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Unintentionally Unethical: How Uncivil Leaders Violate Norms And Hurt Group Performance

Christopher Coultas
University of Central Florida

UNINTENTIONALLY UNETHICAL: HOW UNCIVIL LEADERS VIOLATE NORMS AND HURT GROUP PERFORMANCE

by

CHRIS W. COULTAS
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ABSTRACT

Incivility is a common form of low-grade aggression that lacks a clear intent to harm, that violates community norms and values for interpersonal conduct, and is often chronic in nature (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001). Because of its subtleties, it is difficult at times to detect and even more difficult to prevent. However, it is an essential phenomenon to research, due to its ubiquity and negative impact on worker outcomes such as job satisfaction and psychological health (Cortina et al., 2001). Incivility instigated by those in authority may be an even bigger problem, due to victims' fear of retaliation in the event that they choose to report the incivility (Estes & Wang, 2008). Furthermore, as the global economy shrinks and intercultural interactions become the rule rather than the exception, the norms for "good interpersonal conduct" become blurred, leading to even greater and more frequent incivility (Milam, Spitzmueller, & Penney, 2009; Pearson & Porath, 2005). Yet while it logically follows that incivility may be defined differently across different cultures, little research has been done on this topic. Furthermore, it is unclear how to "fix" the incivility problem in the workplace. Pearson and Porath (2005) suggested that organizational norms strongly endorsing civility could mitigate the occurrence of workplace incivility. The purpose of this research is to test the effects of internal cultural values and external group norms on perceptions of and reactions to leader incivility in a group setting.

To test this, I manipulated leader incivility, cultural values, and group civility norms in a laboratory setting. Participants were exposed to a cultural value prime in which they were primed to endorse either high or low power distance values. Then, in a group setting, participants were presented with either a pro-civility or neutral group norm, and proceeded to engage in a group

discussion with a confederate leader. This confederate leader was inconspicuously selected from among the participants and followed a script in which he consistently engaged in incivility towards both group members while conducting the group discussion. After completing the group discussion, the leader left for leader training and the participants engaged in an interdependent business simulation. At periodic segments throughout the experiment, I assessed participants' affective states as well as their perceptions of interactional justice and intragroup conflict.

Regression analyses generally supported hypotheses regarding the moderating effect of values on perceptions of and reactions to incivility. Power distance predicted individuals' assessment of justice in the face of leader incivility; the interaction effect of power distance values and civility norms approached (but did not achieve) significance. Justice perceptions were strongly negatively correlated with participants' experience of anger; anger was found to mediate the relationship between participants' justice assessments (when the leader was present) and their perceptions of intragroup conflict (when the leader was absent). Power distance values and civility norms both moderated the relationship between anger and individual-level perception of intragroup conflict. At the group level of analysis, relationship conflict negatively predicted group performance, but task conflict positively predicted group performance, when there were pro-civility norms in place. These findings have implications for diverse organizations attempting to promote justice, harmony, and civility within their organizations. Incivility is a nuanced phenomenon and one that is perceived and responded to differently across individuals. Cultural values play a role, but so do organizational norms. Future research is needed to explore further the interactive effects of cultural values and organizational norms, and how organizations can leverage these to prevent the occurrence and negative consequences of workplace incivility.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Ethical leadership and leader integrity are important. If we learn nothing from the recent and ongoing national and global economic crises, we must realize that leaders that embody the key components of integrity are essential. Indeed, ethical failings create conditions ripe for corporate scandals such as those that occurred in Enron, Tyco, and AIG (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Fulmer, 2004) and that largely contributed to the global economic meltdown of 2008 (Kaiser & Hogan, 2010). Yet, ethical leadership is a complex construct – one that is not only comprised of different factors, but that may also be perceived and defined differently by individuals of different cultural values systems (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Resick et al., 2011). If we are to begin to systematically unpack the various psychological and organizational effects of (un)ethical leadership, we must always take care to specify what aspect of ethical leadership we are considering. Research has identified several components of ethical leadership, including such behavioral characteristics as *values role modeling, ethical management, consistency, openness, honesty, respectfulness,* and a host of other positive traits (Resick et al., 2011; Trevino, Brown, & Hartman, 2003). While issues of integrity (e.g., honesty, consistency) are probably the most obvious components of ethical leadership due to their frequent association with major corporate scandals, more mundane civility elements of ethical leadership (e.g., openness, respectfulness) are consistently identified as essential components of ethical leadership. Andersson and Pearson define civility as "treating others with dignity, acting with regard to others' feelings, and preserving the social norms for mutual respect…being polite and demonstrating a sensibility of concern and regard (1999, p.454), with incivility being the abandonment (intentionally or otherwise) of these norms for social interaction. And while this aspect of ethical leadership may

not be as “scandalous” or intriguing as the bases for major ethical scandals, incivility may even be more important to consider, given the increasingly complex and global nature of our economy (Pearson & Porath, 2005).

The intriguing thing about ethical leadership is that while its primary components seem to be consistently endorsed across cultures, they are neither prioritized nor defined completely similarly across cultures (Resick et al., 2011). This is especially true when it comes to the civility component of ethical leadership. Because civility essentially equates to *socially expected* behaviors that facilitate cooperative living, (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), and social expectations are largely driven by culture (Hofstede, 1980; Klein, 2004; Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010), cultural values function as a lens or frame through which individuals and groups can ascribe meaning and define what is considered (un)just, (in)appropriate, (un)civil, and (un)ethical. Brockner and colleagues (2001) succinctly describe the relationship between cultural values and interpersonal injustice (which is, as I argue later, a broader class of behaviors that includes incivility):

> *The more that cultural norms legitimize voice* [i.e., the opportunity to speak up in a group, an element of interpersonal justice], *the more likely are people to respond unfavorably to relatively low levels of voice. Thus, it is not the lack of voice per se to which people object. It is when the lack of voice violates cultural norms that people respond unfavorably (p.301).*

Because sociocultural norms influence the ways in which individuals define and perceive appropriate modes of social interactions (in Brockner and colleagues’ case, voice), they should also affect the way individuals define, perceive, and respond to leader incivility. Indeed, cultural

values have been posited and shown to have a significant effect on shaping what individuals expect from their leaders (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; den Hartog, House, Hanges, & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1999; Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001). Power distance is one cultural value that should be especially relevant when considering leader incivility; power distance refers to the cultural belief that it is appropriate for there to be significant social separation between leaders and followers (Hofstede, 1980). Even just this cursory definition should be sufficient to illustrate the idea that power distance values significantly define the threshold for acceptable levels of leader incivility (read: social distance); specifically, high power distance values are likely to be associated with greater tolerance for leader incivility, which results in leader-follower separation. Another source of social norms is the organizational norms that organizational leaders attempt to impart to employees; this has to do with standard workplace etiquette codes and the overall culture surrounding day-to-day interactions between employees. These organization-level norms may also serve to influence how individuals perceive and respond to leader (or any kind of) incivility (Pearson & Porath, 2005).

Considering the effect of values and norms on the experience of unethical, uncivil leadership is important from more than a perceptual standpoint, however. Andersson and Pearson (1999) posit that incivility directed from one individual may result in incivility spirals – that is, patterns of interaction in which incivility is repaid with (increasingly severe manifestations of) incivility, eventually leading to outright hostility and aggression. Furthermore, they posit that occasionally, individuals may misdirect their retaliation toward innocent bystanders. In the context of workgroups and organizations, this may yield a culture of conflict – one in which collaboration and creativity are stifled, and where competition, politicking, counterproductive

work behaviors, and general dissatisfaction are the primary characteristics of the organization (Lewis, French, & Steane, 1997; Pearson & Porath, 2005). In turn, such an organizational culture may have severely negative consequences in terms of performance criterion such as increased absenteeism and turnover, and diminished corporate image and overall profitability (Estes & Wang, 2008; Pearson & Porath, 2005). It is easy to imagine how spirals of incivility in a small team context might totally derail team process and performance.

Given the impact of outright (e.g., fraud) and subtle (e.g., incivility) unethical leadership, it is important that both the processes through which unethical leadership has its effects and potential interventions for preventing and/or mitigating these effects are considered. Ambrose, Reynolds, and Schminke (2012) pose several interesting questions regarding the role of (un)ethical leadership in organizations. Of these questions, one spoke to the effects of organizational and individual characteristics on ethics in the workplace. Because civility is a key component of ethical leadership (Resick et al., 2011), and because the interpretation and experience of workplace incivility is firmly planted in the framing effect of social norms and values (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Brockner et al., 2001), understanding the complex effects of individual and organizational values on leader incivility is an important step in unpacking the effects of unethical leadership in the workplace. Essentially, I posit that both individually held and organizationally endorsed social values and norms will serve to shape the interpretation of and reaction to workplace (and particularly) leader incivility. To explore this, I: (1) provide a brief review of workplace incivility including the notion of "spirals of incivility" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), (2) hypothesize how cultural values might impact the individual's affective reaction to leader incivility, (3) hypothesize how leader incivility might impact group processes

and performance, and (4) hypothesize how the effects of leader incivility might differ, given cultural values and group social norms. To do this, I tested my hypotheses in a simulated business environment. In so doing, I contribute to the literature by (1) developing a viable laboratory manipulation of leader incivility, (2) exploring the perceptual bases and effects of leader incivility at both the individual and teams levels, (3) and examining the effects of values and norms on incivility.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

What is incivility and why does it matter?

As organizational life becomes more complex – longer shifts, longer weeks, more ethnically and culturally diverse coworkers – it seems people may be questioning whether they have time to be civil. Recent research suggests that workplace incivility may be at epidemic proportions – Pearson and Porath (2005) report that nearly 80 percent of workers believe that incivility is a major problem, and that 20 percent actually are victims of incivility on a weekly basis; so researching incivility is not simply an exercise in academic futility. But what exactly *is* workplace incivility? Andersson and Pearson provide the seminal definition, defining it as "low intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect." They also note that these behaviors are "characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (1999, p.457).

In their seminal article, Andersson and Pearson take great pains to distinguish incivility from other forms of interpersonal mistreatment within organizations (e.g., antisocial behavior, deviant behavior, violence, and aggression). Suffice it to say that incivility is the least intense and most ambiguous of all types of antisocial and deviant behaviors. But despite its lack of intensity, incivility may have very real effects on individuals and organizations. Indeed, incivility has been linked to decreased LMX (Walumbwa et al., 2011), and increased stress, depression, and psychological distress (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001). Furthermore, when people experience an interpersonal injustice (which is a related construct to incivility) such as disrespect or ostracism, they have negative affective reactions, for example, anger, depression,

and anxiety (Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998; Miller, 2001).

Incivility and interpersonal injustice

As I argue and others have argued previously (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Blau & Andersson, 2005; Cortina, 2008; Penney & Spector, 2005), there is a great degree of similarity between incivility and interpersonal injustice. Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng define interpersonal justice as "the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect" throughout the process of procedural decisions and outcomes (2001, p.427). Lacking politeness, interpersonal dignity, or respect certainly overlaps with notions of interpersonal norm violation and disrespectfulness apparent in incivility. Indeed, Blau and Andersson (2005) found a strong correlation between reports of specific instances of incivility and individuals' perceptions of interpersonal injustice.

But despite the similarities between these two constructs, they are not exactly the same. Penney and Spector (2005) note that though incivility equates to the respect components of interactional justice, interactional justice traditionally refers to the manner in which procedural decisions are made. So, in one respect, incivility is broader because it is not tied to the situation of procedural decisions. Despite this situational broadness, incivility is often assessed in reference to the occurrence of specific behaviors (as opposed to a broadly "unjust" pattern of interactions). Measures of incivility (cf., Blau & Andersson, 2005) are concerned with specific behaviors, asking questions such as "Has [he/she] paid little attention to a statement you made or showed little interest in your opinion" or "Has [he/she] doubted your judgment in a matter over which you have responsibility?" On the other hand, measures of interpersonal justice (cf.,

Brockner et al., 2001; Colquitt, 2001) ask participants broader questions such as “Has he/she treated you in a polite manner,” or “Has he/she treated you with respect?” While the questions are typically in reference to a procedural decision, questions of general politeness and respect are applicable to a host of situations; indeed, this broad conceptualization of interpersonal justice beyond the realm of procedural decisions has precedent in the literature (cf., Spencer & Rupp, 2009). Ultimately, I submit that while incivility and interpersonal injustice do differ in terms of the scope of their behavioral manifestations, the victim’s psychological experience of incivility is basically equivalent, whether one frames it as incivility or an interpersonal injustice. In other words, all uncivil behaviors are interpersonally unjust (broadly construed), in that they deny an individual their right to respect and dignity.

Incivility and the organization

Beyond these individual cognitive (i.e., justice) and affective (especially anger) reactions, workplace incivility can result in “spirals of incivility,” in which individuals repay incivility with increasingly intense forms of incivility, eventually moving into the realms of outright aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Furthermore, this incivility can lead to an organizational culture of dissatisfaction and conflict (Estes & Wang, 2008; Lewis et al., 1997). This possibility is even more salient when it comes to leader-initiated incivility. Leaders, especially unethical ones, may be particularly prone to engaging in uncivil behaviors (Tepper; 2000; Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006; Trevino et al., 2003), because they realize that their position of organizational authority often exempts them from retaliation or punishment (Pearson & Porath, 2005). It should be noted here that though an unethical leader may in fact behave uncivilly intentionally, due to a

general lack of regard for others – this remains "incivility" so long as the intensity is so low as to maintain ambiguity of intent. And because leaders set the "tone at the top" (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009), they also have a large part in determining whether the norms for a given group or organization will be reflective of civility or incivility. The ethics and civility that leaders exhibit serve as a cue for individuals, teams, and the organization as a whole to define what is considered "ethical," "civil," and broadly speaking, "acceptable." My research shows the effects of leader incivility at both the individual and the teams level.

Individual level affect can also have important effects on group process (e.g., conflict, communication, cohesion) and performance through emotional contagion (Barsade, 2002; Barsade & Gibson, 2007). In other words, individuals experiencing and displaying anger (reacting to incivility) may cue other group members that this incivility is something worth being angry about. Furthermore, the Target similarity model (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007) posits that justice cues from one social actor (e.g., a leader) can be attributed to other actors (e.g., the organization itself). Finally, at a purely logistical level, work team members necessarily interact with their fellow team members more frequently than they do their team leaders; given this reality, it is plausible that leaders engage in "hit-and-run incivility" so to speak, in which a leader behaves uncivilly and then leaves the presence of the target. In situations such as these, the target may be inclined to transfer his/her anger and sense of injustice onto fellow team members (i.e., readily available targets). So while leader incivility may begin with a few simple unpleasant interactions between leader and follower, this follower may in turn, either affectively/unconsciously or behaviorally (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), actually perpetuate this

incivility and conflict at the group level (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Because of the complex effects of leader incivility on both individuals and groups, the effects of leader incivility are considered from both an individual- as well as a teams-level perspective.

Individual level experiences of leader incivility

To understand the effects of leader incivility on groups and organizations, it is first necessary to understand how leader incivility impacts individual followers. To explain these effects at the individual level, we consider follower cognition, affect, and behavioral responses, and accordingly pull primarily from theories such as Affective Events Theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and justice theory (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Tyler & Bies, 1990). AET posits that (1) workplace events ("affective events") elicit both affective and cognitive/judgmental responses, (2) these responses drive individual behavior, and (3) individual differences and environmental/organizational characteristics moderate these relationships. Broadly speaking, I frame leader incivility as an "affective event" that elicits both cognitive/attitudinal (i.e., justice) and affective (i.e., anger) reactions. However, in line with Affective Events Theory, I acknowledge the effects that individual differences (e.g., power distance) may have on individuals' perceptions of affective events. This may be even truer in the case of leader incivility, which is by definition, "low intensity…with ambiguous intent to harm" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; p.457). This means that what one person perceives as violating social norms and expectations (i.e., uncivil) and eliciting anger, another person may perceive as standard day-to-day operations (i.e., civil). As I noted in the introduction, one way of understanding how individuals respond to incivility is through the lens of cultural values.

Cultural values represent the way groups of individuals have been "programmed" to perceive and interact with the world (Hofstede, 1980). While there are multiple well-studied cultural values (cf., Hofstede & Bond, 1984; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta,; 2004; Triandis, 1996), I consider power distance (PD) due to its relevance to leader-follower interactions (and particularly, incivility). Power distance refers to individuals' (and their aggregate groups') perceptions of the normality and fairness of differentially distributed power (den Hartog et al., 1999; Hofstede, 1980; Maznevski, DiStefano, Gomez, Noorderhaven, & Wu, 2002), and consistently emerges as a predictor of attitudes regarding leadership. In a recent meta-analysis spanning three decades of culture research, Taras and colleagues (2010) show that PD is significantly related to preference for directive ($\rho = 0.33$) over participative leadership ($\rho = -0.15$). Tyler, Lind, and Huo (2000), note the theoretical connection between PD values and perceptions of leader incivility using the relational model of authority. They posit that low PD subordinates inherently feel socially closer to their superiors than do high PD subordinates; so when low PD individuals experience disrespect and incivility from their leaders, there is significant cognitive dissonance – they don't see why someone who is their social equal would treat them in such a manner. Reversing this logic, it follows that individuals holding high PD values (which imply strong expectations of social differences between leader and follower) should not perceive leader incivility as categorically unjust. Another way of framing this is that individuals holding low PD values should attend more to interpersonal justice cues (especially originating from leaders) than do individuals holding higher PD values. This is because for low PD individuals, interpersonal justice cues may be used as a barometer to gauge whether leaders are acting in accordance with their cultural values. Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki, and Jones (2011)

found meta-analytic support for this idea – showing that the *justice* (broadly construed) to outcomes (e.g., performance) relationship is significantly stronger for low PD individuals. They state their theoretical rationale for this finding – "people in high power distance cultures are more likely to defer to power and perceive the (un)fair treatment from a high-status person as morally acceptable" (Shao et al., 2011, p.12). Extending this logic to the domain of workplace incivility, I propose that because incivility constitutes a form of interpersonal injustice (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Colquitt et al., 2001; Miller, 2001), high PD individuals should be less offended by leader incivility than low PD individuals.

H1a: Individuals higher in power distance will rate the leader's incivility less negatively than will individuals lower in power distance.

Not only does uncivil behavior elicit cognitive assessments incivility, but they will elicit emotional reactions as well (Mikula et al., 1998; Miller, 2001). As we have already discussed, perceptions of interpersonal justice are a major cognitive mechanism through which incivility is processed. However, incivility is not merely a cognitive assessment of social inequity – affect plays an important role (Mikula et al., 1998; Miller, 2001). This link makes intuitive sense – incivility robs the individual of what s/he feels to be an entitlement (personal respect), accordingly resulting in negative affect, particularly anger. The negative affective ramifications of constructs closely linked to incivility (e.g., ostracism, abusive supervision) have also been found lead directly to depression, irritability, exhaustion, and social disengagement (cf., Bezrukova, Spell, & Perry, 2010; Elovainio, Kivimaki, & Vahtera, 2002; Tepper et al., 2006). I emphasize anger over other emotions because past research on injustice (Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000; Spencer & Rupp, 2009; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999) and on

incivility (Phillips & Smith, 2004; Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001; Porath, Macinnis, & Folkes, 2010) have found a strong connection between these constructs and anger. I understand that this claim does not add much to our understanding of incivility, however, it is helpful to clearly lay out this cognition-affect link, if we are to better understand how leader incivility has its persistent effects (discussed subsequently).

H1b: Individuals who perceive higher levels of leader incivility will also report higher levels of anger in response to this incivility.

Incivility and team conflict

Andersson and Pearson (1999) suggest that when individuals become victims of incivility, they may either reciprocate in kind or misdirect their anger. Obviously, if individuals misdirect their behavioral responses to their fellow teammates, it is conceivable that leader incivility will actually lead to higher levels of group conflict. To fully lay out this argument, I pull from theoretical models of team process (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001; Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Emerson, 1976), the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), and the Target Similarity Model (Lavelle et al., 2007). Broadly speaking, the perceived injustice associated with incivility (discussed above) breeds anger, and this anger then has the potential to get misdirected (leading to group conflict); however, as I argue later, cultural values and social norms may mitigate or enhance this anger to conflict relationship.

It should be noted at the outset that I consider team conflict from an individual, perceptual approach (i.e., configural), rather than a team-level consensus or agreement angle. Individual

behaviors and perceptions can converge and diverge in different ways, affecting group level outcomes (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). This distinction is important to make because most measures of group conflict are taken at the individual level (i.e., self-report) and then aggregated to the group level; however, it is not appropriate to consider this a group-level construct unless there is a substantial amount of within-group agreement (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). As I argue below, there is often substantial variation in conflict perceptions due to individual differences (e.g., power distance values). The effect of this is that group process perceptions (e.g., conflict, communication) often fail to converge to the group level in heterogeneous teams (Jehn, Rispens, & Thatcher, 2010). Configural conceptualizations of team processes are often more appropriate than aggregated conceptualizations. Configural conceptualizations do not aggregate team members' perceptions of group processes; rather, they consider the patterning of individual perceptions within a group. However, there must be a strong theoretical reason to consider group process from a configural, and not consensus or aggregate, perspective (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). Jehn and colleagues (2010) recently acknowledged the often configural nature of intragroup conflict perceptions, and found that within-group *variance* (a configural approach to conflict) of conflict perceptions was a significant predictor of group performance. They argued that substantial within-group variance of conflict perceptions evinces dissimilarity between team members' teamwork mental models, an essential component of team performance (Smith-Jentsch et al., 2008).

Another condition in which configural approaches to team process are appropriate is when tasks are conjunctive. In conjunctive tasks, exceptional performance from one member cannot compensate for poor performance by another; accordingly, the success of the team is largely

determined by the "weakest link," because their inferiority puts a ceiling on potential team performance (Barry & Stewart, 1997; Moynihan & Peterson, 2000; Steiner, 1972). Therefore, in conjunctive tasks, it is most appropriate to consider group process from a configural, and specifically a "minimum/maximum" perspective. This extends to perceptions of intragroup conflict. This is because in a conjunctive task, if one individual perceives a high degree of conflict (for example) and as a result, withholds effort, information, or any other resources necessary to task performance, it will be the level of conflict that this one individual perceives (as opposed to the mean consensus levels of group conflict) that most strongly predicts group performance. This configural approach accounts for the multilevel approach to leader incivility, group processes, and performance used in my research.

The incivility carryover effect

These negative effects can spill over to third parties as well through social contagion processes (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), instigating new incivility spirals (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Taken together, it follows that incivility breeds intragroup conflict. The links between anger, hostility, aggression, and conflict are intuitive and well-documented (Greer & Jehn, 2007; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Anger affects the way individuals behave and perceive behaviors – angry people are more likely to punish others indiscriminately (Lerner, Goldberg, & Tetlock, 1998) and to perceive various events as hostile and/or threatening (Litvak, Lerner, Tiedens, & Shonk, 2010). I extend existing research on negative affect and conflict to the realm of incivility, providing further evidence that "spirals of incivility" (Andersson & Pearson, 199) actually do occur, as mediated by individuals' negative affective reactions to leader incivility. Many times, the reason for this misdirected incivility may be due to the brevity of the instigating occurrence

or the social/organizational status of the instigator – this is often true in cases of leader instigated incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Beugre, 2005; Pearson & Porath, 2005). The Target Similarity Model (Lavelle et al., 2007), which is based strongly on theories of social exchange and justice, posits that while connections between justice and organizational citizenship behaviors are strongest at the event level (i.e., justice from a coworker will lead to reciprocal OCBs directed toward that coworker), these links may span multiple targets and levels (e.g., justice from a coworker might encourage organizationally-directed OCBs). I argue that Andersson and Pearson's (1999) notion of "spirals of incivility" might basically equate to the "dark side" of the Target Similarity Model. Essentially, as I argued above, incivility leads individuals to experience negative affect, and more specifically, anger. However, discrete emotional states often lead to more global moods (Feldman-Barrett & Gross, 2009; Reis & Gray, 2009). So where cognitive assessments of leader incivility may be linked strictly to the leader, the generalized negative affect and anger (i.e., mood) is likely to persist and impact individuals' perceptions and behaviors at later points in time (Han et al., 2007). Furthermore, it is possible that the negative affect experienced by individuals as a result of this is automatically conveyed to other group members, and from there converted into negative interpersonal behaviors (i.e., conflict), a la social contagion processes (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Accordingly, I argue that anger will mediate individuals' perception of injustice and their experience of relationship conflict with peers. I specify relationship conflict because it is largely unrelated to task consensus (Jehn, 1995); relationship conflict is personal and task-irrelevant. Given the nature of relationship conflict, it follows that misdirected anger emanating from leader incivility would be at the personal, and not task levels, at least initially. In other words, there is no real reason to

think that anger at the leader would directly result in task relevant conflict among team members, though individuals' generally angry mood should create an atmosphere conducive to relationship conflict.

H2a: The link between individuals' perception of leader incivility and intragroup relationship conflict will be mediated by their experience of anger.

Just because incivility-based anger might immediately cause relationship conflict, this does not preclude a more indirect relationship between incivility, anger, and relationship and task conflict. Recently, Yang and Mossholder (2004) proposed that relationship and task conflict do not always occur in tandem – they argued that task conflict breeds relationship conflict when the team does not have the resources (e.g., emotional, conflict management) needed to correctly leverage task conflict. On the same token, I argue that teams that start with low levels of relationship conflict will be less susceptible to task conflict, as team members more equitably share roles and responsibilities, and more civilly discuss ideas and strategies. This idea – that lower levels of relationship conflict are associated with more "fluid" group processes – has different names: friendship (Shah & Jehn, 1993), cohesion (Ensley & Pearson, 2005), trust and respect (Jehn & Mannix, 2001), even homogeneity (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; Mohammed & Angell, 2004). Ultimately, teams with good internal social relations (i.e., low relationship conflict) will be less likely to have negative disagreements about decision-making strategies, divisions of labor, and other possible task-relevant disagreements, either because (1) their similar social interactions cause them to overlook task performance disagreements (e.g., Jehn et al., 1999), or (2) their more effective social interactions enable them to achieve task consensus without perceiving these interactions as "conflict." Obviously, the inverse of this is

equally true – teams with high levels of anger (and ensuing relationship conflict) will be more likely to exhibit higher levels of task conflict.

H2b: The link between individuals' perception of leader incivility and intragroup task conflict will be mediated by individuals' experience of anger and relationship conflict.

Civility norms and relationship conflict

I have already argued that individuals' experience of anger will lead to their experience of conflict. However, there are conditions when this should not hold true. One of these conditions is when organizations endorse norms of high interpersonal civility. It has been suggested that civility norms may be the best way to stem the tide of spirals of incivility (Pearson & Porath, 2005). Essentially, what is being argued is that pro-civility organizational norms may influence individuals to "take the high road" and abstain from retaliatory incivility. However, as I argue below civility norms have more complex effects than a simple, positive, main effect. Therefore, it is vital to understand them before strongly endorsing pro-civility norms.

My argument is much the same as the one I made for the perceptual, values-based nature of incivility. Conflict has been defined as "an awareness on the part of the parties involved of discrepancies, incompatible wishes, or irreconcilable desires" (Jehn & Mannix, 2001, p.238). Because assessments of conflict are predicated upon individuals' "awareness" of its occurrence and severity, conflict is not labeled or experienced as such unless it passes a threshold and violates expectations of interpersonal cooperation or harmony (cf., Brockner et al., 2001). Civility norms serve this function – they define what behaviors should be considered as "appropriate" (e.g., unjust, or unnecessary levels of conflict). Affective Events Theory (Weiss &

Cropanzano, 1996) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), which both discuss the importance of workplace environmental characteristics or subjective norms (respectively), are particularly relevant here. These theories argue that workplace behaviors are driven by a complex interaction of affect and cognitions, which are influenced by workplace events as well as the larger workplace environment. Similarly, it has been argued that perceptions of injustice create an initial internal emotional reaction, as well as a secondary, organizationally-adjusted emotional reaction (Rupp, McCance, Spencer, & Sonnetag, 2008). Prior empirical research has also shown the effects that organizational norms can have on the affect to conflict relationship (cf., Beugre, 2005; Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005; Matthews & Norris, 2006). I now apply this to the context of leader incivility and civility norms. As I have already argued, leader incivility represents a workplace event that elicits both judgmental and affective responses (e.g., anger). However, organizational norms likely influence the degree to which individuals feel comfortable venting their anger. The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) posits that perceived behavioral control and subjective norms (both components of team or organizational norms) affect individual intentionality and behavior. In the case of pro-civility norms, individuals who accept these norms should typically be less likely to exhibit and experience conflict behaviors, because that norm is limiting their perceived behavioral control and defining incivility and conflict as a subjectively desirable thing. However, when it is *leadership* that violates these norms, this effect may actually be reversed. As I noted above, leaders can set the ethical/social/civil standards within an organization (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Mayer et al., 2009). That being said, when the leader engages in incivility, in contradiction of explicitly stated pro-civility norms, followers will perceive this incivility as more situationally acceptable, and

they will thus feel morally justified to vent their anger by engaging in misdirected retaliatory incivility. In other words, it is the leader's uncivil behavior that situationally defines what it means to be civil. Obviously, teams that are characterized by this pattern of incivility (disrespect, civility norm violations), this is conceptually related to having heightened levels of relationship conflict and emotional tension.

H3a: Group civility norms will moderate the individual anger to relationship conflict link, such that for individuals in low civility teams, there will be no relationship, and for individuals in high civility teams, there will be a positive relationship.

Multiple value systems and conflict

Civility norms may consistently moderate the anger to relationship conflict link; however, civility norms and PD values should jointly impact the degree to which individuals' experience of anger yields relationship conflict. As argued above, civility norms should moderate this link such that for individuals in high civility teams, there would be a positive correlation between anger and relationship conflict. Essentially, I argue that PD impacts the degree to which individuals endorse group-level civility norms, thus determining the degree to which those norms affect the anger to conflict relationship. Prior research has not looked at this directly, but related research on organizational commitment, as well as work on person-organization fit, intimates this phenomenon. Fischer and Mansell (2009) used meta-analytic techniques to show that individuals high in PD reported higher levels of organizational commitment (specifically, normative and continuance). Power distance has also often been linked to acceptance of autocratic, top-down leadership (Lachman, Nedd, & Hinings, 1994; Vega & Comer, 2005). Thus, it seems that individuals high in PD are more likely to commit to and endorse top-down

organizational values than would individuals low in PD. Kaushai and Kwantes (2006) found that vertical individualists and collectivists (i.e., those higher in PD) tended to have higher levels of dominating conflict resolution styles, suggesting a more conflict-oriented nature. They did not consider the target of conflict resolution, nor the affective state of the individual, rather, they looked at general styles of conflict resolution. But given that individuals have more frequent conflict resolution experiences with peers rather than leaders, it is reasonable to assume the link between PD and a dominating conflict resolution style should extrapolate to peer-oriented conflict situations. Essentially, I argue that individuals who are high in power distance, who encounter an uncivil leader in the context of a pro-civility team, will actually see this leader's interaction style as more situationally appropriate (if still uncivil), and will be more likely to engage in further uncivil/relationship conflict behaviors.

H3b: Power distance values will moderate the interactive effects of civility norms on the link between anger and relationship conflict, such that the anger-relationship conflict link will be positive for high power distance individuals in pro-civility teams.

Incivility, conflict, and team performance

Incivility can also be devastating beyond the cognitive and affective level. When individuals disrespect one another, these uncivil interchanges can spiral out of control towards outright aggression, or even get misdirected towards innocent bystanders (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). As this happens with increasing frequency and severity, over time, an organizational culture of conflict emerges (Lewis et al., 1997; Pearson & Porath, 2005). In these environments,

teams and organizations will likely experience significant performance decrements as a result of this constant conflict (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Theory and research both show that teams in conflict perform worse because team resources are diverted from task performance toward conflict management efforts (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). To better understand the effects of incivility and conflict on group performance, I pull from literature on team processes and organizational culture.

When considering conflict and performance, it is important to specify whether and how incivility will affect relationship and task conflict (DeDreu & Weingart, 2003). More than a decade ago, Jehn (1995) argued that one of these conditions was the type of conflict and the type of task. She hypothesized that task conflict (i.e., regarding processes and components of the task and labor) could be valuable at times, whereas relationship conflict (i.e., regarding personal, task-irrelevant content) was nearly always damaging to team performance. The idea was that for non-routine tasks, moderate levels of task conflict could help team members clarify what their roles and responsibilities were, and as a result, team performance would rise. DeDreu and Weingart (2003) tested these assumptions in a meta-analysis of over 20 effect sizes, and found no differences between the negative effects of task and relationship conflict (ρ = -0.23 and -0.22, respectively). In a more recent meta-analysis, the negative effects of relationship conflict on team performance were further verified (de Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012).

However, the task versus relationship conflict perspective still holds some appeal (e.g., Farh, Lee, & Farh, 2010; Lu et al., 2009; Yang & Mossholder, 2004). Furthermore, De Dreu and Weingart reported that of the 25 studies they looked at, five reported positive relationships between task conflict and team performance, whereas relationship conflict was always harmful

to performance. It is thus conceivable that there may be moderating conditions that make task (but not relationship) conflict desirable for driving team performance. Indeed, in a recent meta-analysis, de Wit and colleagues (2012) found that the negative relationship between task conflict and performance was not as consistent as was previously thought. They found that low levels of task conflict can be helpful; furthermore, task conflict was positively associated with performance when occurred in top management teams, and when performance was construed as financial performance. My research serves to further our understanding of task and relationship conflict and the conditions under which task conflict might be beneficial.

H4a: Relationship conflict will have a consistent negative effect on team performance.

One of these conditions is likely the civility norms of the group. Past research has found that team-level conditions, such as procedural justice climate (Greer & Jehn, 2007) and shared mental models (Smith-Jentsch, Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 2008), can influence the effects of team process on performance. Greer and Jehn (2007) found that when team justice climate was high, the negative effects of team negative affect were diminished, allowing helpful process conflict to positively influence team performance. Smith-Jentsch and colleagues (2008) showed that teamwork norms and mental models (developing through team training) have positive effects on group process and performance. The main mechanism behind teamwork training is the development of teamwork mental models – or a shared definition of "what it means to be a team." When individual team members are on the same page regarding how their team should operate, it will operate more smoothly. The common theme spanning these two studies is displayed in Jehn and Bendersky's (2003) chapter on intragroup conflict. They note that external conditions can moderate the effects of team process (specifically, conflict) on team

performance. Specifically, they note that "acceptability norms" (i.e., group norms that define acceptable modes for group interaction) should amplify the effects (be they positive or negative) of conflict on group performance.

My study expands this theory into the domain of workplace incivility. As I have argued, incivility is closely associated with relationship conflict, and indirectly linked with task conflict. In terms of task versus relationship conflict, it follows that teams with pro-civility norms should be less likely to perceive task conflict as a personal attack on the self. In other words, when pro-civility normed teams do engage in conflict, they engage in civil, task conflict, rather than uncivil relationship conflict. On the other hand, when low civility teams experience conflict, it happens under the assumption that these conflict behaviors are uncivil, unhelpful, and unnecessary, even if their content is about the task. Accordingly, I argue that moderate task conflict can actually be helpful, but only when it is in the context of a high civility team where individual team members are encouraged to remain mutually respectful.

H4b: Group civility norms will moderate the relationship between task conflict and group performance, such that task conflict will have positive effects on performance when the team has high, but not low, civility norms.

A multilevel model of incivility in teams

The model is admittedly complex, and so it warrants a brief summative explanation which integrates the above hypotheses. I do not here seek to further justify the aforementioned theoretical arguments, merely to provide a big-picture explanation of the model. As I have explained it leader incivility has its effects on group performance through three key components

– anger, relationship conflict, and task conflict. Furthermore, these experiences are (to different degrees) affected by individuals' power distance values and the civility norms of the organization within which they work. Individuals perceive leader incivility (this perception is influenced by their PD values), which results in anger. This discrete emotion may yield a negative, angered mood, which may breed relationship conflict with other group members; however, when group civility norms are strong, they may be *more* inclined to engage in relationship conflict (this effect will be even stronger when individuals espouse high PD values). When this relationship conflict does occur, teams are at risk for greater task conflict. Finally, while relationship conflict will always be harmful to team performance, when teams have pro-civility norms, task conflict will actually be positively linked to team performance. Thus, leader incivility will typically have negative effects on team performance (through heightened relationship conflict), though it may positively influence performance if teams effectively engage in task conflict. See Figure 1.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants were 210 undergraduate students from a large university in the southeastern United States. Participants signed up through the university's participant recruitment system, through which they received extra credit. Of the 210 students, 174 of these participants yielded usable data; of these 174 participants, 133 participants reported their gender (57.1% female). I did not collect other demographic data such as race or age, but all participants were traditional undergraduate students (i.e., in terms of age). Participants were grouped in teams of two (three, if including the confederate leader), but were not pre-screened in any way, nor were they matched on gender. At the group level of analysis, 81 out of the available 86 teams were usable, because they had complete performance data. Out of these teams, 31 teams did not fully report their gender; of those that reported, 10 teams were all-male, 21 teams were all-female, and 24 teams were mixed-gender teams.

Procedure

In this study, I did not include uncivil and civil leader conditions, largely because the effects of incivility are both self-evident and well documented (cf., Cortina et al., 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005); rather, the focus was on how PD values and civility norms would impact the negative effects that leader incivility would have on individual and group processes and performance. Accordingly, participants were randomly assigned to be in one of four conditions (high PD/pro-civility norms, high PD/neutral civility norms, low PD/pro-

civility norms, low PD, neutral civility norms). Participants were grouped in teams of three (one member was the confederate leader), took several individual difference measures, and then received a prime and manipulation check for PD values. After the manipulation check, participants engaged in a 10 minute group discussion task (described subsequently) with the confederate leader. Participants then responded to electronic survey items regarding their experience in the group discussion. Then, participants completed a 25 minute decision-making task, TINSEL TOWN (Devine, Habig, Martin, Bott, & Grayson, 2004). I used this simulation because it is a moderately complex task that is ideal to test the impact of affective events on individual and team processes, because it is a conjunctive, intellective, hidden-profile task. In a recent meta-analysis, Mesmer-Magnus and Dechurch (2009) showed that task type moderated the relationship between information sharing and team performance, such that intellective (i.e., having an objective solution), hidden profile tasks (i.e., when team members have differentially distributed information that is important to team performance) exhibited the strongest information sharing to performance relationship.

In this task, performance is dependent upon the degree to which participants share and effectively integrate uniquely held information in such a way that they make an effective decision. Participants must be able to read their unique information, interpret it, gauge its importance, and communicate this information to their team member; it is the responsibility of the team to make a joint decision that incorporates this information. Finally, participants reported their experiences with their teammate within the decision-making task through the electronic survey system. Participants were then thanked and debriefed regarding the nature of the study and the deception. All data (excepting the objective performance data from the TINSEL TOWN

task) were collected electronically through the online survey software, Qualtrics.

Manipulations

Power distance. Cultural values are engrained patterns of thinking, but studies have shown that they can be manipulated in the short term with the proper techniques (Oyserman & Lee, 2008). Oyserman and Lee (2008) in a recent meta-analysis showed that a common cultural prime, the "Sumerian warrior," a fictional story in which an ancient warrior is guided by either values of individualism or collectivism, consistently brought about the largest effect sizes in impacting cultural values. Another common prime for individualism/collectivism was "pronoun circling," in which participants were required to circle either individual or group-oriented pronouns in a block of text. However, to date, no prime for PD exists. Accordingly, I developed a prime of hierarchical PD that synthesizes these two approaches. Participants read a credible online business article about the success of an upstart online company. In this article, a journalist is interviewing a department manager who attributes the source of the company's success largely in part to the power structure (rigid or loose, depending on condition) of the company. After reading this article, participants re-read the article and looked for excerpts from the article that indicated the power structure of the company. The full prime can be found in the Appendix (Appendices A, B, and C). Before and after this manipulation, I measured participants' power distance values (as a manipulation check).

I chose to manipulate power distance, rather than simply measuring it or selecting for it, for one main reason. Because of the focus on culture, it was necessary to maximize the amount of variance between participants' cultural values. However, by using a largely undergraduate

sample at one United States university, cultural variance was obviously restricted. Priming power distance was an effective way to increase this variance.

Civility norms. As previously mentioned, Pearson and Porath (2005) have suggested that the best way to preclude the negative effects of workplace incivility are to foster pro-civility organizational norms, and to punish incivility when it does occur. Because it would be suspiciously inconsistent for the confederate leader to propose and endorse pro-civility norms and then proceed to immediately contradict them, it was not the confederate leader who developed these civility norms. Rather, I considered the experimenter to be a proxy for a formal, external leader (cf., Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010), so the experimenter was the one who primed participants for group civility norms. To prime participants to endorse high civility norms, the experimenter read the following script:

> *One brief thing to mention before you begin the group discussion. Because this is a UCF sponsored study, your group discussion needs to be polite and professional. This means you should treat everyone with consideration and respect, regardless of the group's task. Does everyone agree that those are fair rules for a group?*

To ensure that differences were due to the civil nature of the prime, and not simply due to the extra guidance given to pro-civility groups, I developed a civility-neutral prime. I opted to make the prime neutral (as opposed to blatantly anti-civility) to maintain a maximal level of realism – few organizations would explicitly endorse incivility. Furthermore, by avoiding construct transparency, participants would not be clued in to the fact that I was actually studying incivility. The neutral civility prime consisted of the following:

> *One brief thing to mention before you begin the group discussion. Because this is a UCF*

sponsored study, your group discussion needs to be productive above all else. This means you shouldn't worry about making friends with your group members, but rather, your group's interaction should be focused and to the point. Does everyone agree that those are fair rules for a group?

After achieving consensus agreement, the experimenter would allow the group to begin the group discussion task.

Leader instigated incivility. After completing the PD prime (in which there is an apparent performance component that measures business knowledge), the experimenter returned to the simulation room and informed the participants that the confederate leader scored the highest on the test of business knowledge and would therefore be requested to lead the forthcoming group discussion. The experimenter handed the confederate leader a binder filled with group discussion prompts and questions which the group was required to answer; participants were informed that whatever the leader decided to write down in the binder was what would be taken into consideration for the purposes of the study. By apparently selecting the leader on the basis of skill, and providing the leader with extra responsibility (i.e., leading the discussion), and authority (i.e., making the final say in terms of what is submitted to the experimenter), the confederate leader manipulation more closely mirrored elements of leadership in a real-world business context (French & Raven, 1959; Morgeson et al., 2010; Presthus, 1960)

Participants then engaged in the group discussion session, led by one of three confederates. For 10 minutes, the confederate read through the prompts in the binder (which also include a generic script with how to respond uncivilly towards participants) and asked participants to answer a series of questions regarding how one would run a movie production

company. Though this group discussion was somewhat relevant to the following team performance task in that they both referred to managing a movie production company, the contents of the group discussion did not serve in any way to train the participants on the actual TINSEL TOWN task – it was merely to expose the participants to leader incivility in a relevant context. Throughout the group discussion, the leader gradually increased the incivility, while minimizing the appearance of intentionality. To simulate incivility, confederates engaged in several uncivil behaviors. See Table 1 for examples of how confederates simulated incivility in the group discussion. After the discussion phase, participants completed a series of individual levels measures (e.g., anger, perceived incivility). Subsequently, the experimenter then returned to the study room and removed the confederate for the apparent purposes of further leadership training. During this phase, I measured participants' perceptions of incivility, their anger, and their felt relationships with the leader and the other team member.

The performance task. To assess the degree to which leader incivility affected perceived conflict and objective team performance, participants engaged in the business simulation TINSEL TOWN (Devine et al., 2004). Briefly, TINSEL TOWN is a business simulation in which participants each receive unique information that contributes to effective decisions regarding how to operate a movie production company. Participants receive several movie proposals, along with specific information regarding these movies (e.g., script synopsis, actors and directors, audience appeal, etc.), and they must jointly agree on which movies to produce and how to market them, based on a limited budget. The original task is divided among four team members, whose roles are: *marketing, script evaluation, talent appraisal,* and *industry research* (see Devine and colleagues for a full description). Because I was just looking at dyadic

teams, it was necessary to adapt the simulation somewhat. The adapted version combined the roles of marketing and industry research into one "market research" position, and the roles of script evaluation and talent appraisal into a "quality control" position (it was not possible to simply exclude some of these departments, because information from each of the four, or two, departments is necessary to make an informed decision). Participants were given either a market research or a quality control binder, which contained both shared and unique information relevant to the decision making task. Because the adapted version required each team member to do the work of two, I removed the math component of the task (participants normally receive a set of mathematical formulae which they can use to guide their decision making process), and instructed participants to select the movie(s) they expected to be the most profitable based on the talent and script quality, as well as the projected marketing levels. This more ambiguous task also had the added benefit of making collaboration more essential to team performance. The design of this task not only enables the collection of an objective measure of performance (i.e., the profit the fictional company makes), but it also creates a context in which participants must extensively interact with other members and manage conflict effectively. During this phase of the experiment, I collected measures of conflict (relationship and task), and calculated team-level measures of performance (profit).

Measures

Measure of anger. Affective reactions to incivility were assessed periodically using the brief Profile of Mood States – Adolescents (POMS-A; Terry, Lane, & Fogarty, 2003). I used the POMS-A instead of the PANAS for periodic measurements because it better differentiates

specific emotions (e.g., anger, sadness, anxiety) than does the PANAS, which differentiates strictly between positive and negative affect. While reliability estimates for the POMS-A (which was used in lieu of the full POMS due to length), were unavailable, other shortened versions of the full-length POMS have exhibited acceptable reliability estimates, ranging from .76 to .95 (Curran, Andrykowski, & Studts, 1995).

Measure of incivility. I assessed the degree to which participants perceived the leader's incivility using an eight item measure (five point Likert scale ranging from 1 – strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree) which combined measures of voice (Brockner et al., 2001) and respectful treatment (Lind, Tyler, & Huo, 1997). Both the voice and the respectful treatment measures have appropriate reliability levels, α = .83 and .86, respectively. Sample items of the voice measure are "My views were considered and taken into account," and "I had a lot of opportunity to present my views about the task at hand." Sample items of the respectful treatment measure are "The group leader cares about my opinions," and "The group leader does not show concern for me" (reverse coded). These measures are traditionally measures of procedural (Brockner et al., 2001) and interpersonal justice (Lind et al., 1997). However, in the context of an *ad hoc* decision-making team, these items not only capture the respect and politeness aspects of civility, but present a distinct advantage over direct measures of incivility because they are relatively time-independent and do not refer to specific behaviors. Blau and Andersson (2005) developed a measure of workplace incivility, but it is clearly in the context of ongoing relationships (question stems begin with "in the past year…"), and it directly references specific behaviors. Furthermore, by assessing incivility in the context of broadly construed injustice (Penney & Spector, 2005), it was possible to assess it with broad descriptors, avoiding cuing participants that the confederate

was behaving uncivilly intentionally. This incivility scale showed a high degree of internal consistency, $\alpha = .86$; furthermore, to ensure that this scale wasn't actually assessing two separate factors (i.e., voice and respect), I conducted a factor analysis (principal axis factoring, varimax rotation). Factor analysis suggests that the items clearly represented one construct, with the first factor accounting for 66% of the variance, at an eigenvalue of 5.5 (the second factor's eigenvalue was .79). See Appendix D for the full measure.

Measure of conflict. The amount of conflict perceived within the team was assessed using Jehn and Mannix's (2001) subscales of task (3 items, $\alpha = .94$) and relationship (3 items, $\alpha = .94$) conflict. Sample items are "How much conflict of ideas is there in your work group" and, "How much relationship tension is there in your work group," for task and relationship conflict, respectively. Both items were on a 5-point Likert scale, with responses ranging from "none" (1) to "a lot" (5); reliability analyses in the sample showed good levels of internal consistency (task conflict, $\alpha = .87$; relationship conflict $\alpha = .91$) .

Measure of power distance. Because of the homogeneous nature of the sample, it seemed necessary to prime participants to endorse either high or low PD values, in order to increase the variance in PD scores. To check the effectiveness of the PD manipulation (and to avoid artificially dichotomizing participants as strictly "high" or "low" PD), I assessed participants' self-reported PD levels using Maznevski and DiStefano's 7-item index of Hierarchical Power Distance, taken from the Cultural Perspective Questionnaire Version 4 (CPQ4; Maznevski & DiStefano, 1995). Sample items include "A hierarchy of authority is the best form of an organization" and "People at lower levels in organizations should carry out the requests of people at higher levels without question;" responses were measured on a five point Likert scale

(1 – strongly disagree; 5 – strongly agree). Reliability analyses in this sample showed acceptable levels of consistency (pre-priming $\alpha = .75$; post-priming, $\alpha = .80$).

Measures of interpersonal exchange. As manipulation checks for both leader incivility and the civility norms manipulation, I collected measures of leader-member exchange (LMX) and member-member exchange (MMX). To assess these variables, I adapted Liden and Maslyn's (1998) measure of LMX. Their original measure consisted of eleven items with four subscales: *affect* ($\alpha = .90$), *loyalty* ($\alpha = .78$), *contribution* ($\alpha = .74$), and *professional respect* ($\alpha = .92$). Ultimately, the loyalty and contribution subscales (besides having the lowest reported reliability) made the least sense outside the context of an ongoing relationship, so I measured LMX strictly in terms of affect and professional respect. The measure therefore consisted of five items measured on a five point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 5 – strongly agree); in this sample, the internal consistency for the LMX measure was $\alpha = .92$. To assess MMX, references to "the group leader" were changed to "my teammate" ($\alpha = .90$).

Measure of performance. Performance was measured simply by identifying the level of profit teams achieved when playing through TINSEL TOWN. The business simulation determines performance by a complex aggregation of movie-related cues (e.g., script quality, directors, actors, marketing choices, etc.). Depending on the aspects of the movie production process teams choose to focus on, they achieve different levels of performance. For example, family friendly movies have a wider appeal than R-rated movies; factors such as this are included in the profit calculation. This is an objective measure of performance, as it represents the ability of the team to infer the predetermined factors that contribute to the level of movie profit-making potential, and of team members to effectively share and integrate their unique

information in order to make the most profitable decision. For a more detailed description of how performance is calculated in the TINSEL TOWN simulation, see Devine and colleagues (2004).

Data collection and analyses

All data, excepting performance data from TINSEL TOWN, were collected with online surveys, created in and distributed through Qualtrics (performance data was input by the experimenter post-study). All data was analyzed with the SPSS 20 statistical software package. For several of the regression analysis, I used the Hayes (2012) PROCESS macro for SPSS to test for directionality and simple effects. This method produces equivalent results as a standard simultaneous hierarchical regression would in SPSS, but can automatically mean center products as well as integrate bootstrapping estimates. More importantly, it reports the effects of IVs on DVs at different levels of specified moderators and produces specific data points for plotting purposes, helpful in plotting simple effects.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Preliminary analyses

Preliminary analyses consisted of bivariate correlation analyses, manipulation checks, and rater agreement analyses to ensure that individual level analyses were appropriate. Bivariate correlation analyses suggested that many of the proposed relationships were significant and in the right direction (see Table 2). However, to rule out overlapping variables and test interaction effects, these correlations are only suggestive of relationships.

PD manipulation check. First, I tested whether or not the PD prime had an effect on individuals' post-prime PD scores. T-test analyses comparing the two groups (i.e., individuals receiving the high or low PD prime) suggest that the two PD conditions were significantly different in regards to their PD beliefs. Participants in the high PD prime conditions reported average PD levels of 3.15 (sd = 0.57), whereas those in the low PD prime conditions reported PD levels of 2.69 (sd = 0.69), $t(172) = -4.764$, $p < .001$. Of the 86 groups with complete data, 76 completed pre- and post-prime measures of PD values. While the T-test of post-priming scores showed that the conditions were different in terms of power distance values, it was also necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of the PD prime as a manipulation. Repeated measures ANOVA of within-subjects effects suggested the PD prime was effective in shifting participants' initial PD scores $F(1,152) = 25.049$, $p < .001$. Upon closer inspection, however, it appears that the prime was effective only in shifting participants' PD values downward. T-test analyses comparing the high/low conditions on pre-priming scores indicated that the groups were already significantly different in terms of PD scores, $t(150) = -2.097$, $p = .038$. This suggests some

selection threat; however participants were randomly assigned to conditions. Regardless, the groups were significantly different, and in the intended direction after the manipulation. Furthermore, the manipulation increased the distance between the two groups of individuals, so it can be said that the PD manipulation was at least effective in decreasing individuals' PD values who were already low, though it did not appear to have an effect at raising individuals' PD values.

Leader incivility manipulation check. To assess whether participants actually perceived and experienced the leader incivility as such, I conducted paired sample T-tests on participants' anger, perceptions of incivility, and relationships between the leader and other group members. I found that participants' baseline (pre-incivility) anger significantly increased after the leader's incivility, $t(173) = 5.011$, $p < .001$. Participants also reported significantly lower levels of incivility when working only with their fellow group member within TINSEL TOWN (M = 1.748, sd = .432) than when also working with the group leader during the group discussion (M = 2.967, sd = .957), $t(173) = 15.466$, $p < .001$. Finally, as would be expected, participants reported significantly higher levels of relational exchange during the group discussion with their fellow group member than with the group leader, $t(173) = 11.467$, $p < .001$.

Civility norms manipulation check. I assessed the degree to which civility norms directly affected participants' perceptions and/or behaviors by conducting independent sample T-tests of member-member exchange (MMX). I considered MMX as a manipulation check for two reasons. One, because there is no commonly used laboratory manipulation of explicit pro-civility norms, I developed one; to maximize its effectiveness, it was necessary to make this prime as salient to the group discussion as possible. Accordingly, the group discussion began immediately

after the manipulation prime, providing no direct opportunity to measure the effectiveness of the prime. Two, because civility is a relatively socially desirable concept, it seemed unlikely that a simple prime would affect participants' likelihood of endorsing civil behavior as desirable. Three, I reasoned that if the civility prime did in fact work, participants would either behave more civilly, perceive others as more civil, or both. I found (as expected) that participants in pro-civility conditions reported significantly higher levels of MMX, $t(172) = 1.784$, $p = .038$ (one-tailed). I also ran independent sample T-tests on LMX, to see if civility norms were affecting participants' perceptions overall, and found no significant differences between groups, $t(172) = 1.026$, *ns*; this is to be expected, as the confederate leaders were instructed to behave consistently uncivilly across groups. This suggests that the civility norms did influence participants towards more civil behaviors.

Team-level agreement analyses. Because the performance task was conjunctive (making the contributions of the "weakest link" the most predictive of team level performance), it was most appropriate to run analyses at the individual level. However I checked intra-class correlation coefficients for agreement within groups to see if a more traditional approach to group-level analyses (e.g., mean aggregation) was more appropriate. None of the measured variables (i.e., incivility, anger, conflict) converged to the suggested ICC levels of .70, which suggests that the recorded phenomena were primarily at the individual level. Perceptions of incivility came close to the recommended levels of .70, but fell short.

Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis 1a – PD and incivility. As noted, bivariate correlations suggest that

individuals' power distance values significantly predicted their perceptions of leader incivility (r = -0.130, p = .044, one-tailed). This effect was robust even after accounting for unique variance attributed to the specific confederate leaders participants were exposed to. To test for hypothesis 1a, I regressed individuals' perceptions of leader incivility onto a hierarchical regression model in which I first controlled for confederate-specific variance, and then entered PD scores into the equation. The overall model predicting incivility perceptions was significant, F(3,170) = 17.290, p < .001; individuals' PD scores added significant unique variance over that attributed to confederate effects in predicting justice perceptions, Δr^2 = .016 (p = .043). Therefore, hypothesis 1a was supported.

Hypothesis 1b – Incivility and anger. Bivariate correlations between perceptions of leader incivility and anger were significant and in the expected direction (r = 0.462, p < .001). To further test this hypothesis, I regressed individuals' anger onto a hierarchical regression model in which I first controlled for baseline (i.e., pre-discussion) anger as well as confederate-specific variance, and then entered perceptions of incivility. The first model (i.e., anger, confederates) accounted for 15.8% of variance in anger; F(3,170) = 11.834, p < .001. When including participants' perception of incivility, the total model accounted for 28.0% of the variance in anger; F(4,169) = 17.819, p < .001; this amounted to an additional 12.4% of variance explained. This suggests that the perception of incivility played a large role in eliciting anger among participants, supporting hypothesis 1b.

Hypothesis 2a – Incivility and relationship conflict. To test the hypothesis that leader incivility breeds relationship conflict as mediated through individuals' anger, I regressed relationship conflict onto anger and incivility (while controlling for confederate specific variance

and baseline anger). To do this, I used model 4 within the Hayes (2012) PROCESS macro; this function models the mediating effects of X (incivility) on Y (relationship conflict) as mediated by one variable (anger). I requested 5000 bootstrap samples (my consistent practice through the remaining PROCESS models, unless otherwise specified) and a report of the total, direct, and indirect effects of incivility on relationship conflict. Each of the links in the mediation model were significant, and the test for indirect effects showed that incivility had a significant indirect effect on relationship conflict (β = .0766; 95% CI ranging from .0021 to .2082), thus, hypothesis 2a was supported. See Table 3 for the regression models.

Hypothesis 2b – Incivility and task conflict. I followed a similar procedure to test hypothesis 2b, except I used model 6 in the PROCESS macro, because it allows for multiple mediators "in series," as opposed to "in parallel," so to speak. In other words, this examines the indirect effects of an independent variable on a dependent variable, as mediated through one mediator, and *then* through another mediator (and so on), as opposed to looking at the IV-DV relationship as mediated by two mediators simultaneously. Because I hypothesized that relationship conflict would mediate the relationship between perceived incivility, anger, and task conflict, Model 6 simply added the relationship to task conflict link as the final link in the model. Accordingly, Table 3 integrates the first two thirds of the mediation model (hypothesis 2a) with the final link (hypothesis 2b). All links in the model were significant. The total and direct effects of leader incivility on task conflict were not significant (β = -.0577, p = .437, β = -.0695, p = .324, respectively); however, this is to be expected, given the conditional nature of the anger to relationship conflict link. Despite this conditional link, the indirect effect 95% confidence interval did not include zero (β = .0532; CI ranging from .0021 to .1613); while the indirect is

admittedly small, the fact that this effect occurred despite the different civility conditions suggests that these relationships are fairly robust. Therefore, hypothesis 2b was supported.

Hypothesis 3a – Civility norms and relationship conflict. I further hypothesized that the strength of the anger to relationship conflict link would be dependent upon the civility norms of the individual's group. To test this hypothesis, I requested model 14 in the Hayes (2012) PROCESS macro, which is the standard "moderated mediation" model. The overall model was significant, $F(7,166) = 6.04$, $p < .001$, as was the interaction term of anger and civility norms predicting relationship conflict ($\beta = .4337$, $p = .0003$). In further support of my hypotheses, analyses of conditional indirect effects suggest that incivility drives relationship conflict when there are pro-civility norms ($\beta = .1411$, 95% CI ranging from .0109 to .3154), but not when civility norms are neutral ($\beta = .0140$, 95% CI ranging from -.0407 to .0872). These models and effects are reported in greater detail in Table 4 and Figure 2.

Hypothesis 3b – Augmenting effect of PD. To test hypothesis 3b, which states that individuals PD values would strengthen the moderating effect of civility norms on the anger to relationship conflict link, I requested model 18 in the PROCESS macro. Model 18 is a moderated mediation function, with the moderation being a three-way interaction between the mediator (i.e., anger) and two moderators (i.e., PD values and civility norms) predicting the DV (i.e., relationship conflict). The overall model was significant, $F(11,162) = 6.405$, $p < .001$, with the three-way interaction term significant as well, $\beta = .535$, $p = .014$. Analysis of conditional indirect effects of incivility on relationship conflict suggest that incivility has a positive, significant effect on relationship conflict only when PD values are high and when participants are in pro-civility teams ($\beta = .264$, 95% CI ranging from .0764 to .4682). All other conditions

(i.e., high PD/neutral civility, low PD/pro civility, low PD/neutral civility) had confidence intervals including zero. See Table 5 and Figure 3 for more detailed results.

Hypothesis 4 –Conflict and team performance . As I argued above, a configural approach to group conflict was more appropriate than an aggregation approach, because TINSEL TOWN is a conjunctive task whose performance is dependent on the "weakest link." Accordingly, I used the SPSS "aggregate" function to create a group level dataset, broken up by group membership, which included individual members' maximum levels of reported conflict (both relationship and task), as well as dummy coded variables for which confederate leader the team was exposed to, and team performance. To test for hypotheses 4a and 4b, I regressed group performance on maximum perceptions of conflict and group civility norms (which were in this context, a shared team property) using Model 14 of the Hayes (2012) PROCESS macro (I also standardized variables prior to running analyses, since the performance variable was in terms of millions of dollars made). The overall model was significant, $F(4,76) = 3.996$, $p = .0054$, with both relationship conflict ($\beta = -0.334$, $p = .008$) and task conflict ($\beta = 0.295$, $p = .022$) having significant effects in the hypothesized directions. Thus, hypothesis 4a was supported. Furthermore, the interaction term of task conflict and civility norms was significant and in the hypothesized direction ($\beta = 0.447$, $p = .041$), supporting hypothesis 4b; see Table 6 and Figure 4 (note: for the purposes of illustration, I re-ran analyses using an unstandardized performance variable) for more detailed results. Additionally, the conditional indirect effects of relationship conflict on team performance (i.e., as mediated by task conflict and moderated by civility norms) were *positive* when teams had pro-civility norms ($\beta = .270$, 95% CI ranging from .1224 to .4681). I did not have specific hypotheses about this, but it lends further credibility to the model;

more importantly, it is highly interesting to identify a condition under which relationship conflict is actually helpful to team performance.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

When thinking of ethical leadership, we are often most concerned with the avoidance of "major" legal and ethical failings, and rightly so. Major ethical oversights have been attributed as the primary impetus for recent national and global economic crises (Kaiser and Hogan, 2010). However, major failures may be preceded by an "ethical drift," or progression from seemingly "minor" ethical missteps to major breaches of ethics and integrity (cf., Salter, 2008; Sternberg, 2012); it seems plausible that leaders who are comfortable with consistently behaving in an uncivil manner because they can act with impunity (Pearson & Porath, 2005) may feel comfortable with behaving in more overtly unethical ways for similar reasons. Research has recently begun to accumulate regarding the effects of incivility on employees' psychological states, group processes, and other organizational outcomes (e.g., culture, performance). More research exists on interpersonal injustice than incivility, but in both cases, the consensus is that they have consistently negative effects (Colquitt et al., 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2005). Indeed, it has been argued that workplace incivility has serious organizational consequences, ranging from decreased motivation to turnover to outright aggression and violence (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson & Porath, 2005).

The importance of understanding ethical leadership increases, especially as organizations are becoming increasingly globalized and diverse. This diversity extends beyond simple surface differences, to deep-level differences, which often can have real effects on group processing and performance (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998). These findings suggest that individuals' cultural values can have significant effects on the way individuals perceive and are affected by leader

instigated incivility. When leaders are uncivil towards followers, followers perceive that an injustice has been done them, resulting in a heightened experience of anger. Furthermore, the less of a distance followers expect between themselves and their leaders (as defined by low PD), the more unjust followers perceive the leader to be. Conversely, the more distance followers expect, the more "slack" they allow to their uncivil leaders.

Understanding how individuals arrive at justice perceptions is important on practical and behavioral levels as well. When individuals perceive they have been dealt an injustice, they experience anger (Miller, 2001). These results serve to further this notion. When individuals are angry, these negative emotions often translate into negative behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), even to the point of misplaced retaliatory incivility and conflict (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Evincing this, I found that when individuals reported higher levels of anger, they similarly reported higher levels of relationship conflict with their teammates. As expected, I found that individual PD values and group civility norms both moderated this anger-relationship conflict relationship. These findings speak to the complex nature of incivility, anger, and conflict. While a significant positive relationship between anger and relationship conflict was indeed found, the only individuals for whom this connection was significantly strong was high PD individuals in high civility teams. These individuals reported the lowest levels of intrateam conflict when they reported lower levels of earlier anger (at the leader), but they also reported the highest levels of relationship conflict when they had just reported high levels of anger – for all other participants, there was a very weak relationship between anger and relationship conflict. I also found support for a mediated relationship between incivility and group processes – leader incivility elicits anger, which in turn causes relationship conflict, when is associated with heightened levels of

task conflict. Finally, I assessed the role of configural conflict in predicting group decision making performance. As researchers have consistently found in decades of previous research (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; de Wit et al., 2012), relationship conflict was always damaging to group performance. Research has been less consistent in regards to task conflict. Interestingly, I found support for the hypothesis that task conflict was beneficial for performance when teams were in high civility teams, rather than low civility teams.

This research has both practical and theoretical implications. One, incivility may be more damaging to group processes in some settings and for some individuals than others. This can happen at the attributional stage, wherein individuals define and assess leader incivility as injustice differently, depending on their values and the norms of their group. However, this can also occur in the context of emotional carryover, where anger resulting from leader incivility results in a temporary hostile attribution bias (cf., Matthews & Norris, 2006), causing them engage in and be increasingly sensitive regarding conflict in their further interactions with their teammates. Two, task conflict may actually be beneficial for teams with the right frame of mind. When individuals and teams are primed to interact with a high degree of civility, they likely engage in *effective* task conflict. This may be what has been missing in conflict research to date. Jehn and Mannix's (2001) measure of intrateam task conflict has items that are relatively valence- and intensity-free, such as "How much conflict of ideas is there in your work group?" However, it is conceivable that some individuals and teams reporting "a lot" of task conflict could mean that there is "a lot of yelling about ideas," whereas other individuals or teams reporting the same level of task conflict could simply mean that they "calmly, rationally, and *with great civility* discuss conflicting, task-relevant ideas." There is a clear substantive difference

in these two perspectives, even though there would not be a numerical difference. Existing research on team training has shown the positive effects on group process and performance of training teams on expert teamwork mental models (Smith-Jentsch, Campbell, Milanovich, & Reynolds, 2001; Smith-Jentsch et al., 2008). What I have found though, is that through something as simple as a brief reminder to be polite and kind to teammates, we may be able to unlock the benefits of task conflict for performance.

Finally, these results speak broadly to the effects of ethical leadership and leader incivility on organizational functioning and performance. Not only does leader incivility elicit negative affect (i.e., anger), but under the right (or more accurately, wrong) conditions, it can cause increases in relationship conflict. As expected, I found relationship conflict to be detrimental to group performance. Organizations should take note: even a brief interaction with an uncivil leader might cause increased (relationship) conflict. For organizations that rely on the performance of teams, this is a key finding. At a theoretical level this is also interesting, because it lends credence to Andersson and Pearson's (1999) notion of spirals of incivility. Recent empirical work has suggested that leader incivility may actually galvanize victims and minimize conflict (Campana, 2009) – my results suggest otherwise. This likely speaks to the importance of temporality when studying incivility – my study looked at affect and performance immediately following exposure to incivility. Though existing research does (e.g., Campana, 2009; Pearson and Porath, 2005), future research should continue to look at issues of chronic incivility, in addition to the effects of acute incivility.

On an interesting and positive note, I also found that followers' reactions to leader incivility also elevates reports of task conflict, which was actually beneficial to group

performance when pro-civility norms were endorsed. Interestingly, leader incivility seemed to actually elicit helpful task conflict by activating harmful relationship conflict. This speaks to Pearson and Porath's (2005) suggestion that having pro-civility organizational norms is essential in avoiding the negative effects of incivility and unethical leadership – maybe not in terms of immediate reactions, but in the more important realm of group process and performance.

Limitations and future research

Though I found a substantial amount of support for my hypotheses, these findings are not without limitations. Broadly speaking, these have to do with (1) the nature of the simulation, (2) the nature of the manipulations, and (3) the methods of measurement. I briefly address each of these in turn.

First, experimental manipulations are never completely generalizable to the "real-world." So it is important to consider the degree to which these findings may or may not generalize to the business world. Some points of departure: an entirely student-based sample, an *ad hoc*, inexperienced team, and a formally appointed "leader" with somewhat limited authority. Research has demonstrated the dangers of unquestioningly generalizing student-based findings (Peterson, 2001), so these findings definitely bear further research. However, for constructs like unethical leadership and leader incivility, it is almost impossible to link causality to leader behaviors. Laboratory research is important, though, because it better enables us to make causal claims (Highhouse, 2009). This is a major contribution of the research – an experimental manipulation of leader incivility in a controlled laboratory environment. With few exceptions (cf., Carson & Moore, 2011; Porath & Erez, 2009; Porath, Macinnis, & Folkes, 2010), existing

research on leader incivility is almost entirely cross-sectional and survey based. Furthermore, no laboratory studies (to my knowledge) have actively instigated leader incivility against unwitting participants – laboratory research on incivility typically assesses the effects of incivility from a non-leader (Carson & Moore, 2011; Porath et al., 2010), or observing (but not receiving) incivility (Porath & Erez, 2009).

A related criticism of the simulation likely lay in the use of a confederate research assistant as a group "leader." Leadership is a complex phenomenon that involves the ability to exert influence over others (Yukl, 2008); this influence may arise from a host of sources (French & Raven, 1959; Morgeson et al., 2010). However, because the confederate leader was selected based on an apparent skill, was tasked with greater responsibility, and was provided with a greater degree of influence over group outcomes (possession of discussion prompts which were turned in to the experimenter), I believe that the leader simulation had a relatively high degree of psychological fidelity (French & Raven, 1959; Morgeson et al., 2010; Presthus, 1960).

Second, it might be criticized that ethical leadership or leader incivility was not truly manipulated. However, I have argued throughout, as have others, that leader incivility is a major component of unethical leadership (Brown et al., 2005; Resick et al., 2011); similarly, leader incivility may be a predictor or a precursor to greater ethical failings (Salter, 2008). The criticism that I did not effectively manipulate leader incivility bears more consideration, however. Incivility has been defined as low-grade, socially deviant workplace behavior that lacks a clear intent to harm (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). To my knowledge, there is no comprehensive taxonomy of uncivil behaviors; yet this is not surprising, because incivility, by definition, violates social norms. This means that there are as many "uncivil behaviors" as there are cultural

values, family traditions, organizational policies, and so on. Accordingly, I selected behaviors that are relatively common in interpersonal interactions that are nonetheless frustrating (e.g., interrupting, criticizing, acting disinterested). What makes these "incivility," is that, from the followers' perspective, there is a lack of clear intent to harm them personally. Furthermore, the consistent pattern of negative reactions to the leader intervention that closely mirror the expected response to incivility (i.e., increased perception of incivility, heightened anger, decreased interpersonal relations) suggest that participants were indeed experiencing leader incivility.

The manipulation of organizational norms was admittedly simple. This may limit generalizability, in that organizations' norms are communicated through not only the physical surroundings or verbal statements made by figureheads, but through policies, procedures, selection practices, narrative, and a host of other organizational behaviors (Schein, 1992). Furthermore, these norms are communicated and evolve over time – they do not necessarily take hold in the span of a few minutes. However, MMX manipulation checks, though indirect, suggest that these simple norms either influenced the way team members perceived each other, behaved towards each other, or both. Furthermore, the fact that I found significant effects at the group level from such a simple manipulation actually provides stronger evidence that group civility norms would indeed influence the way teams respond to leader incivility; in other words, field studies would likely find that ongoing and ingrained organizational civility norms would be more strongly associated with different responses to leader incivility. Future research should look into how different organizational norms and different aspects of organizational norms, both in the lab and the field, affect ethical leadership, leader incivility, and group processing and performance.

Finally, it is important to note that most variables were self-report. I did not code for actual conflict behaviors in team processes. What implications might this have for the generalizability of these findings? Common method variance is always a concern, as it can unduly boost the correlation between studied variables. This may be a problem for the relationships between justice, anger, and conflict, though this should not be considered a major issue, because these links are firmly grounded in prior research (e.g., Hershcovis et al., 2007; Miller, 2001; Mikula et al., 1998). However, when participants self-report on levels of group conflict, these numbers are likely contaminated simply by the fact that they are responding to items about conflict. In other words, where participants might not have noticed conflict at all, when being cued towards group conflict, it is likely that they slightly inflate their reports of conflict. This contamination and range restriction is more likely to suppress (as opposed to artificially inflating) findings, so it is likely that these findings would be meaningfully replicated in an organizational context. A related issue is the notion of experienced versus instigated conflict or incivility. In the incivility spiral, there are necessarily two social actors. In the context of my study, individuals in groups may have been the victims or instigators of misappropriated retaliatory incivility, or both. My use of the well-known Jehn and Mannix (2001) measure of group conflict may be bolstered in future research by the use of direct measures of incivility and instigated incivility (e.g., Blau & Andersson, 2005), though future researchers would have to determine how to adapt these measures for laboratory settings.

For future research, this study offers a few promising avenues. I developed two new manipulations that are highly flexible, amenable to future research, and deserving of fine-tuning. To my knowledge, there have been no published PD primes, nor have there been laboratory

manipulations of experienced leader incivility. The PD manipulation proved effective in lowering participants' PD scores, but failed to increase participants' PD values. This may be because I used a fairly homogenous, low PD (American) student sample. Future research might test the prime as-is within other high PD cultures, or the prime itself could be tweaked to better impact PD values. The leader incivility manipulation is deserving of further research. What components of the manipulation are perceived as most unjust? Which elements of the script elicit the most anger? A policy capturing approach seems particularly amenable to these questions. I also only looked at one group process (conflict) and one type of task (conjunctive, decision-making). How does leader incivility influence followers' willingness to share information, the degree of cohesion they experience with their fellow teammates and the organization as a whole? Are certain types of teams less susceptible to the negative effects of leader incivility? Finally, I noted that a simple intervention such as pro-civility norms could "unlock" the benefits of task conflict for performance. Furthermore, I found that cultural values worked together with civility norms at times to influence the way individuals experienced their environment. Future research should look into the effects of cultural values on the effectiveness of team training interventions (e.g., Smith-Jentsch et al., 2008; Stout, Salas, & Fowlkes, 1997).

APPENDIX A: POWER DISTANCE PRIME INTRODUCTION

Up & Coming Tech

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- Web Tech »
- Computing Tech »
- Home Tech »
- Transportation Tech »

ViralMark.com - Maximum growth, minimum time

Author - Pat Jones

If you haven't heard of ViralMark.com by now, you're likely unaware of many of the hottest new products of 2011. ViralMark.com has proven to be one of the most effective online ad agencies of 2010, using innovative viral marketing techniques to efficiently and effectively make consumers aware of hotly anticipated upcoming gadgets and tech tools, such as internet streaming devices and cell phones.

The success of ViralMark.com in making such a large impact on the marketing industry in a short amount of time seems to be due largely in part to the company's innovative company's innovative four-pronged approach to online viral marketing, the most innovative likely being their unconventional blitzkrieg approach in which they release massive amounts of useful, interesting, and engaging information simultaneously across linked online locales, rather than slowly releasing information in obscure and unrelated media and venues, as has been the approach of viral marketing approaches in the past. These four highly effective prongs of ViralMark.com are:

1) **Product commercials.** ViralMarks' commercials are known to be among the most interesting in the industry. As a result, consumers are prone to visit ViralMark's website directly, just to see the newest upcoming commercials.

2) **Social networking.** Total integration with massive social networks allows ViralMark to inform potential consumers of relevant products.

3) **Rewards.** Users can log into ViralMark.com and earn points for watching commercials that can be accumulated and spent at ViralMark's partner online shopping websites.

4) **Search engine blitzkrieg.** ViralMark is known for flooding popular search engines with results for their advertised products, ensuring that for a full week, nearly every search engine user is exposed to information about their advertised products.

We recently visited the ViralMark.com headquarters in Palo Alto, California, to talk with Jess Smith, the head of ViralMark.com's social networking thrust, to find out why ViralMark.com has seen such rapid success and profitability. Here's a brief excerpt of our interview:

APPENDIX B: LOW POWER DISTANCE PRIME

UACT: Jess, thanks for meeting with us. In your professional opinion, to what do you attribute the success of ViralMark.com?

JS: I've actually given this some thought beforehand. It's definitely been a roller-coaster ride for sure. But in all honesty, I'd have to attribute the large majority of success to our founder and CEO, Taylor Williams. Taylor came up with the four advertising prongs, but most importantly, Taylor designed the power structure of our company.

UACT: Power structure?

JS: Yeah, the power structure of our company determines the source and flow of ideas. By making the power structure very loose, it allows us to be very relaxed and creative from idea to product development

UACT: What do you mean by "loose?"

JS: Well, basically, we encourage employees to try their hands at different roles. We have market researchers testing some of their own ideas in web development, and online coders directly contacting users to find out what they want from ViralMark.com. We also emphasize the need for employees to communicate with everyone within the organization. We really downplay the meaning of titles in our organization.

UACT: Really?

JS: I know it sounds counterintuitive, but because we're moving at such a fast pace, it's much more efficient for the company as a whole if everyone works alongside each other. We thrive on creativity, and if our top leaders are isolated in executive offices and not talking and working with the real "hands and feet" of the company, we end up basically running blind.

UACT: So basically you're saying that by downplaying individual roles and encouraging creativity and a loose power structure, ViralMark.com is able to be incredibly efficient and translate user needs and ideas into product realities?

JS: Exactly.

APPENDIX C: HIGH POWER DISTANCE PRIME

UACT: Jess, thanks for meeting with us...In your professional opinion, to what do you attribute the success of ViralMark.com?

JS: I've actually given this some thought beforehand. It's definitely been a roller-coaster ride for sure. But in all honesty, I'd have to attribute the large majority of success to our founder and CEO, Taylor Williams. Taylor came up with the four advertising prongs, but most importantly, Taylor designed the power structure of our company.

UACT: Power structure?

JS: Yeah, the power structure of our company determines the source and flow of ideas. By making the power structure very strict, it allows us to be very efficient and streamlined from idea to product development

UACT: What do you mean by "strict?"

JS: Well, basically, we encourage employees to stick to their roles. We have market researchers finding out what people want from ViralMark.com, and online coders to translate these wants into effective ad-based websites. We also emphasize the need for employees to communicate with their direct supervisor. It's discouraged here to jump levels in the organizational hierarchy.

UACT: Really?

JS: I know it sounds counterintuitive, but because we're moving at such a fast pace, it's much more efficient for the company as a whole if top leaders are allowed to work on the highest-level things, like strategic planning, while the lower level employees tackle the front lines of the industry.

UACT: So basically you're saying that by emphasizing individual roles and sticking to a rigid power structure, ViralMark.com is able to be incredibly efficient and translate user needs and ideas into product realities?

JS: Exactly.

APPENDIX D: MEASURE OF LEADER INCIVILITY

The following items are in terms of a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Items 1 through 5 were adapted from Lind and colleagues' (1997) measure of respectful treatment; items 6 through 8 were adapted from Brockner and colleagues' (2001) measure of voice.

1. The group leader cares about my opinions*
2. The group leader treats me in a polite manner*
3. The group leader does not show concern for me
4. The group leader treats me with dignity*
5. The group leader treats me with respect
6. I had a lot of opportunity to present my views about the task at hand*
7. My views were considered and taken into account*
8. What I wanted was considered in arriving at a solution*

*Indicates reverse-coded item

APPENDIX E: COMPILED FIGURES

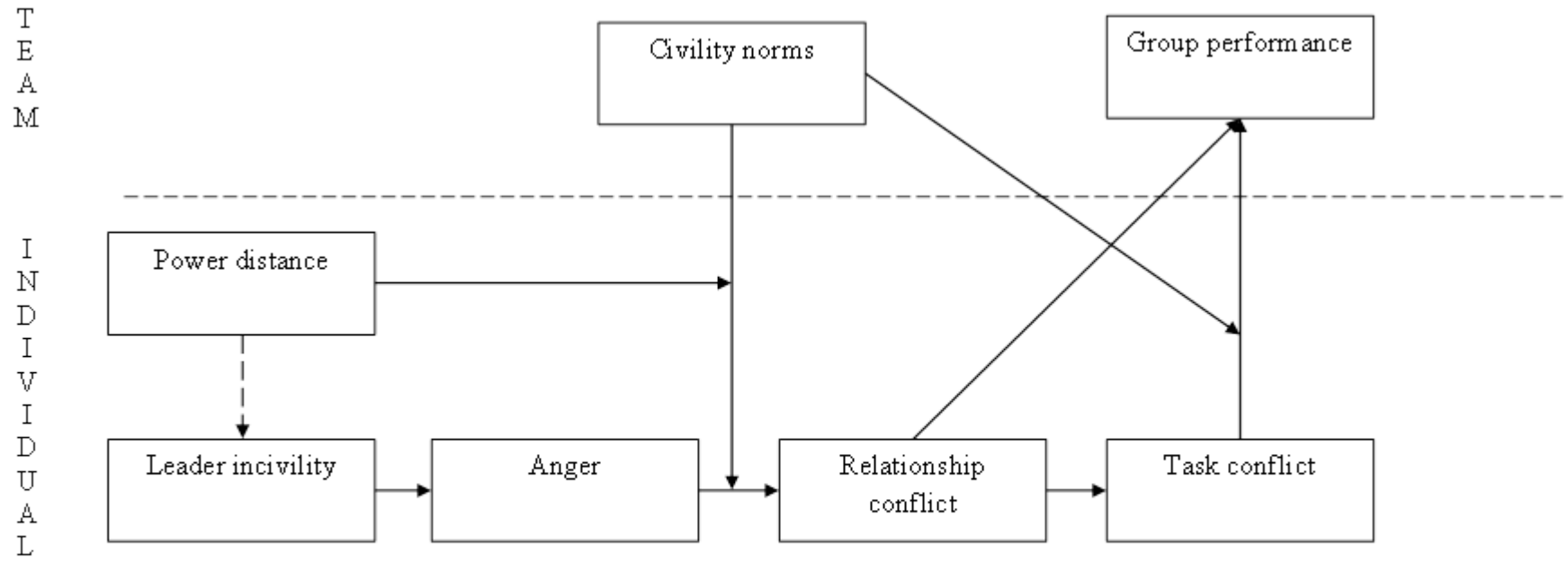


Figure 1. Model of hypothesized relationships.

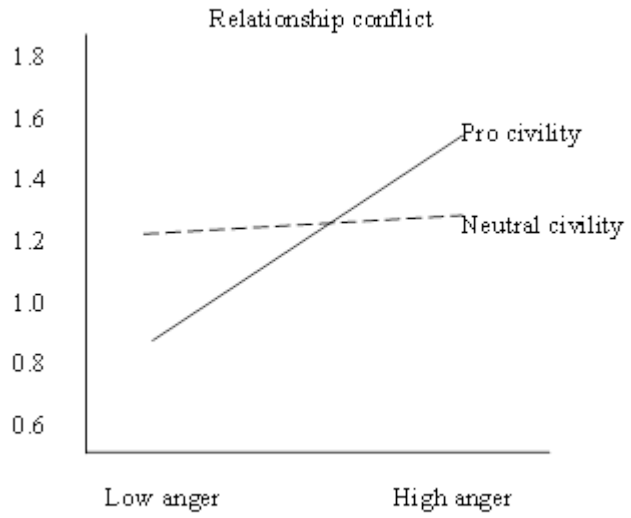


Figure 2. The relationship between anger, civility norms, and relationship conflict.

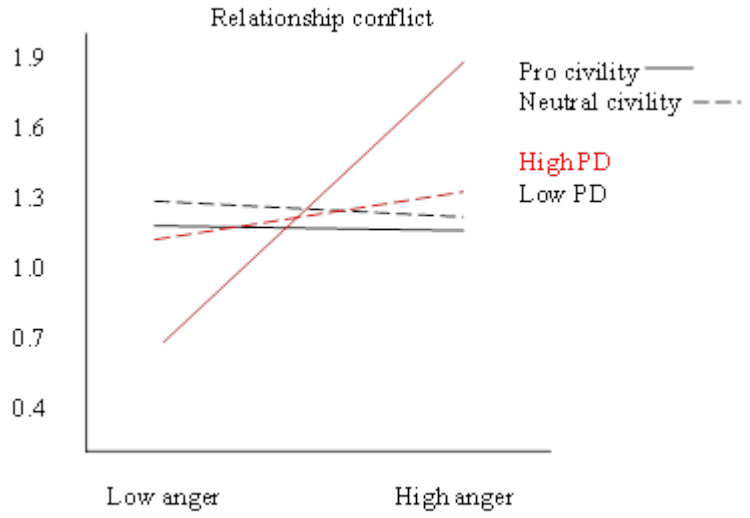


Figure 3. Interaction effects of PD and civility norms on the anger-relationship conflict link

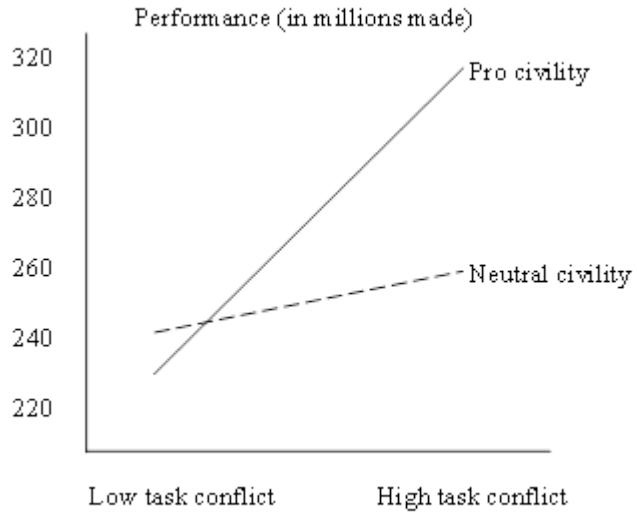


Figure 4. Interaction effects of civility norms on the task conflict-performance relationship

APPENDIX F: COMPILED TABLES

Table 1

Simulation of uncivil behaviors

Incivility component	Example
Disinterested	Not recording participants' solicited responses
Distracted	Doodling during responses, asking participants to repeat responses
Dismissive	Rejecting participants' responses for inadequate reasons "I'm running out of time, so if both of you could just be quiet and sit there while I get these done really quick."
Interrupting	"What was that again? … [interruption] No, just the second part – *I was listening on the first part*." "Wait…hold on, I get it, I get it."
Criticizing	"It seems like you guys aren't putting much thought into your responses, but at least we got something down." "Your responses are supposed to be based off of how things are done in the *real world*, not whatever just pops into your head."
Self-aggrandizing	"*I* got the highest score on the first exercise, *I* know the most about business, so I'm just going to read through the rest of the responses and put down the *right* answers really quick."
Condescending	"Now I'm going to read through the descriptions of the departments, so *try to read along with me and keep up… Are you guys able to keep up with me?*"
Nonverbal behavior	Dismissive laughter, shaking head

Table 2

Correlation matrix of measured relationships

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Civility Norms								
Power distance prime	0.078							
Power distance	-0.027	***0.341***						
Incivility	-0.004	-.100	-.130					
LMX	0.078	.131	*0.159*	***0.796***				
MMX	0.135	*-0.171*	0.050	-0.134				
Anger	0.002	*-0.166*	-0.036	***0.462***	***-0.494***	-0.002		
Relationship conflict	-0.019	0.015	-0.001	0.117	-0.089	**-0.222**	***0.322***	
Task conflict	-0.081	0.034	-0.016	0.038	-0.020	-0.113	**0.197**	***0.525***

NOTE: Correlations in italics are significant at $p < .05$, bold at $p < .01$, and bold italics at $p < .001$, two-tailed. Underlined variables are significant at $p < .05$ with a one-tailed test.

Table 3

Regression models of anger and relationship conflict

	R^2	F	df1, df2	β	t	se	*p*
$Anger_{T2}$ model	.297	17.819	4, 169				.000
Incivility				0.293	5.456	0.054	.000
Confed 1				-0.209	-1.544	0.135	.125
Confed 2				-0.187	-1.644	0.114	.102
$Anger_{T1}$				0.409	4.244	0.097	.000
Relationship conflict model	.137	5.348	5, 168				.000
Incivility				-0.082	-1.494	0.055	.137
$Anger_{T2}$				0.262	3.616	0.072	.000
Confed 1				-0.311	-2.424	0.128	.016
Confed 2				-0.130	-1.208	0.108	.229
$Anger_{T1}$				0.053	0.558	0.095	.577
Task conflict model	.286	11.121	6, 167				.000
Incivility				-0.070	-0.989	0.070	.324
$Anger_{T2}$				0.053	0.550	0.096	.583
Relationship conflict				0.695	7.058	0.098	.000
Confed 1				-0.168	-1.009	0.166	.314
Confed 2				-0.007	-0.048	0.138	.962
$Anger_{T1}$				0.044	0.364	0.122	.716

Table 4

Moderating effects of civility norms on the anger to conflict relationship

	R^2	F	df1, df2	β	t	se	*p*
Overall model	.203	6.040	7, 166				.000
Incivility				-0.077	-1.450	0.053	.149
$Anger_{T2}$				0.247	3.529	0.070	.001
Civility norms				-0.024	-0.311	0.078	.757
$Anger_{T2}$ * Civility norms				0.438	3.688	0.118	.000
Confed 1				-0.311	-2.424	0.128	.016
Confed 2				-0.130	-1.208	0.108	.229
$Anger_{T1}$				0.053	0.558	0.095	.577

Table 5

Moderating effects of civility norms on the anger to conflict relationship

	R^2	F	df1, df2	β	t	se	*p*
Overall model	.303	6.405	11, 162				.000
Incivility				-0.086	-1.688	0.051	.093
$Anger_{T2}$				0.230	3.451	0.067	.001
Civility norms				-0.012	-0.164	0.074	.870
Power distance				0.013	0.227	0.057	.821
$Anger_{T2}$ * Civility norms				0.382	3.414	0.112	.001
$Anger_{T2}$ * Power distance				0.402	3.697	0.109	.000
$Anger_{T2}$ * Civility norms * PD				0.535	2.482	0.215	.014
Confed 1				-0.282	-2.390	0.118	.018
Confed 2				-0.087	-0.871	0.100	.385
$Anger_{T1}$				0.072	0.820	0.088	.413

Table 6

Relationship conflict, task conflict, civility norms, and team performance

	R^2	F	df1, df2	β	t	se	*p*
Task conflict	.291	10.541	3,77				.000
Relationship conflict				0.503	5.094	0.099	.000
Confed 1				-0.115	-0.430	0.267	.669
Confed 2				0.014	0.057	0.240	.955
Performance	.174	3.996	4,76				.005
Task conflict				0.295	2.335	0.126	.022
Relationship conflict				-0.334	-2.743	0.122	.008
Task conflict * Civility norms				0.447	2.079	0.215	.041
Confed 1				-0.282	-2.390	0.118	.018
Confed 2				-0.087	-0.871	0.100	.385
$Anger_{T1}$				0.072	0.820	0.088	.413

APPENDIX G: APPROVAL OF HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH

University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: **Eduardo Salas and Co-PI: Shawn Burke**

Date: **August 18, 2011**

Dear Researcher:

On 8/18/2011, the IRB approved the following human participant research until 08/17/2012 inclusive:

Type of Review:	UCF Initial Review Submission Form Expedited Review Category #7 This approval includes Alteration of the Consent Process and a Waiver of Written Documentation of Consent
Project Title:	Exploring the multilevel effects of leader-instigated incivility on process and performance in cross-cultural teams
Investigator:	Eduardo Salas
IRB Number:	SBE-11-07743
Funding Agency:	Army Research Office(ARO), University of Maryland
Grant Title:	
Research ID:	n/a

The Continuing Review Application must be submitted 30days prior to the expiration date for studies that were previously expedited, and 60 days prior to the expiration date for research that was previously reviewed at a convened meeting. Do not make changes to the study (i.e., protocol, methodology, consent form, personnel, site, etc.) before obtaining IRB approval. A Modification Form **cannot** be used to extend the approval period of a study. All forms may be completed and submitted online at https://iris.research.ucf.edu .

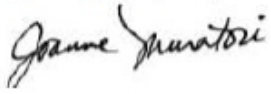
If continuing review approval is not granted before the expiration date of 08/17/2012, approval of this research expires on that date. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

Use of the approved, stamped consent document(s) is required. The new form supersedes all previous versions, which are now invalid for further use. Only approved investigators (or other approved key study personnel) may solicit consent for research participation. Participants or their representatives must receive a copy of the consent form(s).

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., CF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 08/18/2011 04:28:00 PM EDT



APPENDIX H: COPYRIGHT INFORMATION FOR PD PRIME WEBSITE TEMPLATE

Free Website Templates

INSTALLATION: Unpack the files to a directory on your local machine, upload the HTML directory to your domain, edit as needed

REQUIREMENTS: FTP to upload, HTML/Text Editor to customize HTML, Photoshop (if you want to edit original psd files)

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