characteristics, Schilpzand et al. (2016) highlighted that contextual or situational variables, such as organisational culture, organisational climate, workgroup norms pertaining to civility and low role stress, as

important considerations concerning the perpetration as well as experiences of workplace incivility is a body of research that is still quite limited and as such could warrant further investigation.

As noted in the research by Bibi and Karim (2013), the nature of an individual's job or job roles is likely to be an important factor in determining the outcome variables an individual is more likely to engage in, in response to workplace incivility, as well as the severity of these behaviours. In light of this and acknowledging the limitations in terms of this study's research sample demographics, in this regard it would also be recommended that the impact of job role determining likely outcome variables to workplace incivility be explored in greater depth.

Finally, as this research is posed from a quantitative perspective it may also be insightful to conduct qualitative research on these themes as this could provide a richer source of information for these postulated relationships, if identified, as it will be possible to explore these relationships, antecedents and consequences in an open-ended manner without being limited by the highly structured nature of a positivist, quantitative research approach.

Practical Recommendations

The body of information presented above clearly demonstrates that workplace incivility does have a negative impact upon the outcome variables investigated. Moreover, there is an expanding volume of empirical research that has demonstrated that workplace incivility can impact both individual as well as organisational outcomes. This highlights that it is in an organisation's best interest to introduce practical interventions to reduce workplace incivility and perhaps promote certain elements of EI to maintain and enhance OC.

As a preliminary step, interventions need to be aimed at reducing and eliminating workplace incivility within the work context. Both primary in addition to secondary interventions must be aimed at addressing both individual behaviours, culture as well as

leadership in order to reduce the perpetration of workplace incivility (Hodgins, MacCurtain, & Mannix-McNamara, 2014).

In terms of primary interventions, these would need to be focused on the organisation-wide policies and procedures that can be put in place to help both managers as well as employees reduce the occurrences of workplace incivility. As such, workplace policies would need to adopt and emphasise a zero-tolerance stance on these types of deviant behaviours being displayed by individuals within the organisation. This would also need to be followed up by proper procedures to enable individuals who experience or witness workplace incivility to safely report individuals who are perpetrating workplace incivility (Bibi & Karim, 2013; Warrner, Sommers, Zappa, & Thornlow, 2016). In alignment with policies and procedures, training programmes should be provided to employees at all levels within the organisation as to create awareness and to provide a clear understanding of behaviours associated with workplace incivility (Warrner et al., 2016), so that individuals can clearly identify someone engaging in workplace incivility and likewise ensure that they do not engage in these deviant behaviours that could be regarded as workplace incivility. Further to this point, organisations need to emphasise to all employees that constructive and positive workplace behaviours are more effective at driving both the attainment of individual as well as organisational objectives.

In terms of secondary interventions, it is acknowledged that cognitive rehearsal can be an effective tool in decreasing instances of workplace incivility. Cognitive rehearsal is a therapeutic technique wherein individuals are encouraged to not respond immediately to events that they perceive to be threatening or stressful (workplace incivility) and are instead encouraged to mentally rehearse more appropriate responses which are unlikely to further escalate the interaction. Kile et al. (2018) established that cognitive rehearsal was effective in equipping individuals to more readily recognise and confront workplace incivility, and

resulted in less reported workplace incivility over a period of time. Furthermore, at an environmental level it was noted that fostering an environment that allows individuals to provide quality work outputs in an environment which is perceived to be safe is crucial. Here, safety can be viewed as a work environment that promotes an organisational culture wherein unprofessional or deviant behaviour is appropriately addressed and organisations do not inadvertently promote such behaviours. Promoting an environment of this nature should also enable individuals to be more comfortable to speak out when experiencing workplace incivility (Warrner et al., 2016).

Finally, with regards to HR, there is a need to empower HR departments and practitioners to both identify and curtail behaviours associated with. HR practitioners need to take a keen role in championing for constructive and positive workplace behaviours (Tricahyadinata, Suryani, Zainurossalamia, & Selamet Riadi, 2020) and taking necessary corrective actions (primary or secondary) to effectively address workplace incivility. Tricahyadinata et al. (2020) further highlight the importance of senior management acknowledging the existence of workplace incivility within their workforce and being prepared to implement the necessary interventions to curtail this behaviour. Practical suggestions in this regard include promoting a work environment characterised by mutual respect and equipping employees to identify and improve their communication patterns with peers, subordinates and managers.

To draw to a conclusion, this research endeavour as well as other similar empirical studies have highlighted the extent and severity of various individual and organisational outcomes in relation to workplace incivility. Whilst the moderating effects of EI were generally not found within the scope of this current research endeavour, there is other research to suggest that EI can be a significant coping resource for individuals experiencing workplace incivility (Bibi & Karim, 2013). As such, this warrants further examination of the

utilisation and development of EI in addition to other coping resources as effective mechanisms that can be employed by individuals to cope with experiences of workplace incivility. In this regard, organisations should work towards establishing interventions that can assist employees in developing and enhancing their EI so as to provide for more positive engagement between employees in the organisations concerned (Bibi & Karim, 2013).

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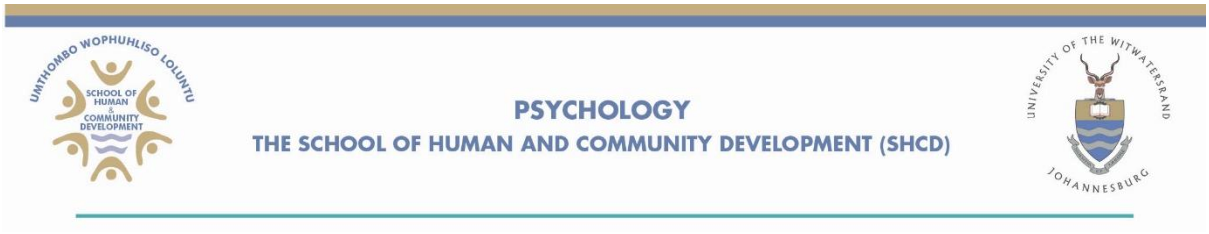
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Appendices

Appendix A – Quantitative Employee Participant Information Sheet – Addressed to the Employee



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4503/53 • E-mail: Lungile.Khumalo@wits.ac.za or Jabu.Maseko@wits.ac.za

Dear Sir / Madam

Invitation to participate in a research project

My name is Hayley Dady, and I am currently completing my Master's degree in the Department of Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am presently conducting research on Work Incivility, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence in South African Employees. This area of research is designed to investigate the experiences of workplace incivility in South African organisations and how these impacts upon counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour as well as organisational commitment as well as the influence of Emotional Intelligence on these relationships.

To carry out this research project, I would, therefore, like to invite you to participate in this study if you are;

- aged between 18 and 65
- who are not self-employed.

Participation will involve the completion of a survey, which should take approximately 45 minutes to complete. If you choose to participate in the study, please complete and submit the survey in full within one month of receiving it. You will be able to complete the survey online. The site is secure and encrypted an no one has access to this site other than the researcher.

The site is as follows: https://forms.gle/Q8VCSSaujEspf21V6

Please note that participating in the completion of the survey is voluntary and you will not be at an advantage or disadvantage for choosing to complete or to not complete the survey. Anonymity will be assured, as there will be no identifying characteristics that will lead to the exposure of your identity or the identity of the organisation that you belong too. While questions will be asked about your personal circumstances, no identifying information, such as your name or I.D. number, will be asked for, and as such, you will remain anonymous. Moreover, you will be requested to complete the survey through a secure and encrypted online website. Although IP addresses can serve as an identifier for the online survey, they will be deleted immediately once all the data is downloaded. This will ensure that your information remains completely anonymous. No other party, other than the researcher and supervisor will have access to the completed surveys and thus confidentiality will be ensured. The data will also be protected, as it will be stored on a password-protected computer that only the supervisor and researcher will have access too.

It must also be noted that you can withdraw from filling out the survey at any point in time however once you complete and submit the survey, informed consent will be deemed to have been given. Should you wish to receive feedback on the study a summary of results will be made available upon request. This summary will be in the form of group trends.

It must be emphasised that your wellbeing is of utmost importance. Therefore, while no harm is expected to be experienced by any employee who opts to complete the survey, should you

feel that you need support or counselling services following the survey and personal communication, these are available free of charge at Emthonjeni Centre and can be arranged by contacting Paballo Lepota (Telephone: 011 717 – 4513).

In addition, if you have any other queries relating to the research, in general, you are free to the supervisor or researcher at the details provided below.

Please note that responses obtained from your survey will only be utilised for academic research and will not be used for any other purposes. Results from this research will be published in the Wits online research repository and may be used for publication and conference proceedings in the form of trends. However, in all instances the data collected will remain completely anonymous and your confidentiality will be ensured through the steps mentioned above. Volunteering to participate in this study would be greatly appreciated as it will contribute to a larger body of knowledge on implications and psychological resources associated with workplace incivility in the working context. The research study is an independent study, which will be conducted under the supervision of an Industrial Psychologist at the University of the Witwatersrand.

Kind Regards,





Hayley Dady

818199@students.wits.ac.za

Dr Colleen Bernstein:

Colleen.Bernstein@wits.ac.za

For any queries pertaining to ethics please contact:

Shaun Schoeman (HREC University of the Witwatersrand)

Email: Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za

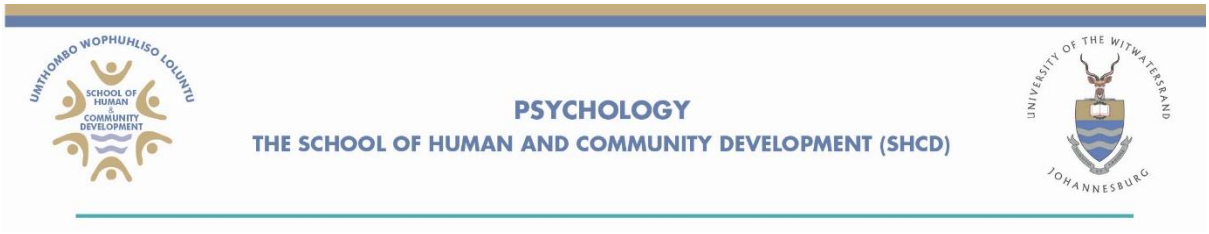
Telephone: 011 717 – 1408

For any queries pertaining to counselling/debriefing please contact:

Paballo Lepota (Emthonjeni Centre at the University of the Witwatersrand)

Telephone: 011 717 – 4513

Appendix B – Quantitative Employee Participant Information Sheet – Addressed to the Employer



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4503/53 • E-mail: Lungile.Khumalo@wits.ac.za or Jabu.Maseko@wits.ac.za

Dear Sir / Madam

Invitation to participate in a research project

My name is Hayley Dady, and I am currently completing my Master's degree in the Department of Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am presently conducting research on Work Incivility, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence in South African Employees. This area of research is designed to investigate the experiences of workplace incivility in South African organisations and how these impacts upon counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour as well as organisational commitment as well as the influence of Emotional Intelligence on these relationships.

To carry out this research project, I would request your organisations assistance in investigating these topics. I would therefore like to invite employees in your organisation to participate in this study. It would be greatly appreciated if your HR department would assist in distributing an online invitation and survey, which should take approximately 45 minutes to complete to your employees. If you choose to participate in the study as an organisation, please distribute the online survey to all employees (a template and link will be provided for

your convenience). To carry out this research project, I would, therefore, like to invite individuals;

- aged between 18 and 65
- who are not self-employeed

to participate in this research. The site is secure and encrypted and no one has access to this site other than the researcher.

The site is as follows: https://forms.gle/Q8VCSSaujEspf21V6

Please note that participating in the completion of the survey is voluntary for your organisation, as well as for your employees and no one, will be advantaged or disadvantaged by choosing to complete or not complete the survey. Anonymity will be assured for the organisation as well as for your employees, as there will be no identifying characteristics reported upon. While questions will be asked about personal circumstances, no identifying information, such as employees' name or I.D. number, will be asked for, and as such, your employees will remain anonymous. Moreover, completion of the survey will be achieved through a secure and encrypted online website. Although IP addresses can serve as an identifier for the online survey, they will be deleted immediately once all the data is downloaded. This will ensure that the information remains completely anonymous. No other party, other than the researcher and supervisor will have access to the completed surveys and all data will be stored on a password-protected computer and thus confidentiality will be ensured.

It must also be noted that employees can withdraw from filling out the survey at any point in time however, once they complete and submit the survey informed consent will be deemed to have been given. Should employees wish to receive feedback on the study a summary of results will be made available upon request, in the form of group trends and not organisational specific information.

Please note that responses obtained from the survey will only be utilised for academic research and will not be used for any other purposes. Results from this research will be published in the Wits online research repository and may be used for publication and conference proceedings in the form of trends. However, in all instances the data collected will remain completely anonymous and your confidentiality will be ensured through the steps mentioned above. Allowing access to employees to participate in this study would be greatly appreciated as it will contribute to a larger body of knowledge on implications and psychological resources associated with workplace incivility in the working context. The research study is an independent study, which will be conducted under the supervision of an Industrial Psychologist at the University of the Witwatersrand.

Kind Regards,





Hayley Dady

818199@students.wits.ac.za

Dr Colleen Bernstein:

Colleen.Bernstein@wits.ac.za

For any queries pertaining to ethics please contact:

Shaun Schoeman (HREC University of the Witwatersrand)

Email: Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za

Telephone: 011 717 – 1408

Appendix C – Email Template for Organisational Distribution

Good day,

I trust you are well,

By receiving this email, you are invited to participate in an independent research project for a student currently completing their Master's degree in the Department of Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand.

Currently, research is being conducted on Work Incivility, Counterproductive Workplace Behaviour, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence in South African Employees. This area of research is designed to investigate the experiences of workplace incivility in South African organisations and how these impacts upon counterproductive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour as well as organisational commitment as well as the influence of Emotional Intelligence on these relationships.

To carry out this research project, I would, therefore, like to invite you to participate in this research. Participation will involve the completion of a survey, which should take approximately 45 minutes to complete. If you choose to participate in the study, please complete and submit the survey in full within one month of receiving it. You will be able to complete the survey online. The site is secure and encrypted and no one has access to this site other than the researcher.

The site is as follows: https://forms.gle/Q8VCSSaujEspf21V6

Please note that participating in the completion of the survey is voluntary and you will not be at an advantage or disadvantage for choosing to complete or not complete the survey.

For more information regarding the purpose of the study, how the data collected will be utilised, anonymity and confidentiality please refer to the participant information sheet attached.

If you have any questions pertaining to this research, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher or supervisor on the details provided below;





Hayley Dady

818199@students.wits.ac.za

Dr Colleen Bernstein:

Colleen.Bernstein@wits.ac.za

It would be greatly appreciated if you could share this link with others in your network who may be interested in contributing to this research project. To share the survey, simply forward this email and corresponding attachments to others in your working network.

Chapter 1 Thanking you in advance for your time and consideration!

Appendix D – Consent Form

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I voluntarily agree to participate in this research study and have read and fully understand all the points outlined below.

Yes ☐

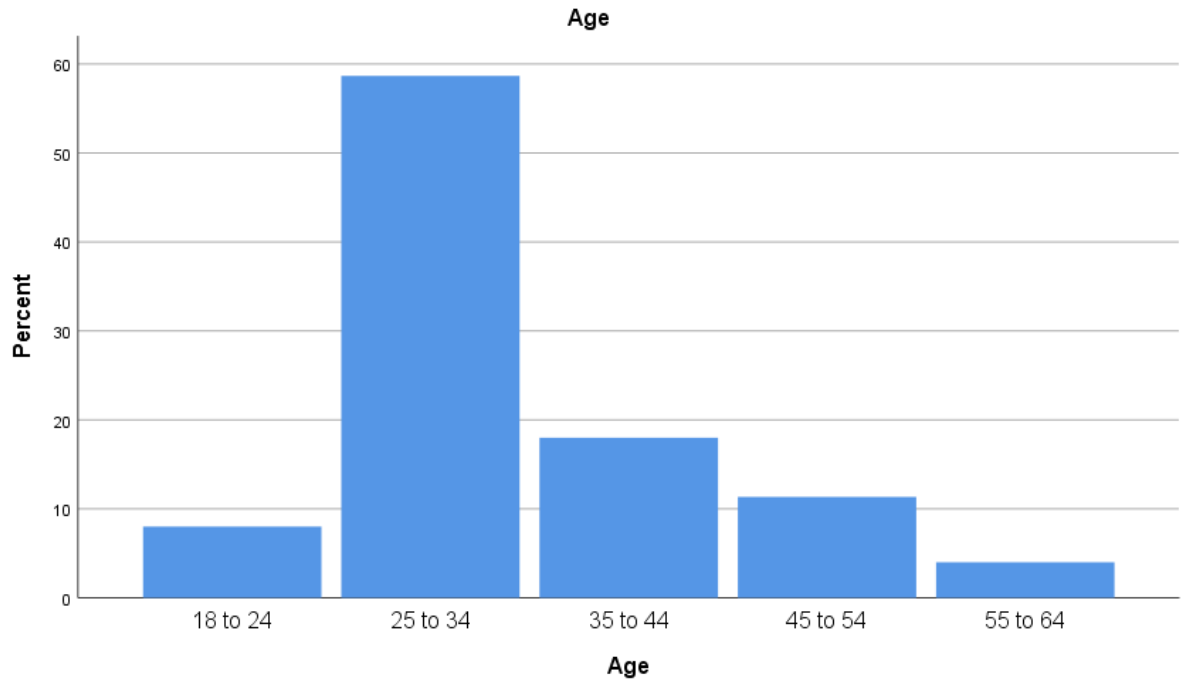
No ☐

- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that even if I agree to participate now, I can withdraw at any time before submitting the final question.
- I have had the purpose and nature of the study explained to me in writing and I do have the opportunity to ask questions about the study.
- I understand that participation involves the completion of questions pertaining to some personal information as well as my experiences and perspective pertaining to various events in the workplace.
- I understand that I will not benefit directly from participating in this research.
- I understand that all the information I provide for this study will be treated confidentially.
- I understand that in any report on the results of this research my identity will remain anonymous. This will be done by not recording any personal information that could be utilised to identify me as an individual or my organisation.
- I am aware that the findings of this study will be reported in a research report, and could also be published in journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential as all findings are reported as general trends and therefore my single responses cannot be identified in any way.

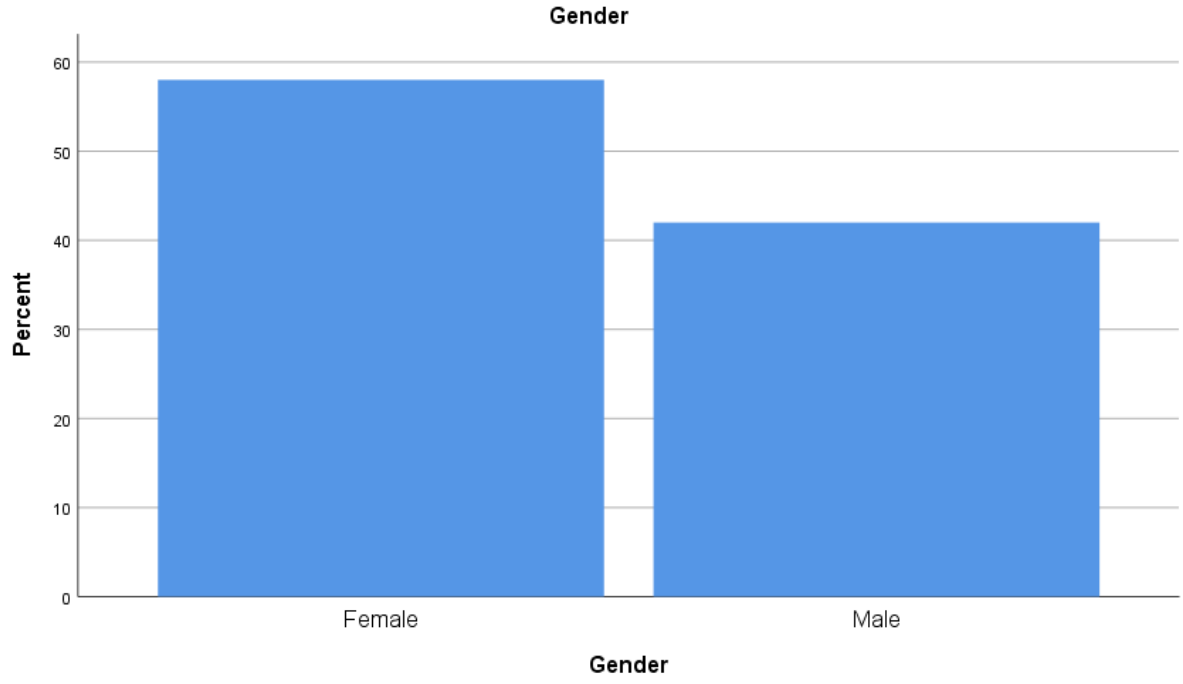
- I am aware that findings from this research will be published in the Wits online research repository and may be used for publication and conference proceedings. All information stored and utilised in this manner will remain completely anonymous.
- I understand that I am free to contact any of the people involved in the research to seek further clarification and information.

Appendix E – Demographic Information

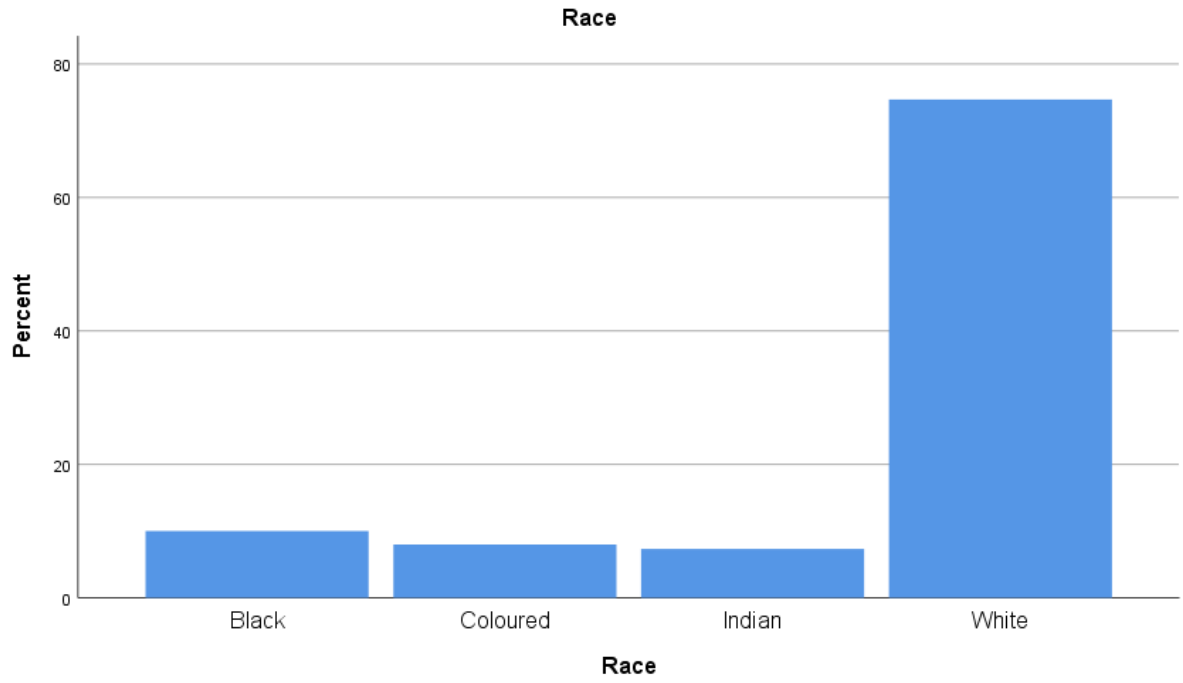
Age Demographics



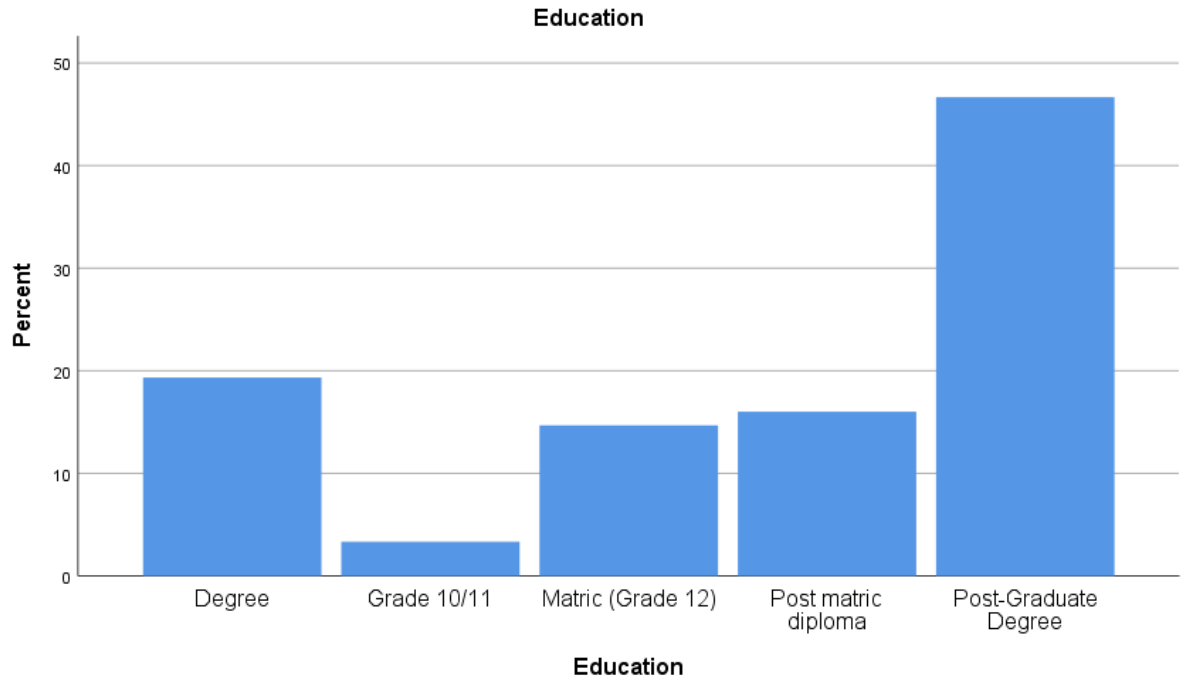
Gender Demographics



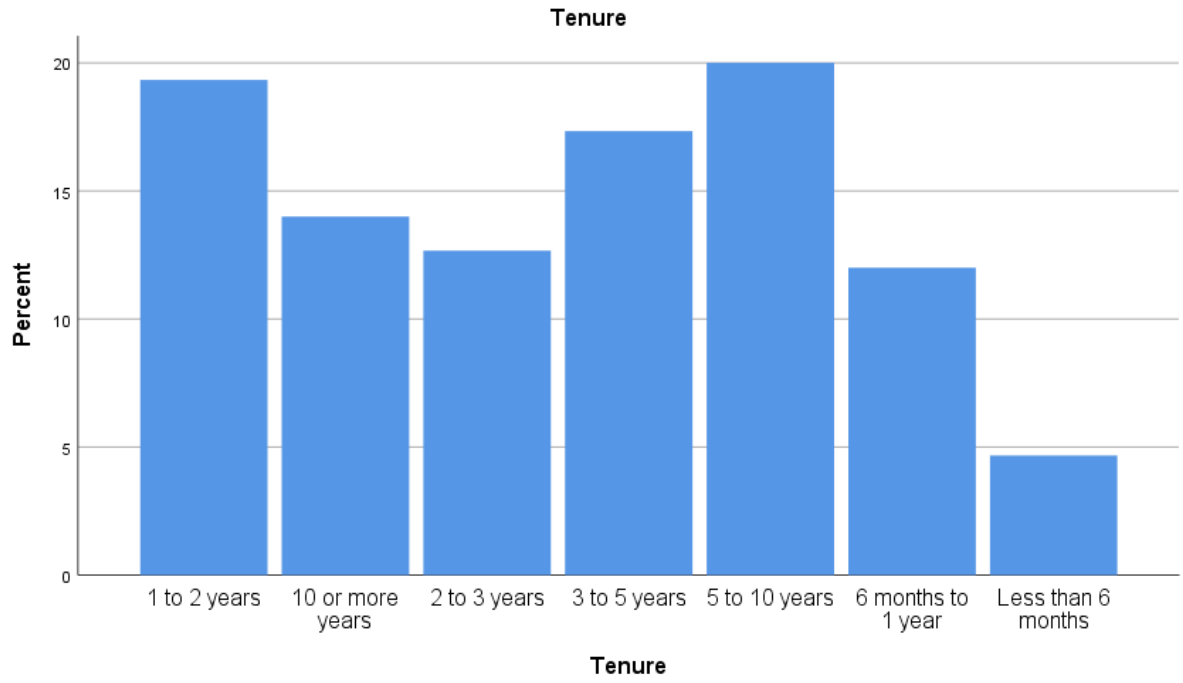
Race Demographics



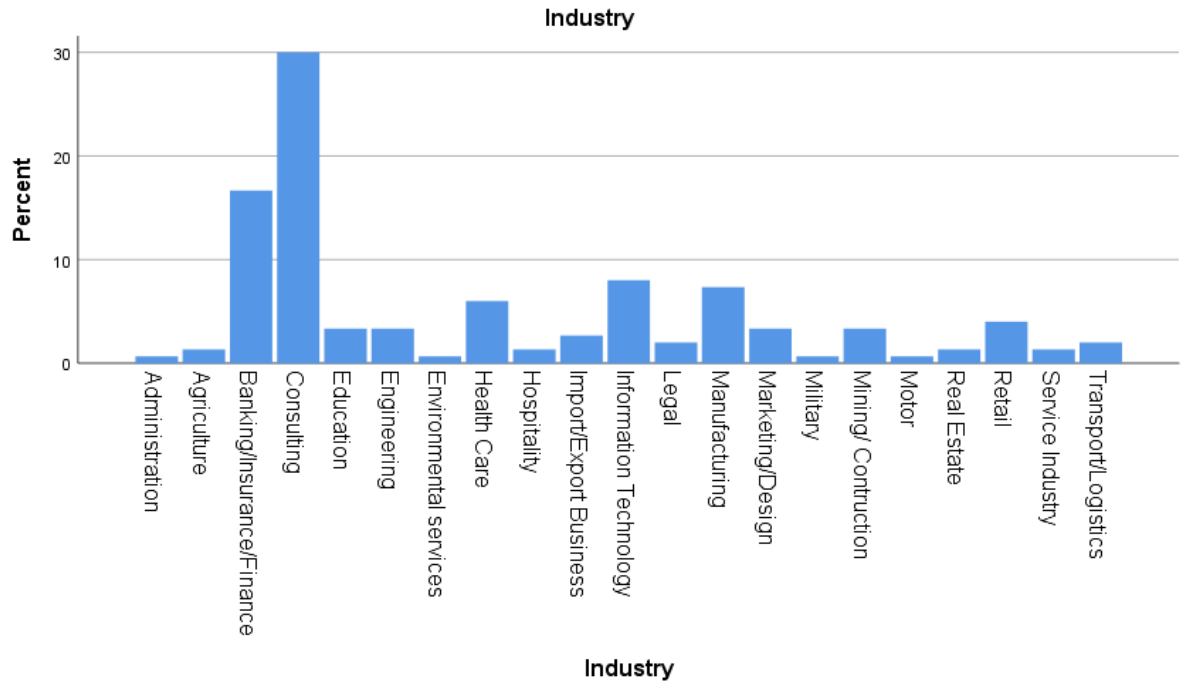
Educational Demographics



Tenure Demographics



Industry Demographics



Appendix F – Demographic Questions

Please respond to the following questions:

1. How old are you? _____
2. Please indicate your gender. Male _____ Female _____
3. Please indicate your racial group (Optional). White_____ Coloured_____ Black_____ Indian_____ Other_____
4. Highest level of education? _____ e.g. Matric Certificate, Post Matric Diploma, Degree, Post graduate degree etc,
5. What is your job position? _____ e.g. administrative, support staff, manager?
6. What is your job level? _____ e.g. junior staff, management etc.
7. How long have you worked for your organisation? _____
8. What sector are you employed in? _____ e.g. financial, banking, education, marketing etc.
9. Number of employees in current organisation. <3____ 4-10____ 11-50____ 51-100____ >101
10. Are you self-employed? _____

Appendix G – Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina, 2001)

Please indicate your answer by circling the appropriate number beside each question.

Use the following format:

1	2	3	4	5
Once or twice a year	Once or twice a month	About once a week	Several times a week	Everyday

During the past year while employed at your organisations, have you been in a situation where your supervisor/co-workers

1. Put you down or was condescending to you in some way
2. Paid little attention to a statement you made or showed little interest in your opinion
3. Made demeaning, rude, or derogatory remarks about you
4. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately
5. Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie*
6. Doubted your judgment in a matter over which you have responsibility
7. Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters
8. Ignored you or failed to speak to you
9. Made jokes at your expense
10. Yelled, shouted, or swore at you

* mutual trust and friendship among people who spend a lot of time together.

Appendix H – 10-Item Short Version of the Organisational Citizenship Behavior Checklist (OCB-C)

Please indicate your answer by circling the appropriate number beside each question.

Use the following format:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once or twice	Once or twice/month	Once or twice/week	Every day

How often have you done each of the following things in your present job?

1. Taken time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.
2. Helped a co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.
3. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.
4. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.
5. Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.
6. Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.
7. Volunteered for extra work assignments.
8. Worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.
9. Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time.
10. Gave up a meal and other breaks to complete work.

The short form was first used in Spector, P. E., Bauer, J. A., & Fox, S. (2010). Measurement artifacts in the assessment of counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: Do we know what we think we know? Journal of Applied Psychology, 95(4), 781-790. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0019477

Appendix I – Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	neither disagree nor agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly agree

Affective Commitment Scale Items

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.
2. I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one. (R)
5. I do not feel like 'the family' at my organisation. (R)
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation. (R)
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
8. I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation. (R)

Continuance Commitment Scale Items

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (R)
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.

3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organisation now. (R)
5. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organisation.
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here.

Normative Commitment Scale Items

1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.
2. I believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation. (R)
3. Jumping from organisation to organisation does not seem at all unethical to me. (R)
4. The major reasons I continue to work in this that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.
5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organisation.
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation.
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed in one organisation for most of their careers.
8. I do not think to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore. (R)

(R) Reverse-coded item.

Appendix J – 10-Item Short Version of the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C)

Please indicate your answer by circling the appropriate number beside each question.

Use the following format:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once or twice	Once or twice/month	Once or twice/week	Every day

How often have you done each of the following things in your present job?

1. Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies
2. Complained about insignificant things at work
3. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for
4. Came to work late without permission
5. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't
6. Insulted someone about their job performance
7. Made fun of someone's personal life
8. Ignored someone at work
9. Started an argument with someone at work
10. Insulted or made fun of someone at work

The short form was first used in Spector, P. E., Bauer, J. A., & Fox, S. (2010). Measurement artifacts in the assessment of counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: Do we know what we think we know? Journal of Applied Psychology, 95(4), 781-790. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0019477

Appendix K – The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others
2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them
3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try
4. Other people find it easy to confide in me
5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people*
6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important
7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities
8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living
9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them
10. I expect good things to happen
11. I like to share my emotions with others
12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last
13. I arrange events others enjoy
14. I seek out activities that make me happy
15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others
16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others

17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me
18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing
19. I know why my emotions change
20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas
21. I have control over my emotions
22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them
23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on
24. I compliment others when they have done something well
25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send
26. When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas
28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail*
29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them
30. I help other people feel better when they are down
31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles
32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice
33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do*

Appendix L – HREC Ethics Clearance Certificate

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Dady

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H19/06/06**
PROJECT TITLE	Workplace incivility, emotional intelligence, counter-productive workplace behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment in South African employees
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Ms H Dady
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Human and Community Development/
DATE CONSIDERED	21 June 2019
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved
EXPIRY DATE	25 July 2022

DATE 26 July 2019 **CHAIRPERSON** J. Knight
(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Dr C Bernstein

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

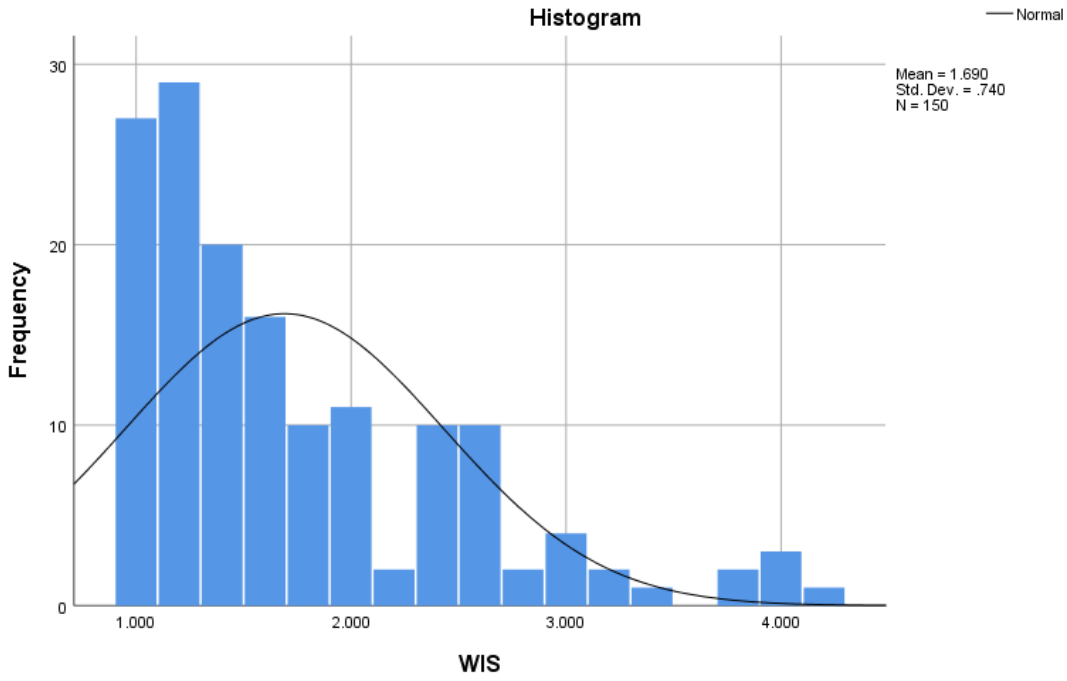
Signature

01 / 08 / 2019
Date

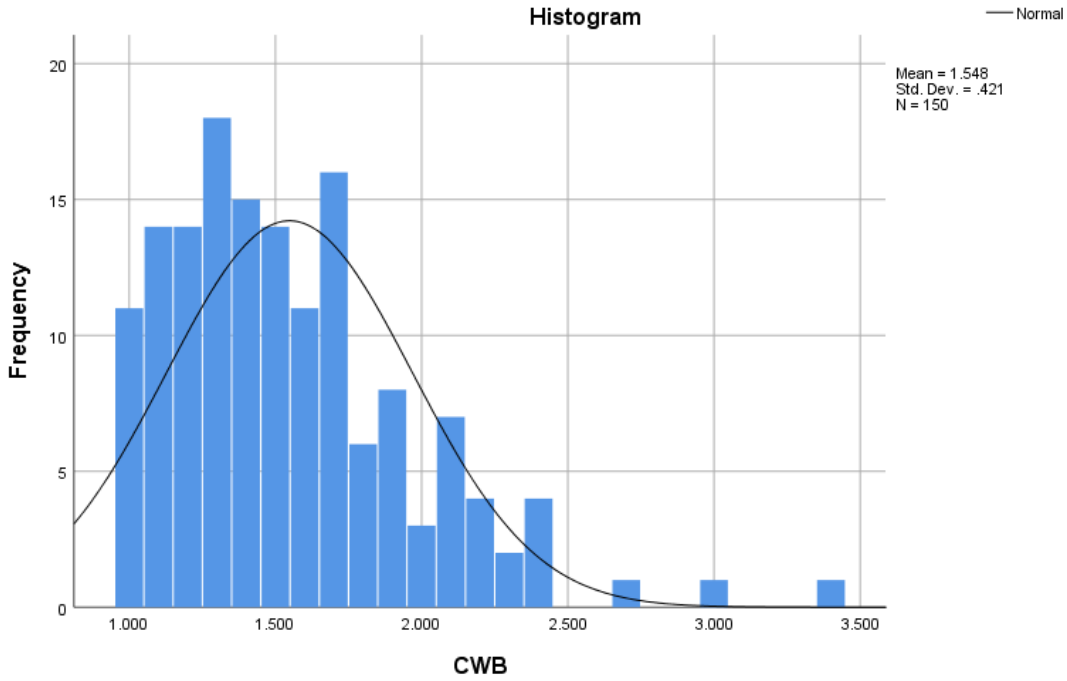
PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix M – Frequency and Normality Histograms

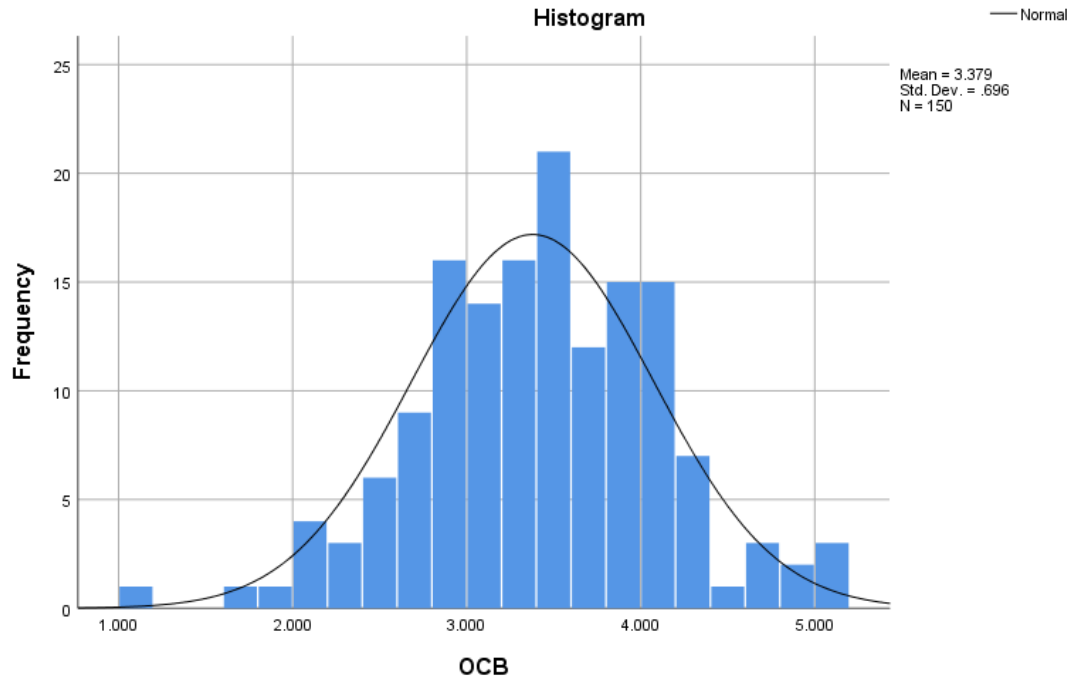
Workplace Incivility Frequency and Normality



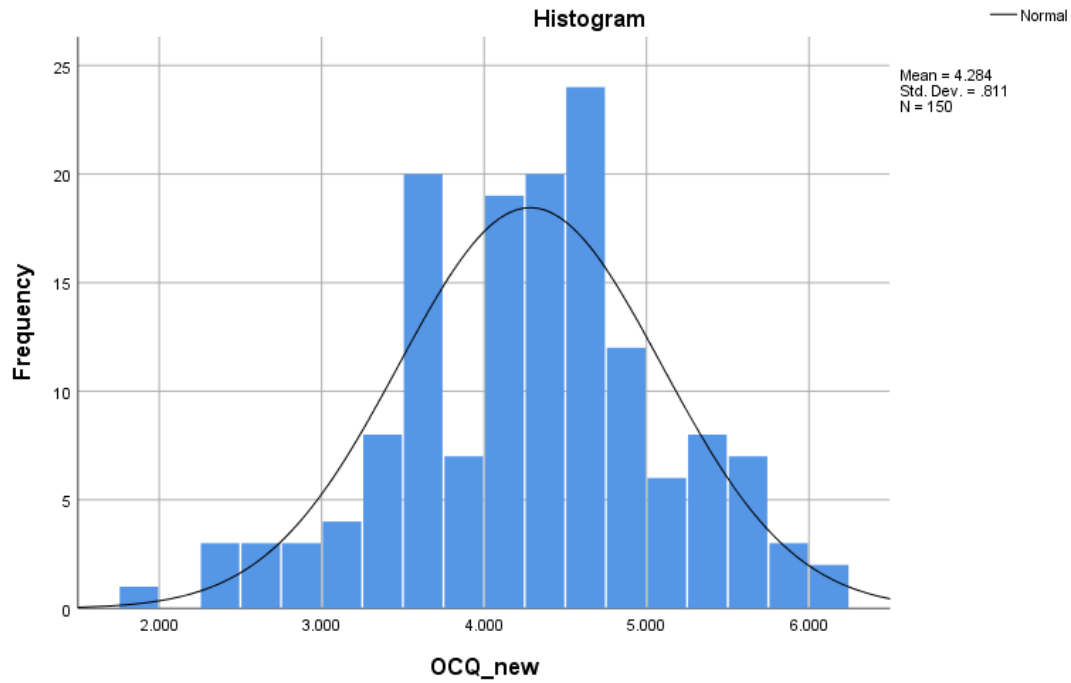
CWB Frequency and Normality



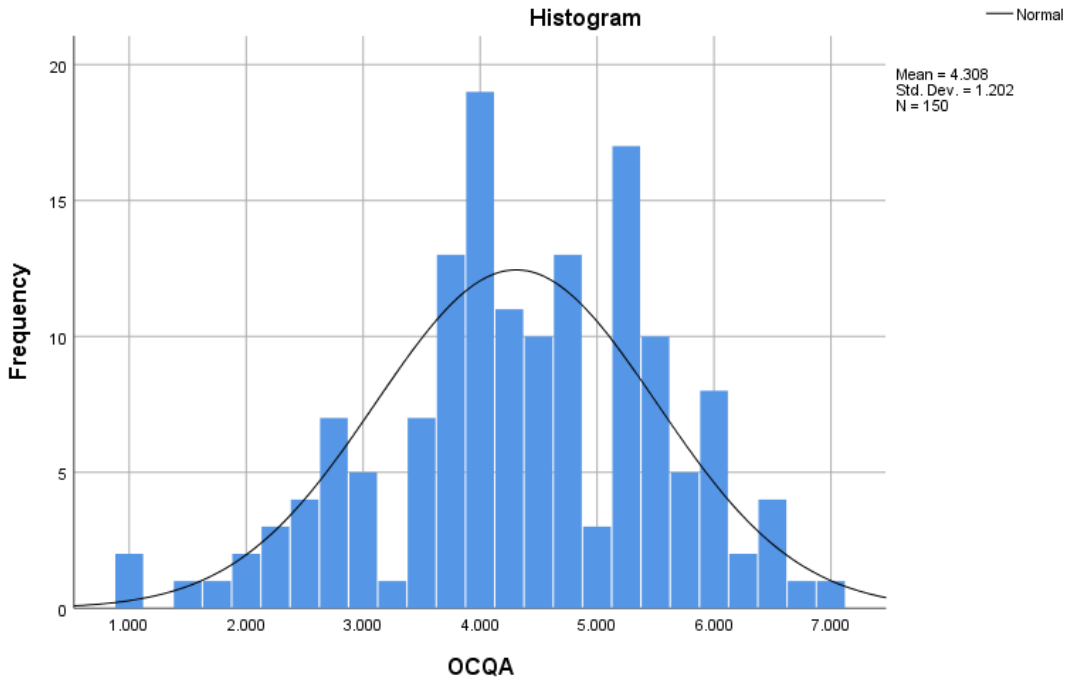
OCB Frequency and Normality



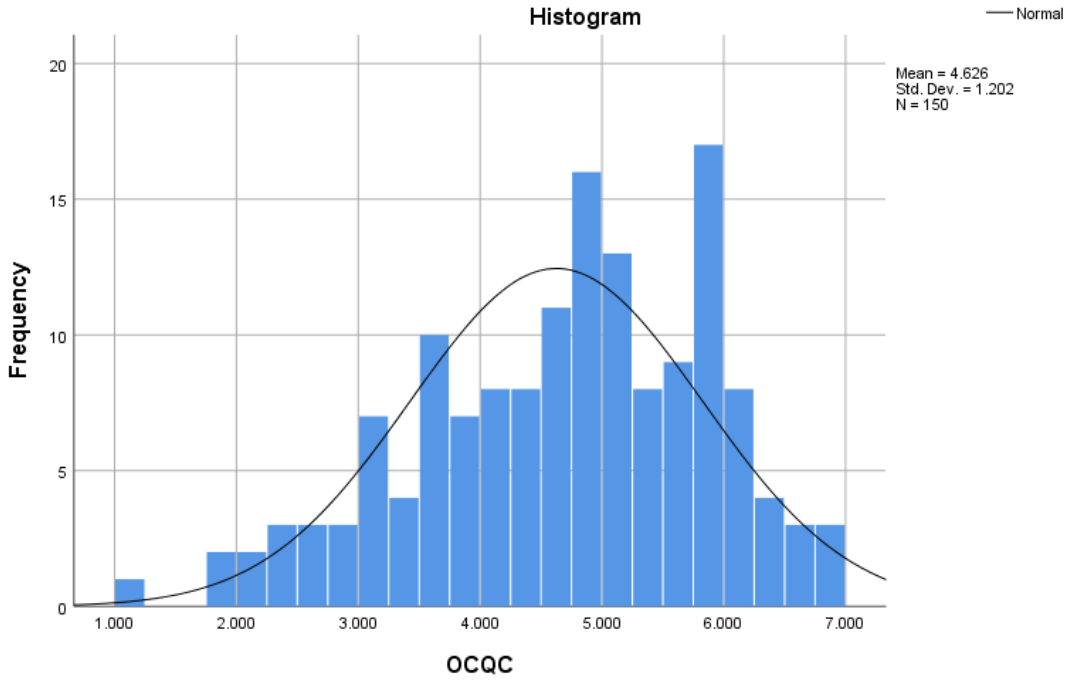
OC Frequency and Normality



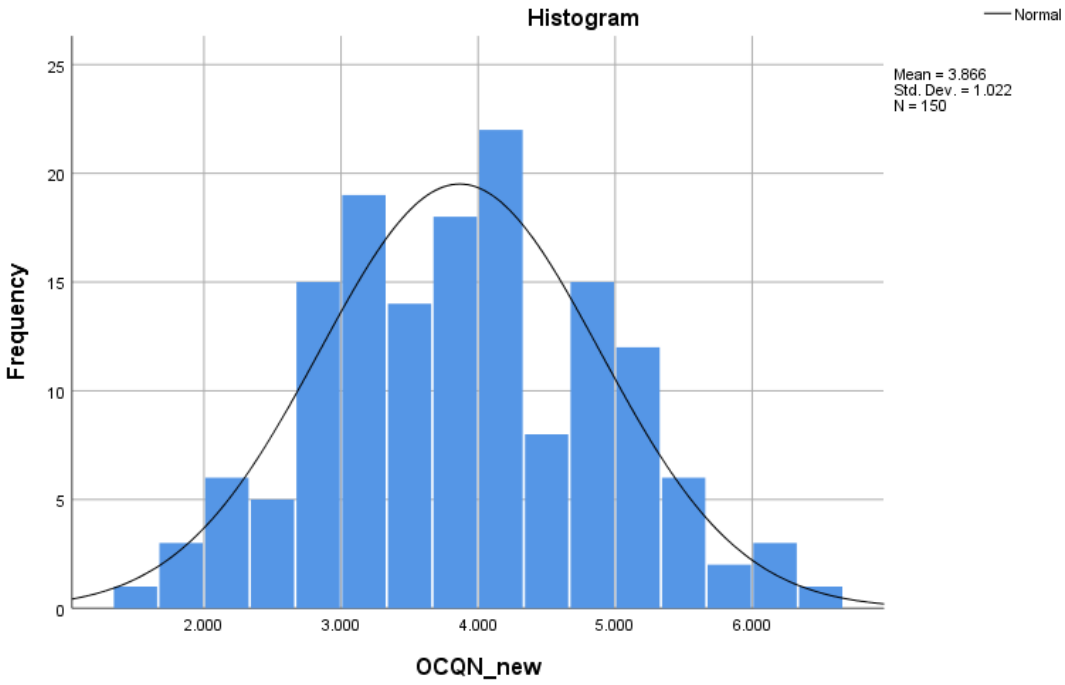
OC Affective commitment Frequency and Normality



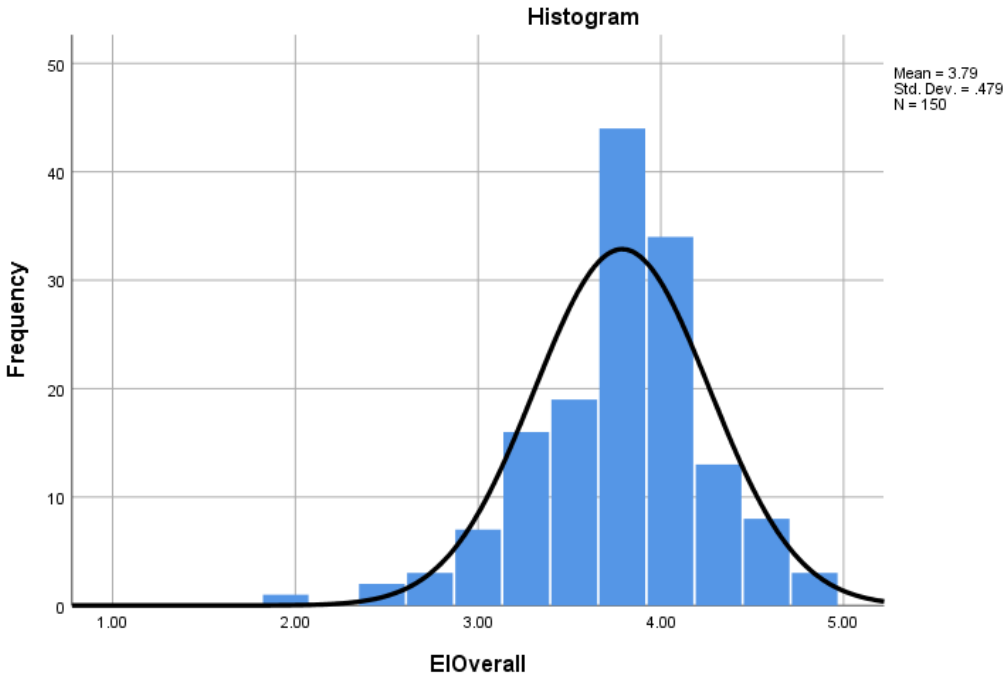
OC Continuation commitment Frequency and Normality



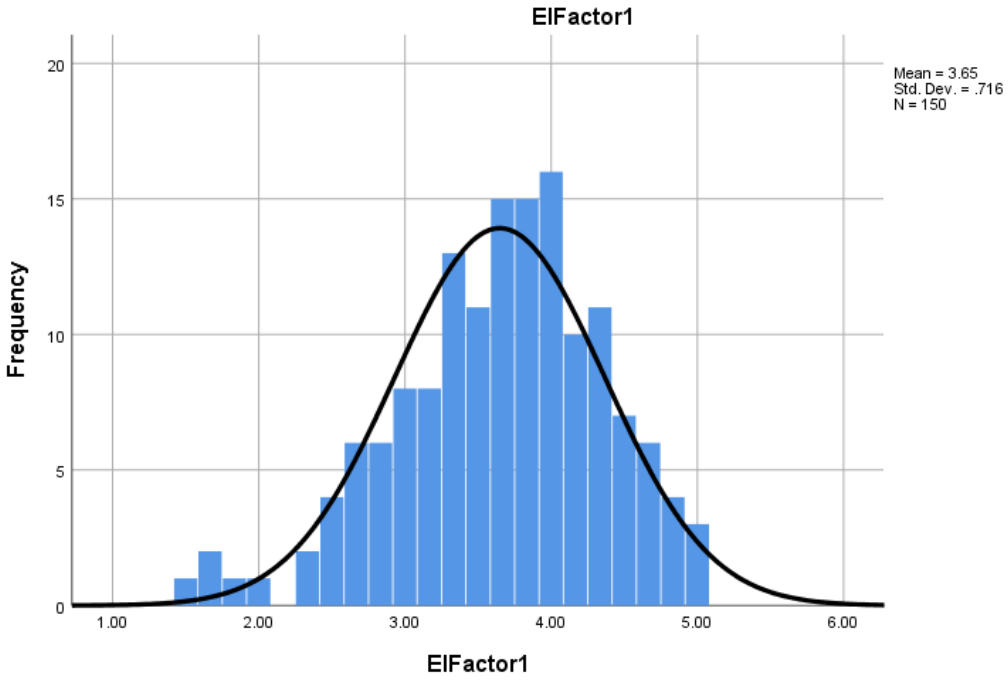
OC Normative commitment Frequency and Normality



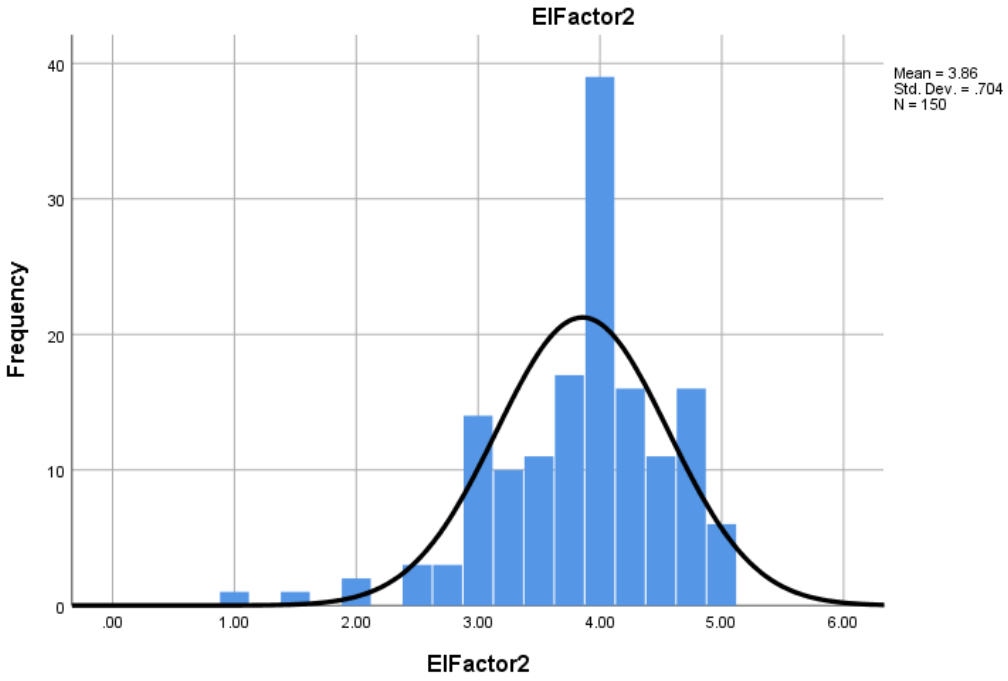
EI Frequency and Normality



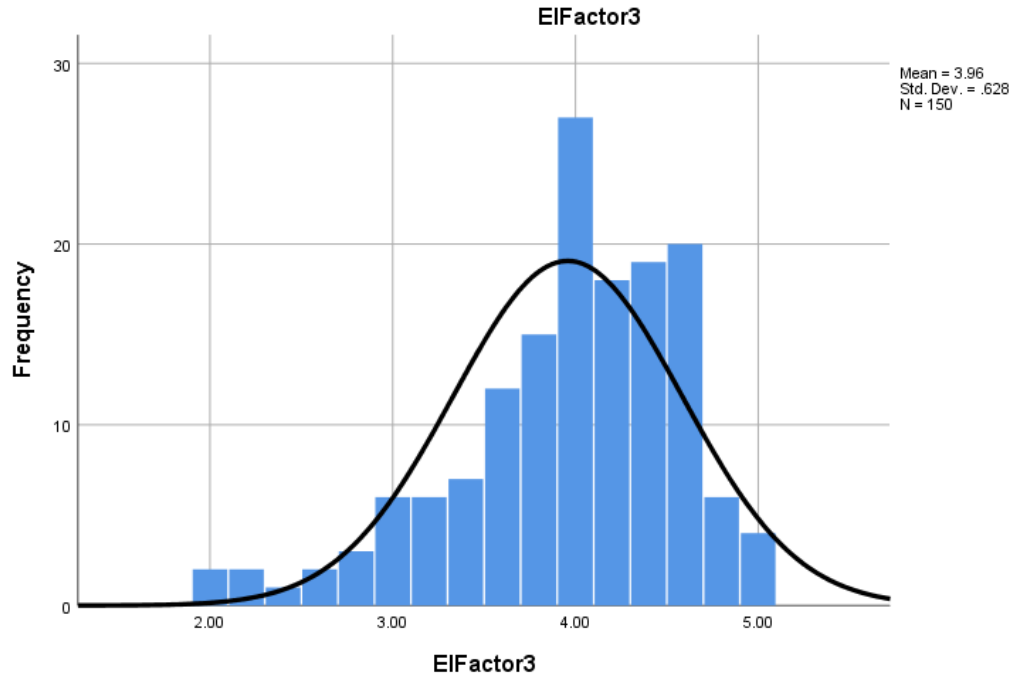
EI Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions) Frequency and Normality



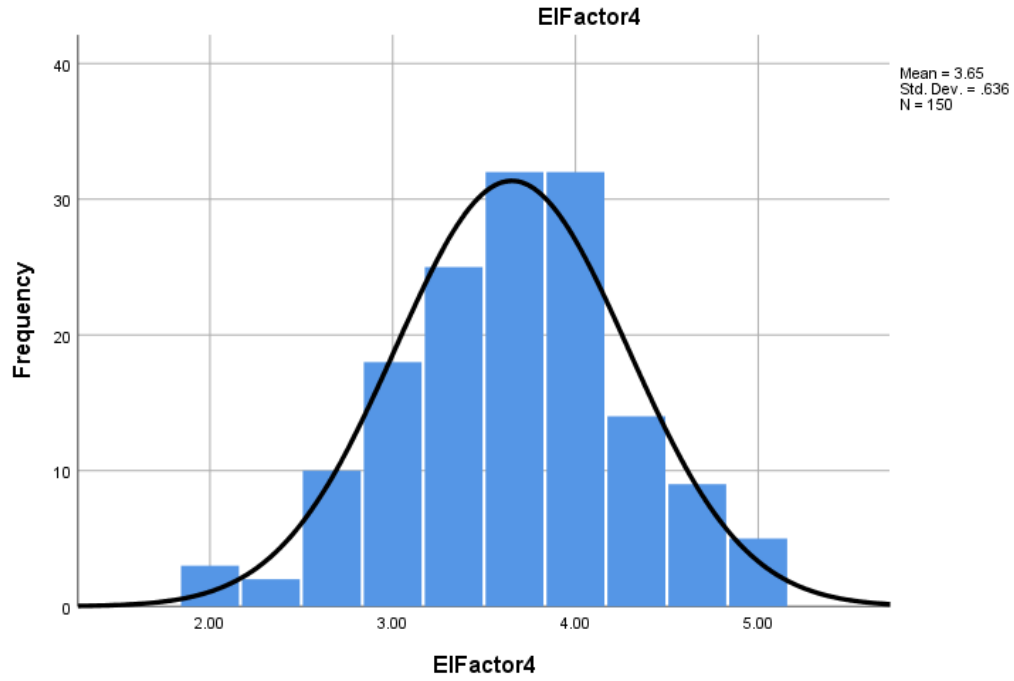
EI Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness) Frequency and Normality



EI Factor 3 (Motivation) Frequency and Normality

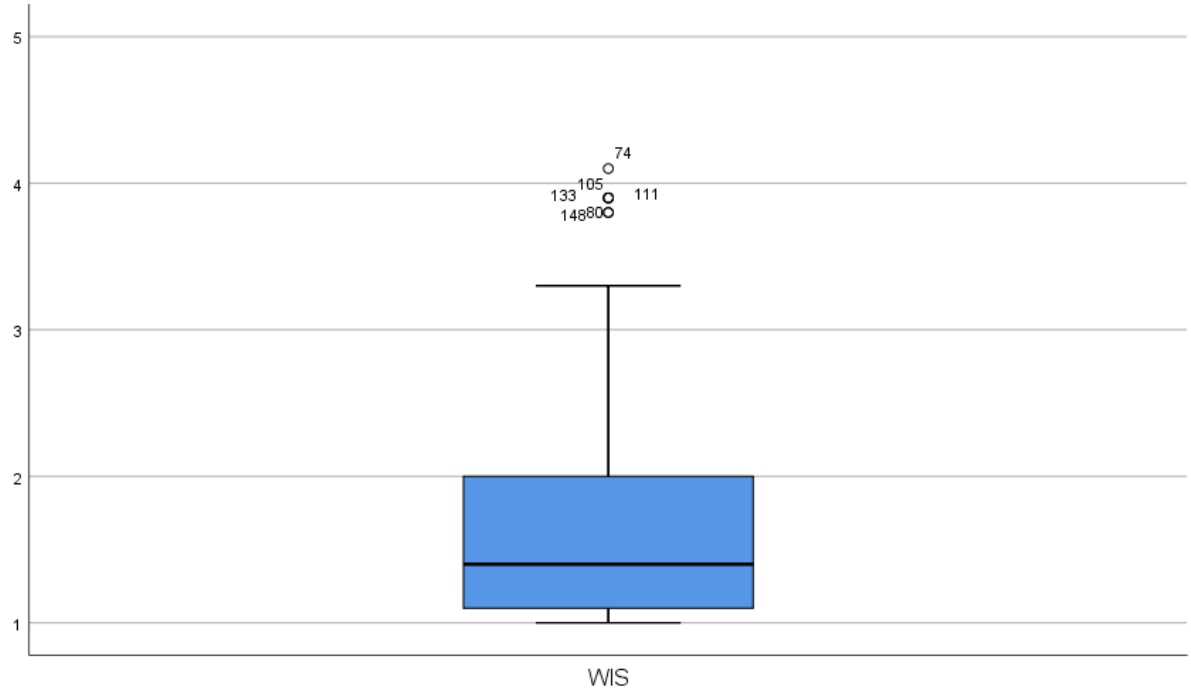


EI Factor 4 (Resilience) Frequency and Normality

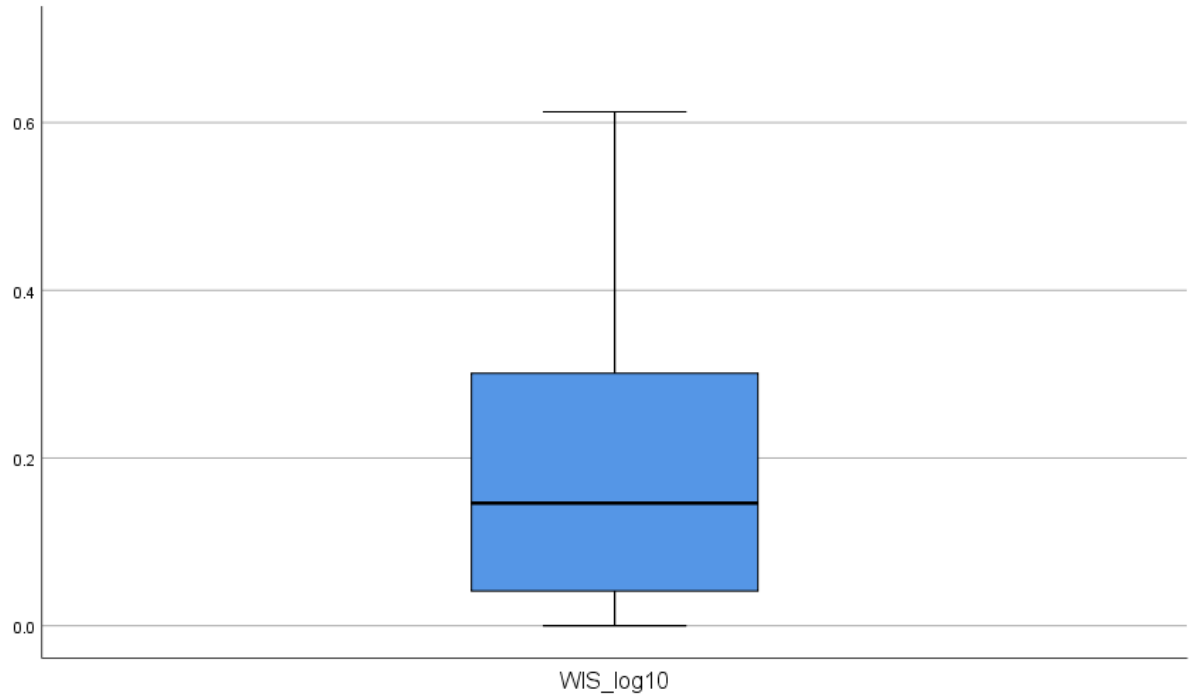


Appendix N – Box and Whisker Plots

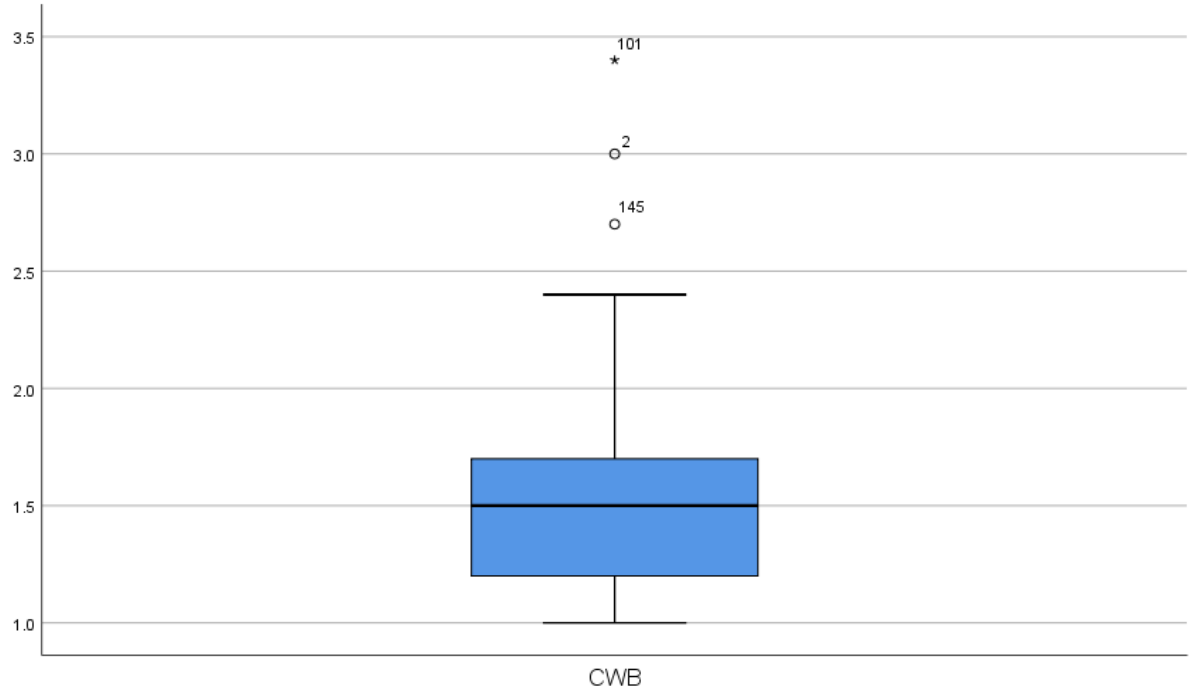
Workplace Incivility Box and Whisker plots



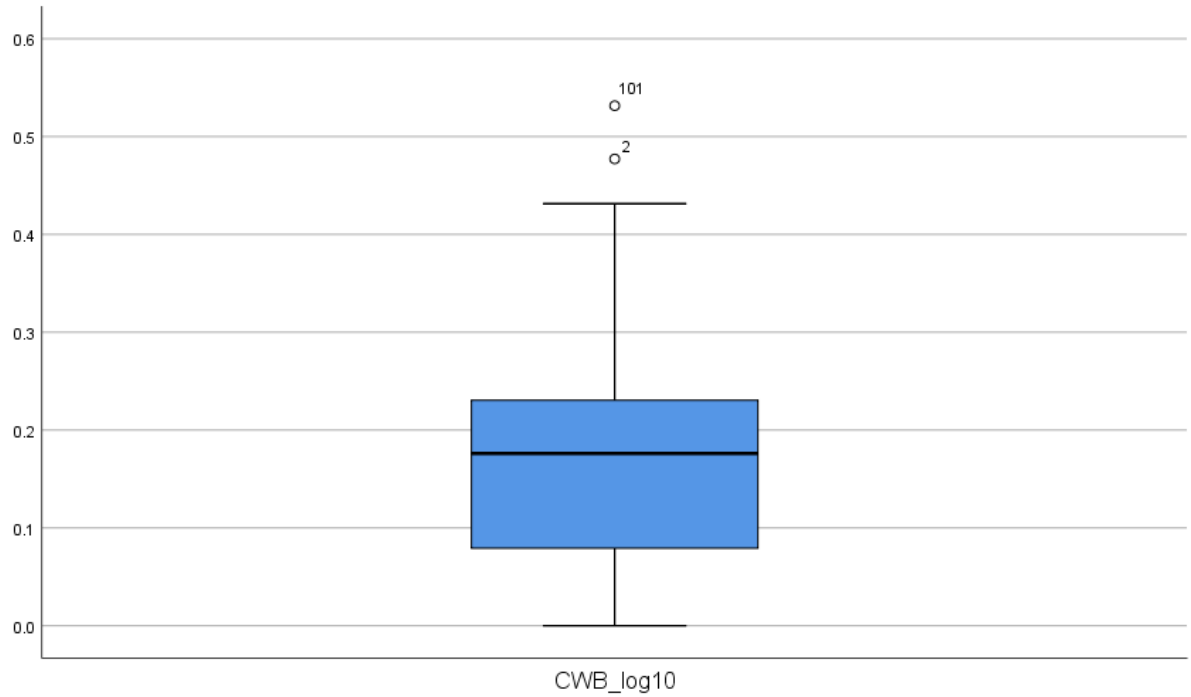
Workplace Incivility Box and Whisker plots (Log Transformation)



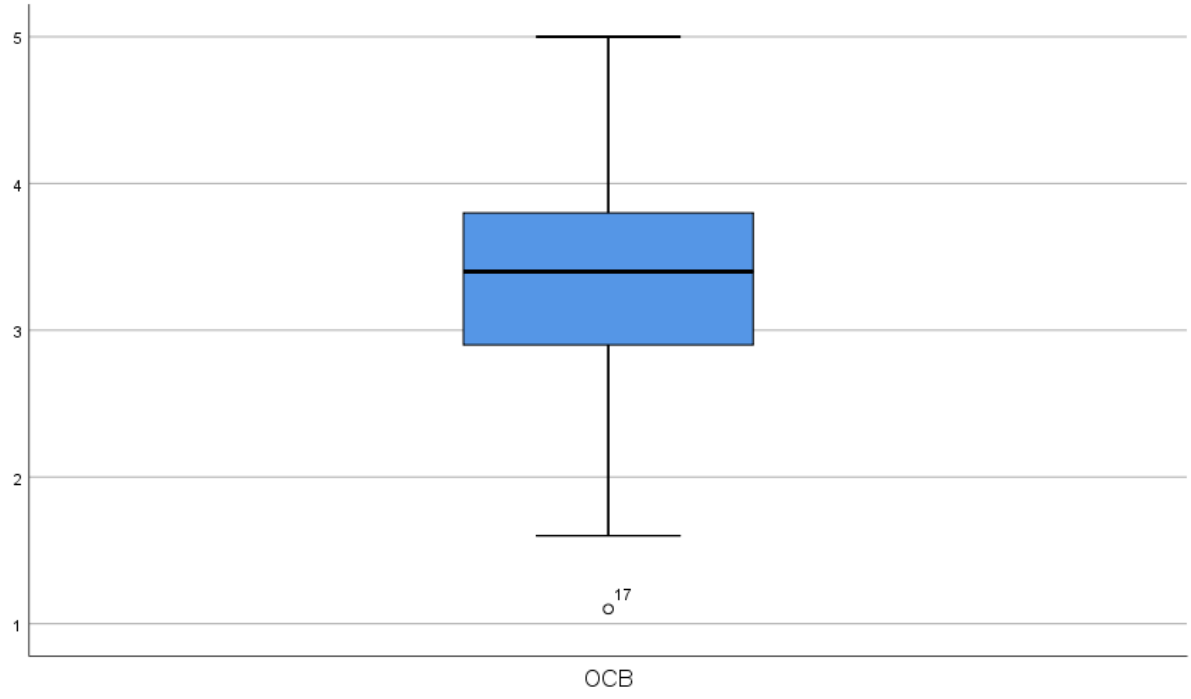
CWB Box and Whisker plots



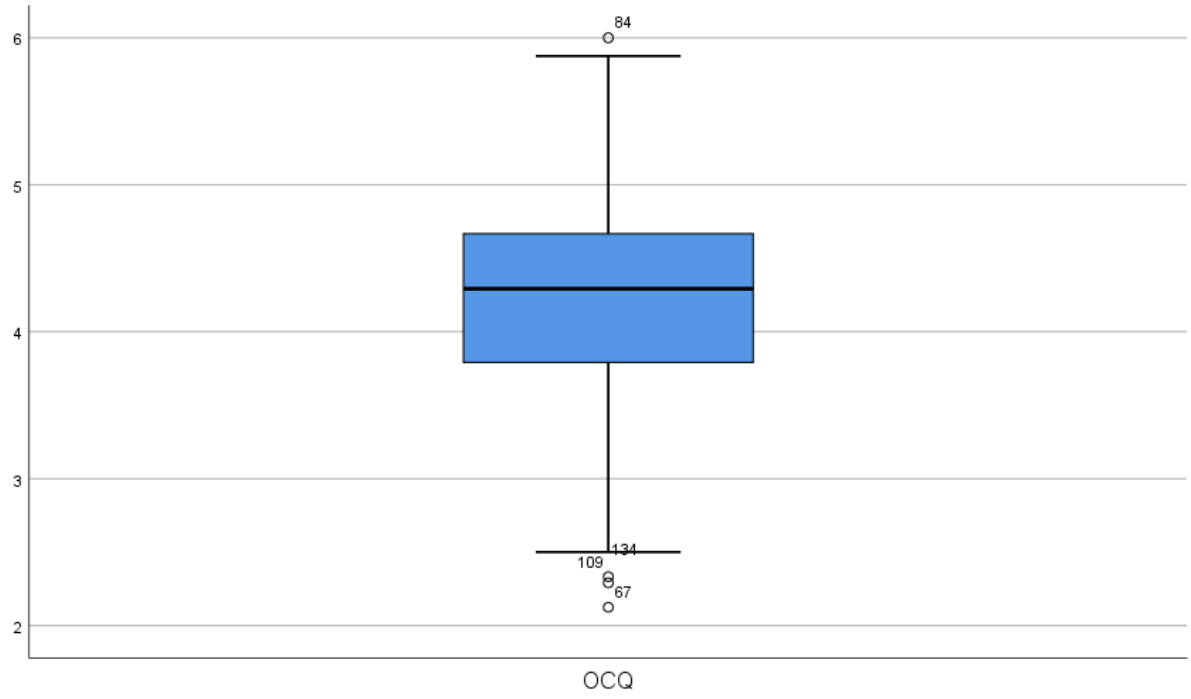
CWB Box and Whisker plots (Log Transformation)



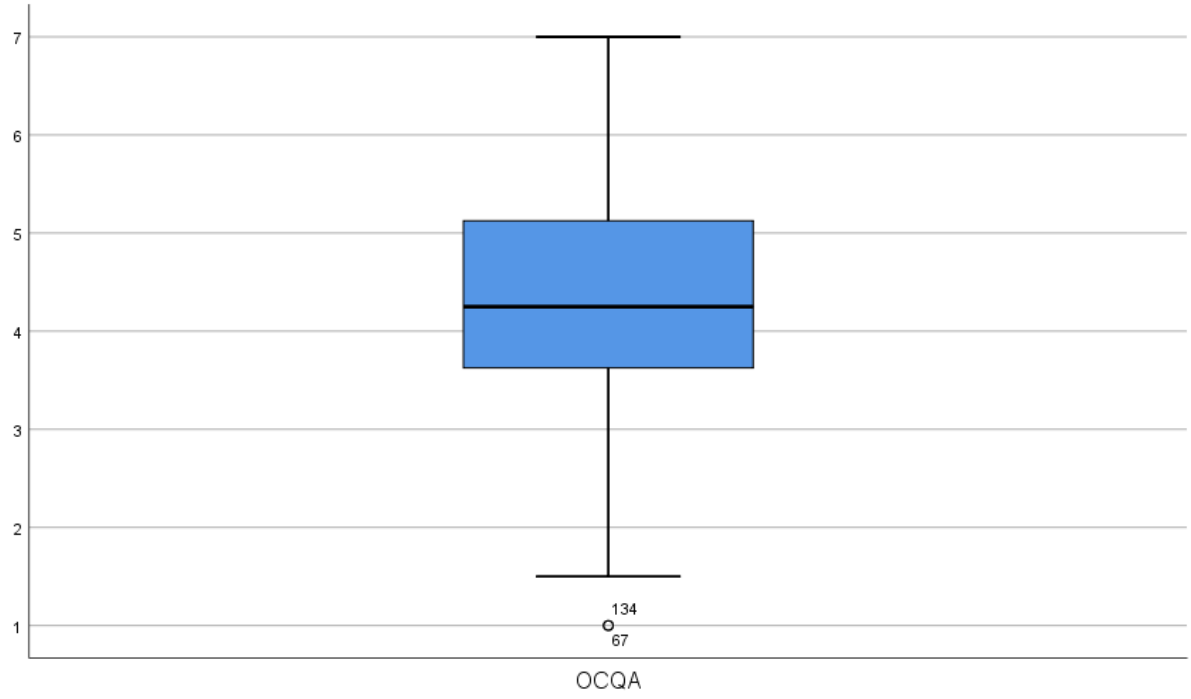
OCB Box and Whisker plots



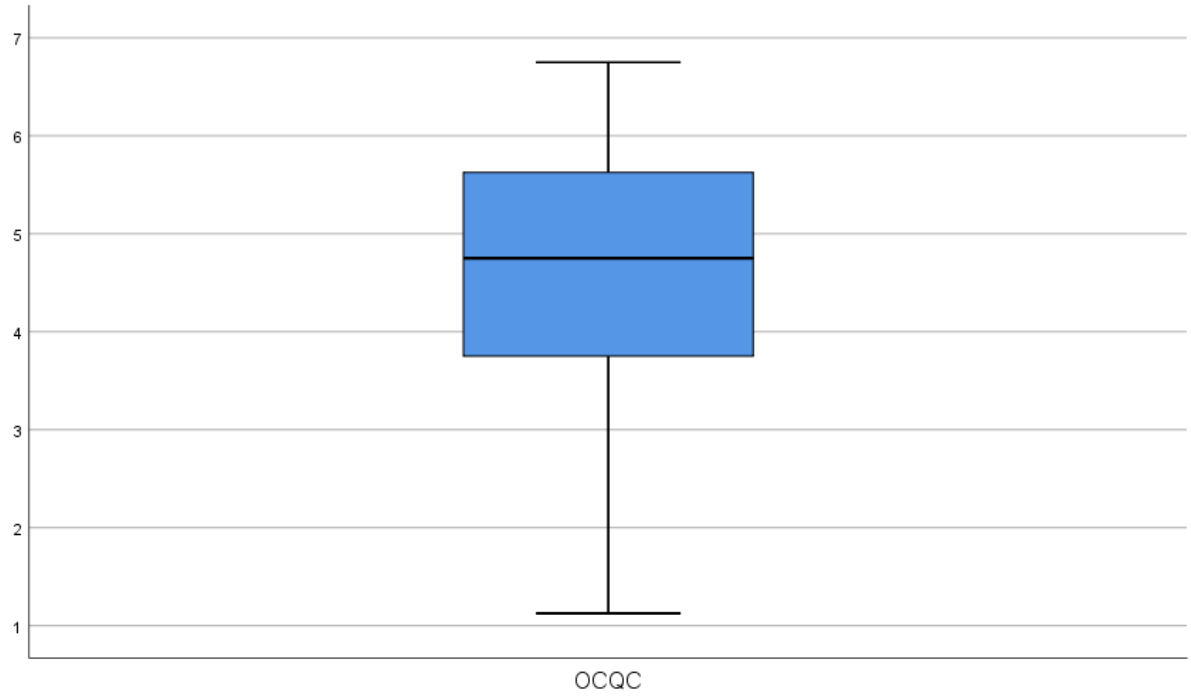
OC normal Box and Whisker plots



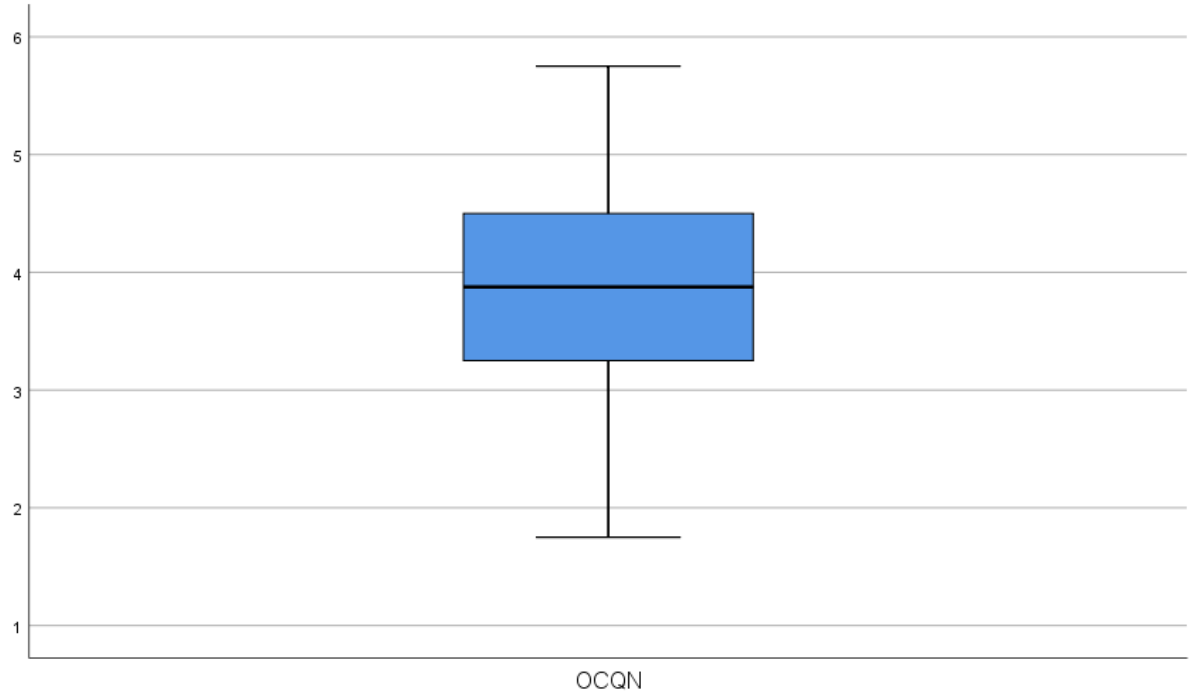
OC Affective commitment Box and Whisker plots



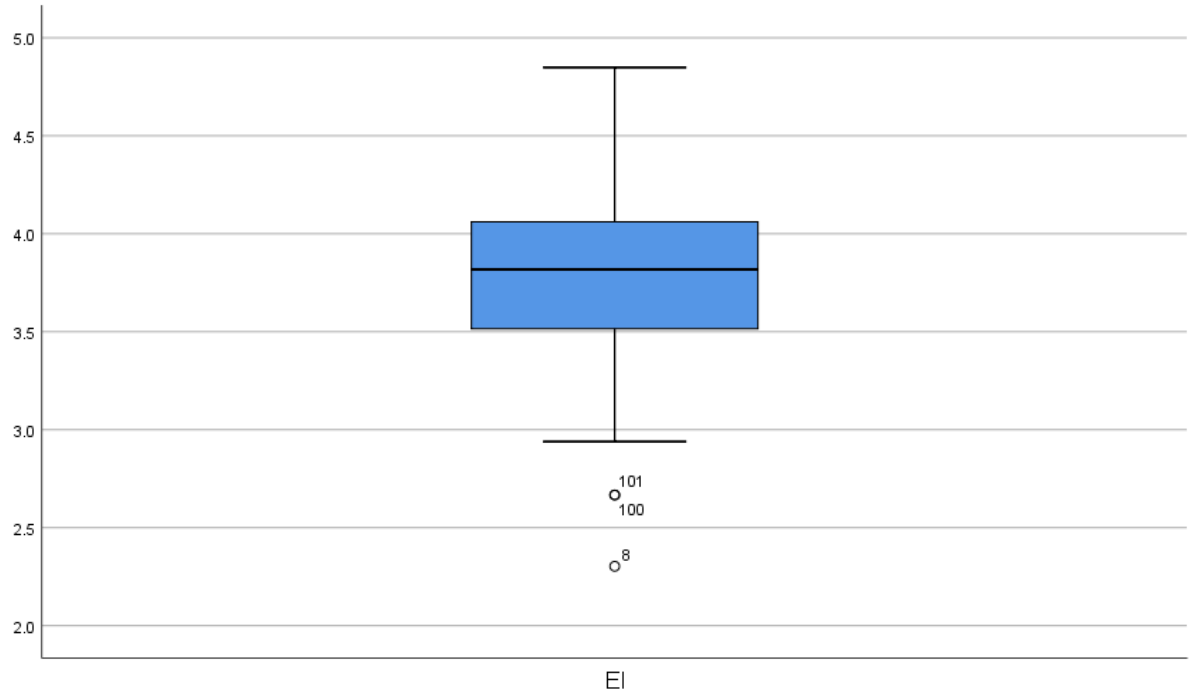
OC Continuation commitment Box and Whisker plots



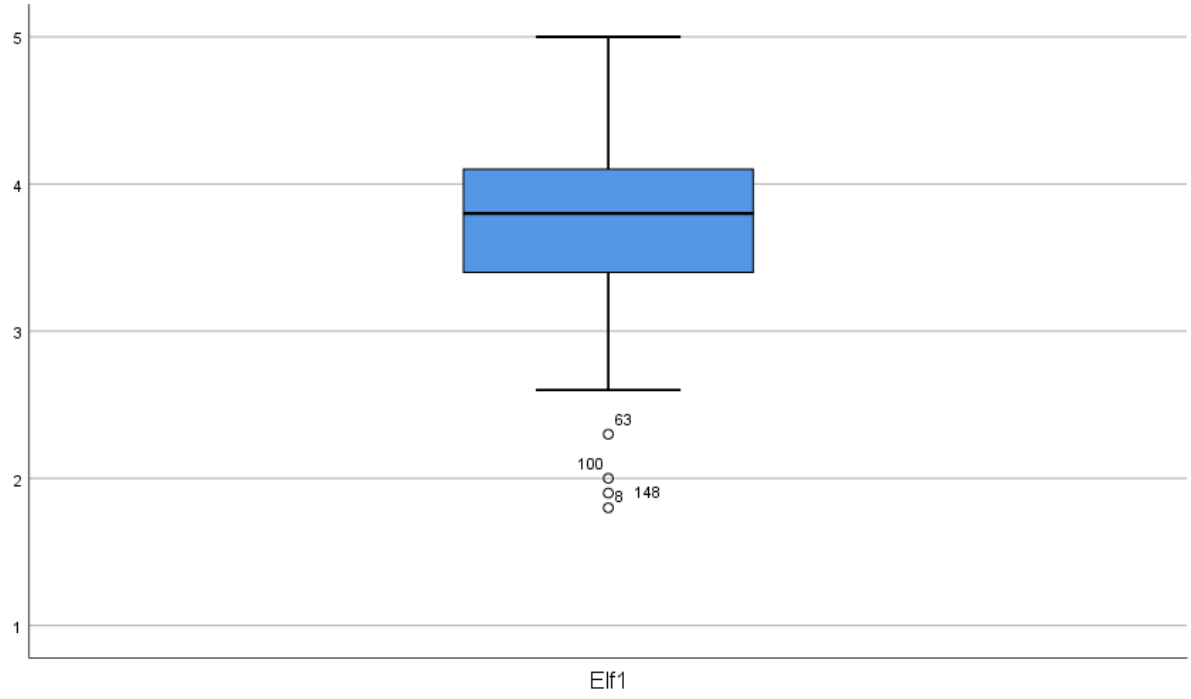
OC Normative commitment Box and Whisker plots



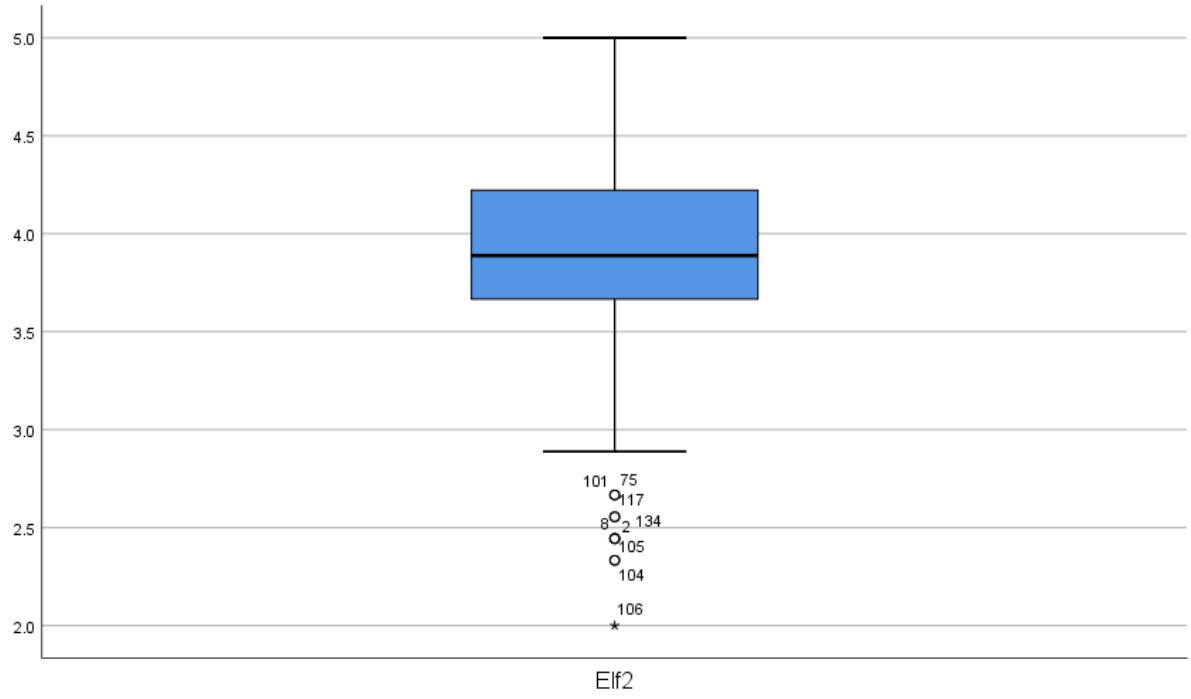
EI normal Box and Whisker plots



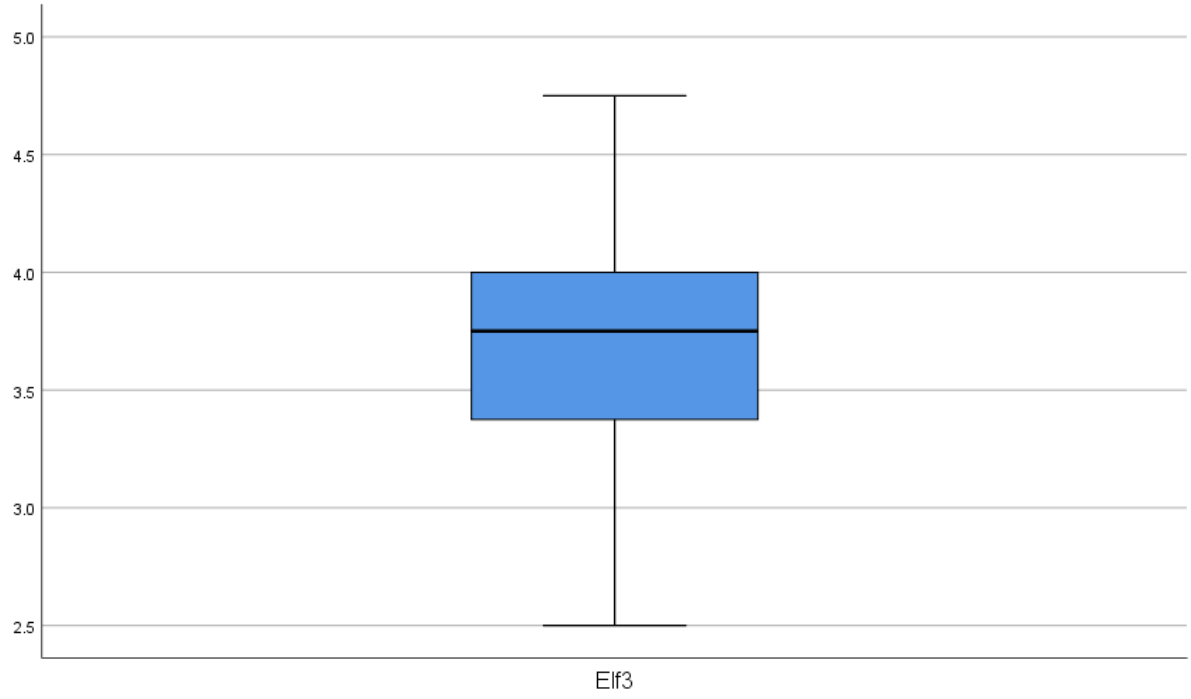
EI Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions) Box and Whisker plots



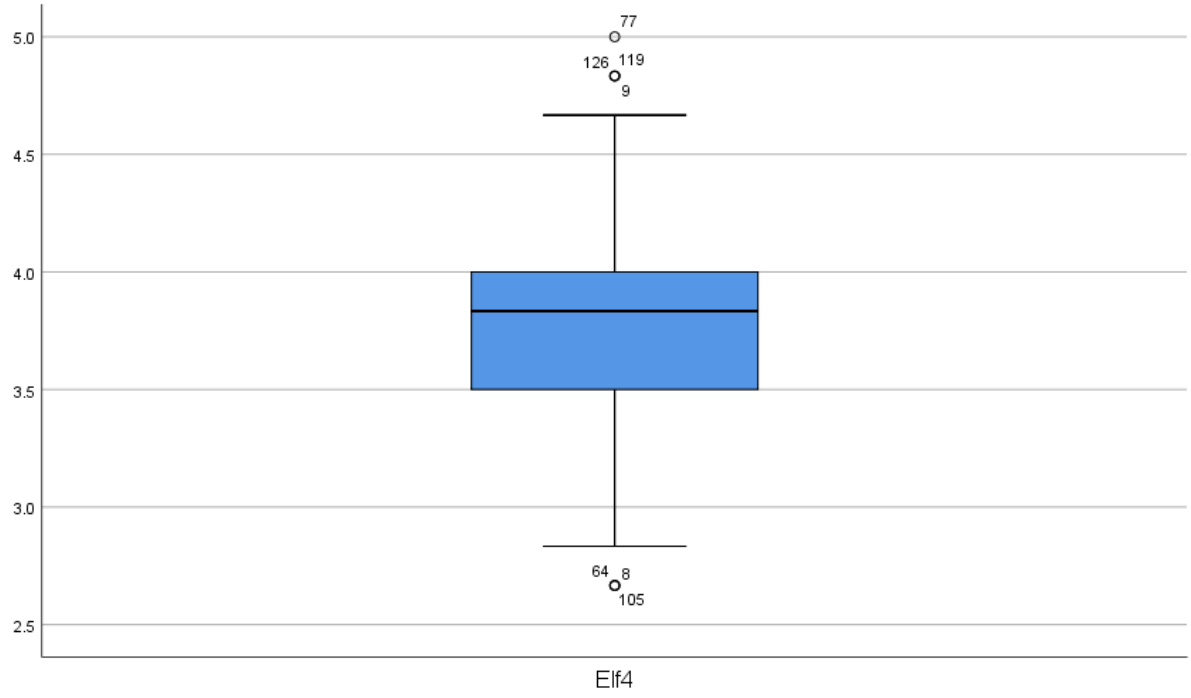
EI Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness) Box and Whisker plots



EI Factor 3 (Motivation) Box and Whisker plots

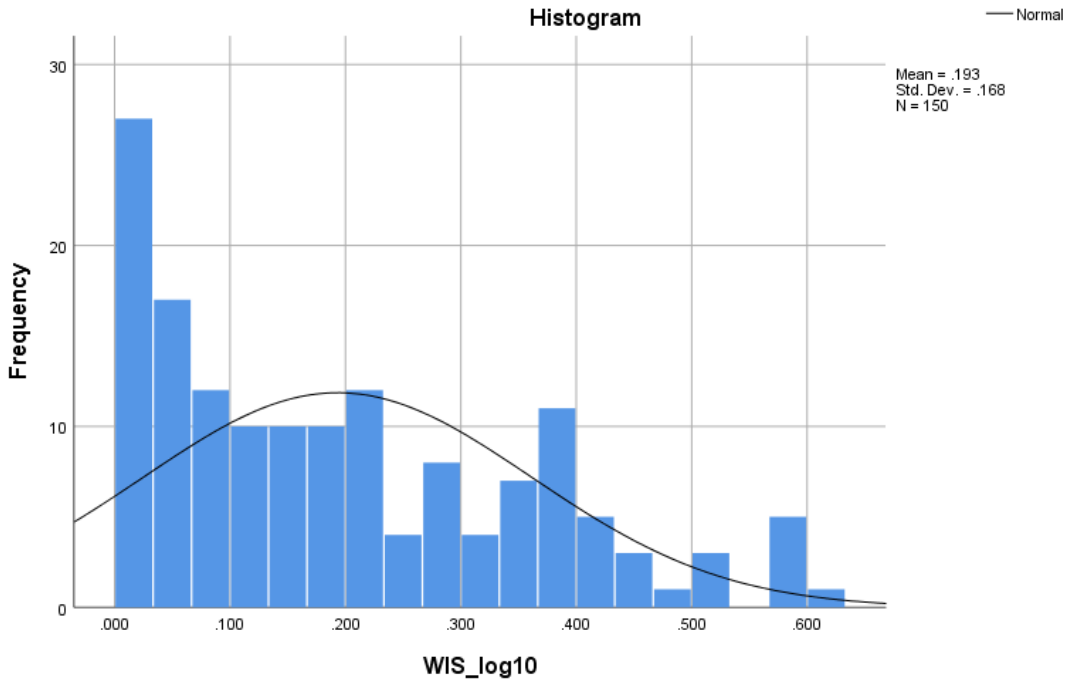


EI Factor 4 (Resilience) Box and Whisker plots

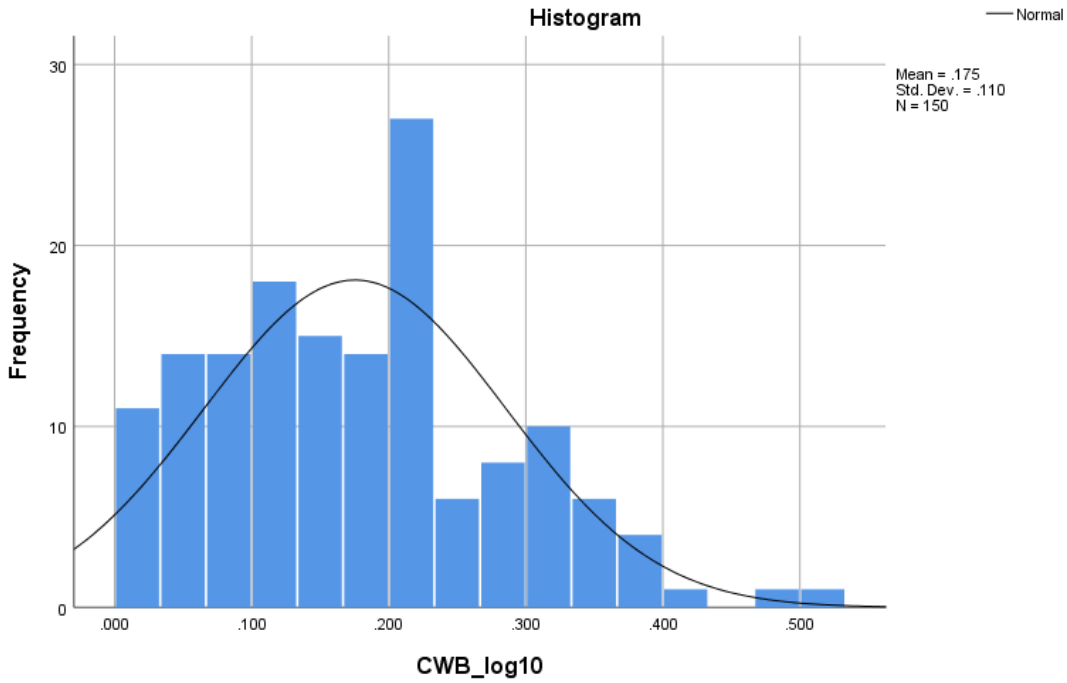


Appendix O – Frequency and Normality Histograms (Log Transformation)

Workplace Incivility Frequency and Normality (Log Transformation)

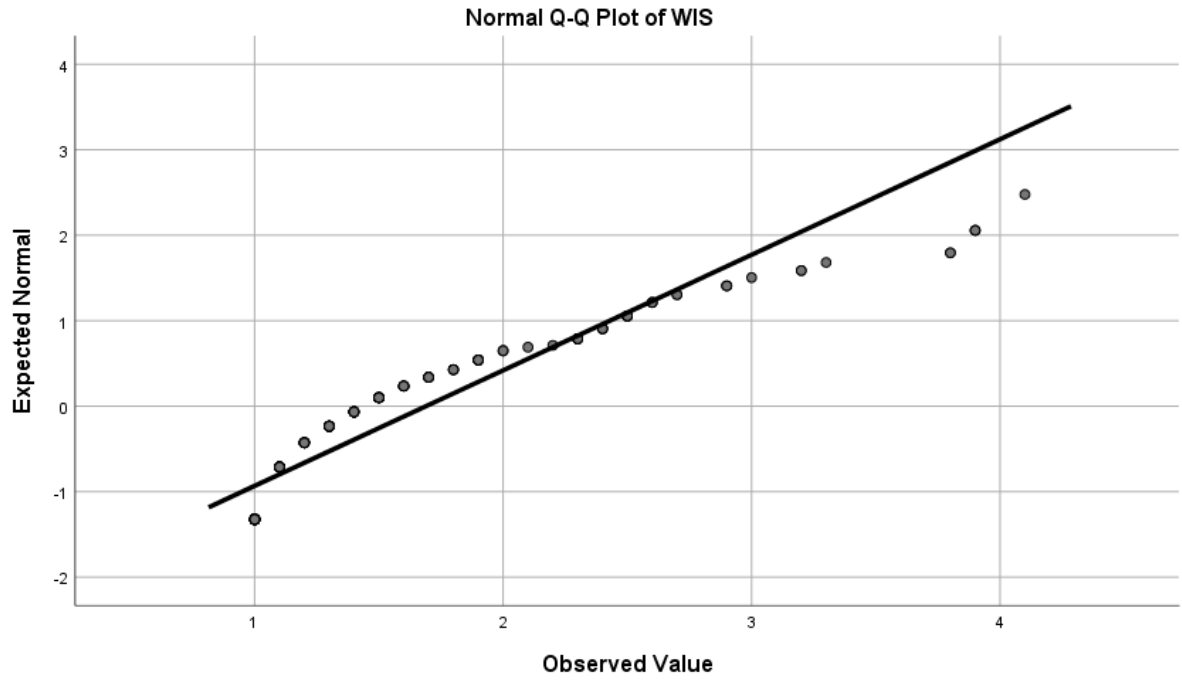


CWB Frequency and Normality (Log Transformation)

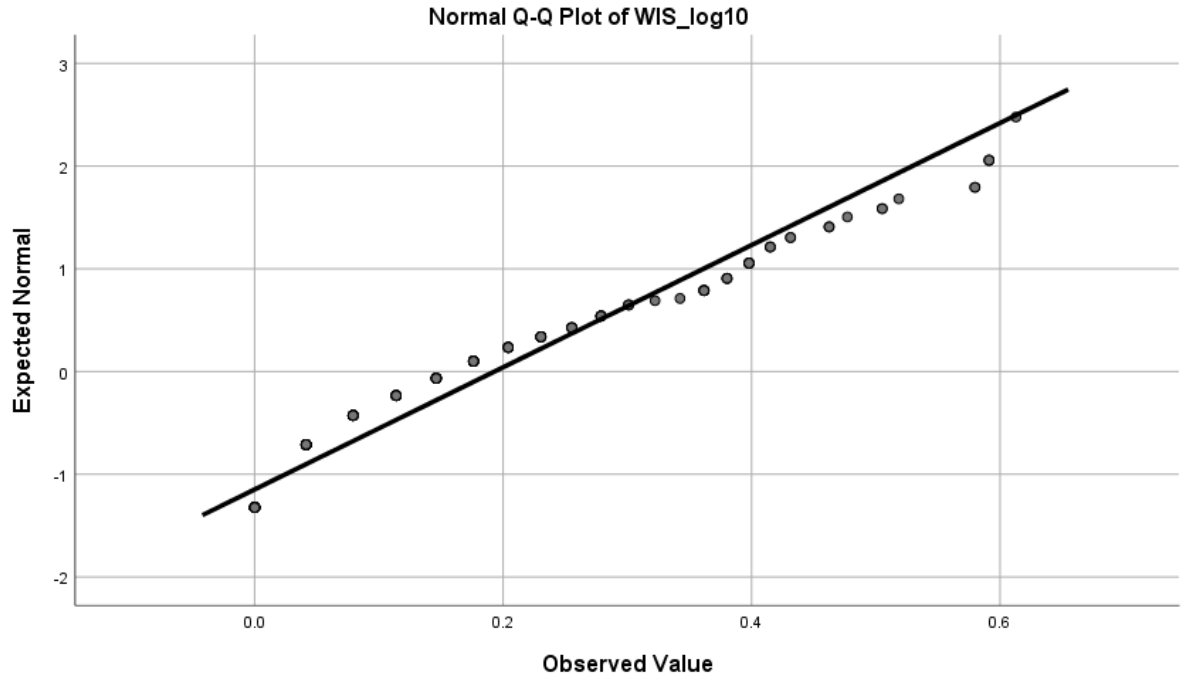


Appendix P – Normal QQ Plots

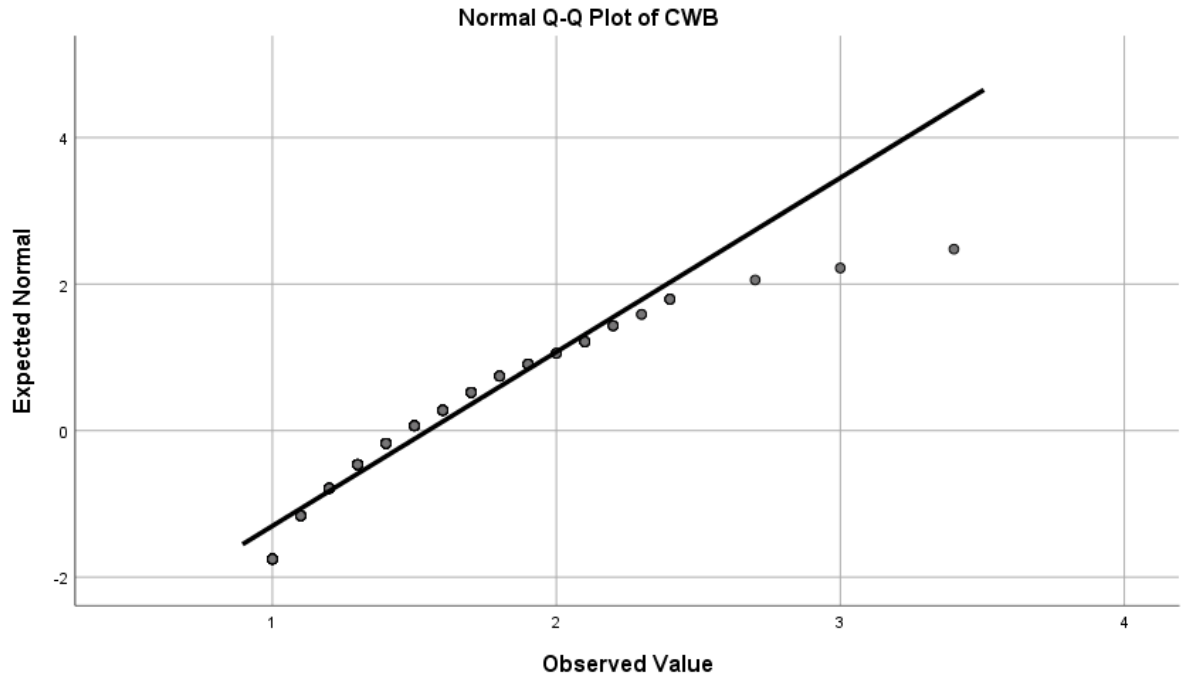
Workplace Incivility normal Q-Q Plot



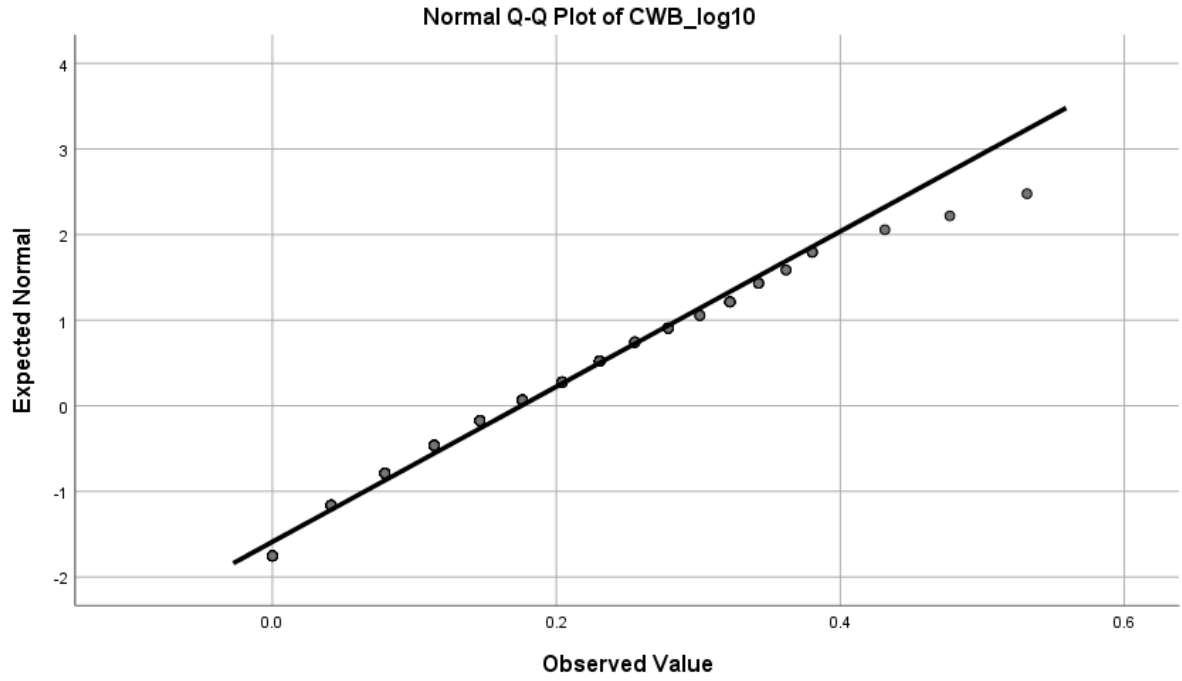
Workplace Incivility normal Q-Q Plot (Log Transformation)



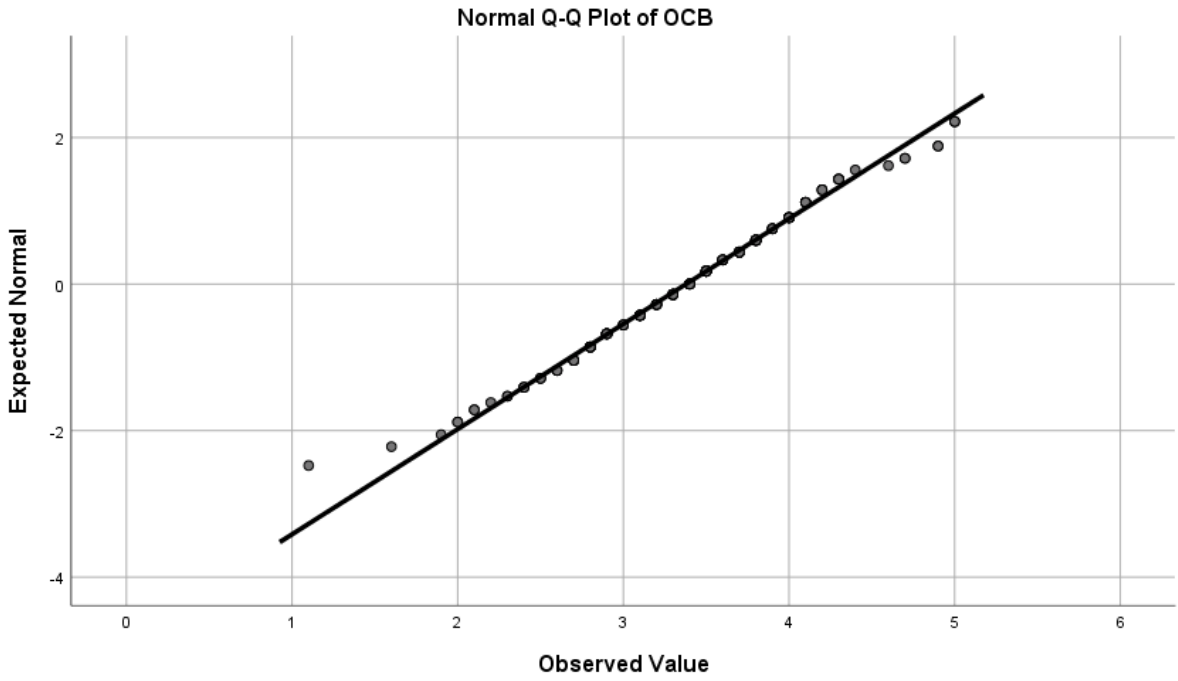
CWB normal Q-Q Plot



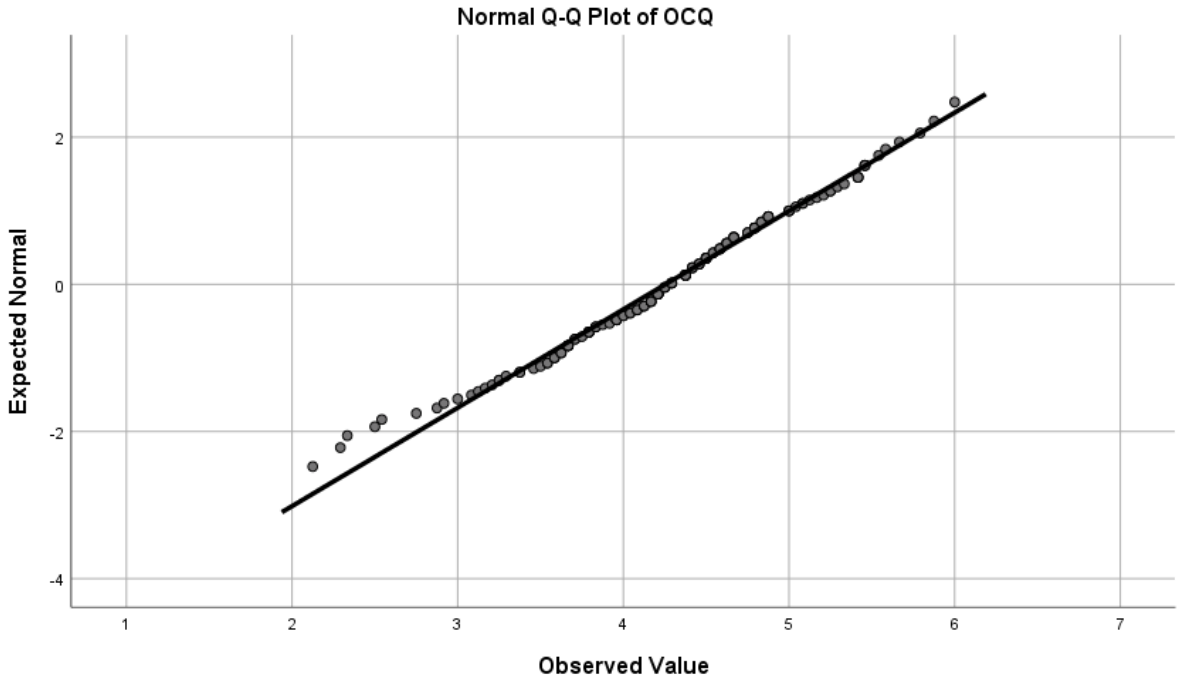
CWB normal Q-Q Plot (Log Transformation)



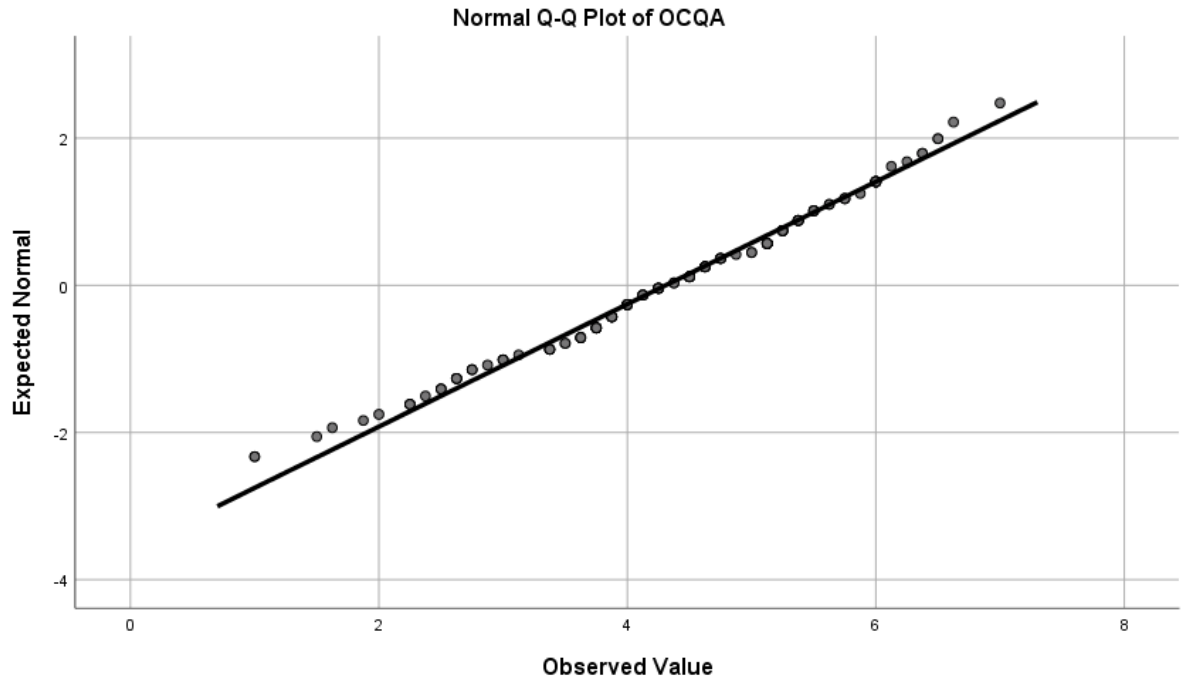
OCB normal Q-Q Plot



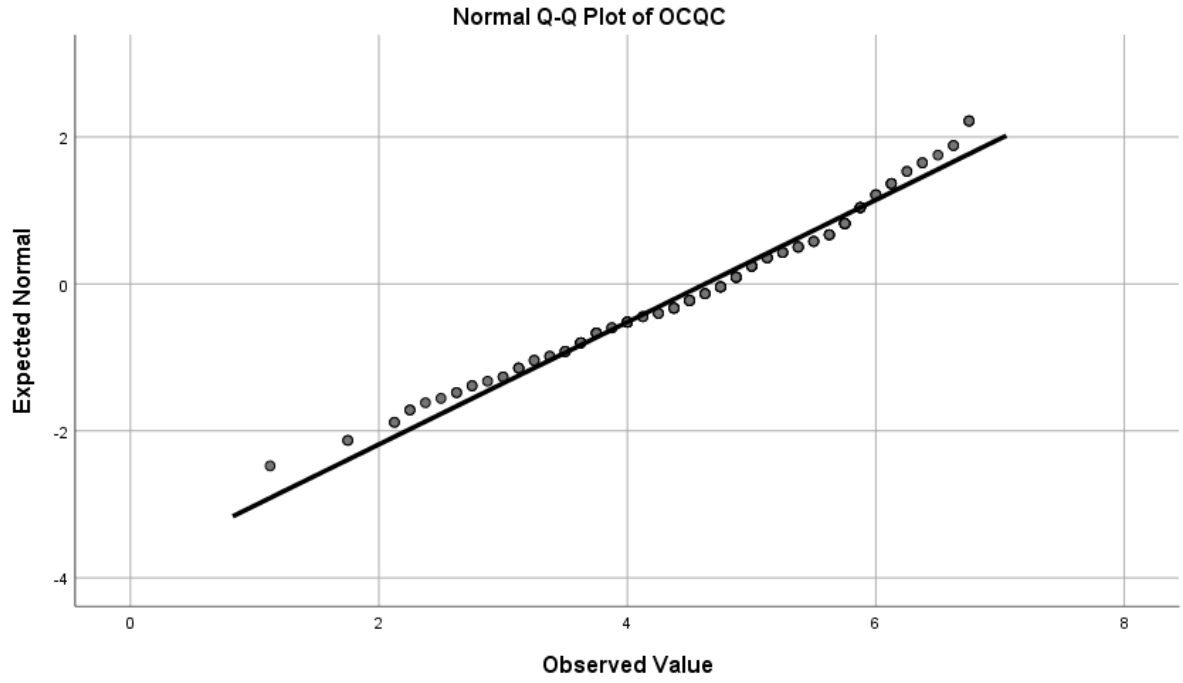
OC normal Q-Q Plot



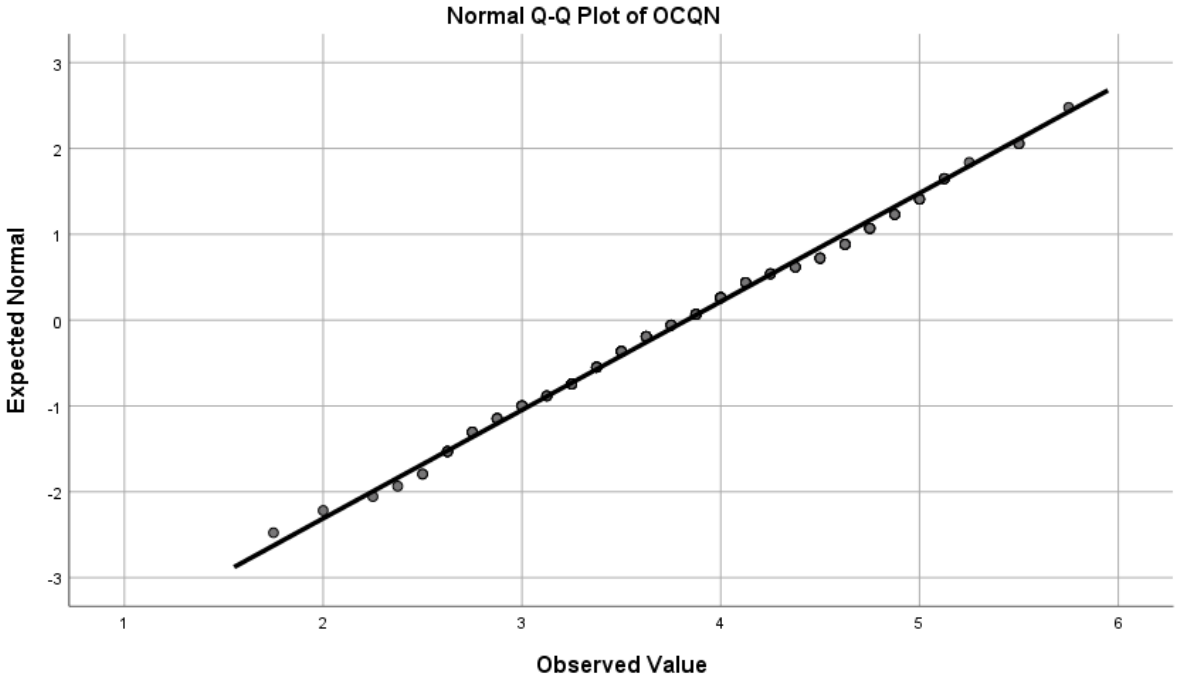
OC Affective commitment normal Q-Q Plot



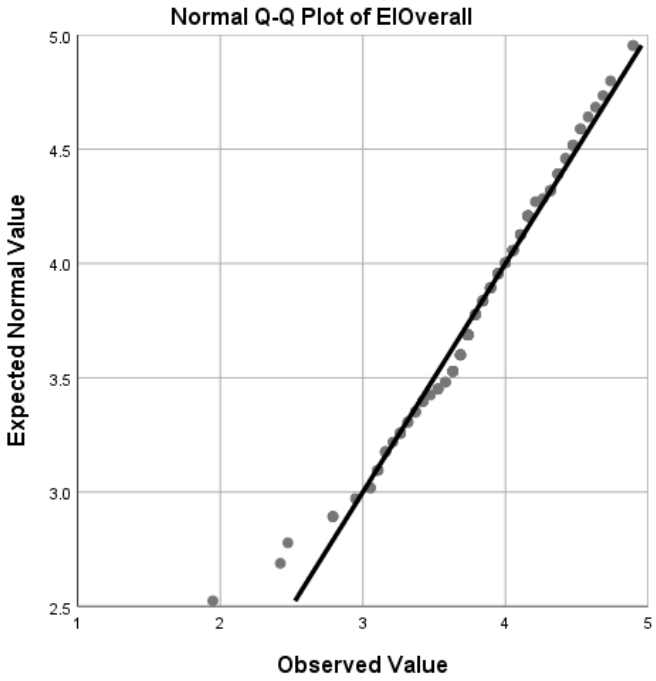
OC Continuation commitment normal Q-Q Plot



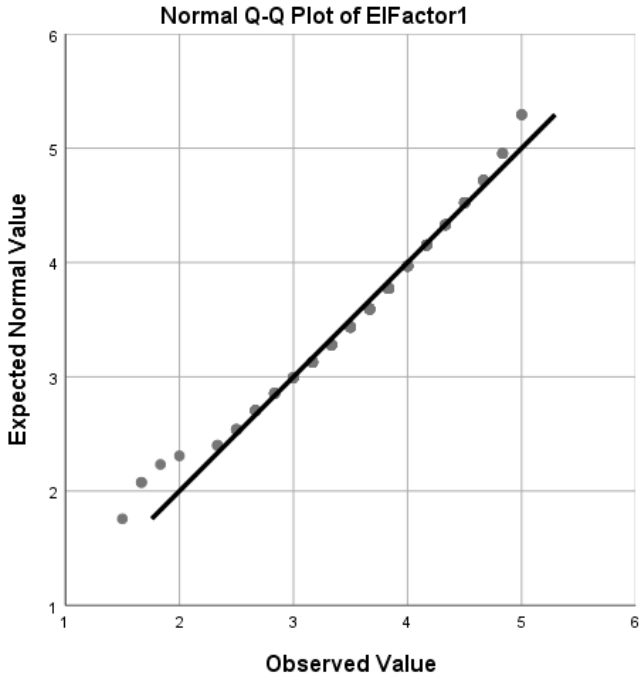
OC Normative commitment normal Q-Q Plot



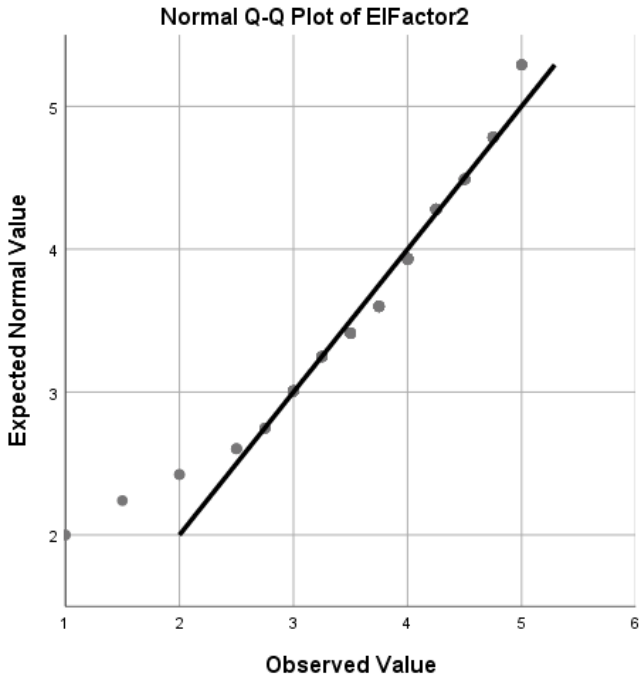
EI normal Q-Q Plot



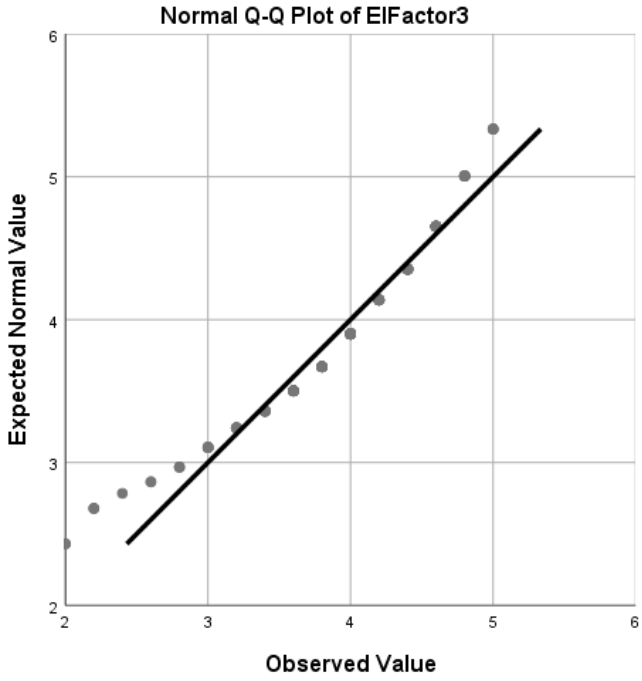
EI Factor 1 (Perceptions of Emotions) normal Q-Q Plot



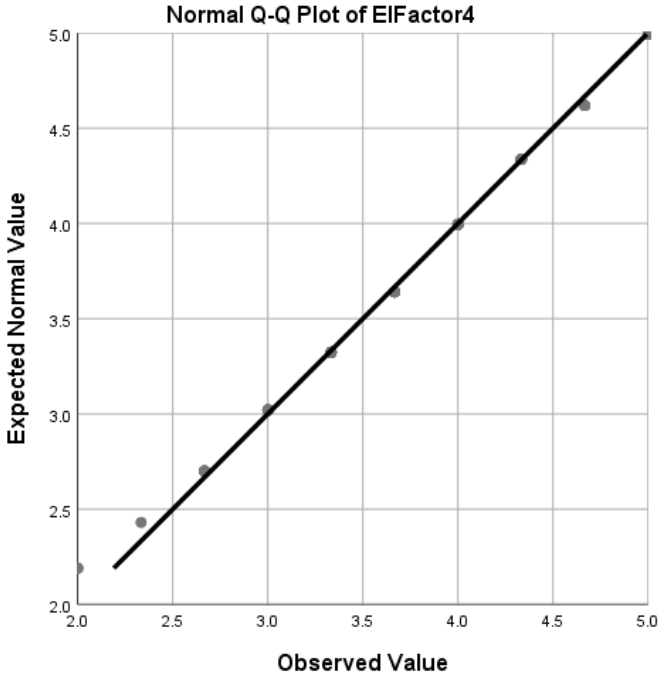
EI Factor 2 (Emotional Self-Awareness) normal Q-Q Plot



EI Factor 3 (Motivation) normal Q-Q Plot



EI Factor 4 (Resilience) normal Q-Q Plot



Appendix Q – Moderated Multiple Regression Simple Slopes Graph

