Experienced Incivility in the Workplace: A Meta-Analytical Review of Its Construct Validity and Nomological Network

Jingxian Yao

UCP-Católica Lisbon School of Business and Economics

Sandy Lim

National University of Singapore

Cathy Yang Guo

IESEG School of Management

Amy Y. Ou

Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Jomel Wei Xuan Ng

National University of Singapore

Jingxian Yao, Católica Lisbon School of Business and Economics, Universidade Católica Portuguesa. Sandy Lim and Jomel Wei Xuan Ng, Department of Management and Organization, NUS Business School, National University of Singapore. Cathy Yang Guo, IESEG School of Management. Amy Y. Ou, Department of Management and Marketing, Faculty of Business, Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

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Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Jingxian Yao, Católica Lisbon School of Business and Economics, Universidade Católica Portuguesa, Palma de Cima, 1649-023 Lisboa, Portugal. Email: jingxianyao@clsbe.lisboa.ucp.pt

Abstract

Although workplace incivility has received increasing attention in organizational research over the past two decades, there have been recurring questions about its construct validity, especially vis-à-vis other forms of workplace mistreatment. Also, the antecedents of experienced incivility remain understudied, leaving an incomplete understanding of its nomological network. In this meta-analysis using Schmidt and Hunter's (2015) random-effect meta-analytic methods, we validate the construct of incivility by testing its reliability, convergent and discriminant validity, as well as its incremental predictive validity over other forms of mistreatment. We also extend its nomological network by drawing on the perpetrator predation framework to systematically study the antecedents of experienced incivility. Based on 105 independent samples and 51,008 participants, we find extensive support for incivility's construct validity. Besides, we demonstrate that demographic characteristics (gender, race, rank, and tenure), personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, negative affectivity, and self-esteem), and contextual factors (perceived uncivil climate and socially supportive climate) are important antecedents of experienced incivility, with contextual factors displaying a stronger association with incivility. In a supplementary primary study with 457 participants, we find further support for the construct validity of incivility. We discuss the theoretical and practical implications of this study.

Keywords: workplace incivility, meta-analysis, perpetrator predation framework, workplace mistreatment

Experienced Incivility in the Workplace: A Meta-Analytical Review of Its Construct Validity and Nomological Network

Workplace incivility, defined as "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457), is experienced by more than 70 percent of employees (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001). Despite its low intensity and ambiguous intention, experiences of workplace incivility have been consistently associated with negative work and health consequences (Ferris, Chen, & Lim, 2017; Schilpzand, De Pater, & Erez, 2016), including reduced well-being (e.g., Arnold & Walsh, 2015), lowered job satisfaction (e.g., Bunk & Magley, 2013), inhibited organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (e.g., Porath & Erez, 2007), heightened turnover intentions (e.g., Crocker, 2005), and increased counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) (e.g., Harold & Holtz, 2015). Such findings suggest that seemingly subtle instances of mistreatment (i.e., incivility) may exert a measurable adverse impact.

Although empirical studies over the past two decades have widely documented the negative outcomes of experienced incivility, two critical issues limit the advancement of incivility research. First, direct empirical support for the construct validity of incivility is lacking. Although researchers have conceptually differentiated incivility from other forms of workplace mistreatment such as aggressive behavior, ostracism, and sexual harassment (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Ferris et al., 2017; Lim & Cortina, 2005), some have criticized that these mistreatment constructs may not be distinguishable given their overlapping dimensions and measurement items (Hershcovis, 2011). In particular, Hershcovis (2011) showed that various mistreatment constructs (including incivility) exhibit similar correlations with outcomes, raising

concerns about the value of incivility as a distinct construct worthy of an independent research stream. Therefore, our first objective is to examine the construct validity of experienced incivility. Conceptually, we explain the distinctions and linkages between incivility and other mistreatment constructs, and theorize why incivility exerts an impact on employees, independent of other forms of mistreatment. Empirically, we analyze its reliability, convergent and discriminant validity, manifestation within an overall mistreatment construct, and incremental predictive validity over five other forms of mistreatment – aggressive behavior, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, undermining, and ostracism.

Second, in contrast to the well documented outcomes, our understanding of the antecedents of experienced incivility is limited. Schilpzand et al.'s (2016) qualitative review showed that only a handful of studies had empirically studied antecedents of experienced incivility, and the investigation scope of these studies was narrow. For example, only gender and race have received some attention as demographic antecedents of experienced incivility (McCord, Joseph, Dhanani, & Beus, 2018). Personality traits were seldom studied as antecedents (for exceptions, see Milam, Spitzmueller, & Penney, 2009; Sliter, Withrow, & Jex, 2015), perhaps because researchers are concerned that "the results may be misconstrued as blaming the victim" (Milam et al., 2009, p. 59). Contextual factors were also rarely documented as antecedents of experienced incivility. However, a poor understanding of antecedents severely constrains our ability to design prevention measures against incivility in the workplace. Fortunately, many potential antecedents of experienced incivility, such as individual (e.g., demographic characteristics and personality traits) or contextual factors, were included as control variables (e.g., Penney & Spector, 2005) or moderators (e.g., Taylor & Kluemper, 2012) in

existing empirical studies. Therefore, our second objective is to synthesize these empirical data with meta-analysis and provide a systematic investigation of incivility antecedents.

In particular, we use the latest perpetrator predation framework (Cortina, Rabelo, & Holland, 2018) as an organizing framework to identify antecedents of experienced incivility. We argue that perpetrators, based on their judgment about potential victims' vulnerability, conveniently choose certain groups of employees as targets of incivility. Accordingly, we examine (1) demographic characteristics (gender, race, education, rank, and tenure), (2) personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, negative affectivity, and self-esteem), and (3) contextual factors (perceived uncivil climate and socially supportive climate) as predictors of experienced incivility. In contrast to the traditional victim precipitation framework, which argues that certain traits are provoking and attract mistreatment (Henle & Gross, 2014; Milam et al., 2009; Samnani & Singh, 2012) or bias people's perceptions of how they are treated (Sliter et al., 2015), the perpetrator predation framework does not blame the victims for the mistreatment but instead emphasizes that perpetrators make the choices (Cortina et al., 2018). More importantly, the perpetrator predation framework allows us to move beyond the narrow focus on personality traits that are "mistreatment-provoking" to identify a wider range of antecedents that contribute to victims' vulnerability (e.g., demographic antecedents that signal low status, and contextual antecedents that reflect unfavorable climate).

By synthesizing 105 empirical studies of experienced incivility in a meta-analysis, our study contributes to incivility research in two important ways. First, we offer much needed empirical evidence to establish the construct validity of incivility. In doing so, we add to the understanding of incivility as a distinct manifestation of mistreatment vis-à-vis other

mistreatment constructs. Second, we bring attention to antecedents that are overlooked in the literature and examine a broad set of individual and contextual antecedents of experienced incivility. We also aim to identify the most prominent antecedents so as to guide future research and interventions.

Construct Validity of Incivility

Incivility and Other Forms of Mistreatment Constructs: Distinctions and Linkages

Our in-depth review of the incivility construct reveals three distinct characteristics that conceptually differentiate it from other forms of mistreatment. First, incivility is a low-intensity and non-physical form of mistreatment. Typical uncivil behaviors include disrespectful behaviors such as making insensitive remarks, violating privacy, glaring, and ignoring, which are generally seen as minor deviant acts (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina et al., 2001; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008). As such, incivility is different from violent or aggressive behavior (e.g., aggression, bullying) which consists of more persistent and severe deviant acts such as coercive physical intimidations and grave humiliations (Einarsen, 2000; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Some other types of mistreatment, such as abusive supervision and sexual harassment, can also involve aggressive or physical acts, and thus are distinguishable from incivility (Lim & Cortina, 2005; Tepper, 2000).

Second, incivility carries an ambiguous intention to harm. Even though an individual might suffer from incivility, it is generally difficult to interpret or ascertain the instigator's intention behind uncivil acts. For example, when an employee makes a joke about a colleague's clumsiness, the target may not know whether the employee is deliberate or is simply trying to be humorous. As such, incivility is in direct contrast to undermining, which represents interpersonal

behaviors with clear evil intention and easily attributed as harm-inflicting (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002). Duffy et al. (2002) also highlighted that the intentional harm carried by undermining is aimed to hinder relationships, work success, and favorable reputation. This instrumental focus is in contrast to incivility, whose scope lies largely within social interaction incidents (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Third, incivility is more generic. It contains no explicit gendered or sexualized content, implies no difference in power between the instigator and the victim, and takes both active (e.g., making condescending remarks) and passive forms (e.g., paying little attention). Uncivil behaviors can be differentiated from sexual harassment and abusive supervision, which includes sexual violations or negative leadership (Lim & Cortina, 2005; Tepper, 2000), respectively, and are often associated with a specific group of targets (e.g., women or subordinates). Incivility can also be differentiated from a purely passive form of mistreatment – ostracism (Ferris et al., 2017). Ostracism is characterized by "inaction", as it measures the extent to which an individual or group ignores, excludes, or omits socially appropriate actions towards others (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008; Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang, 2013).

Despite its unique characteristics, incivility is situated together with other interpersonal misbehaviors under the conceptual umbrella of workplace mistreatment. Essentially, various mistreatment constructs (incivility, aggressive behavior, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, social undermining, and ostracism) capture different forms of undesirable interpersonal behaviors in workplace interactions. Researchers who study these constructs have drawn on similar perspectives such as appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and deviance theories (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007) to explain how and why mistreatment experiences affect people (Duffy

et al., 2002; Sliter, Sliter, & Jex, 2012; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012). As such, different forms of mistreatment are likely manifestations of an underlying higher-order construct of mistreatment. While acknowledging the distinctions and linkages between incivility and other mistreatment constructs, we focus on conceptually and empirically establishing the construct validity of incivility, which has a unique value if incivility's effects on outcomes are independent of other forms of mistreatment. Other researchers have also examined a construct in its own merit while recognizing it as a manifestation of a higher-order construct. For example, researchers have studied helping, voice (Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008), and charisma (Balkundi, Kilduff, & Harrison, 2011) while recognizing the former two as dimensions of OCBs (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009) and the latter as a dimension of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Empirical Examination of Incivility's Construct Validity

We draw from classic articles (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Edwards, 2003; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Schwab, 1980, 2005) and meta-analytical research (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002) on construct validation, and aim to perform an integrative and comprehensive examination of the construct validity of incivility. Figure 1 depicts the nomological network of experienced incivility (including its antecedents, correlates, and outcomes), which we use to organize our study.

Insert Figure 1 about here

First, we examine the reliability of the incivility construct, which is a prerequisite of its construct validity. As Kerlinger and Lee (2000, p. 662) noted, "High reliability is no guarantee of

good scientific results, but there can be no good scientific results without reliability."

Second, we conduct tests of convergent and discriminant validity, examining how different incivility measures correlate (Schwab, 1980, 2005), and how incivility correlates with other theoretically relevant versus irrelevant constructs (Schwab, 1980, 2005; Shaffer, DeGeest, & Li, 2016). Our prediction is that different incivility measures, which reflect the same theoretical construct, will be highly correlated. Incivility should have moderate correlations with related yet distinct constructs (other forms of mistreatment), and low correlations with theoretically irrelevant constructs (job characteristics that entail a non-interpersonal nature, including job demand, which measures the requirement of effort and the level of workload, and job control, which measures the decision latitude and the level of autonomy in a job, Karasek, 1979). These relationships can lend further support to the conceptual meaning of incivility.

Third, we examine whether incivility has incremental predictive validity over other forms of mistreatment, namely, aggressive behavior, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, undermining, and ostracism. Incremental predictive validity is not only a form of criterion-related validity (which shows a construct's associations with important outcomes; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000), it also serves as discriminant validity evidence that differentiates a construct from other similar constructs. As shown in Figure 1, the existing literature has extensively studied the affective, cognitive, attitudinal, behavioral, and health consequences of experienced incivility. In our study, we focus on explaining why incivility exerts effects in ways different from other forms of mistreatment and seeking empirical evidence for its incremental predictive validity.

To start with, the low-intensity and ambiguous-intention nature of incivility may deter effective confrontation or penalization to sanction such behaviors. When targeted with incivility,

employees may face difficulty in proving that harm is severe enough to be penalized or has been intentionally inflicted. They may also have little recourse from organizational policies, because the policies mainly sanction severe and evident mistreatment (e.g., aggressive behavior, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, Lim & Cortina, 2008; Ferris et al., 2017). As a result, victims have little means to protect themselves from the harm of incivility, and the impact of experienced incivility may become lingering. Targeted employees may thus experience feelings of helplessness, which heighten their unfavorable affective, cognitive, and attitudinal outcomes, stimulate dysfunctional behaviors, and reduce well-being (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Relatedly, due to the ambiguity surrounding the perpetrator's intent, incivility targets often encounter difficulty in attribution and interpretation, thus generating ruminative thoughts about why incivility occurs. Beyond the experienced mistreatment itself, ruminative thoughts may draw victims' attention away from efforts related to work performance or positive work behaviors, as well as trigger their negative feelings about work or in general (Lim, Ilies, Koopman, Christoforou, & Arvey, 2018; Tong, Chong, & Johnson, 2019). These processes are less likely to occur with more severe or deliberate forms of mistreatment where the fault can be clearly attributed to the perpetrator (e.g., undermining).

In addition, the genericity of incivility increases its exposure to employees (Cortina et al., 2001; Ferris et al., 2017). Unlike abusive supervision or sexual harassment that features leader-to-follower or sexualized misbehaviors, respectively, incivility covers many more mistreatment scenarios that could negatively impact the target. Similarly, incivility, with both active and passive forms, encompasses a wider range of disrespectful behaviors beyond passive ostracism. (Ferris et al., 2017). Therefore, employees may potentially be exposed to many different

incidents of incivility, and suffer additional detrimental consequences beyond those caused by more narrowly defined forms of mistreatment such as abusive supervision, sexual harassment, and ostracism.

Taken together, due to the distinct characteristics of experienced incivility from other forms of mistreatment, incivility may (1) have a more lingering impact and make its victims helpless, (2) generate ruminative thoughts that distract the victims from productive functioning, and (3) take a more generic presence in the workplace. As a result, we expect incivility to have effects, independent of other forms of mistreatment, on a wide range of work and health consequences, including affective and cognitive experiences, work attitudes and behaviors, performance, and well-being. We hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Experienced incivility, above and beyond other forms of mistreatment, exerts a positive effect on negative affect, a positive effect on injustice perceptions, a negative effect on job satisfaction and affective commitment and a positive effect on turnover intention, a negative effect on OCBs and a positive effect on CWBs, a negative effect on task performance, and a negative effect on well-being.

Lastly, we test the existence of an overall "workplace mistreatment" construct that covers incivility and other forms of mistreatment. Based on the thematic commonality between incivility and other mistreatment constructs, we expect that there will be a higher-order construct of mistreatment (under which incivility is a lower-order dimension or manifestation).

Antecedents of Experienced Incivility

Another important source of construct validity evidence is nomological network testing. Nomological network exhibits a construct's relationships with other constructs in accordance

with relevant theory and is essentially a theory-based map of the causes, consequences, and correlates of the focal construct (Edwards, 2003; Schwab, 1980). The nomological network of experienced incivility is well established in terms of outcomes yet less developed in terms of antecedents. Accordingly, in this study, we expand the nomological network of experienced incivility by exploring its antecedents. In the following, we first give an overview of the perpetrator predation framework, clarifying how this framework does not contradict but extends the traditional victim precipitation model. We then build on it to propose hypotheses concerning incivility antecedents.

Perpetrator Predation Framework as a New Paradigm

Cortina et al. (2018) proposed that perpetrators direct incivility based on potential targets' attributes, emphasizing that "it was the instigator, not the victim, who did the choosing and abusing" (p. 93).[1] While the original perpetrator predation framework (Cortina et al., 2018) mainly focused on targets' characteristics and did not explicitly discuss the role of social contexts, organizational scholars have emphasized how contexts affect employee behaviors in general (Johns, 2018) and perpetrators' instigation of mistreatment in particular (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Accordingly, we borrow the basic notions of perpetrator predation (i.e., perpetrators conveniently select targets in a way that avoids being blamed or retaliated) and explain why certain contexts may encourage or suppress perpetrators' incivility instigation. In this research, we propose three conditions in which perpetrators direct incivility.

[1] Importantly, the framework does not suggest that all perpetrators maliciously and strategically select their targets. Instead, they may act discriminatorily without explicit awareness of their biases and prejudices (Devine, 1989; Greenwald & Banaji, 1995).

First, perpetrators may target employees who appear unlikely to defend themselves (Cortina et al., 2018; Samnani & Singh, 2016). Mistreated employees can defend themselves and retaliate through various means, including confronting the perpetrators and reporting their wrongdoing to the organization. As defense and retaliation often have a negative impact on the perpetrators' work outcomes or interpersonal relations (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Williams, 2007), perpetrators may prefer targeting employees who seem unable or unmotivated in self-defense.

Second, employees who are generally perceived to be unlikable or difficult to work with are more likely to be targeted, as they are less able to mobilize social support to defend themselves (English, John, Srivastava, & Gross, 2012). In addition, since incivility is generally seen as deviant and undesirable behavior, targeting unlikable employees is easier to justify (Cortina et al., 2018; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Perpetrators may attribute these employees' unlikability or unaccommodating working style as the trigger for their uncivil conducts and thus absolve themselves of their own wrongdoing (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006).

Third, perpetrators may feel less restrained about exhibiting uncivil behaviors in contexts where incivility is prevalent and widely accepted, or where the social environment fails to protect potential victims. Perpetrators are more likely to instigate incivility in such contexts because they are less likely to receive punishment or be viewed as blameworthy. The important role of social contexts has been documented in the existing literature (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Johns, 2018) and is an extension of the existing perpetrator predation framework.

In the following, we organize the antecedents of experienced incivility into three categories (demographic characteristics, personality traits, and contextual factors), and explain

why they affect perpetrators' incivility instigation and thus employees' experienced incivility. As shown below, the perpetrator predation framework offers coherent and consistent rationales for why individuals belonging to certain demographic groups (i.e., those with lower status), with certain personalities (i.e., those with less popular or likable traits), and in certain contexts (i.e., uncivil and unsupportive climates) might be targeted with more incivility. In contrast, the victim precipitation model solely focuses on individual personality traits as antecedents (or triggers) of mistreatment; it is thus more partial and fragmented to explain incivility antecedents. Table 1 summarizes the similarities and differences between these two frameworks and the merits of using the perpetrator predation framework as an organizing framework.

Insert Table 1 about here

Demographic Characteristics and Experienced Incivility

A set of demographic characteristics (gender, race, education, rank, and tenure) may affect perpetrators' judgments about whether potential victims are likely to conduct effective self-defense. These characteristics provide information for perpetrators to evaluate potential victims' status, and relatedly, their ability and motivation to defend themselves.

Status value and status characteristics theories (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch Jr., 1972; Ridgeway, 1991; Webster & Hysom, 1998) suggest that people associate status with demographic characteristics and form expectations of general competence or performance of specific demographic groups. Such prejudiced judgments are generalizable across a variety of domains and are often independent of actual performance or formalized status (Humphreys & Berger, 1981). Women, racial minorities, and less educated people tend to receive biased ability

judgments and performance evaluations in organizations (Carton & Rosette, 2011; Athey & Hautaluoma, 1994; Lyness & Heilman, 2006) as well as unfavorable status evaluations in society (Berger et al., 1972). Relatedly, rank and tenure are two salient demographic characteristics that signal status in the workplace. Employees with higher rank or longer tenure are ascribed with higher status, because the former is given formalized authority and perceived to possess valuable merits (Warren, 1968) and the latter implies more work- or organization-related experience and greater access to resources (Bozionelos, 2003; Fischer, 2008). Such employees may thus be perceived as being more competent and powerful than their counterparts. As women, racial minority, less educated, lower-ranked, and shorter-tenured employees are generally associated with relatively lower status, perpetrators may perceive that these employees are generally less able to perform well in various activities, including defending themselves when faced with incivility (Berger & Fisek, 2006; Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980).

In addition, people with lower status are often perceived to be less worthy, unimportant, or less prestigious (Berger et al., 1972). With such stereotypical beliefs, perpetrators may perceive that leaders, coworkers, and the organization have less concern for these employees and that these employees have less access to social support to counter mistreatment (Miner, Settles, Pratt-Hyatt, & Brady, 2012). Although it is not a fact that women, racial minority, less educated, lower-ranked, and shorter-tenured employees are incompetent or have lower social support to defend themselves, perpetrators tend to target these employees at large based on their own subjective perceptions of these employees' vulnerability.

Perpetrators may also perceive that these employees have lower motivation to defend themselves. Research has shown that lower-status people tend to behave in submissive,

accommodating, unaggressive, and conflict-avoidant manners (Correll, 2004; Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). When women, racial minority, less educated, lower-ranked, and shorter-tenured employees internalize their unfavorable status evaluations, they may follow the above behavioral patterns and become less inclined to defend themselves. For example, women and lower-ranked employees were found to use more avoidance or compromising solutions than dominating approaches when facing interpersonal conflicts (Brew & Cairns, 2004; Brewer, Mitchell, & Weber, 2002). Observing the behavioral patterns of lower-status employees, perpetrators may perceive that these employees are easy targets because they are less motivated to defend themselves. Based on such arguments, we propose:

Hypothesis 2: (a) Women and (b) racial minorities experience more incivility than men and racial majorities, respectively, and (c) education, (d) rank, and (e) tenure are negatively related to experienced incivility.

Personality Traits and Experienced Incivility

Personality traits describe people's general dispositions and behavioral tendencies, some of which affect perpetrators' vulnerability judgments from the observers' point of view and their choice of incivility targets (Cortina et al., 2018). Specifically, we focus on the following six personality traits – *agreeableness* which indicates kindness and affection; *conscientiousness* which indicates thoughtfulness and responsibility; *extraversion* which indicates being active, energetic, and talkative; *neuroticism* which indicates emotional instability (Costa & McCrae, 1992); *negative affectivity* which indicates chronic experiences of negative emotions (Watson & Clark, 1984); and *self-esteem* which indicates positive evaluations about the self (Chen, Gully, &

Eden, 2004).[2]

These traits affect others' perceptions of one's likability. Highly agreeable employees are viewed as trusting, altruistic, and helpful; disagreeable employees are viewed as suspicious, self-centered, and unaccommodating (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Highly conscientious employees are often perceived as hardworking and responsible, while less conscientious employees are viewed as unreliable and lethargic (Rosse, Stecher, Miller, & Levin, 1998). Extroverts appear interpersonally warm and popular; introverts tend to be seen as cold and unfriendly (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001). Less-neurotic employees appear relaxed, friendly, and calm, whereas highly neurotic employees often appear anxious, hostile, and impulsive (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Similarly, employees low in negative affectivity are generally even-tempered, while those high in negative affectivity frequently display pessimism, nervousness, and cynical attitudes (Watson & Clark, 1984). Not surprisingly, employees low in agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion or high in neuroticism and negative affectivity are generally perceived as unfriendly or unlikable (Dumas, Johnson, & Lynch, 2002; Wortman & Wood, 2011). As a result, perpetrators might believe that they can escape culpability when targeting employees with such traits because they can attribute their uncivil behaviors to presumed difficulties in interacting with these employees (Cortina et al., 2018; Milam et al., 2009). For example, perpetrators might see neurotic employees as easy targets because they can blame their incivility on the seemingly hostile and unreasonable behaviors of those employees, or they might perceive introverted

[2] We exclude openness to experience because it is theoretically less relevant to perpetrators' vulnerability judgment. Neuroticism and negative affectivity are conceptually different because the former refers to emotional volatility and is not restricted to negative emotions, whereas negative affectivity focuses exclusively on chronic and stable experiences of negative emotions.

employees as easy targets because they can attribute their uncivil behaviors to the introverts' apathy.

These personality traits also affect perpetrators' perceptions of the ability or motivation to defend oneself. At first glance, employees low in agreeableness or high in neuroticism may seem more aggressive and more likely to defend themselves (Samnani & Singh, 2012); however, some evidence suggests that these employees, together with those low in conscientiousness or extraversion have lower network centrality in the workplace (Fang et al., 2015). Therefore, perpetrators may believe that these employees' ability to defend themselves is handicapped because their disadvantageous network positions constrain their access to social capital, such as leader or coworker support (Lin, 1999). Perpetrators may then see them as easy targets of incivility. As for employees low in self-esteem, they tend to frequently display self-doubts, unnecessary anxiety and fear, and withdrawal behaviors (Baumeister, 1993). As a result, perpetrators may target these employees because they may perceive these employees' lack of confidence as incompetence and their withdrawal tendencies as low motivation to defend themselves or retaliate. We propose:

Hypothesis 3: (a) Agreeableness, (b) conscientiousness, and (c) extraversion are negatively related to experienced incivility, (d) neuroticism and (e) negative affectivity are positively related to experienced incivility, and (f) self-esteem is negatively related to experienced incivility.

Contextual Factors (Psychological Climate) and Experienced Incivility

Contextual factors may inform perpetrators whether uncivil conducts will bear negative consequences. We study employees' perceptions of social contexts, or psychological climate

(Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003). Specifically, we consider perceived uncivil and socially supportive climate, with the former focusing on the prevalence of uncivil behaviors and the latter stressing the accessibility of support.

Perceived uncivil climate. An uncivil climate refers to a social context in which uncivil behaviors are either prevalent or acceptable (Gallus, Bunk, Matthews, Barnes-Farrell, & Magley, 2014). Research on social norms and social influence suggests that individuals are unlikely to find fault with perceived normative behaviors even when those behaviors are harmful (e.g., marital violence, Kim & Emery, 2003; unsustainable financial behaviors, Rook & Fisher, 1995). As such, employees who perceive uncivil climate may not see incivility as deviant. Therefore, perpetrators may judge that these employees are less sensitive or reactive to uncivil behaviors and become less concerned about treating them with respect.

Hypothesis 4a: Perceived uncivil climate is positively related to experienced incivility.

Perceived socially supportive climate. In a socially supportive climate, coworkers, leaders, and organizations provide instrumental or emotional support for employees (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986). Consequently, employees who perceive high socially supportive climate feel comfortable about reporting incivility and confident about support, protection, and redress. For example, they expect coworkers to condemn or expect organizational authorities to penalize perpetrators (Miner et al., 2012; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Potential perpetrators may thus be deterred in being uncivil to these employees due to the likely negative consequences that would ensue from organizational or social sanctions. Therefore, employees who perceive high socially supportive climate are less likely to be "preyed" by perpetrators and experience incivility.

Hypothesis 4b: Perceived socially supportive climate is negatively related to experienced

incivility.

Comparing Associations Between Different Antecedents and Experienced Incivility

In addition to studying the three categories of antecedents (demographic characteristics, personality traits, and contextual factors) separately, we examine their independent effects on experienced incivility and the relative strengths of these effects. Past research has analyzed the relative predictive power of *person* (demographic characteristics and personality traits) and *environment* (contextual factors) in areas such as job performance (Judge & Zapata, 2015), safety behaviors (Christian, Bradley, Wallace, & Burke, 2009), and leadership (Li, Arvey, Zhang, & Song, 2012). In this study, we examine whether these antecedents have independent effects on experienced incivility and whether person or environment factors (or psychological climates in our test) are more predictive of incivility. As Pfeffer (2019) highlighted, organizational and policy interventions are limited by resources and must prioritize the factors that have the strongest impact on human well-being. By understanding which factors are the strongest predictors of incivility, we can help organizations focus on interventions that would have the greatest potential to minimize workplace incivility and its negative consequences. *Research Question: Do demographic characteristics, personality traits, or contextual factors have a stronger association with experienced incivility?*

Method

Literature Search

We performed a comprehensive search to locate all empirical studies on workplace experienced incivility. First, we conducted an online literature search using PsycINFO, ProQuest, and EBSCO databases. We searched titles and abstracts for combinations of incivility-

related and work-related keywords: *incivility, uncivil, work*, *organization*, *job*, *employee*, and *management*. Second, we manually searched the Online First, In Press, or Publish Ahead of Print sections of major outlets for incivility research (*Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, and *Work and Stress*). Third, we located additional studies through the reference sections of narrative reviews on workplace interpersonal mistreatment (Ferris et al., 2017; Schilpzand et al., 2016). Last, we searched the online programs of multiple scholarly conferences (Academy of Management, Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, and Work, Stress, and Health) and posted inquiries for unpublished studies via several electronic mailing lists affiliated with the Academy of Management (Organizational Behavior, Health Management, and Emotion in Organizations) to obtain additional unpublished manuscripts. We obtained 1,560 articles for screening.

Inclusion Criteria

We read the full text of each study to determine whether it should be included in our meta-analysis. To be included, studies had to be empirical and to report either zero-order correlations or other types of effect sizes that can be transformed into correlations. Also, they had to include experienced incivility as a study variable and to use a measure in accordance with our adopted definition of experienced incivility. Accordingly, we excluded studies that solely examined instigated or observed incivility (e.g., Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004). Studies had to examine workplace incivility. We excluded non-organizational studies that focused on topics such as cyber incivility in social websites (e.g., Coe, Kenski, & Rains, 2014) or televised political incivility (e.g., Mutz & Reeves, 2005). When we encountered different articles based on

the same sample (e.g., Bunk, 2006; Bunk & Magley, 2013), we retained only the study with the most comprehensive variables. These criteria yielded 126 articles with 149 independent samples. The coding scheme, introduced in the next section, further eliminated 44 samples that lacked variables relevant to our hypotheses or research question (for two studies that included variables of our interest but adopted a coding approach inconsistent with our coding scheme, we contacted the authors for usable correlations and included and obtained such correlations for both studies). The final dataset included 89 articles, 107 independent samples, and 51,578 participants. Sixty-eight articles were published in peer-reviewed journals; 21 were unpublished manuscripts. Appendix A provides details of each sample used in the meta-analysis.

Coding Procedure

We used a two-stage coding procedure (Orwin & Vevea, 2009). The first stage involved low inference coding. For each sample, two authors coded information about the sample (e.g., sample size), variables (e.g., variable name, mean and standard deviation, reliability, and source of measure), and correlations among study variables. For studies reporting other forms of effect sizes (e.g., *t* or *F* statistics in experimental studies), we followed Arthur, Bennett, and Huffcutt's (2001) recommendations to transform effect sizes into zero-order correlations. In the first stage, the inter-rater agreement was 98.4% and discrepancies were reconciled through discussion.

The second stage involved high inference coding. We coded all variables in the primary studies based on a coding scheme for our hypotheses including other forms of workplace mistreatment, antecedents, and outcomes. Two authors independently coded variables in the primary studies into the coding scheme by carefully reviewing the operational definitions and measurement items of each variable. In case of disagreement, they discussed the codes with a

third author until reaching full consensus. Below, we describe how variables in the primary studies were coded into our coding scheme. Appendix B offers more details regarding representative measures in primary studies corresponding to the variables in the coding scheme.

Other forms of workplace mistreatment. We coded other mistreatment constructs into five variables: aggressive behavior, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, undermining, and ostracism. Conceptually very similar constructs that represent rather severe mistreatment (also with very similar measurement items), including aggression and bullying, were combined and labeled as aggressive behavior. Constructs that reflect leaders' hostile behaviors against their followers were coded separately into abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000). We coded a variable as sexual harassment if it measures specific, identity-based or sexually inappropriate behaviors against women and/or men (Lim & Cortina, 2005). Variables that reflect deliberate harm to social well-being or intentional bias and exclusion were coded as undermining (Duffy et al., 2002). We coded a variable as ostracism if it indicates mistreatment by pure inaction, such as ignoring and omitting (Ferris et al., 2008).

Demographic characteristics. We coded gender, race, education, and rank in a way that larger (smaller) values represent men (women), racial majorities (minorities), high (low) education, and high (low) rank. We coded organizational and job tenure as one single variable, because they both reflect workplace seniority and our theoretical arguments apply to both.

Personality traits. We followed Costa and McCrae's (1992) definitions of the big five personality traits, Watson and Clark's (1984) definition of negative affectivity, and Chen et al.'s (2004) definition of self-esteem. We adopted a rather conservative approach of coding to avoid combining conceptually different constructs. For big five traits, only variables using big five

inventories were included. Related constructs, such as empathy (similar to agreeableness) and goal orientation (similar to conscientiousness) were excluded. Emotional stability was reverse-coded and combined with neuroticism, because both constructs were measured by the same set of items. For negative affectivity, only variables that explicitly measure chronic experiences of negative emotions were included. For self-esteem, we excluded core self-evaluation because it covers additional dimensions other than self-esteem.

Contextual factors. In line with our theorization on contextual factors as individual-level psychological climate, we coded a variable as perceived uncivil climate if it reflects individual perceptions of a context in which incivility is either prevalent or tolerated (Gallus et al., 2014). We reverse-coded the variable if it represents how uncivil behaviors are infrequent or penalized, or how civility is prevailing or encouraged. We coded a variable as perceived socially supportive climate if it reflects individual perceptions of a context in which instrumental or emotional support is prevalent or available.[3] We did not differentiate the sources (e.g., leaders or coworkers) of social support because our rationales on the relationship between socially supportive climate and employees' experienced incivility apply to support from various sources.

[3] Although our theorization and main analyses were centered around individual-level psychological climate, organizational climate traditionally refers to shared values or beliefs among employees and are conceptualized and measured at the group level (Ostroff, et al., 2003). Therefore, we also searched for incivility studies that included team-level climate measures. Meta-analytic results demonstrated a positive relationship between team-level uncivil climate and team-level incivility ($k = 3$, $N = 590$, $\hat{\rho} = .54$), and there was another study showing a positive relationship between disaggregated team-level uncivil climate and individual-level incivility ($N = 637$, $r = .27$). In addition, in all of 11 comparisons using modified z-tests, team-level uncivil climate was more strongly associated with incivility than demographic characteristics and personality traits. In 9 out of 11 comparisons using modified z-tests, disaggregated team-level uncivil climate was more strongly associated with individual-level experienced incivility than demographic characteristics and personality traits. Overall, the pattern of results was consistent with individual-level uncivil climate measures. Correlation between team-level socially supportive climate and incivility was not available.

Outcomes variables. Incivility outcomes include affective and cognitive experiences, work attitudes and behaviors, performance, and well-being. Variables reflecting transient experiences of negative emotions were coded as negative affect (Watson & Clark, 1984), which differs from negative affectivity, a relatively more stable trait reflecting chronic emotional experiences. We coded a variable as injustice perceptions if it captures individual perceptions of unfair treatment (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Variables measuring perceived fairness were reverse-coded.

When coding job satisfaction, we excluded variables such as life and marital satisfaction because they are measures of satisfaction outside the workplace. When coding affective commitment, we excluded the very few studies on continuance commitment, which involves more cost-benefit analysis and evaluation of alternative career opportunities. When coding turnover intention, we excluded variables that represented actual turnover. Variables that reflected discretionary behaviors that benefit organizations were coded as OCBs (Organ, 1988). We included theoretically similar constructs (e.g., contextual performance) and subcategories of OCBs (e.g., helping). Variables that reflected behaviors that could harm organizations or coworkers were coded as CWBs (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). Typical forms included withdrawal (e.g., absenteeism) and deviance (e.g., sabotage).

We coded variables that measured employees' performance in their work tasks. We excluded other performance measures such as learning or innovative performance due to the insufficient number of studies. We also excluded variables that measure efforts because they reflect how employees act but not the results of their actions. For parsimony, we reverse-coded ill-being variables to reflect well-being; we also combined physical and psychological well-being

variables in our coding. Supporting this decision, our post-hoc analysis showed similar correlations with experienced incivility (-.36 for physical and -.39 for psychological well-being).

Meta-Analytical Strategy

We adopted Schmidt and Hunter's (2015) random-effects meta-analytic methods to conduct meta-analyses. First, we combined multiple correlations of the same relationship (per our hypotheses) within the same study using linear composites, which allowed us to fully utilize the data in primary studies and to meet the assumption of independence for effect sizes (Schmidt & Hunter, 2015). Second, we calculated sample-size-weighted meta-analytic correlations ($\bar{r}$) to correct for sampling error. Third, we calculated true population correlations ($\hat{\rho}$) that corrected for both sampling error and measurement error. For each variable in our hypotheses, we formed a reliability distribution based on the primary studies and obtained an average reliability coefficient. If the primary studies used single-item measures or did not provide reliability information for certain variables, we set the reliabilities to be 1 for conservative estimation purposes (McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005). We then corrected for measurement error in two correlated variables using their respective average reliability coefficients.

As Schmidt and Hunter (2015) suggested, we estimated 95% confidence intervals (CIs) and 80% credibility intervals (CVs) for $\hat{\rho}$s. CIs reflect the possible amount of sampling error in $\hat{\rho}$s, while CVs indicate the possible range of $\hat{\rho}$s after sampling error is corrected. We computed the percentage of variance from statistical artifacts (%Var) and the chi-square value of heterogeneity testing (Q-statistics). A %Var lower than 75% or a significant Q-statistic indicates that the meta-analyzed relationship has potential moderators. In addition, we conducted trim-

and-fill analyses to assess the influence of publication biases (Duval & Tweedie, 2000). Accordingly, we reported ΔK to indicate the number of potentially missing studies for a meta-analyzed relationship, and *adj-r*, which represents the correlation after filling these studies. Our meta-analysis was performed with Stata 14.

Hypothesis 1 and Research Question involved comparing different predictors, so we followed prior research (e.g., Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011; Fang et al., 2015; Hartnell, Ou, Kinicki, Choi, & Karam, 2019) and employed meta-analytic regression and relative weight analyses (Johnson, 2000). To test Hypothesis 1, we included as many predictors as possible in one regression, depending on the availability of meta-analytic correlations among mistreatment constructs and outcomes. Doing so can suppress irrelevant covariances among predictors and offer more accurate estimations of their effects (Darlington, 1968).

We tested Hypotheses 2 to 4 by examining the magnitudes of the meta-analytic correlations. Hypotheses would be supported if the effects were statistically significant, with confidence intervals excluding zero and in the predicted direction.

Results

Reliability, Convergent Validity, and Discriminant Validity

The reliabilities of different incivility measures, including the most widely used measure – Cortina et al.'s (2001) Workplace Incivility Scale – and other measures used by at least two primary studies, are summarized in Table 2. We calculated both simple averages and sample-size-weighted averages of Cronbach's αs. Overall, the Cronbach's αs of all measures were very high (for sample-size-weighted averages, *α*s ranged from .81 to .94, *Mean* = .88, *SD* = .04), supporting the reliability of the incivility construct.

Insert Table 2 and Table 3 about here

Table 3 presents empirical evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of experienced incivility. Supporting convergent validity, the average correlation between different incivility measures was very high: $\hat{\rho}$ = .73, 95% CI = [.71, .74], 80% CV excluded zero. Supporting discriminant validity, the correlations between incivility and other mistreatment constructs were positive but not as high as those among incivility measures: $\hat{\rho}$s ranged from .24 to .63, all 95% CIs and 80% CVs excluded zero. In addition, the correlations between experienced incivility and non-interpersonal job characteristics were nonsignificant ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.08, for job control) or very weak ($\hat{\rho}$ = .17, for job demand); both 80% CVs included zero.

Incremental Predictive Validity and Higher-Order Mistreatment Construct

Hypothesis 1 concerned the incremental predictive validity of experienced incivility above and beyond other mistreatment constructs. Appendices C and D show the meta-analytic results of incivility outcomes and the correlation matrix used for meta-analytic regression and relative weight analyses. As Table 4 shows, after controlling for other forms of mistreatment, experienced incivility still had significant effects on negative affect (β = .20, ΔR^2 = .03, p < .01, relative weight = 31.8% after controlling for aggressive behavior; β = .30, ΔR^2 = .05, p < .01, relative weight = 56.5% after controlling for ostracism), injustice perceptions (β = .40, ΔR^2 = .12, p < .01, relative weight = 56.0% after controlling for aggressive behavior; β = .57, ΔR^2 = .30, p < .01, relative weight = 98.4% after controlling for undermining), job satisfaction (β = -.28, ΔR^2 = .06, p < .01, relative weight = 44.1% after controlling for aggressive behavior and abusive supervision; β = -.25, ΔR^2 = .04, p < .01, relative weight = 41.6% after controlling for abusive

supervision and sexual harassment), affective commitment (β = -.31, ΔR^2 = .07, p < .01, relative weight = 67.7% after controlling for aggressive behavior and abusive supervision), turnover intention (β = .16, ΔR^2 = .02, p < .01, relative weight = 38.8% after controlling for aggressive behavior and abusive supervision), CWBs (β = .06, ΔR^2 = .01, p < .05, relative weight = 10.3% after controlling for aggressive behavior and abusive supervision), and task performance (β = -.16, ΔR^2 = .02, p < .01, relative weight = 44.4% after controlling for sexual harassment). However, incivility neither predicted CWBs after controlling for abusive supervision and harassment (β = .02, ΔR^2 = .00, p > .10, relative weight = 12.5%), nor did it predict well-being after controlling for sexual harassment, undermining, ostracism, and abusive supervision (β = -.04, ΔR^2 = .00, p > .10, relative weight = 18.1%). Taken together, in 10 out of 12 cases, incivility had independent effects on outcomes (explaining 1% to 30% additional variances) beyond other forms of mistreatment. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 received support.

Insert Table 4 about here

We continued to examine the potential existence of an overall "workplace mistreatment" construct by running a confirmatory factor analysis based on meta-analytic correlations among incivility, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, undermining, and ostracism (correlations concerning aggressive behavior were not available). A latent mistreatment construct displayed significant loadings onto all mistreatment variables: .82 for incivility, .63 for abusive supervision, .51 for sexual harassment, .50 for undermining, and .73 for ostracism. An alternative model without this latent mistreatment construct fitted the data worse ($\Delta\chi^2$[5] = 2479.31, p < .01). These results were supportive of an overall mistreatment construct and incivility as one of

its distinctive dimensions. Despite a higher-order mistreatment concept, examining incivility as an independent research topic is worthwhile, given its unique characteristics as well as the empirical support for its incremental validity vis-à-vis other mistreatment constructs.

Antecedents of Experienced Incivility

Table 5 summarizes meta-analytic results for the antecedents of experienced incivility. Supporting Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2d, and 2e, experienced incivility related negatively to gender (0 = women, 1 = men, $\hat{\rho}$ = -.05, 95% CI = [-.07, -.04], 80% CV included zero), race (0 = racial minorities, 1 = racial majorities, $\hat{\rho}$ = -.04, 95% CI = [-.07, -.01], 80% CV excluded zero), rank ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.04, 95% CI = [-.08, -.003], 80% CV included zero), and tenure ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.10, 95% CI = [-.13, -.07], 80% CV excluded zero). The results showed that women, racial minority, lower-ranked and lower-tenured employees were more likely to experience incivility. The relationships of experienced incivility with gender and rank, however, may vary across different populations. Hypothesis 2c was not supported, because education was not significantly related to experienced incivility ($\hat{\rho}$ = .01, 95% CI = [-.07, .09]).

Insert Table 5 about here

Hypotheses 3a through 3f considered personality traits as antecedents. Hypotheses 3d, 3e, and 3f were supported: experienced incivility positively related to neuroticism ($\hat{\rho}$ = .17, 95% CI = [.10, .23]) and negative affectivity ($\hat{\rho}$ = .25, 95% CI = [.16, .33]) and negatively related to self-esteem ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.26, 95% CI = [-.32, -.21]). All 80% CVs excluded zero. Consistent with Hypotheses 3a and 3b, employee agreeableness ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.11, 95% CI = [-.21, -.01]) and

conscientiousness ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.19, 95% CI = [-.28, -.09]) were negatively related to experienced incivility. However, both 80% CVs included zero, suggesting that these relationships may vary across different populations. Hypothesis 3c was not supported, because extraversion was not significantly related to experienced incivility ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.04, 95% CI = [-.10, .01]).

Hypotheses 4a and 4b concerned contextual predictors of experienced incivility. Both hypotheses were supported: $\hat{\rho}$ = .38, 95% CI = [.28, .48], for perceived uncivil climate; $\hat{\rho}$ = -.24, 95% CI = [-.34, -.14], for perceived socially supportive climate; both 80% CVs excluded zero.

Comparing Associations Between Different Antecedents and Experienced Incivility

We compared antecedents from different categories (i.e., demographic characteristics, personality traits, contextual factors) in pairs, and altogether conducted 52 comparisons. When the meta-analytic correlation between two antecedents was available, we used meta-analytic regression and relative weight analyses to compare their effects on incivility so that irrelevant covariance between the two antecedents was suppressed (Darlington, 1968); otherwise, we used a modified Z-test accounting for sample dependence (Meng, Rosenthal, & Rubin, 1992) to compare their meta-analytic correlations with incivility. In total, we conducted 34 meta-analytic regressions and 18 modified Z-tests, and the results of all comparisons are summarized in Appendix E. In 19 out of 22 comparisons between a contextual variable and a demographic or personality variable, contextual factors displayed a stronger association with experienced incivility. In 24 out of 30 comparisons between a demographic variable and a personality variable, personality traits displayed a stronger association with experienced incivility. Therefore, contextual factors (psychological climate) were the most prominent predictors of

experienced incivility, followed by personality traits and demographic characteristics.

Outlier Analyses

We examined whether outliers affected our meta-analytic results. Following Beal, Corey, and Dunlap's (2002) improvements on Huffcutt and Arthur's (1995) procedures, we standardized correlations in the primary studies involving experienced incivility with Fisher's Z transformation and calculated their SAMD statistics. We adopted 3 as the cut-off value for outlier detection (Leslie, Mayer, & Kravitz, 2014) and identified 47 correlations between incivility and another variable as outliers.[4] Two authors carefully examined the primary studies that included these correlations and found no measurement abnormalities. Therefore, we included the correlations in our main analyses. As a robustness check, we replicated our meta-analyses after excluding the outliers and found no substantial change in the results. We also tested publication status as a methodological moderator, comparing the meta-analytic correlations among published versus unpublished studies (Appendix F presents the results).

Supplementary Primary Study

When examining the existence of a higher-order mistreatment construct and the incremental predictive validity of experienced incivility, our meta-analytic approach was somewhat constrained, because an incivility-centered meta-analysis could not offer data for all correlations among other mistreatment constructs or correlations between these mistreatment constructs and outcome variables. To address this limitation, we conducted a supplementary

[4] We detected 1 outlier for tenure, 4 for agreeableness, 1 for conscientiousness, 1 for neuroticism, 1 for negative affectivity, 6 for uncivil climate, 2 for negative affect, 4 for job satisfaction, 4 for affective commitment, 4 for turnover intention, 4 for OCBs, 9 for CWBs, 2 for task performance, and 4 for well-being.

primary study with participants recruited via Prolific Academic (Peer, Brandimarte, Samat, & Acquisiti, 2017). We used this dataset to examine the existence of a second-order mistreatment construct and the incremental predictive validity of incivility beyond a comprehensive set of other mistreatment variables. We present below the methodology and findings of this study.

Sample and Procedure

We recruited participants via Prolific Academic, an online crowdsourcing research platform that enhances the quality of responses through relatively high reimbursement (Peer et al., 2017). This sampling strategy also allowed us to have a pool of participants from diverse organizations and industries, thus increasing the generalizability of findings across different contexts. Participants responded to two surveys in total. At Time 1, we recruited 500 participants, who were full-time employees based in the United Kingdom and working traditional shifts. We asked them about their experienced mistreatment at work, including incivility, aggressive behavior, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, undermining, and ostracism. At Time 2, which was one week after Time 1, we sent a follow-up survey to the 500 participants and asked them about their negative affect, injustice perceptions, job satisfaction, affective commitment, turnover intention, OCBs, CWBs, task performance, and well-being. To increase the quality of responses, we set the reimbursement rate to be 2.5 pounds per survey, which was higher than the average of the Prolific Academic platform. In the end, we had 457 participants who completed both surveys. The average of the 457 participants was 38.6 years old; 56.7% of them were women. This study received approval from the ethics committee of Faculty of Business at Hong Kong Polytechnic University (project title: Workplace Interpersonal Experiences and Associated Outcomes; code: HSEARS20201012005).

Measures

We used 5-point Likert-type scales and asked the participants to respond according to their experiences over the past year. Experienced incivility was measured by Cortina et al.'s (2001) Workplace Incivility Scale. Aggressive behavior was measured by Glomb's (1998) Aggressive Experiences Scale. Abusive supervision was measured by Mitchell and Ambrose's (2007) shortened version of Tepper's (2000) scale. Sexual harassment was measured by the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire in Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, and Waldo (1999). Social undermining was measured by Duffy et al.'s (2002) scale. Ostracism was measured by Ferris et al.'s (2008) scale. The full items can be found in the source articles cited.

Outcomes were assessed by established measures used in the literature. They include negative affect (shortened version of the PANAS scale in Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008), injustice perceptions (Choi, 2008), job satisfaction (Zablah, Carlson, Donavan, Maxham, & Brown, 2016), affective commitment (Klein, Cooper, Molloy, & Swanson, 2014), turnover intention (Paustian-Underdahl, Eaton, Mandeville, & Little, 2019), OCBs and CWBs (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009), task performance (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), and well-being (Lim & Cortina, 2005).

Summary of Analyses

We conducted two types of analyses. First, we tested the incremental predictive validity of experienced incivility. We examined whether incivility, above and beyond the complete set of other mistreatment variables (aggressive behavior, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, undermining, and ostracism), would still exert a significant effect on outcomes. Second, we tested the existence of a higher-order mistreatment construct that covers incivility and other

mistreatment constructs. Specifically, employing confirmatory factor analyses, we examined our hypothesized model in which an overall mistreatment constructs were loaded onto six lower-order dimensions (i.e., incivility, aggressive behavior, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, undermining, and ostracism) and the six dimensions were loaded onto their respective measurement items.

Results

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and bivariate correlations of the study variables are included in online supplementary materials. Table 6 presents the findings concerning incivility's incremental predictive validity. Above and beyond a comprehensive set of other mistreatment constructs (i.e., aggressive behavior, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, undermining, and ostracism), incivility had a significant effect on negative affect (B = .29, ΔR^2 = .02, p < .01, relative weight = 23.6%), injustice perceptions (B = .46, ΔR^2 = .01, p < .05, relative weight = 19.6%), job satisfaction (B = -.70, ΔR^2 = .02, p < .01, relative weight = 23.4%), turnover intention (B = .45, ΔR^2 = .01, p = .059, relative weight = 20.7%), CWBs (B = .16, ΔR^2 = .01, p < .05, relative weight = 24.6%), and well-being (B = -.43, ΔR^2 = .03, p < .01, relative weight = 26.7%), but not affective commitment (B = -.26, ΔR^2 = .003, p > .10, relative weight = 16%), OCBs (B = .03, ΔR^2 = .00, p > .10, relative weight = 9.4%), and task performance (B = .08, ΔR^2 = .001, p > .10, relative weight = 10.2%). As such, in 6 out 9 regressions, we found support for incivility's incremental predictive validity.

Insert Table 6 about here

We then tested the second-order construct of mistreatment. Results showed that the factor

loadings of the second-order construct onto all dimensions were significant (.93 for incivility, .99 for aggressive behavior, .86 for abusive supervision, .41 for sexual harassment, .94 for undermining, and .80 for ostracism, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .96, TLI = .95, SRMR = .04). An alternative model without the existence of the second-order concept fitted the data worse than our hypothesized model ($\Delta\chi^2(6) = 2331.31$, $p < .01$, RMSEA = .20, CFI = .70, TLK = .66, SRMR = .46). Furthermore, a set of models in which incivility was combined with another mistreatment construct also fitted the data worse than the hypothesized model. Taken together, our findings provided support for a higher-order mistreatment construct and incivility being one of its distinctive dimensions.

Discussion

Using data from 105 independent samples, our meta-analysis shows that workplace incivility is a reliable and valid construct. Importantly, we find that incivility is a manifestation of a higher-order mistreatment construct, and it has incremental predictive validity over other forms of mistreatment. In addition, we expand the nomological network of incivility by studying demographic, personality, and contextual factors as predictors. We find that contextual factors have a stronger association with incivility than demographic and personality factors. We elaborate on the theoretical and practical implications of our findings below.

Theoretical Implications

Our findings have two central implications for research on workplace incivility. First, our study provides much needed empirical support for the construct validity of incivility. We demonstrated its reliability as well as convergent and discriminant validity, and used rigorous analytic approaches of meta-analytic regression and relative weight analysis to show that

experienced incivility continued to have significant relationships with most of its outcomes after controlling for other forms of mistreatment. Different from Hershcovis (2011), our study suggests that incivility, although a subtle form of mistreatment, should not be ignored or overlooked as a trivial form of mistreatment. The independent effects of incivility beyond other mistreatment may stem from its unique characteristics (e.g., low intensity, ambiguous intention to harm) that make the victims helpless in protecting themselves. Even with policies, leadership, or norms against severe and explicit mistreatment in place, incivility as a minor yet frequent form of mistreatment may be left unchallenged (Sojo, Wood, & Genat, 2016). Taken together, our findings underpin the study of incivility as a valuable independent stream of research, and demonstrate that incivility is sufficiently distinct from other mistreatment constructs.

Second, we are the first to systematically and comprehensively examine the antecedents of experienced incivility using meta-analytic techniques. Our study thus moves beyond previous studies that only focused on a limited set of demographic characteristics or personality traits (e.g., McCord et al., 2018; Milam et al., 2009). Most importantly, the existing literature has largely relied on the victim precipitation model (Henle & Gross, 2014; Milam et al., 2009; Samnani & Singh, 2012) to identify antecedents of experienced incivility. This has resulted in a narrow focus on personality traits that appear to be responsible for provoking uncivil behaviors from others, and has inadvertently shifted the blame of the mistreatment to the victim. Not surprisingly, many potential antecedents of experienced incivility such as organizational status or climate indicators were neglected in past research, likely because they cannot be easily explained by victim precipitation. Our research draws on the perpetrator predation framework, which in contrast, suggests that perceived vulnerability of potential victims drives perpetrators' selection

of incivility targets. We expand on this framework to highlight novel antecedents in which employees may not behave in provoking ways but still become incivility targets due to their vulnerability in the eyes of perpetrators. Consistent with such arguments, our study showed that employees who suffered from incivility tended to have lower status in organizations (i.e., women, racial minorities, the lower-ranked, or the shorter-tenured), appeared to have less desirable personality traits (i.e., low agreeableness, low conscientiousness, high neuroticism, high negative affectivity, or low self-esteem), and perceived uncivil or less socially supportive climate. Overall, our findings highlight the usefulness of the perpetrator predation framework in explaining why and how workplace incivility occurs.

Importantly, our study revealed that contextual factors were the most predictive of experienced incivility, as compared to demographic characteristics and personality traits. This is consistent with research on other forms of mistreatment which suggests that contextual factors such as organizational cultures, human resource systems, and leadership are crucial determinants of harassment and abusive supervision (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Mackey, Frieder, Brees, & Martinko, 2017). Our meta-analysis offers additional evidence to show that employees working in organizations with an uncivil or unsupportive climate are likely to experience incivility, even after controlling for the effects of demographic and personality factors. This is noteworthy because past research on incivility antecedents has focused mostly on individual characteristics. In contrast, our findings show that incivility can result from a "toxic" climate and should not simply be conceptualized as an individual "one-to-one" problem.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

We acknowledge that our study has several limitations pointing to promising areas for

future research. First, the meta-analytical approach based on correlations prohibits firm causal conclusions (Riketta, 2008). Our hypotheses on antecedents are grounded in the perpetrator predation framework; however, reverse causality and reciprocal relationships are possible. For instance, we argued that perceived uncivil climate predicts experienced incivility, but experienced incivility may contribute to the perceptions of uncivil climate. We encourage future incivility research to employ experimental studies or time-lagged surveys with baseline controls to gain more confidence in causal interpretations.

Second, the meta-analytical approach makes it difficult to examine interactive effects or cross-level effects. Although we examined demographic characteristics, personality traits, and contextual factors simultaneously, we could not test whether individual characteristics and contextual factors interact to predict experienced incivility. Studies have shown that workplace phenomenon (such as empowering leadership, Sharma and Kirkman, 2015) can be a result of the interaction of person and environment factors. Future research can immensely benefit from this lens by examining how person and context interact to affect predators' decisions to engage in uncivil behaviors. Furthermore, in our meta-analysis, there were very limited primary studies that included team-level climate variables. Accordingly, our extension of the existing perpetrator predation framework to include contextual factors mainly concerns psychological climate. Given that the strict definition of climate requires shared beliefs measured at the team-level, we encourage future research to examine how social contexts conceptualized and measured as such affect employees' experienced incivility.

Third, although we build on the perpetrator predation framework to identify and organize incivility antecedents, we cannot empirically test whether perceived vulnerability mediates the

relationships between the antecedents and experienced incivility, because the existing studies did not measure perceived vulnerability (e.g., perceived unlikability or perceived inability in self-defense). We also cannot contrast the perpetrator predation framework and the victim precipitation model, as victims' provocation (or similar constructs) was not measured in the existing studies. We recommend that future research empirically test the tenets of this framework as well as the victim precipitation model, so as to contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of how and why incivility occurs.

Lastly, the restrictions of existing empirical studies limit our scope of investigation in several ways. Although the literature has widely documented the detrimental consequences of experienced incivility, our knowledge about the mediating mechanisms underlying the impact of incivility is limited, largely due to the lack of existing empirical data on potential mediators. We thus recommend future research to investigate affective (e.g., discrete emotions such as anxiety and anger), cognitive (e.g., depletion, rumination, attribution), and motivational (e.g., prosocial motivation, retaliation intention) mechanisms. Besides, we excluded within-individual-level studies and studies on instigated or observed incivility from our meta-analysis because they are rare (for exceptions, see Lim et al., 2018; Reich & Hershcovis, 2015). We could not contrast the antecedents of experienced incivility and the antecedents of other forms of mistreatment, because empirical studies generally do not include antecedent variables, incivility, and other mistreatment constructs simultaneously. In future research, we hope to see more studies on these nascent areas to enrich our understanding of workplace incivility.

Practical Implications

Our results suggest a number of practical implications for organizations to minimize

incivility. First, the incremental predictive validity of incivility against other forms of workplace mistreatment suggests that workplace incivility is unique. Some organizations may have established procedures or programs to prevent explicit forms of mistreatment such as aggressive behavior and sexual harassment, but they may need different interventions to counter incivility because it is less intense and less visible. We caution against collapsing all workplace mistreatment into a unitary problem. Instead, we advocate devoting special attention to eradicating workplace incivility, which may be initially subtle but can eventually escalate to more intense forms of mistreatment if left unchecked.

Second, organizations should be aware that the employees most vulnerable to workplace incivility are likely to be women, racial minority, lower-ranked and shorter-tenured employees, employees low in agreeableness, conscientiousness, and self-esteem, and employees high in neuroticism and negative affectivity. They could be equipped with active self-protection strategies such as initiating positive interactions and seeking help from coworkers to cope with, minimize, and deter future incivility experiences. However, organizations should carefully avoid signaling explicit or implicit bias and discrimination that might exacerbate incivility.

Third, given that contextual factors are the most prominent antecedents of experienced incivility, we strongly recommend the use of interventions aimed at fostering an interpersonally friendly climate. For example, organizations can establish policies to discourage or penalize uncivil employees. Organizations can also establish norms for respectful and caring interpersonal interactions (Ragins & Dutton, 2007), develop common goals and visions among employees (Gully, Incalcaterra, Joshi, & Beaubien, 2002), and make social support readily accessible.

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*Primary studies included in the meta-analysis are marked with an asterisk.

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Table 1

Perpetrator Predation Framework versus Victim Precipitation Framework

	Perpetrator Predation Framework	Victim Precipitation Framework
Similarities between the two frameworks in explaining workplace incivility		
Common Aim	Both frameworks aim to explain how and why victimization occurs.	
Similar Incivility Antecedents Identified by Both Frameworks	Despite differences in their theoretical rationale, both frameworks make the same predictions with regard to some antecedents of incivility, in particular, personality traits such as neuroticism, negative affectivity, agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness. For example, through the lens of perpetrator predation, neurotic employees may receive more incivility because perpetrators are likely to see them as less likable and supported by others and hence choose them as easy targets to escape culpability or social sanctions. Through the lens of victim precipitation, neurotic employees may receive more incivility because they are likely to trigger such behaviors by behaving in unfriendly and provoking manners.	
Differences between the two frameworks in explaining workplace incivility		
Essential Theoretical Tenets	It is a perpetrator-centric theory focusing on how perpetrators initiate uncivil behaviors. It describes how perpetrators select certain groups of people as easy targets to minimize the possibility of being retaliated or blamed.	It is a victim-centric theory focusing on how victims trigger uncivil treatment against them. It describes how victims behave in provoking ways and attract mistreatment.
Unique Incivility Antecedents Identified by Perpetrator Predation Framework	It offers more compelling arguments for demographic and contextual factors as antecedents of experienced incivility because it does not assume that the victim committed some wrongdoing to attract the mistreatment. For example, perpetrators may see women and short-tenured employees as less able to defend themselves and choose them as easy targets. It is less compelling to argue that women and short-tenured employees are provoking and invite uncivil treatment.	It does not generally identify demographic or contextual factors as antecedents of experience incivility. It suggests that victims do something wrong to trigger incivility, and perpetrators conduct uncivil behaviors in a purely reactive manner. Therefore, it cannot explain why incivility happens more to certain demographic groups or in certain social contexts.

Table 2
Cronbach's Alpha Reliabilities of Experienced Incivility

Measures	**Reliabilities of Different Incivility Measures**				
	Number of Alphas	*Average of Alphas*	*Maximum Alpha*	*Minimum Alpha*	*Sample Size Weighted Average of Alphas*
Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout (2001)	73	.89	.98	.72	.85
Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley (2013)	9	.82	.90	.73	.81
Martin & Hine (2005)	7	.89	.93	.84	.88
Burnfield, Clark, Devendorf, & Jex (2004)	5	.92	.95	.90	.93
Spector & Jex (1998)	5	.87	.92	.79	.87
Crocker (2005)	4	.91	.95	.85	.91
Cortina & Magley (2001)	3	.85	.94	.78	.85
Leiter & Day (2013)	3	.92	.95	.90	.92
Penny & Spector (2005)	2	.94	.94	.93	.94

Note. Test-retest reliabilities of experienced incivility were moderately high. The average of 13 test-retest reliabilities were .60, with values ranging from .46 to .70. This is reasonable because experienced incivility is not a stable trait and may fluctuate over time.

Table 3
Convergent versus Discriminant Validity

Variable A	*Variable B*	*k*	*N*	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	*SE*	*95% CI*	*80% CV*	*Q*	*Var%*
Correlation between Experienced Incivility Measures										
Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout's (2001) measure	Other incivility measures[a]	3[b]	880	.66	.73	0	[.71, .74]	[.73, .73]	.61	100%
Correlation between Experienced Incivility and Other Mistreatment Outcomes										
Experienced Incivility	Aggressive Behavior	3	578	.45	.50	.16	[.31, .69]	[.29, .71]	21.60**	13.89%
Experienced Incivility	Abusive Supervision	3	534	.46	.52	.29	[.18, .85]	[.14, .89]	58.89**	5.12%
Experienced Incivility	Sexual Harassment	3	2,451	.40	.49	.06	[.41, .56]	[.41, .56]	6.84*	43.83%
Experienced Incivility	Undermining	3	2,187	.22	.24	.13	[.09, .40]	[.07, .41]	4.20**	7.46%
Experienced Incivility	Ostracism	5	1,372	.56	.63	.07	[.56, .70]	[.54, .72]	12.77*	39.15%
Correlation between Experienced Incivility and Job Characteristics										
Experienced Incivility	Job Demand	10	3,370	.15	.17	.14	[.08, .26]	[-.004, .35]	61.30**	16.31%
Experienced Incivility	Job Control	6	3,118	-.07	-.08	.25	[-.28, .12]	[-.40, .24]	195.85**	3.06%

Note. [a] Other incivility measures include: Burnfield, Clark, Devendorf, & Jex (2004), Martin & Hine (2005), and Wilson & Holmvall (2013)
[b] The first study rated experienced coworker incivility with Cortina et al.'s (2001) and Burnfield et al.'s (2004) measures, the second study rated experienced customer incivility with Cortina et al.'s (2001) and Wilson & Homvall's (2013) measures, and the third study rated experienced coworker/supervisor incivility with Cortina et al.'s (2001) and Martin & Hine's (2005) measures.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4

Meta-Analytic Regressions and Relative Weight Analyses: Incremental Predictive Validity of Experienced Incivility

	Negative affect				**Negative affect**				**Injustice perceptions**				**Injustice perceptions**			
	β	*SE*	RW	%RW	*β*	*SE*	RW	%RW	*β*	*SE*	RW	%RW	*β*	*SE*	RW	%RW
Incivility	.20**	.04	.11	31.8%	.30**	.08	.12	56.5%	.40**	.04	0.21	56.0%	.57**	.02	.31	98.4%
Aggressive behavior	.45**	.04	.23	68.2%					.31**	.04	0.17	44.0%				
Undermining													-.05	.02	.01	1.6%
Ostracism					.21**	.08	.09	43.5%								
Total R^2		.34**				.21**				.38**				.31**		
$\Delta R^2_{incivility}$		.03**				.05**				.12**				.30**		
Sample size		734				225				448				2,484		
	Job satisfaction				**Job satisfaction**				**Affective commitment**				**Turnover intention**			
	β	*SE*	RW	%RW	*β*	*SE*	RW	%RW	*β*	*SE*	RW	%RW	*β*	*SE*	RW	%RW
Incivility	-.28**	.03	.11	44.1%	-.25**	.04	.10	41.6%	-.31**	.04	.08	67.7%	.16**	.04	.04	38.8%
Aggressive behavior	-.06	.05	.05	22.2%					-.21**	.05	.03	24.1%	.11*	.05	.03	30.9%
Abusive supervision	-.23**	.05	.08	33.8%	-.28**	.04	.11	46.6%	.18**	.05	.01	8.3%	.10*	.05	.03	30.3%
Sexual harassment					-.07	.04	.03	11.8%								
Total R^2		.24**				.24**				.12**				.10**		
$\Delta R^2_{incivility}$		.06**				.04**				.07**				.02**		
Sample size		937				706				907				931		
	CWB				**CWB**				**Task performance**				**Well-being**			
	β	*SE*	RW	%RW	*β*	*SE*	RW	%RW	*β*	*SE*	RW	%RW	*β*	*SE*	RW	%RW
Incivility	.06*	.03	.08	10.3%	.02	.03	.08	12.5%	-.16**	.03	.04	44.4%	-.04	.07	.06	18.1%
Aggressive behavior	-.60**	.04	.12	15.6%												
Abusive supervision	1.23**	.04	.58	74.1%	.81**	.03	.56	86.5%					-.14*	.06	.05	14.4%
Sexual harassment					-.09**	.03	.01	1.0%	-.20**	.03	.05	55.6%	.05	.06	.01	1.4%
Undermining													-.01	.06	.02	6.6%
Ostracism													-.47**	.06	.19	59.5%
Total R^2		.79**				.65**				.09**				.31**		
$\Delta R^2_{incivility}$		.01*				.00				.02**				.00		
Sample size		422				641				1,741				351		

Note. *β* = standardized regression coefficient (unstandardized coefficients are not applicable here because meta-analytic regressions are based on correlations, instead of raw data that have standard deviation information for each variable); *SE* = standard error of *β*; RW = raw relative weight; %RW = percentage of total explained variance explained by the predictor; R^2 = total explained variance; $\Delta R^2_{incivility}$ = additional variance explained by experienced incivility. Harmonic-mean sample sizes are used. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 5
Meta-Analytic Results: Antecedents of Experienced Incivility

Variable	*k*	*N*	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	*SE*	*95% CI*	*80% CV*	*Q*	*Var%*	ΔK	*adj-r*
Demographic Characteristics											
Gender (0 = women, 1 = men)	47	28,911	-.05	-.05	.05	[-.07, -.04]	[-.12, .01]	124.38**	37.79%	0	-.05
Race (0 = racial minorities, 1 = racial majorities)	6	17,315	-.04	-.04	.03	[-.07, -.01]	[-.08, -.003]	22.06**	27.19%	0	-.04
Education	4	593	.01	.01	0	[-.07, .09]	[.01, .01]	.19	100%	0	.02
Rank	7	2,380	-.04	-.04	.04	[-.08, -.003]	[-.10, .01]	11.64	6.15%	0	-.04
Tenure	33	24,283	-.10	-.10	.08	[-.13, -.07]	[-.21, -.003]	188.21**	17.53%	0	-.10
Personality Traits											
Agreeableness	14	5,213	-.10	-.11	.18	[-.21, -.01]	[-.35, .12]	184.17**	7.60%	2	-.16
Conscientiousness	13	3,672	-.16	-.19	.16	[-.28, -.09]	[-.39, .02]	104.57**	12.43%	2	-.20
Extraversion	5	1,363	-.04	-.04	.01	[-.10, .01]	[-.06, -.03]	5.18	96.59%	1	-.04
Neuroticism	13	4,912	.15	.17	.11	[.10, .23]	[.03, .31]	69.55**	18.69%	1	.14
Negative Affectivity	14	3,067	.21	.25	.15	[.16, .33]	[.05, .44]	89.44**	15.65%	0	.21
Self-Esteem	4	989	-.24	-.26	0	[-.32, -.21]	[-.26, -.26]	3.41	100%	1	-.26
Contextual Factors: Individual-level Psychological Climate											
Perceived Uncivil Climate	15	5,729	.33	.38	.19	[.28, .48]	[.14, .62]	189.89**	7.90%	3	.29
Perceived Supportive Climate	8	1,320	-.21	-.24	.12	[-.34, -.14]	[-.40, -.08]	29.33**	27.28%	0	-.21

Note. *k* = number of studies; *N* = total number of participants; $\bar{r}$ = sample size weighted mean correlation; $\hat{\rho}$ = estimated population correlation (sample size weighted mean correlation corrected for unreliability in both measures); *SE* =standard error of $\hat{\rho}$; CI = confidence interval; CV = credibility interval; Q = Chi-square test of homogeneity; Var% = proportion of observed variance in the observed correlation due to statistical artifacts; ΔK = number of filled studies in trim-and-fill analysis; *adj-r* = adjusted correlation after adding filled studies.
** $p < .01$.

Table 6

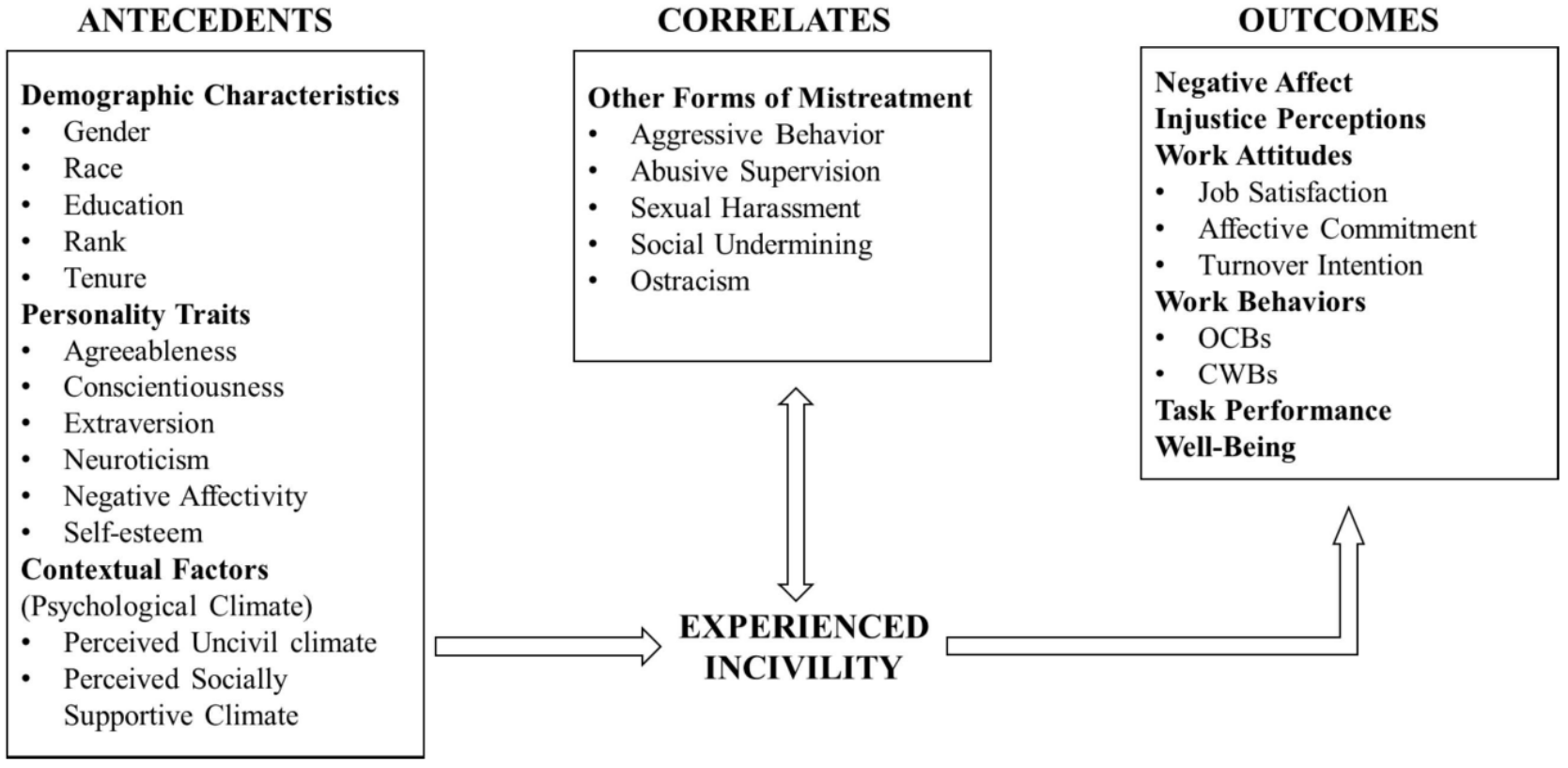
Incremental Predictive Validity of Experienced Incivility in Supplementary Study

	Negative affect				Injustice perceptions				Job satisfaction			
	B	*SE*	RW	%RW	*B*	*SE*	RW	%RW	*B*	*SE*	RW	%RW
Incivility	.29**	.09	.08	23.6%	.46*	.22	.05	19.6%	-.70**	.22	.04	23.4%
Aggressive behavior	.14	.18	.07	19.6%	-.52	.42	.04	15.3%	.89*	.44	.03	13.3%
Abusive supervision	.08	.09	.05	14.5%	-.31	.22	.02	8.8%	.29	.23	.02	7.8%
Sexual harassment	.10	.10	.02	6%	.00	.23	.01	2.8%	.19	.24	.00	1.8%
Undermining	.21*	.11	.07	20.6%	1.16**	.26	.08	31.4%	-.91**	.27	.05	27.6%
Ostracism	.11	.09	.06	15.6%	.43*	.21	.05	22.2%	-.58**	.21	.05	26.1%
Total R^2		.36**				.24**				.19**		
$\Delta R^2_{incivility}$		.02**				.01*				.02**		
	Affective commitment				**Turnover intention**				**OCB**			
	B	*SE*	RW	%RW	*B*	*SE*	RW	%RW	*B*	*SE*	RW	%RW
Incivility	-.26	.20	.02	16%	.45+	.24	.04	20.7%	.03	.11	.002	9.4%
Aggressive behavior	.95*	.40	.02	12.6%	.02	.47	.03	15.6%	.30	.22	.003	15%
Abusive supervision	.07	.21	.01	9%	-.24	.25	.01	7.6%	.02	.12	.002	9%
Sexual harassment	-.25	.22	.01	5%	.27	.26	.01	8.2%	-.03	.12	.000	0.7%
Undermining	-1.05**	.24	.05	34.7%	.31	.28	.03	18.6%	-.37**	.13	.012	52.3%
Ostracism	-0.34	.19	.03	22.7%	.73**	.23	.05	29.3%	-.01	.11	.003	13.5%
Total R^2		.15**				.18**				.02		
$\Delta R^2_{incivility}$		.003				.01*				.00		
	CWB				**Task-performance**				**Well-being**			
	B	*SE*	RW	%RW	*B*	*SE*	RW	%RW	*B*	*SE*	RW	%RW
Incivility	.16*	.08	.04	24.6%	.08	.10	.002	10.2%	-.43**	.11	.06	26.7%
Aggressive behavior	.30	.16	.04	22.2%	.36	.20	.004	16.9%	.30	.22	.04	14.9%
Abusive supervision	.04	.08	.02	12.4%	-.05	.11	.002	10.2%	-.02	.12	.03	11.6%
Sexual harassment	.19*	.09	.03	18.7%	-.08	.11	.000	1.7%	.10	.12	.01	2.3%
Undermining	-.13	.09	.02	11.1%	-.33**	.12	.010	42.8%	-.27*	.13	.05	21.4%
Ostracism	.04	.08	.02	11.1%	-.07	.10	.004	18.2%	-.29**	.11	.05	23.1%
Total R^2		.16**				.03				.24**		
$\Delta R^2_{incivility}$		.01*				.001				.03**		

Note. *B* = unstandardized regression coefficient; *SE* = standard error of *B*; RW = raw relative weight; %RW = percentage of total explained variance explained by the predictor; Total R^2 = total explained variance; $\Delta R^2_{incivility}$ = additional variance explained by experienced incivility. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. + $p = .059$.

Figure 1

Nomological Network of Experienced Incivility



Appendix A
Samples for Meta-Analysis

Study	Sample Size	Variables Coded	Data Source	Raw Correlations[1] / Aggregated Correlations[2]
Ali et al. (2016; Sample 1)	66	GEN, EDU, TEN, CON	P	7 / 7
Ali et al. (2016; Sample 2)	106	GEN TEN, RAC, CON, NA	P	11/ 11
Arnold & Walsh (2015)	215	GEN, NA, WEB	P	4 / 4
Babenko-Mould & Laschinger (2014)	126	WEB	P	6 / 1
Bavik & Bavik (2015)	2,014	CWB, INJ	P	7 / 3
Beattie & Griffin (2014a)	130	NEU	P	1 / 1
Beattie & Griffin (2014b)	130	SSC, WEB,	P	2 / 2
Benson & Peters (2016)	719	AGG, JS, AC, TUR, WEB	U	19 / 9
Bibi et al. (2013)	160	CWB	P	5 / 1
Bishoff et al. (2016)	156	GEN, TEN, AGR, CON, NEU, EXT, JS, OCB, CWB	U	17 / 17
Buckman (2014)	102	GEN, TEN, EDU, SES, SSC, PEF	U	13 / 13
Bunk & Magley (2013)	288	NAT, JS	P	24 / 3
Cameron & Webster (2011)	432	UCL	P	1 / 1
Campana & Hammoud (2015)	75	WEB, INJ	P	5 / 3
Chen et al. (2013; Sample 1)	235	GEN, TEN, CON, PEF	P	6 / 6
Chen et al. (2013; Sample 2)	204	GEN, TEN, RAN, AGR, CON, NEU, SES, EXT, PEF, INJ	P	26 / 26
Cortina et al. (2013; Sample 1)	369	GEN, TEN, TUR	P	3 / 3
Cortina et al. (2013; Sample 2)	653	TEN, RAC, TUR	P	3 / 3
Cortina et al. (2013; Sample 3)	15,497	GEN, TEN, RAC, TUR	P	4 / 4
Cortina & Magley (2009)	272	TEN, WEB	P	6 / 2
Crocker (2005)	118	NAT, INJ, TUR, CWB, PEF	U	32 / 12
Domagalski & Steelman (2005)	270	NAT INJ	P	7 / 3
Ferguson (2011)	190	TEN, SSC, WEB	P	6 / 4
Foulk et al. (2016)	90	NAT, CWB	P	3 / 3
Gallus et al. (2014)	234	GEN	P	2 / 1
Ghosh et al. (2013)	420	TUR	P	2 / 1
Gkorezis et al. (2013)	163	TEN, GEN, AC	P	4 / 3
Harold & Holtz (2015; Sample 1)	158	GEN, CWB	P	2 / 2
Harold & Holtz (2015; Sample 2)	210	GEN, TEN, CWB	P	3 / 3
Kabat (2012; Sample 1)	419	NAT, AC, CWB	U	6 / 4

Appendix A *(continued)*

Study	Sample Size	Variables Coded	Data Source	Raw Correlations[1] / Aggregated Correlations[2]
Kabat (2012; Sample 2)	479	GEN, SES, NAT, AC, TUR	U	10 / 7
Kern & Grandey (2009; Sample 1)	47	GEN, WEB	P	3 / 2
Kern & Grandey (2009; Sample 2)	47	GEN, WEB	P	3 / 2
Khan (2013)	142	TEN, GEN, NAT, WEB, JS, TUR	U	11 / 9
Kim & Shapiro (2008)	197	GEN, NA, AGR, NAT, CWB	P	10 / 8
Kim et al. (2014)	210	SSC, WEB, JS	P	4 / 3
Krings et al. (2014)	1661	GEN, AGR, NEU, UND, INJ	P	10 / 10
Laschinger et al. (2009)	612	WEB, JS, AC, TUR	P	10 / 4
Laschinger et al. (2016)	596	WEB, CWB	U	12 / 2
LeBlanc (2011)	1169	WEB, JS	U	6 / 2
Leiter et al. (2012)	957	WEB, JS, AC, TUR	P	14 / 4
Lim & Cortina (2005; Sample 1)	833	WEB, JS, CWB, HAR	P	35 / 7
Lim & Cortina (2005; Sample 2)	1425	WEB, JS, CWB, HAR	P	11 / 7
Lim & Lee (2011)	180	SSC, WEB, JS, TUR, INJ	P	46 / 8
Lim & Tai (2014)	353	GEN, RAN, WEB, PEF	P	7 / 4
Lim & Teo (2009)	192	JS, AC, TUR, CWB	P	4 / 4
Lim et al. (2008)	271	UCL, WEB, JS, TUR	P	6 / 4
Marchiondo (2012; Sample 1)	419	JS	U	1 / 1
Marchiondo (2012; Sample 2)	479	JS	U	1 / 1
Martin & Hine (2005)	339	WEB, JS, AC, CWB, INJ	P	69 / 9
Matthews & Ritter (2016; Sample 1)	283	UCL, AC, CWB, OST, INJ	P	6 / 5
Matthews & Ritter (2016; Sample 2)	294	UCL, AC, CWB, OST, INJ	P	6 / 5
Matthews & Ritter (2016; Sample 3)	269	UCL, AC, CWB, OST, INJ	P	6 / 5
Matthews & Ritter (2016; Sample 4)	278	CWB	P	18 / 1
Meier & Spector (2013)	663	CWB	P	18 / 1
Milam et al. (2009)	179	TEN, GEN, AGR, NEU, EXT	P	20 / 11
Milam (2010; Sample 1)	209	TEN, GEN,	U	2 / 2
Milam (2010; Sample 2)	333	GEN, NEU, UND, OST	U	22 / 5
Miner-Rubino & Reed (2010)	90	TEN, NA, WEB, JS, TUR, INJ	P	7 / 7
Miner et al. (2014; Sample 1)	594	WEB, JS, AC, TUR, RAN	P	9 / 5
Miner et al. (2014; Sample 2)	640	WEB, JS, AC, TUR, RAN	P	9 / 5

Appendix A *(continued)*

Study	Sample Size	Variables Coded	Data Source	Raw Correlations[a] / Aggregated Correlations[b]
Miner et al. (2012)	90	TEN, GEN, SSC, WEB, JS	P	11 / 7
Mullen & Kelloway (2013)	107	WEB, CWB	P	2 / 2
Nicholson & Griffin (2015)	177	WEB	P	4 / 1
Oore et al. (2010)	478	WEB	P	4 / 1
Ottinot (2010)	2222	TEN, GEN, UCL, JS, AC, CWB	U	14 / 6
Park et al. (2015)	96	GEN, WEB	P	6 / 2
Patterson (2016)	400	UCL	U	3 / 1
Paulin & Griffin (2016)	637	UCL	P	1 / 1
Paulin & Griffin (2017)	357	UCL, INJ	P	4 / 2
Penney & Spector (2005)	299	NA, JS, CWB	P	8 / 3
Petrucci (2013)	341	TEN, GEN, AC, INJ	U	7 / 5
Porath & Erez (2007; Sample 1)	98	NAT, OCB	P	3 / 3
Porath & Erez (2007; Sample 2)	82	NAT, OCB, WEB	P	5 / 5
Porath & Erez (2007; Sample 3)	98	NAT	P	1 / 1
Porath & Pearson (2012)	137	GEN, RAN, NAT, CWB	P	21 / 5
Porath et al. (2015)	181	GEN	P	1 / 1
Potipiroon (2014)	401	AGR, CON, NA, CWB	U	21 / 4
Powell et al. (2015)	241	TEN, GEN, UCL, AGG	P	6 / 6
Reio Jr (2011)	507	NEU, NAT, JS, AC	P	10 / 6
Sakurai (2011)	209	NA, SSC, NAT, CWB	U	6 / 6
Schilpzand et al. (2016)	247	WEB, CWB	P	6 / 2
Shim (2010)	476	AGR, CON	U	2 / 2
Sliter & Boyd (2015)	208	NA, WEB, CWB	P	4 / 3
Sliter et al. (2010)	120	TEN, GEN, WEB, PEF	P	4 / 4
Sliter et al. (2012a)	120	GEN, CWB, PEF	P	8 / 3
Sliter et al. (2012b; Sample 1)	341	GEN, RAC, NA	P	5 / 5
Sliter et al. (2012b; Sample 2)	528	GEN, RAC, NA, WEB, CWB	P	7 / 7
Stephens (2014)	129	TEN, JS, CWB, AGG	U	7 / 6
Sulea et al. (2012a)	193	GEN, AGR, CON, NEU, WEB, ABS, UND, HAR, OST	P	20 / 15
Sulea et al. (2012b)	223	GEN, CON, ABS	P	4 / 4
Taylor & Kluemper (2012)	404	GEN, AGR, CON, NEU, UCL, CWB	P	14 / 8
Taylor et al. (2012)	190	GEN, RAC, AGR, CON, NEU, AC, OCB	P	13 / 13
Taylor et al. (2017)	131	AGR, CON, NEU, WEB, TUR	P	5 / 5
Trudel (2009)	248	GEN, TEN, RAN, AC, TUR, OCB	U	6 / 6

Appendix A *(continued)*

Study	Sample Size	Variables Coded	Data Source	Raw Correlations[1] / Aggregated Correlations[2]
van Jaarsveld et al. (2010)	307	EDU, TEN, NA, WEB	P	4 / 4
Walker et al. (2014)	59	TEN, NA, UCL	P	6 / 6
Walsh (2011)	211	TEN, GEN, UCL, WEB, AC	U	14 / 7
Walsh et al. (2012; Sample 1)	195	UCL, JS, AC, TUR, INJ	P	12 / 8
Walsh et al. (2012; Sample 2)	184	UCL, JS, AC, TUR	P	4 / 4
Welbourne et al. (2015)	262	WEB, JS	P	2 / 2
Wilson & Holmvall (2013)	208	WEB, JS, TUR, AGG, INJ	P	21 / 12
Wu et al. (2014)	233	GEN, TEN, CWB	P	3 / 3
Xu et al. (2016)	118	GEN, TEN, EDU, UCL, ABS	U	8 / 8
Yang et al. (2014)	273	GEN, TEN, NAT, JS, TUR, WEB	P	13 / 9
Zhou (2014)	75	NAT, WEB	U	14 / 3
Zhou et al. (2014)	76	NAT	P	2 / 1

Note. [a] The numbers of raw correlations count any individual correlation that was used in our meta-analysis, meta-analytic regressions, or meta-analytic path analysis, before within-study aggregation was conducted.
[b] The numbers of aggregated correlations count correlations after within-study aggregation. For example, in the same study, "experienced incivility-satisfaction with the leader" correlation and "experienced incivility-satisfaction with coworkers" correlation are two different raw correlations but should be counted toward one single aggregated correlation (because both satisfaction variables correspond to the same variable – job satisfaction – as per our coding scheme).
AGG = aggressive behavior, ABS = abusive supervision, HAR = sexual harassment, UND = undermining, OST = ostracism, GEN = gender, RAC = race, EDU = education, RAN = rank, TEN = tenure, AGR = agreeableness, CON = conscientiousness, EXT = extraversion, NEU = neuroticism, NA = negative affectivity, SES = self-esteem, UCL = uncivil climate, SSC = socially supportive climate, NAT = negative affect, INJ = injustice perceptions, JS = job satisfaction, AC = affective commitment, TUR = turnover intention, PEF = performance, WEB = well-being. In the Data Source column, P = published; U = unpublished.

Appendix B
Representative Measures and Variable Labels

Measures	Variable Labels	Studies
	Experienced Incivility	
Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001)	Workplace incivility Supervisor incivility Coworker incivility	Chen et al. (2013) Cortina et al. (2013) Lim et al. (2008) Ghosh et al. (2013)
Cortina Incivility Scale (Cortina & Magley, 2001)	Incivility	Babenko-Mould & Laschinger (2014)
Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire (Martin & Hine, 2005)	Workplace incivility	Beattie & Griffin (2014a) Martin & Hine (2005)
Interpersonal Treatment at Work Scale (Burnfield et al., 2004)	Customer incivility Workplace incivility	Beattie & Griffin (2014a) Sliter et al., (2012) Milam et al. (2009)
Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (Spector & Jex, 1998; Sliter et al., 2012)	Coworker incivility Customer incivility	Sliter et al. (2012) Arnold & Walsh (2015)
Incivility from Customer Scale (Wilson & Holmval, 2013)	Customer incivility	Potipiroon (2014)
Reaction inventory (Evans & Stangeland, 1971)	Interpersonal incivility	Domagalski & Steelman (2005)
	Non-Interpersonal Job Characteristics	
Karasek (1979)	Job demands	Benson (2013)
Karasek (1979)	Job control	Park et al. (2015)
	Other Mistreatment - Aggressive Behavior	
Wilson & Holmvall (2013)	Psychological aggression	Wilson & Holmvall (2013)
Fox & Stallworth (2005)	Bullying	Powell et al. (2015)
	Other Mistreatment – Abusive Supervision	
Mitchell & Ambrose (2007)	Abusive supervision	Xu et al. (2016)
	Other Mistreatment – Sexual harassment	
Sexual Experience Questionnaire-Revised (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995)	Sexual harassment Unwanted sexual attention	Lim & Cortina (2005) Sulea et al. (2012)
	Other Mistreatment - Undermining	
Duffy et al. (2002)	Undermining	Sulea et al. (2012)
	Other Mistreatment - Ostracism	
Workplace Ostracism Scale (Ferris et al. 2008)	Ostracism	Matthews & Ritter (2016)
	Antecedents (personality) - Agreeableness	
NEO Five Factor Inventory Revised (McCrae & Costa, 2004)	Agreeableness	Krings et al. (2014)
International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, 1999)	Agreeableness	Milam et al. (2009)
	Antecedents (personality) - Conscientiousness	
Goldberg (1990)	Conscientiousness	Chen et al. (2013)
International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg et al., 2006)	Conscientiousness	Taylor et al. (2012)
Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI; Costa & McCrae, 1992)	Conscientiousness	Shim (2010)
	Antecedents (personality) - Extraversion	
International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, 1999)	Extraversion	Milam et al. (2009)
Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann (2003)	Extraversion	Bishoff et al. (2016)
Law, Wong, & Song (2004)	Extraversion	Chen et al. (2013)
	Antecedents (personality) - Neuroticism	
NEO Five Factor Inventory Revised (McCrae & Costa, 2004)	Neuroticism	Krings et al. (2014)
International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, 1999)	Neuroticism	Milam et al. (2009)
Gosling et al. (2003)	Emotional stability (reverse coded)	Reio Jr (2011)
	Antecedents (personality) - Negative Affectivity	
Positive and Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)	Negative affectivity	Arnold & Walsh (2015) Bunk & Magley (2013)
	Antecedents (personality) - Self-Esteem	
Rosenberg (1965)	Self-esteem	Chen et al. (2013)

Appendix B *(continued)*

Measures	Variable labels	Studies
Antecedent (context) - Uncivil Climate		
Porath, Shapiro, & Duffy (2004)	Organizational climate for incivility	Gallus et al. (2014)
Walsh et al. (2012)	Civility norm (reverse-coded)	Matthews & Ritter (2016)
Cortina et al. (2001); Taylor & Kluemper (2012)	Uncivil organizational climate	Taylor & Kluemper (2012)
Antecedent (context) - Socially Supportive Climate		
Perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986)	Perceived organizational support	Miner et al. (2012)
McAllister (1995)	Coworker instrumental support	Buckman (2014)
Outcome - Negative Affect		
Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988)	Negative affect	Foulk et al. (2016)
Lazarus (1991, 2001); Ellsworth & Smith (1988); Shaver et al. (1987)	Anger, Guilt, Fear, Anxiety	Bunk & Magley (2013)
Outcome – Injustice Perceptions		
Organizational justice (Colquitt, 2001)	Interpersonal Justice (reverse-coded)	Campana & Hammou (2015)
Outcome - Job Satisfaction		
Abridged Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al., 1969; Stanton et al., 2002)	Job satisfaction	Bunk & Magley (2013) Benson & Peters (2016)
Hackman & Oldham (1975)	Job satisfaction	Laschinger et al. (2009)
Job Descriptive Index (Roznowski, 1989)	Job satisfaction	Lim & Lee (2011)
Outcome - Affective Commitment		
Affective Commitment Scale (Meyer et al., 1993)	Organizational commitment	Laschinger et al. (2009)
Meyer & Allen (1997)	Organizational affective commitment	Ottinot (2010)
Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday et al., 1979)	Affective organizational commitment	Petrucci (2013)
Outcome - Turnover Intention		
Mowday, et al. (1984)	Turnover intent	Bishoff, Hochwarter, & Ferris (2016)
Porter, Crampon, & Smith (1976)	Turnover intention	Kabat (2012)
Outcome - Organizational Citizenship Behaviors		
Niehoff & Moorman (1993)	Organizational citizenship behavior	Bishoff et al. (2016)
Lee & Allen (2002)	Citizenship performance	Taylor et al. (2012)
Motowidlo & Van Scotter (1994)	Contextual performance	Trudel (2009)
Outcome - Counterproductive Work Behaviors		
Bennett & Robinson (2000)	Organizational deviance	Bunk & Magley (2013)
Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C; Spector et al., 2006)	Counterproductive work behavior	Bibi & Karim (2013)
Thau et al. (2009)	Workplace deviant behaviors	Lim & Teo (2009)
Outcome - Task Performance		
Williams & Anderson (1991)	Task performance	Chen et al. (2013)
Motowidlo & Van Scotter (1994)	Task performance	Trudel (2009)
Organization-developed standardized form	Job performance	Lim & Tai (2014)
Outcome - Well-Being		
General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg, 1972)	Psychological well-being	Arnold & Walsh (2015)
Mental Health Inventory (Ware & Sherbourne, 1992)	Mental health symptoms (reverse coded)	Oore (2010)
General Health Index (Oore, 2010)	Physical health symptoms (reverse coded)	Oore (2010)

Appendix C

Meta-Analytic Results: Outcomes of Experienced Incivility

Variable	*k*	*N*	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	*SE*	*95% CI*	*80% CV*	*Q*	*Var%*	*ΔK*	*adj-r*
Negative Affect	19	3,964	.38	.43	.11	[.38, .48]	[.29, .57]	61.46**	3.91%	0	.38
Injustice Perceptions	16	6,745	.50	.56	.09	[.51, .60]	[.45, .67]	54.68**	29.26%	0	.50
Job Satisfaction	32	15,729	-.37	-.43	.07	[-.45, -.40]	[-.52, -.33]	91.04**	35.15%	0	-.37
Affective Commitment	23	111,71	-.28	-.32	.08	[-.36, -.29]	[-.43, -.22]	66.85**	34.40%	0	-.28
Turnover Intention	23	23,843	.23	.27	.07	[.24, .30]	[.18, .36]	114.19**	2.14%	0	.23
OCBs	6	1,394	-.16	-.19	.19	[-.35, -.03]	[-.43, .05]	56.68**	1.59%	0	-.16
CWBs	37	15,466	.34	.40	.19	[.34, .46]	[.16, .64]	444.13**	8.33%	0	.34
Task Performance	9	1,691	-.23	-.25	.13	[-.35, -.16]	[-.42, -.09]	36.60**	24.59%	2	-.22
Well-Being	44	15,180	-.33	-.38	.09	[-.41, -.36]	[-.49, -.27]	141.19**	31.16%	0	-.33

Note. *k* = number of studies; *N* = total number of participants; $\bar{r}$ = sample size weighted mean correlation; $\hat{\rho}$ = estimated population correlation (sample size weighted mean correlation corrected for unreliability in both measures); *SE* =standard error of $\hat{\rho}$; CI = confidence interval; CV = credibility interval; Q = Chi-square test of homogeneity; Var% = proportion of observed variance in the observed correlation due to statistical artifacts; *ΔK* = number of filled studies in trim-and-fill analysis; *adj-r* = adjusted r after adding filled studies.

OCBs = organizational citizenship behaviors; CWBs = counterproductive work behaviors

** $p < .01$.

Appendix D

Meta-Analytic Correlation Matrix to Test Construct Validity [ab]

			1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Experienced Incivility	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N						
2	Aggressive behavior	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	.45/ .50 3/ 578					
3	Abusive supervision	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	.46/ .52 3/ 534	.70/ .77 1/ 719				
4	Sexual harassment	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	.40/ .49 3/ 2,451	-	.17/ .20 1/ 193			
5	Social undermining	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	.22/ .24 3/ 2,187	-	.48/ .53 1/ 193	.36/ .43 1/ 193		
6	Ostracism	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	.56/ .63 5/ 1,372	-	.37/ .41 1/ 193	.22/ .27 1/ 193	.35/ .39 2/ 526	
7	Negative Affect	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	.38 / .43 19 / 3,964	.50 / .55 2/ 475	-	-	-	.35/ .40 1/ 81
8	Injustice Perceptions	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	.50/ .56 16/ 6,745	.46 / .51 1/ 208	-	-	.08/ .09 1/ 1,661	-
9	Job Satisfaction	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	-.37 / -.43 32 / 15,729	-.33 / -.37 5/ 1,531	-.37/ -.42 2/ 1,438	-.20/ -.25 3/ 3,639	-	-
10	Affective Commitment	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	-.28/ -.32 23/ 11,171	-.19/-.22 3/ 1,194	-.12/ -.13 2/ 1,438	-	-	-
11	Turnover Intention	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	.23/ .27 23/ 23,843	.24/.27 4/ 1,402	.24/ .27 2/ 1,438	-	-	-
12	CWBs	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	.34/ .40 37/ 15,466	.33/.38 1/ 129	.70/ .80 1/ 719	-	-	-
13	Task performance	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	-. 23/ -.25 9/ 1,691	-	-	-.23/ -.27 1/ 1,381	-	-
14	Well-Being	$\bar{r}$ / $\hat{\rho}$ k / N	-.33 / -.38 44 / 15,180	-.40 / -.45 4/ 1,402	-.30/ -.34 3/ 1,631	-.10/ -.13 3/ 2,451	-.22/ -.25 1/ 193	-.47/ -.54 1/ 193

Note. [a] Intercorrelations among the outcome variables were not calculated because our meta-analytic regressions and relative weight analyses did not require information about their intercorrelations. [b] Outcome variables were excluded from the matrix if their correlations with mistreatments are missing in our dataset. $\bar{r}$ = sample size weighted mean correlation; $\hat{\rho}$ = estimated population correlation (sample size weighted mean correlation corrected for unreliability in both measures); k = number of studies; N = total number of participants. A dash indicates that the correlation is not available.

Appendix E

Comparing Antecedents of Experienced Incivility

Comparing Antecedents Using Meta-Analytic Regressions						
IV 1	***β1***	**%RW**	**IV2**	***β2***	**%RW**	**Comparison Result**
Contextual factors VS. Demographic Characteristics						
Uncivil Climate	.38**	97.30%	Gender	-.07**	2.70%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Uncivil Climate	.38**	99.90%	Education	.004	.10%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Uncivil Climate	.38**	93%	Tenure	-.11**	7%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.24**	95.60%	Gender	-.05	4.40%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.24**	99.30%	Education	.03	.70%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.25**	97.10%	Rank	.04	2.90%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.23**	85.30%	Tenure	-.09**	14.70%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Contextual factors VS. Personality Traits						
Uncivil Climate	.37**	94.60%	Agreeableness	-.06	5.40%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Uncivil Climate	.36**	85.10%	Conscientiousness	-.11**	14.90%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Uncivil Climate	.36**	86.60%	Neuroticism	.12**	13.40%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Uncivil Climate	.35**	72.90%	Negative Affectivity	.20**	27.10%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.18**	47.70%	Negative Affectivity	-.20**	52.30%	IV1 is NOT a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.18**	43.20%	Self-Esteem	-.22**	56.80%	IV1 is NOT a stronger predictor
Personality Traits VS. Demographic Characteristics						
Agreeableness	-.08**	76.30%	Gender	-.13**	23.70%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Agreeableness	-.11*	89.80%	Race	-.03	10.20%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Agreeableness	-.11**	87.50%	Rank	-.04	12.50%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Agreeableness	-.13**	53.60%	Tenure	-.12**	46.40%	IV1 is NOT a stronger predictor
Conscientiousness	-.19**	92%	Gender	-.06**	8%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Conscientiousness	-.18**	95.50%	Race	-.04	4.50%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Conscientiousness	-.19**	93.20%	Rank	-.06	6.80%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Conscientiousness	-.18**	76.50%	Tenure	-.10**	23.50%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Extraversion	-.04*	37.80%	Gender	-.05*	62.20%	IV1 is NOT a stronger predictor
Extraversion	-.04	49.50%	Rank	-.04	50.50%	IV1 is NOT a stronger predictor
Extraversion	-.04	12.80%	Tenure	-.10**	87.20%	IV1 is NOT a stronger predictor
Neuroticism	.17**	90.90%	Gender	.05**	9.10%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Neuroticism	.17**	94.50%	Race	-.04	5.50%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Neuroticism	.17**	92,40%	Rank	-.05	7.60%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Neuroticism	.16**	73.50%	Tenure	-.09**	26.50%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Negative Affectivity	.25**	95.30%	Race	-.02	4.70%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Negative Affectivity	.25**	83.90%	Tenure	-.11**	16.10%	IV1 is a stronger predictor

Appendix E *(continued)*

Comparing Antecedents Using Meta-Analytic Regressions						
IV 1	***β1***	**%RW**	**IV2**	***β2***	**%RW**	**Comparison Result**
Personality Traits VS. Demographic Characteristics						
Self-Esteem	-.26**	96.30%	Gender	-.05*	3.70%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Self-Esteem	-.27**	99.80%	Education	.01	.20%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Self-Esteem	-.26**	98.70%	Rank	-.01	1.30%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Self-Esteem	-.26**	89.90%	Tenure	-.07*	10.10%	IV1 is a stronger predictor
Comparing Antecedents of Experienced Incivility Using Modified Z-Tests[a]						
IV 1	$\hat{\rho}_1$	**IV2**	$\hat{\rho}_2$	***Z***		**Comparison Result**
Contextual factors VS. Demographic Characteristics						
Uncivil Climate	.38**	Race	.04**	23.43**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Uncivil Climate	.38**	Rank	-.04**	14.61**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.24**	Race	-.04**	7**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Contextual factors VS. Personality Traits						
Uncivil Climate	.38**	Extraversion	-.04	11.83**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Uncivil Climate	.38**	Self-Esteem	-.26**	3.72**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.24**	Agreeableness	-.11**	4.16**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.24**	Conscientiousness	-.19**	1.71		IV1 is NOT a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.24**	Extraversion	-.04	5.17**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Supportive Climate	-.24**	Neuroticism	.17**	2.35*		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Personality Traits VS. Demographic Characteristics						
Agreeableness	-.11**	Education	.01	2.34*		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Conscientiousness	-.19**	Education	.01	3.95**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Extraversion	-.04	Race	-.04**	.01		IV1 is NOT a stronger predictor
Extraversion	-.04	Education	.01	.61		IV1 is NOT a stronger predictor
Neuroticism	.17**	Education	.01	3.6**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Negative Affectivity	.25**	Gender	-.05**	10.41**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Negative Affectivity	.25**	Education	.01	5.32**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Negative Affectivity	.25**	Rank	-.04**	7.64**		IV1 is a stronger predictor
Self-Esteem	-.26**	Race	-.04**	6.99**		IV1 is a stronger predictor

Note. [a] The absolute values of $\hat{\rho}$*s* were compared in z-tests.

When the meta-analytic correlation between two antecedents was available, we used meta-analytic regression and relative weight analysis to compare their effects on incivility; otherwise, we used a modified Z-test accounting for sample dependence to compare their meta-analytic correlations with incivility.

Appendix F

Publication Status as a Methodological Moderator

Variable	*Publication Status*	*k*	*N*	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	*SE*	*95% CI*	*80% CV*	*Q*	*Var%*
Demographic Characteristics										
Gender (0 = women, 1 = men)	Published	35	23,941	-.06	-.06	.05	[-.08, -.04]	[-.13, .00]	99.28**	35.25%
	Unpublished	12	4970	-.01	-.01	.02	[-.04, .02]	[-.05, .02]	15.90	75.48%
Race (0 = minorities, 1 = majorities)	Published	6	17,315	-.04	-.04	.03	[-.07, -.01]	[-.08, -.003]	22.06**	27.19%
	Unpublished	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Education	Published	2	373	.002	.002	0	[-.10, .10]	[.002, .002]	.005	100%
	Unpublished	2	220	.03	.03	0	[-.10, .20]	[.03, .03]	8.68	100%
Rank	Published	6	2,132	-.03	-.03	.04	[-.08, .008]	[-.09, .02]	1.30	58.28%
	Unpublished	1	248	-.11	-.12	0	--	--	--	--
Tenure	Published	22	19,996	-.12	-.13	.05	[-.16, -.10]	[-.20, -.06]	79.48**	27.68%
	Unpublished	11	4,287	.02	.02	.08	[-.04, .07]	[-.08, .11]	37.82**	29.09%
Personality Traits										
Agreeableness	Published	10	3,560	-.07	-.09	.05	[-.13, -.04]	[-.16, -.02]	2.17*	49.58%
	Unpublished	4	1,653	-.14	-.17	.31	[-.48, .13]	[-.57, .22]	155.18**	2.58%
Conscientiousness	Published	9	2,019	-.09	-.10	.11	[-.19, -.02]	[-.25, .04]	35.29**	25.51%
	Unpublished	4	1,653	-.24	-.30	.16	[-.46, -.13]	[-.51, -.09]	41.94**	9.54%
Extraversion	Published	3	587	-.04	-.05	.03	[-.13, .03]	[-.08, -.01]	3.37	88.89%
	Unpublished	2	776	-.03	-.04	0	[-.11, .03]	[-.04, -.04]	1.79	100%
Neuroticism	Published	10	3,803	.14	.16	.13	[.07, .24]	[-.003, .32]	66.79**	14.97%
	Unpublished	3	1109	.18	.21	0	[.15, .26]	[.21, .21]	2.31	100%
Negative Affectivity	Published	11	2248	.19	.23	.18	[.11, .34]	[-.004, .46]	88.64**	12.41%
	Unpublished	3	819	.26	.30	0	[.24, .35]	[.30, .30]	2.92	100%
Self-Esteem	Published	2	408	-.17	-.19	0	[-.28, -.09]	[-.19, -.19]	0	--
	Unpublished	2	581	-.29	-.33	0	[-.40, -.27]	[-.33, -.33]	.008	100%
Contextual Factors: Individual-Level Psychological Climate										
Perceived Uncivil Climate	Published	12	3389	.37	.42	.22	[.29, .55]	[.13, .71]	161.99**	7.41%
	Unpublished	3	2340	.29	.32	.10	[.20, .44]	[.19, .45]	27.95**	1.73%
Perceived Supportive Climate	Published	5	800	-.11	-.13	.07	[-.20, -.06]	[-.22, -.05]	8.66	57.75%
	Unpublished	3	520	-.36	-.40	0	[-.46, -.34]	[-.40, -.40]	46.58	100%

Note. k = number of studies; N = total number of participants; $\bar{r}$ = sample size weighted mean correlation; $\hat{\rho}$ = estimated population correlation (sample size weighted mean correlation corrected for unreliability in both measures); *SE* =standard error of $\hat{\rho}$; CI = confidence interval; CV = credibility interval; Q = Chi-square test of homogeneity; Var% = proportion of observed variance in the observed correlation due to statistical artifacts; ΔK = number of filled studies in trim-and-fill analysis; *adj-r* = adjusted correlation after adding filled studies.