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Targeted workplace Incivility: The Roles of Belongingness, Embarrassment, and Power

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Abstract

The research to date has largely been unclear about whether a single perpetrator is sufficient to instigate the well-documented negative consequences of workplace incivility. In the current research, we examine the extent to which perceived belongingness and embarrassment mediate the relationship between incivility from a single perpetrator and two important outcomes (job insecurity and somatic symptoms), and the extent to which the perpetrator's power moderates these relationships. Across two studies using different methods, we find that incidents of single perpetrator incivility are associated with target feelings of isolation and embarrassment, which in turn relate to targets' perceived job insecurity and somatic symptoms (Studies 1 and 2) both the same day and three days later (Study 2). Moreover, we find that perpetrator power moderates the relationship between incivility and embarrassment, such that targets are more embarrassed when the perpetrator is powerful. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Keywords: Workplace aggression; diary study; embarrassment; incivility; power

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“Why is respect — or lack of it — so potent? Charles Horton Cooley’s 1902 notion of the “looking glass self” explains that we use others’ expressions...to define ourselves. How we believe others see us shapes who we are. We...get swallowed in a sea of embarrassment based on brief interactions that signal respect or disrespect...incivility...makes people feel small.” New York Times, 2015

Workplace incivility, defined as low intensity deviant acts with ambiguous intent to harm (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), adversely affects target well-being, work attitudes, and behaviors (e.g., Cortina Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001). The introductory quotation suggests that one reason why incivility may be so potent is because it is isolating and embarrassing. Being part of a group is important from a socio-evolutionary perspective and one’s treatment in a group is indicative of one’s value (Lind & Tyler, 1988). However, one’s value to the group is not guaranteed; people scan and interpret signals from the environment to validate that they are and continue to be accepted by the group. One such important group is the organization, where people spend a significant amount of time working and cultivating relationships. Experiencing incivility in the workplace may threaten one’s sense of value to the organization, particularly since the intent behind incivility is often unclear.

Less clear in the introductory quotation – and the corresponding academic literature - is whether it matters who perpetrates the incivility. Although it may be true that the perceptions of others shape who we are, could a single perpetrator be capable of eliciting such sense of isolation and embarrassment in a target, or does incivility exert its impact only when the target is mistreated by many? The literature on incivility has focused on broad experiences of incivility from different parties (e.g., peers, supervisor). Given the highly interpersonal context in which these events occur, it is possible that targeted incivility from a specific person may be as, or more detrimental than general incivility from different people. This may be particularly true if the

perpetrator is in a position of power and influence within the social group. However, researchers tend to collapse experiences of incivility from different sources when examining its effects (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). As such, current theoretical work on workplace incivility convolutes the effects of experiences of incivility from different perpetrators with targeted and persistent incivility from a single perpetrator. This theoretical distinction is important because scholars (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina et al., 2001) have argued that workplace incivility is an accumulation of low-intensity encounters that, left unchecked, may eventually spiral to more severe aggravations. However, common operationalizations of workplace incivility suggest that these low-level encounters (and associated consequences) necessarily result from the actions of various actors rather than a single person. In the present research, we challenge this perspective by proposing and demonstrating that the negative psychological effects of workplace incivility can result from a single perpetrator. We further aim to show that persistent (i.e., daily) encounters from a single source can be damaging to the target days after the incivility occurs, which may help explain how these seemingly low-intensity interactions ultimately push targets to their “tipping point” (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Lastly, we explore the role of power to further understand the types of single, uncivil perpetrators who are most likely to adversely impact employee wellbeing. Thus, the present research investigates *whether*, *why*, and *when* incivility from a single source is related to employee outcomes.

Drawing on the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), we propose two socio-emotional mechanisms, belongingness and embarrassment, that explain how incivility from a single source—particularly someone in power—relates to negative work outcomes (job insecurity and somatic symptoms). In Study 1, we test our hypotheses in a cross-sectional sample of employees, and demonstrate that the proposed effects of single-source incivility remain

significant after controlling for general incivility from multiple sources. In Study 2, we use a diary study to build on our findings by testing the consequences of repeated incivility from the same person on fluctuations in employee emotions, attitudes and wellbeing over time.

This research contributes to the literature on workplace incivility in at least four ways. First, as noted above, most incivility researchers do not provide a frame of reference for participants regarding the source of their incivility encounters. Participants are typically asked to report how frequently they have experienced incivility from “someone at work” (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). However, this approach means that the same participant may be referring to a single source, *or multiple sources*, of incivility. Lievens et al. (2008) argued that lack of context reduces both within- and between-person variability when answering questions about individual differences. By examining the extent to which incivility from a single perpetrator is associated with negative outcomes for targets, our research helps to establish the lower limits of this already low-base rate phenomenon.

Second, we consider two theoretical mechanisms—belongingness (a cognition) and embarrassment (an affective state)—to help explain the potentially adverse effect of a singular source of incivility. Drawing on the group value model, we advance the literature by demonstrating that incivility from a specific actor can shape an employees’ psychological experiences of isolation and embarrassment even in large social groups, such as an organization, where the employee is likely to be exposed to multiple social interactions on a daily basis. Importantly, we show that the indirect effects of single-source incivility on employee well-being persist after controlling for general encounters of incivility from other interactions within the organization, which is more commonly studied in the literature (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). In

so doing, we aim to provide strong evidence in support of the lasting impact of this targeted form of workplace incivility.

Third, we examine *when* incivility is most likely to affect target outcomes. Identifying a frame of reference can help us understand how characteristics of the specific perpetrator may impact the target's experience. Thus, we investigate whether perpetrator power moderates the proposed (indirect) effects of single-source incivility. According to the group value model, we infer our value to a group by how powerful others treat us. Based on this theory, when the powerful treat an employee unfairly, that employee is likely to perceive that he or she holds less value to the organization. However, as we elaborate below, incivility from low power perpetrators may also signal low value to the target. Therefore, to explore the boundaries of the group value model, we investigated whether incivility from a single, powerful source exerts stronger effect on belongingness and embarrassment than incivility from a less powerful source.

Lastly, we test our proposed conceptual model of single-sourced incivility using two methodologies that align with current theoretical understanding of the nature of workplace incivility. The majority of research has treated incivility as a chronic stressor that occurs over a prolonged period of time (Beattie & Griffin, 2014; Zhou, Yan, Che, & Meier, 2015), with the frequency of recalled incidents ranging from weekly to several years (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001; Lim & Lee, 2011). This perspective underlies the between-person approach to workplace incivility that currently dominates the literature (Beattie & Griffin, 2014). However, recent research shows that daily experiences of incivility are associated with within-individual fluctuations in victims' psychological and attitudinal outcomes (Beattie & Griffin, 2014; Zhou et al., 2015). Thus, a complete examination of the impact of incivility from a single perpetrator necessitates an examination of both between- and within-person effects. In line with past

research, we explore the effects of both chronic experiences of single-perpetrator incivility (within the past six months; Study 1) and daily experiences of such targeted incivility (Study 2). Our examination of within-person fluctuations of experienced incivility in Study 2 further allows us to observe short-term reactions to single-perpetrator encounters, and more importantly, allows us to test whether these encounters exert temporal persistence (i.e., whether the negative consequences persist days after the initial encounter). Moreover, an intra-person exploration of incivility aligns with the theoretical nature of our proposed mediators. According to Baumeister and Leary (1995), one's sense of belongingness is the result of frequent, pleasant interactions with others, which we propose is threatened after each daily episode of incivility. Similarly, unlike one's mood, embarrassment is a discrete emotion (Tellegen, Watson, & Clark, 1999) that tends to be short-lived, fluctuates, and results from seemingly surprising and fairly minor social transgressions (Tangney, Miller, Flicker, & Barlow, 1996). Thus, a complete understanding of single-source incivility must also account for the potential for perceptions of belongingness and embarrassment to fluctuate in tandem with daily incivility.

Theoretical Background

Belongingness and Embarrassment as Mechanisms in the Incivility-Outcome Relationship

Workplace incivility has significant negative effects that are comparable to the effects of abusive supervision and bullying (Hershcovis, 2011); however, research to date has tended to measure workplace incivility as a phenomenon that originates from "someone at work," without providing a frame-of-reference for targets. Thus, participants may be thinking of multiple perpetrators or one perpetrator when replying to incivility scales, and this may vary between participants. This is problematic because we cannot determine whether incivility from a single perpetrator is sufficient to evoke negative outcomes or whether the characteristics of the

perpetrator-target relationship affect target experiences. Research in the broader mistreatment literature has found that mistreatment from supervisors has significantly stronger effects than mistreatment from coworkers (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010); thus, examining workplace incivility from a particular source will help us gain a better understanding of how the interpersonal context in which incivility occurs is related to target reactions and outcomes.

The group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988) posits that group identification explains individual reactions to poor treatment. A key assumption of the group value model is that people care about their membership in social groups (Tyler, 1989). Indeed, Baumeister and Leary (1995) argued that belongingness is a primary human need; people readily form social attachments and try to avoid damage to existing social bonds. Consistent with these theoretical arguments, Derfler-Rozin, Pillutla, and Thau (2010) found that, when threatened with social exclusion, individuals engage in actions that help them reconnect.

The group value model posits that group members typically hold a common set of group-related values (Lind & Tyler, 1988). First, they are concerned about maintaining their status within the group. Second, they want to feel secure in their group membership. Third, they want the opportunity to participate in the life of the group. When targets are faced with workplace incivility from a group member, they are likely to perceive a threat to each of these concerns.

First, given that people care about group membership, they are highly attuned to threats to belongingness. According to the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), respectful treatment sends symbolic messages about an individual's standing within the group. Although Lind and Tyler focused on fair treatment by someone in power (discussed more below), research on ostracism has found that individuals perceive belongingness threat even when the signal is sent from an inanimate object (i.e., a computer programme; Zadro, Williams, & Richardson, 2004).

Thus, we argue that targets are likely to perceive discourteous behavior from *anyone*—even a low power group member—as a signal that the perpetrator does not value the target. That is, we expect that workplace incivility will serve as a social cue to the target that he or she does not belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

Workplace incivility may also threaten an individual's perceived ability to contribute to the group. Research has found that targets try to stay away from uncivil interactions and avoid making the perpetrator more angry (Cortina & Magley, 2009), which might impair their ability to contribute to the working life of the group. Further, when they do speak up, targets often face high levels of counter-retaliation (Cortina & Magley, 2003), which may further discourage them from engaging socially. As a result, when targets experience workplace incivility, their ability to fully participate in life at work may be constrained.

Combined, the threat to status and security within the group as well as the constraint on participation should adversely affect one's perceived belongingness at work, and therefore one's perceived security and well-being. First, in terms of job security, because incivility signals a lack of status and belongingness, targets may perceive themselves to be less central to their group and therefore more likely to be pushed out or let go in times of difficulty. Uncivil actions (e.g., being ignored) that signal to the target that he or she is not valued and does not belong are by extension more likely to trigger uncertainty about one's job continuity. Further, given that targets are more likely to avoid co-workers (i.e., the perpetrator; Cortina & Magley, 2009) relative to non-targets, the quality of their work may suffer. Targets that feel less able to contribute to the group's working life may worry that their supervisor will see them as non-contributing members, hence relating to job insecurity. Perceived belongingness is by definition the perception that one does not fit; job insecurity is a natural extension of this perception.

Second, with respect to somatic symptoms, Baumeister and Leary (1995) argued that, as a fundamental motivation, threatened belongingness will have a negative effect on individual health. Empirical evidence supports this assertion. For instance, a large body of research shows that belongingness (and related concepts such as exclusion) is associated with a range of health outcomes, including depression (Hagerty & Williams, 1999) and physical pain (Eisenberger, Lieberman, & Williams, 2008). For instance, in a lab experiment using functional magnetic resonance imaging, Eisenberger et al. found that the brains of the socially excluded registered physical pain. Further, Caza and Cortina (2007) found support for the relationship between incivility and psychological distress, and found that ostracism mediated this relationship. We build on their findings by examining somatic symptoms to determine whether belongingness also explains physical symptoms. Based on the theoretical and empirical evidence, we predict:

H1: Incivility indirectly relates to job insecurity (H1a) and somatic symptoms (H1b) through belongingness.

Workplace incivility may also evoke concerns about others' perception of the self. According to Andersson and Pearson (1999), incivility can cause targets to experience a loss of face. "Face" refers to one's perceived status in the eyes of others. As posited above, workplace incivility calls the target's status in the group into question (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Therefore, being treated uncivilly is likely to cause a loss of face whereby targets evaluate their treatment through the lens of others at work, triggering a self-conscious emotional response. In this study we examine embarrassment, which is a self-conscious emotion that involves the evaluation of oneself from another's perspective (Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007). According to Leary, Landel, and Patton (1996, p. 620), "embarrassment occurs when people experience a self-presentational predicament in which they think that others have formed undesired impressions of

them.” Given our argument that workplace incivility will influence a target’s perception about what others think of them (i.e., that they have low value), we expect targets to experience embarrassment in response to the mistreatment.

According to Goffman (1955, 1959), individuals have a desire to present themselves as strong and capable whenever possible and will tend to avoid situations where they could be embarrassed publically. Researchers have found that individuals are willing to incur economic costs to save face (e.g., Brown, 1970). Therefore, at times when individuals feel embarrassed because they have been the target of incivility, they may withdraw from the work environment—or, at the least, avoid the perpetrator (Cortina & Magley, 2009)—to reduce the chance that they will experience further loss of face. However, as argued previously, withdrawal from the work environment may detract from the target’s ability to perform his or her work requirements, causing them to doubt the security of their job.

Further, because embarrassment is associated with weakness and low status, individuals may attempt to conceal this emotion to maintain face (Goffman, 1956). Embarrassment signals the need to hide or change some aspect of the self (Tangney et al., 2007). However, consistent with theories of emotional labor, the suppression of these negative emotions is likely to have negative implications for target health (e.g., Quartana & Burns, 2007). As such, the embarrassment caused by perceiving oneself to be a target of incivility is expected to result in greater somatic complaints. Therefore, we predict:

H2: Incivility indirectly relates to job insecurity (H2a) and somatic symptoms (H2b) through embarrassment.

We also consider whether incivility will affect job insecurity and somatic symptoms over time. Research on workplace incivility has typically adopted a cross-sectional approach in which

participants are asked to report on past experiences of incivility (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). An assumption of the scales used to assess incivility is that these experiences have prolonged effects such that being mistreated days, months, or even years before can have an effect on the target's current well-being. This assumption is rarely tested. In the current study, we make room for the possibility that the negative outcomes associated with incivility (i.e., job insecurity and somatic symptoms) will persist after the incident. However, because incivility is by definition a low-intensity form of mistreatment, it is reasonable to expect that the effects will not be long-lasting. Because of the lack of clarity surrounding the long-term effects of workplace incivility on target outcomes, we do not make a formal hypothesis about the lagged effects of incivility; however, we include an analysis of these effects (three days later) for exploratory purposes.

The Moderating Role of Power

In addition to investigating why incivility affect target outcomes, we also investigate *when* incivility is most likely to have these effects. Hershcovis and Barling (2010) found that when workplace mistreatment originates from supervisors (e.g., abusive supervision; Tepper, 2000), it has stronger negative outcomes than when it originates from coworkers. Workplace incivility occurs in a social context, and the nature of that context is likely to influence the target's experience. Drawing on the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), we examine power as a key contextual factor that may exacerbate the relationship between incivility and belongingness and embarrassment.

Power occurs when someone has control over valuable resources, is able to impose his/her will on others, and is able to influence the outcomes of others (Anderson & Galinsky, 2003). Though power is rooted in the ability to control resources, it can also be a psychological property of the perceiver. That is, the behavioral outcomes of power are as

much determined by the felt *sense* of power as the formal basis of power (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006). Therefore, we consider both sense of power (Study 1) and positional power (Study 2) in the present set of studies.

According to the group-value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), power moderates target reactions to unfair treatment such as incivility. Lind and Tyler argued that targets are likely to perceive mistreatment from a powerful source as a particularly strong threat to their membership in the group because people seek self-relevant information by examining the quality of their interactions with powerful people. Employees use information about how high-powered people treat them as indicators of self-worth. As argued previously, the threat to status and prestige posed by incivility is posited to relate to both belongingness and embarrassment. We expect that when the perpetrator is powerful, this threat will be even stronger for at least two reasons. First, low-powered individuals pay more attention to—and thus place higher importance on the opinions of—the powerful (Anderson, Keltner, & Kring, 2001). Second, the powerful, by definition, control important outcomes of targets (e.g., wages, job security, promotions, task assignment). Therefore, although mistreatment from *anyone* at work should be a signal of lower value, mistreatment from a powerful perpetrator is likely to strengthen the mediating effect of both belongingness and embarrassment on the relationship between incivility and its outcomes because power is likely to heighten the experience of both mechanisms, resulting in a stronger threat to job security and greater somatic symptoms. Therefore, we posit that:

H3: Perpetrator power will moderate the strength of the mediated relationship between incivility and job insecurity (H3a), and somatic symptoms (H3b), via

belongingness such that the mediated relationship will be stronger when the perpetrator has high power compared to when the perpetrator has low power.

H4: Perpetrator power will moderate the strength of the mediated relationship between incivility and job insecurity (H4a), and somatic symptoms (H4b), via embarrassment such that the mediated relationship will be stronger when the perpetrator has high power compared to when the perpetrator has low power.

We test our hypotheses in two studies. Study 1 uses a two-wave survey method that incorporates a critical incident design (Mitchell, Vogel, & Folger, 2015). Study 2 is a diary study in which we examine fluctuations in the proposed relationships every three days.

Study 1

Participants and Procedure

We recruited participants through Qualtrics, an online panel provider. Qualtrics ensures data integrity through digital fingerprinting, traps for geo-IP violators, and timestamps to flag fast responding. We collected data on full time employees working in North America using a critical incident technique in which we defined incivility and asked participants to recall a time in the last six months when they experienced incivility at work. To enhance their memory of the incident, we asked them to describe the incident and the person who was uncivil in detail. If a participant could not recall an experience of incivility, we invited them to instead recall and describe a neutral interaction between them and a co-worker within the last six months. Regardless of which incident participants' described, they answered all survey questions.

Following their descriptions of either the uncivil or neutral interaction, we asked participants to provide the initials of the perpetrator/interaction partner, and we piped these initials into the subsequent survey questions regarding incivility, power, and general incivility.

We invited participants to complete two surveys at two time points, separated by one week. At Time 1, 501 participants completed the survey, and 300 (57% female, $M_{age} = 38.48$, $SD = 11.25$) participants completed the dependent variables (job insecurity and somatic symptoms) at Time 2, resulting in a 60% retention rate.

Measures

Incivility. We measured incivility at Time 1 using the Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS; Cortina et al., 2001). The anchor read: “Over the last six months how frequently has [initials]...” and a sample item is: “put you down or been condescending to you” (1 = never to 5 = many times). Cronbach’s alpha is .89.

Belongingness. We measured belongingness at Time 1 using Godard’s (2001) four-item scale. The anchor read: “Following the interaction you described earlier, to what extent did you feel...” and a sample item is: “isolated from others [RC]” (1= not at all to 5 = very much). Cronbach’s alpha is .87.

Embarrassment. We measured embarrassment at Time 1 using four commonly used manipulation check items from experimental studies (e.g., Leary et al., and Struthers et al., 2014). Participants indicated the extent to which they felt “embarrassed,” “awkward,” “humiliated,” and “uncomfortable” (1 = not at all to 5 = very much). Cronbach’s alpha is .92.

Perpetrator power. We measured perpetrator power at Time 1 using Anderson and Galinsky’s (2006) eight-item personal sense of power measure. An example items is: “[initials] has the power to assign you work” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Cronbach’s alpha is .85.

General incivility. We measured general incivility at Time 1 with three items developed for this study: “people at work are rude to you”, “your coworkers disrespect you”, and “people at work are uncivil towards you” (1 = not at all to 5 = extremely). Cronbach’s alpha is .93.

Job insecurity. We measured job insecurity at Time 2 using the four highest loading items from Kraimer, Wayne, Sparrowe, and Liden’s (2005) job security scale plus two items adapted from De Witte (2000). Participants were asked “since the interaction described in the last survey, to what extent have you felt the following...” An example items is “My job is not secure” (1 = not at all to 5 = very much). Cronbach’s alpha is .91.

Somatic symptoms. We measured somatic symptoms at Time 2 using the eight-item somatic symptom scale (Gierk, et al., 2015). Participants indicated how often they felt, for example, “stomach problems” and “tired or low energy” since the interaction described in the previous survey (1 = not at all to 7 = extremely frequently). Cronbach’s alpha is .92.

Analytic Strategy

We began by specifying confirmatory factor analyses in Mplus to ensure that all measures loaded on their respective constructs. Next, we assessed our theoretical model using structural equation modeling (SEM). We compared our hypothesized full mediation model to an alternate, partial mediation model. In these analyses, we controlled for the effects of general incivility on the mediator and outcome variables. We created parcels for each measure, with the exception of general incivility, belongingness, and embarrassment (which were relatively short scales). Little, Cunningham, Shahar, and Widaman (2002) suggest that parceling results in more reliable latent estimates because it reduces item-specific random errors and decreases the sample-size-to-parameter ratio. We used random distribution of items to create three indicators for these latent constructs.

We used Bayesian estimation (iterations = 20,000) to probe for the indirect effects posited in *H1* and *H2*. Next, we tested our moderated mediation hypotheses (*H3* and *H4*) by creating an interaction term between the observed perpetrator power variable and the latent incivility construct, and linking this new variable to the mediators. We also linked power directly to the mediators. Lastly, we used Bayesian estimation procedures to probe for *conditional* indirect effects in order to better understand the nature of the hypothesized interactions.

Measurement model. Confirmatory factor analyses show that the hypothesized seven-factor model (Model 1) fits the data very well, $\chi^2(188) = 665.29, p < .001, CFI = .95, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .06$. We compared the seven-factor structure to a number of alternate factor structures. The hypothesized model was significantly better than Model 2, which combined incivility and general incivility measures into one latent factor, $\Delta\chi^2(6) = 868.26, p < .001$ [$\chi^2(194) = 1533.55, p < .001, CFI = .85, TLI = .82, RMSEA = .12, SRMR = .12$]. The hypothesized model was also significantly better than Model 3, which combined the two mediators into one latent factor, $\Delta\chi^2(6) = 635.54, p < .001$ [$\chi^2(194) = 1300.83, p < .001, CFI = .87, TLI = .85, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .07$]. Model 4, which combined the two outcome variables into one latent factor, also demonstrated significantly worse fit to the data, $\Delta\chi^2(6) = 643.99, p < .001$ [$\chi^2(194) = 1309.29, p < .001, CFI = .87, TLI = .85, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .10$]; as did Model 5, where all items loaded on a single factor, $\Delta\chi^2(21) = 4142.17, p < .001$ [$\chi^2(209) = 4807.47, p < .001, CFI = .48, TLI = .42, RMSEA = .21, SRMR = .13$].

 Insert Table 1 and Figure 1 about here

Results

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics and inter-correlations among the study variables. The results showed that the hypothesized full-mediation model demonstrated

acceptable fit to the data, $\chi^2(139) = 472.29, p < .001, CFI = .950, TLI = .938, RMSEA = .069, SRMR = .062$. Figure 1 shows that, after controlling for general incivility, incivility is negatively related to feelings of belongingness ($B = -0.52, p < .001$) and positively related to embarrassment ($B = 0.76, p < .001$). Belongingness is also negatively related to somatic symptoms ($B = -0.15, p = .03$) and job insecurity ($B = -0.20, p < .001$). Lastly, embarrassment is positively related to somatic symptoms ($B = 0.34, p < .001$) and job insecurity ($B = 0.15, p = .01$). We compared the fit of our hypothesized model with an alternate, partial-mediation model that linked incivility directly to the outcome variables. This alternate model was significantly better than the full mediation model, $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 11.06, p = .004, \chi^2(137) = 461.23, p < .001, CFI = .951, TLI = .939, RMSEA = .069, SRMR = .057$. In this model, incivility is directly related to somatic symptoms ($B = 0.36, p = .001$) but not job insecurity ($B = 0.11, p = .20$), controlling for general incivility. We note however that the partial mediation model offered very minimal gains in model fit indices compared to the full mediation model. Thus, we retained the simpler, full mediation model. This decision aligns with SEM scholars who note that parsimonious theoretical models with fewer estimated parameters are better than complex alternate models, especially if the alternate model offer marginal gains in model fit indicators (e.g., Bentler & Mooijjaart, 1989).

The results of Bayesian estimation of indirect effects show full support for *H1* and *H2*. Belongingness significantly mediated the relationships between incivility and job insecurity ($B = -0.13, SD = 0.03, 95\% CI [0.07, 0.20]$) and somatic symptoms ($B = 0.08, SD = 0.0403, 95\% CI [0.0001, 0.16]$), respectively. These findings support *H1a* and *H1b*. In support of *H2a* and *H2b*, embarrassment significantly mediated the relationships between incivility and job insecurity ($B = 0.11, SD = 0.06, 95\% CI [0.0001, 0.23]$) and somatic symptoms ($B = 0.16, SD = 0.08, 95\% CI [0.01, 0.32]$), respectively.

Next, we tested the moderating effect of perpetrator power on the links between incivility and belongingness (*H3*) and embarrassment (*H4*). In contrast to *H3*, perpetrator power did not moderate the link between incivility and belongingness, $B = -0.07$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .07$. However, perpetrator power significantly moderated the link between incivility and embarrassment, $B = 0.08$, $SE = 0.03$, $p = .02$, supporting *H4*. Further tests of simple slopes show that the relationship between incivility and embarrassment is stronger when perpetrator power is high ($B = 0.94$, $SE = 0.08$, 95% CI [.79, 1.09]), and somewhat weaker (though still significant) when perpetrator power is low ($B = 0.73$, $SE = 0.07$, 95% CI [.58, .87]). Figure 2 shows a graphical depiction of these trends. Lastly, the moderated mediation results show that, in predicting somatic symptoms, the indirect effect of embarrassment is stronger when the perpetrator occupied a position of high ($B = 0.24$, $SE = 0.09$, 95% CI [.07, .40]) versus low power ($B = 0.18$, $SE = 0.07$, 95% CI [.06, .31]). Similarly, in predicting job insecurity, the mediating effect of embarrassment is stronger when perpetrator power is high ($B = 0.20$, $SE = 0.06$, 95% CI [.08, .32]) versus low ($B = 0.16$, $SE = 0.05$, 95% CI [.06, .25]).

Insert Figure 2 about here

The results of Study 1 lend support to many of our hypotheses and offer several contributions. First, the study demonstrates that incivility, even from a single source, negatively relates to both job insecurity and somatic health through belongingness and embarrassment, even after controlling for general incivility. Second, our findings show that the relationship between incivility and embarrassment is stronger when the perpetrator holds power. Consistent with the group value model, targets are more embarrassed by incivility when the perpetrator is powerful.

However, Study 1 has a number of limitations. First, both belongingness and embarrassment are transient mechanisms, meaning that they are likely to fluctuate in tandem

with incidents of incivility; Study 1 did not allow us to investigate the extent to which fluctuations in incivility relate to fluctuations in these mechanisms and subsequent outcomes. Second, Study 1 is cross-sectional and thus does not afford an opportunity to investigate the extent to which fluctuations in incivility persist over time. Third, Study 1 assessed personal sense of power when the group value model explicitly focuses on status or role-based power as the key source of threat to belongingness. To address these limitations, we re-tested our hypotheses in a second sample of employees using a diary study methodology.

Study 2

Participants and Procedure

To recruit participants, we posted advertisements at public institutions (e.g., universities, churches) around a mid-sized North American city. The advertisement solicited participation from full time employees who had experienced rudeness or uncivil behavior at work. Participants were paid \$75 for participating in this three-month study.

Participants were provided with a unique identification number that they entered each time they filled out a survey. Participants completed an initial survey which asked about their demographics. They were also asked to think about a person who behaved uncivilly toward them at work, to describe their interactions with this person, and to refer to only this person for the duration of the study. They then completed a short diary survey every three days for three months, until they had completed 30 surveys. The diary surveys assessed all study variables.

A total of 59 participants signed up for the study. Of these, 49 participants completed an average of 25.6 surveys (1270 observations) for a response rate of 83% (27 women, 20 men, 2 undisclosed, $M_{age} = 30.51$ years, $SD = 11.72$ years, age range: 18 to 66 years). They worked an average of 38.73 hours per week, and held a variety of positions (e.g., physiology aide, office

manager, utility worker). Participants did not complete measures of incivility (or belongingness and embarrassment) if they did not work with the perpetrator in the previous 3-day period. This constraint resulted in a total of 45 participants who reported 655 unique observations of workplace incivility (14.56 surveys were completed on average). In other words, 51.6% of the total number of reported interactions during the 3-month period involved incidents of incivility from the same perpetrator. Our analyses below are based on this subsample of 655 incidents.

Measures

Following Ohly et al.'s (2010) recommendation that researchers use abbreviated and one-item scales to keep diary studies as short as possible, we shortened some of the scales to ensure that respondents could complete each survey in less than five minutes.

Incivility. We measured incivility using three items from the WIS (Cortina et al., 2001). We shortened two of the items and broadened one of the items to make responding to them quick and simple. Respondents were asked to think about the same colleague they had thought of when completing the initial survey, and to answer since the last survey, to what extent did this person: “behave rudely to you”, “ignore you”, and “put you down” (1 = never to 5 = more than once a day). We chose these items as they were broad enough to capture most forms of incivility covered by the WIS. The item “behave rudely to you” was not in Cortina et al.'s measure, but attempts to broadly capture several of the items in the WIS (e.g., “paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion”, “made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you”). Scale reliability (item-level within person correlation) is .74.

Belongingness. We measured belongingness using two items adapted from Godard (2001). Participants were asked “since the last survey, to what extent did you feel the following

at work” and then answered: “well accepted” and “like you belong” (1= not at all to 5 = very much). Scale reliability (item-level within person correlation) is .81.

Embarrassment. We measured embarrassment using two of the items developed in Study 1. Participants indicated how often since the last survey they felt “embarrassed” and “humiliated” (1 = not at all to 7 = extremely frequently). Scale reliability (item-level within person correlation) is .68.

Job insecurity. We measured job insecurity using the two items adapted from De Witte (2000) used in Study 1. Participants were asked “since the last survey, to what extent did you feel the following at work” and then answered: “insecure about your job” and “like you might lose your job” (1 = not at all to 5 = very much). Scale reliability (item-level within person correlation) is .73.

Somatic symptoms. We assessed three commonly measured somatic symptoms (e.g., Schat, Kelloway, & Desmarais, 2005). Participants indicated how often they experienced “stomach problems”, “sleeplessness”, and “headaches” since the last survey (1 = not at all to 7 = extremely frequently). Scale reliability (item-level within-person correlation) is .75.

Perpetrator power. We assessed the perpetrator’s formal power in the initial survey. We asked participants to consider the specific colleague who they identified as engaging in uncivil behavior in relation to five items based on French and Raven’s (1959) definition of legitimate power and on existing measures (e.g., Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998). Example items were: “he/she has the power to assign me work”, “he/she has the authority to make demands of me” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). The alpha coefficient is .94.

Analytic Strategy and Levels of Analysis

Intraclass correlations (ICCs) show that there was significant variation in all variables both at the within (level-1) and between (level-2) levels of analyses (see Table 2). Our data are thus ideal for examining within-person effects. Thus, we carried out multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM) in Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015). In testing our hypothesized model (Model 1), we controlled for the direct effects of incivility on the mediator and outcome variables at the between-person level. We also assessed “spills over” effects by including next measurement day outcome variables; this assessed whether job insecurity and somatic symptoms on a given day (Day_j) persisted on subsequent days (Day_{j+i}) (see Figure 3). The next-day variables were restricted to vary only within person. In this model, job insecurity only predicted next day job insecurity, while somatic symptoms only predicted next day somatic symptoms. Lastly, we allowed the residual terms of the mediators to covary because they likely capture conceptually overlapping attitudinal reactions to incivility from the same perpetrator.

We compared the hypothesized model to an alternate, partially-mediated model (Model 2). Here, we allowed incivility to directly predict job insecurity and somatic symptoms at Day_j and Day_{j+i} . We also allowed job insecurity to predict next day somatic symptoms and vice versa. We probed for indirect effects using Bayesian estimation in Mplus. This procedure uses the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) estimation process (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015), where indirect parameters are iteratively estimated (iterations = 20,000). This process is analogous to traditional bootstrapping procedures (Tucker, Ogunfowora, & Ehr, 2016; Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). Lastly, we tested the moderating effect of perpetrator power by specifying slopes-as-outcomes models in Mplus. Building on Model 2, we estimated the relationships between perpetrator power (at the between-person level) and the slopes of the relationships between incivility and the two mediators. Thus, we tested a multilevel moderated mediation model.

 Insert Table 2 about here

Results and Discussion

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for both the within- and between-person levels of analyses. The MSEM results showed moderate support for our hypothesized, full mediation model (Model 1), $\chi^2(11) = 18.20, p = .08, CFI = .96, TLI = .89, RMSEA = .03, SRMR_{within} = .07,$ and $SRMR_{between} = .06$. We compared this model to the partial mediation model (Model 2). This model demonstrated excellent fit to the data, and was significantly better than the hypothesized model, $\Delta\chi^2(6) = 12.88, p = .04, [\chi^2(5) = 6.00, p = .31, CFI = .99, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .02, SRMR_{within} = .04,$ and $SRMR_{between} = .03]$. As shown in Figure 3, the parameter estimates support our hypotheses. Daily incivility was significantly related to daily feelings of both belongingness ($B = -0.20, p = .004$) and embarrassment ($B = 0.49, p = .003$). In turn, embarrassment related to job insecurity ($B = 0.20, p < .001$) and somatic symptoms ($B = 0.21, p = .001$), while belongingness predicted job insecurity ($B = -0.23, p = .003$) but not somatic symptoms ($B = -0.02, p = .77$). Daily incivility was also directly related to daily somatic symptoms ($B = 0.17, p < .001$) and next measurement day somatic symptoms ($B = 0.34, p = .001$), but not job insecurity ($B = 0.07, p = .23$) or next measurement day job insecurity ($B = 0.15, p = .12$). Somatic symptoms was strongly associated with next measurement day somatic symptoms ($B = 0.70, p < .001$) but not next measurement day job insecurity ($B = -0.04, p = .66$). Job insecurity was strongly linked with next measurement day job insecurity ($B = 0.64, p < .001$) but not next measurement day somatic symptoms ($B = -0.04, p = .71$).

 Insert Figures 3 and 4 about here

To test the indirect effects posited in *H1* and *H2*, we carried out Bayesian estimation in Mplus. Daily belongingness significantly mediated the relationships between daily incivility and daily job insecurity ($B = 0.07$, $SD = 0.02$, 95% CI [0.04, 0.10]) and somatic symptoms ($B = 0.06$, $SD = 0.02$, 95% CI [0.03, 0.09]), respectively. In addition, we found that these indirect effects of daily incivility (through belongingness) extended to next measurement day job insecurity ($B = 0.04$, $SD = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.02, 0.06]) and somatic symptoms ($B = 0.04$, $SD = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.02, 0.07]), respectively. These results provide support for *H1a* and *H1b*. The results further showed that daily embarrassment significantly mediated the relationships between daily incivility and daily job insecurity ($B = 0.10$, $SD = 0.02$, 95% CI [0.06, 0.15]) and somatic symptoms ($B = 0.10$, $SD = 0.03$, 95% CI [0.05, 0.15]), respectively. In addition, we found that the indirect effects of daily incivility (through embarrassment) extended to next measurement day job insecurity ($B = 0.06$, $SD = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.03, 0.09]) and somatic symptoms ($B = 0.07$, $SD = 0.02$, 95% CI [0.04, 0.12]), respectively. These results provide support for *H2a* and *H2b*.

Next, we tested the moderating effect of perpetrator power on the links between daily incivility and belongingness (*H3*) and embarrassment (*H4*). We excluded the next-day dependent variables in this multilevel moderated mediation model to manage the complexity of the analyses. The results are similar with or without this restriction; however, in the more complex model, Mplus warns that there are too many parameters being estimated relative to the between-person sample size. Similar to Study 1, power did not moderate the link between daily incivility and belongingness, $B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .90$, providing no support for *H3*. However, power significantly moderated the link between daily incivility and embarrassment, $B = 0.10$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .03$, providing partial support for *H4*. The graph depicted in Figure 1 shows that the

relationship between daily incivility and daily embarrassment is strong and positive when perpetrator power is high, but somewhat weaker when perpetrator power is low.

Our diary study results replicate Study 1 findings. In addition, it demonstrated that fluctuations in incivility over a three-day period relate to target responses both the same day and three days later. Second, consistent with Study 1, the effect of incivility on embarrassment was stronger when the perpetrator had high role-based power. This is consistent with the group value model, and with research that shows that mistreatment from powerful sources (e.g., abusive supervision) exhibits stronger effects on targets' appraisals of their treatment (Cortina & Magley, 2009) and on consequences for targets (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010).

General Discussion

The present multi-study research examines two mechanisms that explain the effects of workplace incivility from a specific perpetrator on job insecurity and somatic symptoms. First, we examine the extent to which targets perceive a threat to their organizational belongingness following an incident of incivility. Second, we investigate targets' embarrassment about how they are treated. We find that these mechanisms explain both target job insecurity and somatic symptoms in response to incivility. Moreover, the power of the perpetrator strengthens the relationship between incivility and embarrassment, which can persist over time.

Theoretical and Methodological Implications

Our research contributes to the workplace mistreatment literature in a number of important ways. First, our finding that incivility perpetrated by a single actor is sufficient to evoke target concerns about belonging and embarrassment, as well as target feelings of job insecurity and somatic symptoms, helps support the view that traditional survey approaches to studying the effects of experienced incivility (i.e., in which participants are asked about their

experiences of incivility perpetrated by “someone at work”) is unnecessary in terms of detecting negative outcomes for targets. This is important given that these commonly used surveys aggregate target experiences from multiple sources, each of whom is likely to have a different relationship with the target. As evidence mounts supporting the view that the *relationship* between the target and perpetrator matters (e.g., Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Hershcovis, Reich, Parker, & Bozeman, 2012), this finding suggest that even low intensity forms of mistreatment offer an appropriate context for studying the relational dynamics of mistreatment.

Second, we examined two mechanisms that help explain *why* targets react negatively to even ambiguous and low intensity forms of mistreatment (i.e., workplace incivility). Although it may seem surprising that workplace incivility yields adverse effects for targets that are similar in magnitude to reactions to more severe forms of mistreatment (e.g., abusive supervision; Hershcovis, 2011), these findings are perhaps not surprising in light of the relational dynamics of a workplace. At work, as in other contexts, people strive to fit in (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). When someone is mistreated, even subtly, it signals a lack of fit triggering threats to belongingness and a loss of face. The present studies highlight that one reason workplace incivility is associated with serious negative outcomes is that even low intensity mistreatment can be socially isolating and embarrassing for targets. Therefore, our findings suggest that it is in part how individuals assess and react to mistreatment that undermines their well-being.

Our focus on embarrassment as a mediator of the relationship between incivility and target well-being also adds an important dimension to our understanding of target reactions to mistreatment at work. There is a paucity of research that has examined *discrete* emotional responses to mistreatment (see Ayoko, Callan, & Härtel, 2003; Leymann, 1990 for exceptions). The research that does exist has focused almost exclusively on other-focused emotions and

behavior, such as anger (e.g., Aquino, Douglas, & Martinko, 2004) and retaliation (see Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). These other-focused emotions and behaviors tend to follow from external attributions of responsibility for one's mistreatment (Weiner, 1995). Embarrassment, on the other hand, is a self-focused emotion (Tangney & Fischer, 1995). As such, it is more likely to arouse inward-focused responses, such as feelings of self-consciousness and a perceived loss of control (Keltner & Anderson, 2000). Given that incivility is a low intensity form of mistreatment, the role of embarrassment in explaining target outcomes is likely to be even more important for targets of more intense forms (e.g., bullying or abusive supervision).

Third, our studies help clarify *when* incivility is likely to have more negative effects on targets. In particular, our research signals the importance of the target's relationship with the perpetrator in predicting target outcomes, while also recognizing that even low power perpetrators can threaten a target's perceived belonging to a group. One of the shortcomings of research on workplace incivility is the lack of consideration for the relational context in which it occurs. Rather than asking targets about the nature of their relationship with the perpetrator, most studies examine target reactions to mistreatment perpetrated by "someone at work" (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). However, the nature of the perpetrator-target relationship affects target outcomes. Although we argued that uncivil behavior from *anyone* would threaten targets' sense of belonging, targets should be especially likely to infer their low status and lack of prestige in the organization when the perpetrator is in a position of authority (i.e., high power) (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Consistent with our predictions, we find that the positive relationship between incivility and embarrassment is stronger when the perpetrator has high power. Given that embarrassment is associated with low status, a perpetrator that emphasizes the unequal power between themselves and the target (i.e., a high power perpetrator) should be especially likely to

evoke this emotion. This finding is particularly relevant for research on abusive supervision because it suggests that mistreatment from a supervisor has different emotional consequences compared to mistreatment from co-workers. Abusive supervision is conceptually distinct from and more intense than workplace incivility (Hershcovis, 2011); incivility is not obviously hostile and may involve a single incident whereas abusive supervision involves a “sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors” from a supervisor (Tepper, 2001, p. 178). Therefore, although future research is needed to determine whether any characteristics of abusive supervision that distinguish it from incivility (e.g., intensity, persistence) affect target reactions, it stands to reason that abusive supervision will predict even greater embarrassment (and subsequent job insecurity and somatic symptoms) for targets compared to mistreatment from other sources. By contrast, perpetrator power did not affect the relationship between incivility and belongingness. Rather, despite the assumption that unfair treatment from high powered group members will be particularly threatening to an individual’s sense of value (Lind & Tyler, 1988), we find that incivility negatively relates to targets’ sense of belonging regardless of whether the perpetrator has high or low power. These findings are significant because they suggest that, although mistreatment from a powerful perpetrator can be especially embarrassing, incivility from anyone at work can have negative implications for targets’ sense of belonging.

Moreover, this research demonstrates that both the level of incivility and fluctuations in incivility can have negative effects on targets, and these effects can persist for days. First, Study 1 demonstrates that the level of incivility perpetrated by a single actor is related to feelings of isolation and embarrassment up to six months later. Given that we controlled for targets’ experiences of general incivility, this finding highlights that incivility from a single perpetrator is enough to evoke concerns about belonging and feelings of embarrassment, and subsequently

perceptions of job insecurity and impaired wellbeing. In Study 2, we showed that fluctuations in workplace incivility can engender serious reactions that can persist for days. These fluctuations yield changes in perceived belongingness and embarrassment, which in turn relate to important outcomes. Thus, whereas prior research has typically focused on the level of incivility, the present study shows that both level and fluctuation matter. That is, not only can the accumulation of incivility over a period of time (e.g., the last six months) have adverse effects on targets, but daily slights can also contribute to targets' feelings of isolation and embarrassment. These daily slights and corresponding feelings of isolation and embarrassment are so harmful that they trigger daily feelings of job insecurity and also physical health reactions in targets. Moreover, these effects persist for at least three days afterwards. Thus, the current study highlights the power that workplace incivility has to adversely affect individuals on a daily as well as a cumulative basis.

Limitations

As with all research, our studies have a number of limitations. First, although we separated data collection of the independent and dependent variables in Study 1 (which help to minimize mono-method bias; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012) and we used a repeated-measures design in Study 2, our data in both studies were single-source and correlational, precluding us from drawing conclusions about causality. For example, it is possible that individuals with high job insecurity will be more likely to feel isolated and embarrassed, which could increase the likelihood that they will be targets of incivility. To draw conclusions about causality, an experimental approach is necessary. Although such research is difficult to conduct in workplace incivility research due to the ethical challenges involved with mistreating a participant, a few studies have been conducted using low-level mistreatment. For instance,

Cohen, Nisbett, Bowdle, & Schwarz' (1996) culture of honour studies examined how participants from Southern versus Northern U.S. states reacted to being called an "asshole" by confederate perpetrators. More recently, research in workplace incivility has examined witness reactions to mistreatment between confederate perpetrators and targets (e.g., Hershcovis & Bhatnagar, 2015; Reich & Hershcovis, 2015). The use of confederates can help to minimize the ethical challenges, for instance, by having a confederate perpetrator mistreat a confederate target in the presence of a real participant, and asking the participant's perceptions of targets' belongingness to the group. This would also provide objective data about whether incivility truly affects belongingness, or whether such perceptions lie only with the perceiver.

Second, it is possibly that perceptions (e.g., job insecurity and somatic symptoms) that existed prior to the incivility may in fact be influencing our relationships. For instance, those with low job security or high somatic symptoms may be more likely to perceive a lack of belongingness, or to perceive higher incivility. Future research needs to experimentally examine these relationships to properly assess causality and directionality.

Finally, to understand targeted incivility, we examined the effects of only two mediators on our outcomes, and a single moderator (perpetrator power). These variables are consistent with the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), which formed the theoretical foundation of our research question. Nonetheless, there may be additional factors that relate to target reactions to incivility that warrant further consideration. Given the relational nature of mistreatment demonstrated in the present study, future research could consider other relational and contextual factors (e.g., relationship quality, presence of witnesses) that might relate to target experiences.

Practical Implications and Conclusion

These studies are among the first to demonstrate that reactions to workplace incivility have a relational element. Targets' experiences of workplace incivility resulted in feelings of isolation and embarrassment. Organizations can help mitigate these adverse effects by understanding them and encouraging respectful workplace interactions. Given that mistreatment from powerful perpetrators was perceived as especially embarrassing for targets, encouraging high power organizational members to assure targets of their value to the organization may be particularly helpful. Managers can also ensure that employees do not feel socially isolated by creating an environment of inclusion. Some tactics for achieving this might include open-door policies and regular team-building activities.

The findings that targets are embarrassed and feel isolated in response to workplace incivility also suggest an important role for witnesses. If targets feel embarrassed, it suggests that they are concerned about how others perceive them after they have been mistreated. Similarly, targets seem to perceive that they are "on their own" following an incident of incivility and that their group membership is somehow threatened. Indeed, social undermining research suggests that when employees are mistreated, others at work may develop negative relationships with the targets (Duffy et al., 2002). Witnesses can help mitigate both feelings of embarrassment and targets' perceptions of isolation. Reich and Hershcovis (2015) found that witnesses of workplace incivility develop negative attitudes towards perpetrators and may support targets. Managers can take advantage of these witness reactions by encouraging them to show support for targets.

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Table 1

Study 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Inter-correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 General incivility	1.68	0.94						
2 Incivility	2.66	1.05	.44**					
3 Belongingness	3.40	1.18	-.41**	-.47**				
4 Embarrassment	3.01	1.33	.40**	.61**	-.54**			
5 Job insecurity	2.24	1.05	.33**	.35**	-.48**	.36**		
6 Somatic symptoms	2.75	1.30	.31**	.46**	-.33**	.42**	.31**	
7 Perpetrator power	4.62	1.44	.03	.08	-.17**	.19**	.18**	.14*

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. N ranged from 300 (somatic symptoms and job insecurity measured at Time 2) to 501 (all other scales measured at Time 1).

Table 2

Study 2: Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Intraclass Correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	ICC	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Incivility	1.87	0.85	.42		-.26	.63**	.22	.43**	-.09
2 Belongingness	3.14	1.17	.64	-.20**		-.41**	-.48**	-.14	-.28
3 Embarrassment	2.44	1.50	.58	.47**	-.48**		.47**	.31*	.17
4 Job insecurity	2.10	1.16	.63	.20**	-.38**	.47**		.14	.49**
5 Somatic symptoms	2.16	1.26	.68	.41**	-.19**	.39**	.18**		-.05
6 Perpetrator power	4.90	1.92	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. $n = 655$ within-person observations; $n = 45$ between-person observations. Within-level correlations are below the diagonal and between-person correlations are above the diagonal.

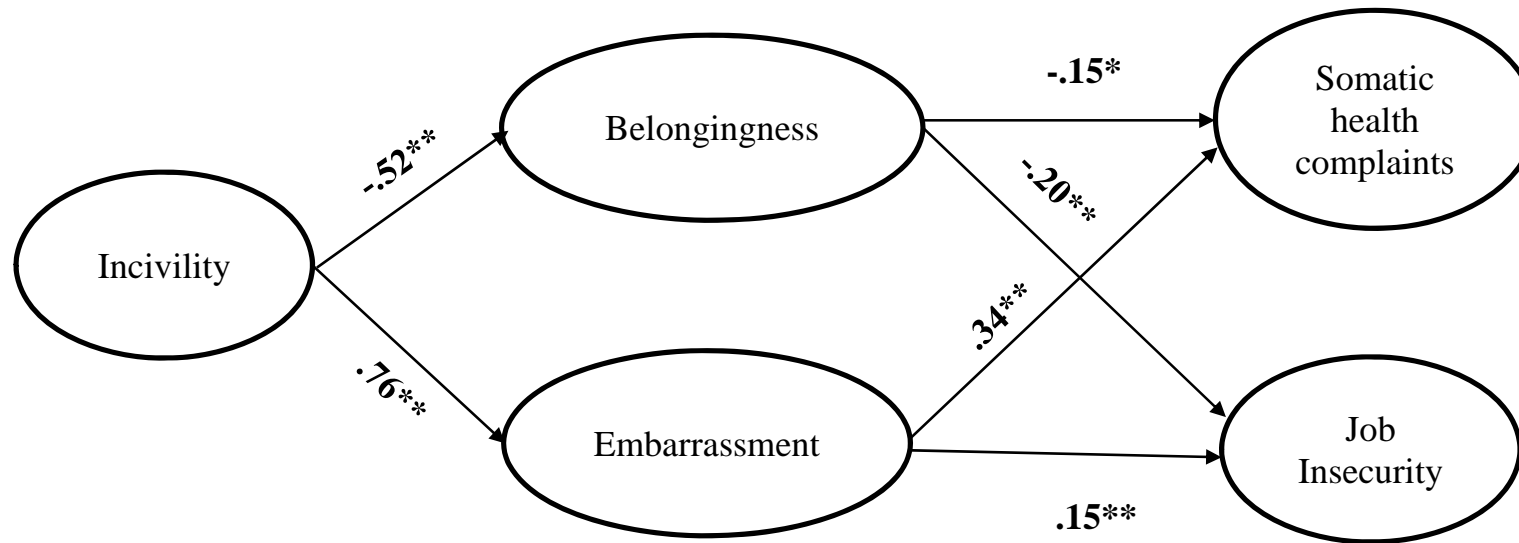


Figure 1. Structural equation modeling (SEM) results – full mediation model (Study 1). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Measurement model not shown. We controlled for the direct of general incivility on the mediators and dependent variables in this model (not shown).

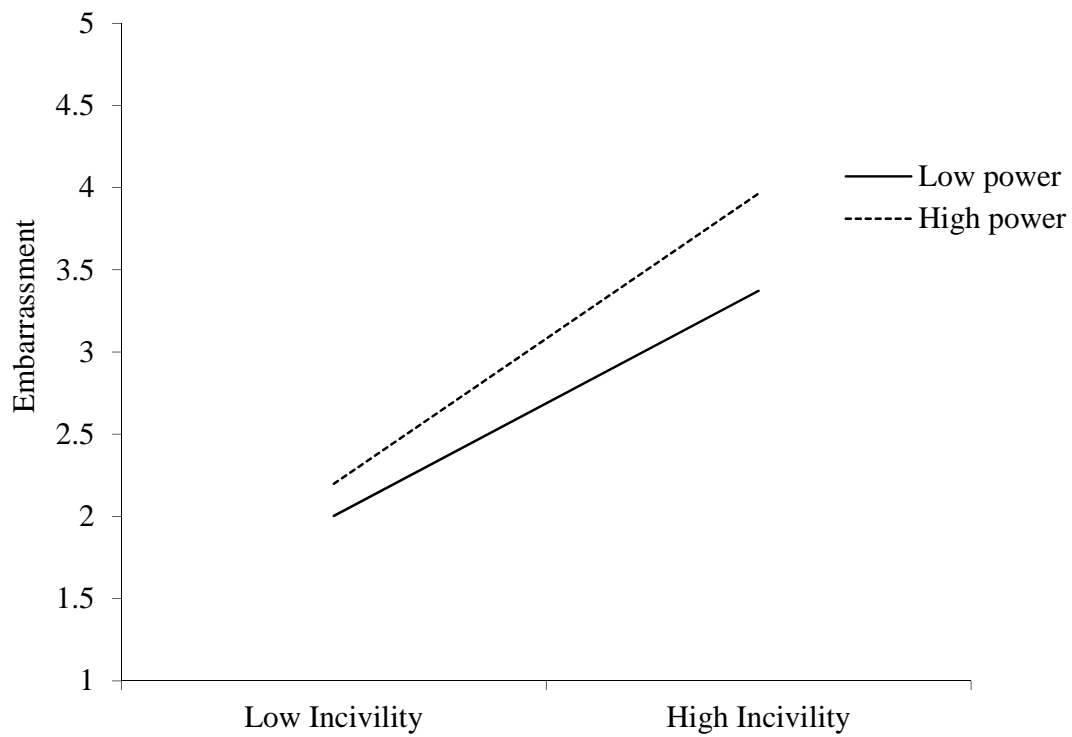


Figure 2. Graphical depiction of the relationship between incivility and embarrassment at different levels of perpetrator formal power within the organization (Study 1).

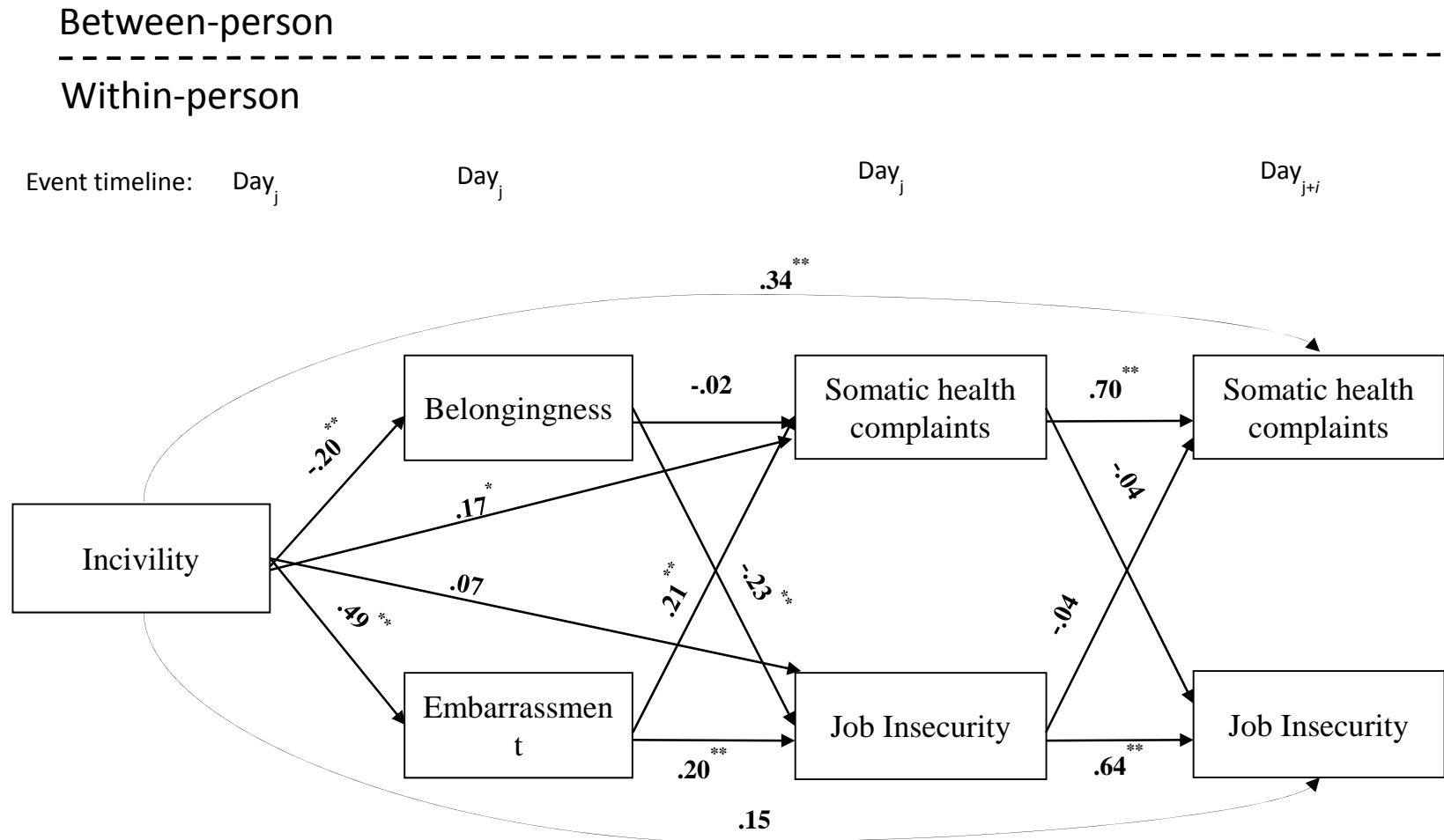


Figure 3. Multilevel structural equation model (MSEM) results - Partial mediation model (Study 2). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. $j+i$ refers to the next measurement day. Estimates are unstandardized. Although not shown at the between-person level, we controlled for direct paths from between-person incivility (average incivility over the study period) on the mediators (between-person belongingness and embarrassment) and the outcome variables (between-person somatic health complaints and job insecurity).

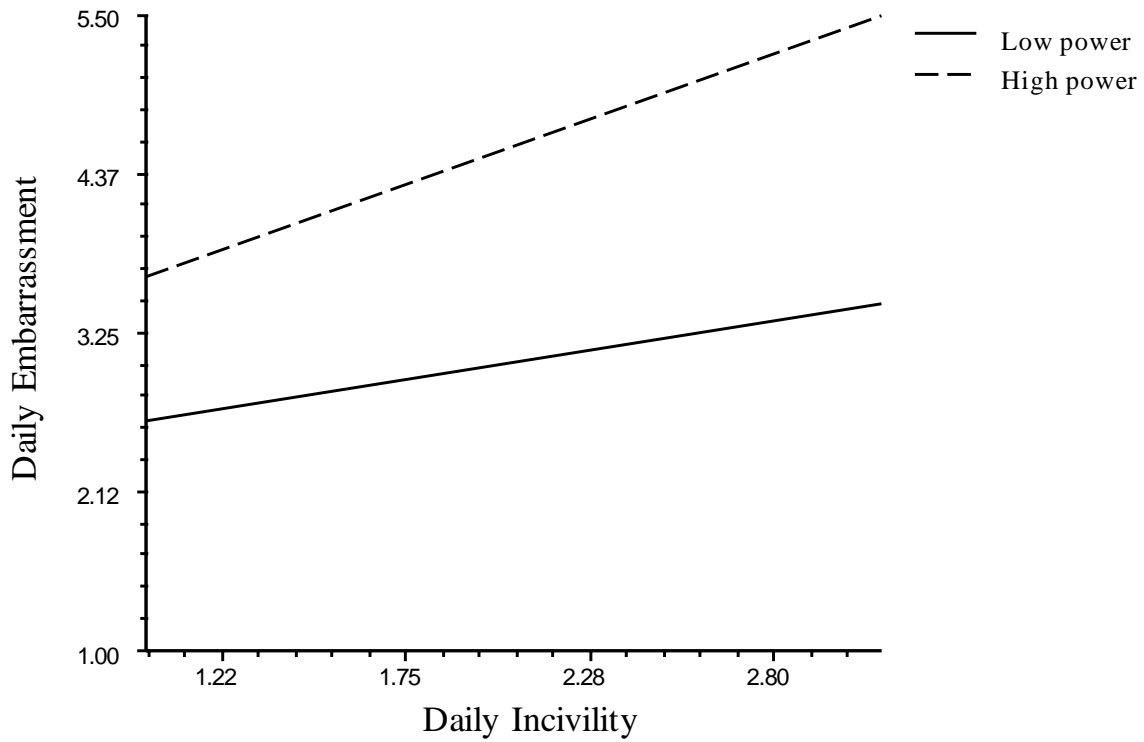


Figure 4. Graphical depiction of the relationship between daily incivility and daily embarrassment at different levels of perpetrator formal power within the organization (Study 2).