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ROLE STRESSORS, INJUSTICE AND WORKPLACE INCIVILITY IN BANKING SECTOR: MEDIATING EFFECT OF NEGATIVE EMOTION AND MODERATING EFFECT OF SELF-MONITORING

By

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Abstract

In the context of service sector, uncivil behavior toward customers is likely to harm the effectiveness of the service provider. This study aimed at identifying the level of instigated workplace incivility in the banking sector in Malaysia, particularly in Kuala Lumpur and Penang. Built upon the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behavior developed by Spector and Fox in 2005, the study was also to determine the causes of instigated workplace incivility among bank employees by proposing that role conflict, role ambiguity and interactional justice might provoke uncivil behaviors through the mediation of negative emotion. In addition, self-monitoring was introduced as a moderator between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility. Two-hundred and eleven employees of commercial banks were selected using a multistage cluster sampling technique. In general, it was found that workplace incivility was not an uncommon occurrence among employees in the banking sector. The results from the structural equation modeling (SEM) showed that role conflict had a direct effect on instigated workplace incivility. This effect was partially mediated by negative emotion. Interactional justice had an impact on instigated workplace incivility through a full mediation of negative emotion. However, role ambiguity was not found to provoke a negative emotion and uncivil behaviors at all. Results also indicated that self-monitoring moderated the relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility. High self-monitors were less likely to instigate uncivil behaviors at the workplace although they encountered negative emotion. Practically, these findings could help banks in the country to mitigate the impact of role conflict and interactional justice, and incorporate self-monitoring as one of the employee selection criteria. Limitations and future directions are also highlighted in the study.

Keywords: workplace incivility, stressors, negative emotion, self-monitoring

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Abstrak

Dalam konteks sektor perkhidmatan, tingkah laku tidak sopan terhadap pelanggan mampu menjejaskan keberkesanan pembekal perkhidmatan. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenal pasti tahap tingkah laku tidak sopan di sektor perbankan di Malaysia, terutamanya di Kuala Lumpur dan Pulau Pinang. Berdasarkan model tekanan-emosi tingkah laku kerja tidak produktif yang dibangunkan oleh Spector dan Fox pada tahun 2005, kajian ini juga bertujaun untuk menentukan punca tingkah laku tidak sopan dalam kalangan kakitangan bank dengan mencadangkan bahawa konflik peranan, kekaburan peranan, dan keadilan interaksi mungkin mencetuskan tingkah laku tidak sopan melalui pengantaraan emosi negatif. Di samping itu, pemantauan diri diperkenalkan sebagai penyederhana antara emosi negatif dan tingkah laku tidak sopan di tempat kerja. Dua ratus sebelas pekerja bank perdagangan telah dipilih dengan menggunakan teknik persampelan kelompok berbilang. Secara umum, kajian ini mendapati bahawa tingkah laku tidak sopan di tempat kerja bukanlah satu fenomena luar biasa dalam kalangan pekerja dalam sektor perbankan. Keputusan pemodelan persamaan struktur (SEM) menunjukkan bahawa konflik peranan mempunyai kesan langsung terhadap tingkah laku tidak sopan di tempat kerja. Emosi negatif ditunjukkan mengantara sebahagian kesan ini. Keadilan interaksi memberi kesan terhadap ketidaksopanan di tempat kerja melalui pengantaraan penuh emosi negatif. Walau bagaimanapun, peranan kesamaran tidak dilihat mencetuskan emosi negatif dan tingkah laku tidak sopan sama sekali. Keputusan juga menunjukkan bahawa pemantauan diri menyederhana hubungan antara emosi negatif dan tingkah laku tidak sopan di tempat kerja. Individu yang mempunyai pemantauan kendiri yang tinggi kurang berpotensi untuk menghasut kelakuan tidak sopan di tempat kerja walaupun mereka menghadapi emosi negatif. Secara praktikalnya, penemuan ini boleh membantu bank-bank di negara ini untuk mengurangkan kesan konflik peranan dan keadilan interaksi, dan menggabungkan pemantauan kendiri sebagai salah satu kriteria pemilihan pekerja. Kekangan kajian dan hala tuju kajian masa depan juga diketengahkan dalam kajian ini.

Kata kunci: tingkah laku tidak sopan tempat kerja, tekanan, emosi negatif, pemantauan kendiri

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List of Abbreviations

CWB	Counterproductive Work Behaviour
JAWS	Job-related Affective Well-being Scale
HSM	High Self-monitor
LSM	Low Self-monitor
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
WIS	Workplace Incivility Scale

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 serves as an introduction to the present study. This chapter begins with a description of the background of the study. Section 1.3 presents the problem statement. Research questions and research objectives are stated in Section 1.4 and 1.5, respectively. Section 1.6 discusses the significance of the study while Section 1.7 reveals the scope of the study. Definitions of the key terms are shown in Section 1.8. Lastly, Section 1.9 presents the outline of this dissertation.

1.2 Background of the Study

Malaysia, a tiny country blessed with affluent natural resources, has been demonstrating resilient and promising economic growth since its independence in 1957. Once the largest producer of rubber and tin in the world, Malaysia now is largely manufacturing oriented. But both agriculture and manufacturing sectors have contributed tremendously to the last few decades of growth. According to the World Development Indicators database, Malaysia is ranked number 35th in terms of Gross Domestic Products (GDP) in 2014 (World Bank, 2016). It is also the third largest economy in Southeast Asia. In 2010, Malaysia managed to record an impressive GDP growth rate of 6.0% despite the gloomy world economic outlook (World Bank, 2016). The remarkable economic growth achieved by Malaysia has been mainly driven by the private sector investment over the

last three decades, particularly, in the manufacturing industry, which has been playing a vital role in contributing to the economic success.

To be more resilient and sustainable amidst intense competition due to globalisation, the Malaysian economy has been undergoing a transformation from labour-intensive to a more knowledge-intensive economy. This is a natural evolvement for a country along its economic development process. When a country's workforce lacks skills and expertise, it has to be highly dependent upon its agriculture and manufacturing industries to lead the growth. Over time, the country becomes more developed and this creates an educated workforce that can work in the services sector, as well as become a consumer of services (MITI, 2012). Therefore, in Malaysia, the economic focus now has been gradually shifted to the services sector. The services sector in the country has in fact become the prime driver for the national economic transformation and growth. Since 2005, the growth rate of the services sector in the country has surpassed the growth rate of the manufacturing sector with the exception in the year of 2010 (Ministry of Finance, 2012). In 2012, the services sector recorded a gross domestic product of RM410 billion, far ahead of other sectors (Economic Planning Unit, 2013). According to the latest quarterly report released by Bank Negara Malaysia, the country's economy remained steady in the second quarter of 2013 with a growth of 4.3%. All sectors registered a positive growth with the services (4.8%) continued to be the main catalyst (Bank Negara Malaysia, 2013).

Within the services sector, the financial sector has been of one the largest contributors. A sound and robust financial system is crucial to the economic growth. The Malaysian financial sector's performance has been quite consistent and had

recorded an excellent growth rate of 7.6% in 2012 (Economic Planning Unit, 2013). While acknowledging that the financial sector is part of Malaysia's success, the World Bank was also of the opinion that the quality of service and sound practices adopted by the financial institutions in Malaysia have contributed to this success (World Bank, 2013). The transformation in the recent decades has witnessed an increasing emphasis on productivity, competencies and quality of human resources (Zeti, 2013). One of the key success factors of the service industry, including the financial sector, lies in the service quality of human resources. Many researchers have also generally acknowledged that human resources are the key factor to company performance. Human resources capital is viewed as a source of sustained competitive advantage (Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1993). Human resources capital, which includes employees' skills, commitment, and teamwork, is most likely to become one of the most important sources of sustained competitive advantage into the next century (Barney & Wright, 1997).

Despite the critical role played by quality human capital in the service sector, there are still some issues caused by social interaction between deliverers and receivers of services such as rudeness or incivility. Delivering services involves direct interaction with the receivers or customers. Rude behaviours influence productivity, commitment, and service quality towards customers, and eventually retard the competitiveness of the service industry. Regrettably, uncivil behaviours at service organisations are on a rising trend in many countries. In America, the recent civility report published by Porath and Pearson (2013) revealed that about 25% of customers believe that disrespectful behaviour has become more common today compared to five years ago. About 40% of them also said that they encountered rude behaviours from employees at least once a

month (Porath & Pearson, 2013). Besides, the researchers found that incivility within the workforce had an impact on customers. About 25% of the respondents who experienced rudeness at work confessed that they had taken their frustration out on customers (Porath & Pearson, 2013). Furthermore, customers who witnessed rude behaviours of employees became more unwilling to want to use the company's service in the future. Most of these customers will generalize their feelings of their rude experience to all other employees of that company (Porath & Pearson, 2013).

In Malaysia, there is no official empirical study about the poor quality of service delivery. Several reports have nevertheless highlighted this problem in various service sectors. The work of Samsuwatd Zuha (2003) pointed out that incompetence and lack of courtesy of Islamic bank personnel (for example, inefficient and unfriendly staff) is the main reason deterring customers from using Islamic banking. There is no empirical report that commercial bank employees are also lacking of courtesy. However, customers' perceptions on services provided by commercial banks were consistently lower than their expectations (Izah Mohd Tahir & Nor Mazlina Abu Bakar, 2007). According to a report published in 2011 by Raydar Research, a local marketing information services and research agency specialized in industry benchmarking and customer satisfaction, the service standard across various sectors in Malaysia is rather poor. The incidence of poor and unpleasant customer experience happens almost twice the incidence of a great and satisfying customer experience (Raydar, 2011). Respondents' perception on the customer service standard is generally negative. For example, some of the comments pointed out include: "Malaysia customer service is poor, still long way to go for improvement," "Service standards in Malaysia lag

somewhat behind compared to other countries," "I'm a little disappointed in the customer service standard in Malaysia. It is deteriorating in general," and "Malaysia customer service process is not that friendly," (Raydar, 2011, p.7-8). These quotations suggest that discourteous, rude, or uncivil behaviours are the main concern voiced by customers, indicating that such behaviour is becoming a worrying phenomenon in Malaysia. Ultimately, if not addressed well, this problem could be a detrimental factor in lowering the competitiveness of service industry in the country.

There are several reasons workplace incivility becomes the subject interest of the present study. Firstly, although mild in nature, incivility is reported to be prevalent at the workplace (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Porath & Pearson, 2013). And because of its "mildness", this issue tends to be neglected or not taken with seriously (Cortina & Magley, 2009). Secondly, although workplace incivility represents a minor form of deviance, the consequences to both organisations and employees can be quite detrimental (Lim, Cortina & Magley, 2008; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000). Thirdly, minor acts of deviance may escalate to more serious acts if the former is not curbed early. This is consistent with a popular theory in sociology and crime prevention, i.e., the broken-windows theory (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). According to this theory, if a neighbourhood ignores small acts of deviance such as broken windows, littering, and graffiti, these minor acts will escalate into a more serious crime and chaos. Similarly, deviant behaviours at the workplace that begin small but may escalate or "spiral" into more severe behaviours (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Minor incivility may lead to aggression or other more

serious actions that harm the organisation (Everton, Jolton, & Mastrangelo, 2007). Therefore, it is important to fix the problems while they are still small.

The prevalence and costly impact brought by incivility at the workplace also justify the need to empirically and thoroughly study this subject issue. While our world is advancing, ironically, the issue of incivility is on the rise. In actual fact, incivility is still a persistent and prevalent issue in the past two decades. According to the Civility in America poll conducted by US News and World Report in 1999, every nine out of ten Americans thought that incivility was a serious problem. As high as 78% of the respondents said that the problem had become worse in the past ten years (Zauderer, 2002). The situation has not improved since then. The recent Civility in America 2011 poll reported that 86% of Americans are mistreated at work, and 59% admit to being uncivil to their co-workers (Mattice, 2012). Cortina et al. (2001) found that more than 70% of the respondents in public service in the United States experienced workplace incivility in the past five years. Burnes and Pope (2007) also found a very high rate of staff experiencing or witnessing negative behaviours in National Health Services in the United Kingdom. Spence Laschinger, Leiter, Day, and Gilin (2009) revealed that almost 70% or nurses have experienced incivility. Pearson and Porath (2005) showed that almost four out of five respondents witness incivility at the workplace. Incivility has also been acknowledged as one of the most common types of anti-social behaviour among employees (Cortina, 2008).

Asian countries, despite their abundance history of human civilization, cannot be spared from incivility problems too. The descriptive research by Yeung and Griffin (2008) indicated that workplace incivility is rather common in Asian countries as well.

Lim and Lee (2011) found that 91% of respondents in Singapore experienced some forms of incivility at the workplace in the past five years. Across the causeway, Malaysians were reported to be rude and inconsiderate. As pointed out in a news reporting (Lim, Tariq, & Chin, 2012), in 2006, Malaysia was ranked as the third rudest country (placed 33 out of 35 countries surveyed) by Reader's Digest. In 2012, an evaluation conducted by Reader's Digest showed that Kuala Lumpur was again positioned at the bottom list of the Least Courteous Cities, sitting at number 34 out of 36 major cities (Lim et al., 2012). Such ranking reflects the finding of a descriptive study conducted by Ida Rosnita and Zeti Zuryani (2012), who found that workplace incivility is a common issue in the Malaysian workplace. Out of the 691 respondents from both public and private sectors in West Malaysia, 41% of them reported that they have been given little attention or shown little interest to their opinions. Although there is no explicit evidence available that incivility is rampant in the public sector, the Malaysian Public Service Department has emphasized the need for civil servants to act courteously to everyone (Ida Rosnita & Zeti Zuryani, 2012), suggesting that incivility could be a recognized issue in public service sector in the country.

The prevalence of incivility may have serious impacts on both organisations and individuals in the long run if not tackled effectively. It is estimated that workplace incivility may cost companies averagely USD50,000 for every lost employee in terms of productivity, potential litigation, and cost of hiring new employees (Pearson & Porath, 2005). Organisational effectiveness will be adversely impacted as employees become less involved and engaged with their organisations or colleagues (Pearson & Porath, 2005; Zauderer, 2002). To employees, workplace incivility has far-reaching effects too.

Various studies revealed that workplace incivility affects both physical and psychological states of employees (Lim et al., 2008; Pearson & Porath, 2005). Incivility at the workplace was also found to have caused lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intention (Cortina et al., 2001; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Lim et al., 2008; Penney & Spector, 2005), absenteeism, reduced organisational commitment (Pearson et al., 2000), higher job stress and psychological distress (Cortina et al., 2001; Pearson, Andersson,& Porath, 2005). Other studies showed that incivility negatively affects career salience, motivation, work morale, confidence and self-efficacy of employees (Bartlett, Bartlett, & Reio, 2008). Furthermore, it is argued that incivility can spiral into aggression or violence over time (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

In view of its negative and detrimental effects, workplace incivility clearly deserves serious attention and comprehensive analysis (Cortina et al., 2001), especially in a non-Western context. The study is especially important to Malaysia where scientific investigation and research works on incivility is still in scarcity (Ida Rosnita & Zeti Zuryani, 2012). While Malaysia thrives to achieve its Vision 2020, the national vision of becoming a developed country by the year 2020 not only in terms of economy but also in terms of quality of life, social and spiritual values (Prime Minister Office, 2010), the manners of the people, including the service standard provided by business organisations, become a matter of utmost importance. However, as pointed out by the market report (Raydar, 2011), the service standard in the country is still far from satisfactory. In the local banking sector, commercial banks are the largest group of financial institutions. However, customers' perceptions on services provided by commercial banks were consistently lower than their expectations (Izah Mohd Tahir &

Nor Mazlina Abu Bakar, 2007). As such, there is a compelling need to examine the incivility issues in service organisations, particularly in the banking sector. Due to the nature of the work, employees in service industry who always interact with customers may tend to engage in interpersonal deviance (Faridahwati, 2003), such as uncivil behaviour. The study by Ida Rosnita and Zeti Zuryani (2012) provides some evidence to this. Nevertheless, their work is exploratory in nature and only presents descriptive information. To what extent uncivil behaviours toward co-workers and customers occur within the service organisations in Malaysia, and what provoke these uncivil acts still remain largely unexplored.

1.3 Problem Statement

Building upon previous works of Hollinger and Clark (1982), Mangione and Quinn (1974), and Wheeler (1976), Robinson and Bennett (1995) introduced a more comprehensive typology of deviant workplace behaviour that includes interpersonal nature or social aspect. This has complemented the earlier works of deviant behaviours (Rogojan, 2009). Robinson and Bennett (1995) define employee deviance as "voluntary behaviour that violates significant organisational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organisation, its members, or both" (p. 556). Their framework consists of two dimensions (minor versus serious; interpersonal versus organisational), which form four quadrants or categories of deviance: production deviance, property deviance, political deviance, and personal aggression. Production deviance refers to organisationally harmful but relatively minor acts. Examples of typical behaviours for production deviance include leaving early, taking excessive breaks, intentionally

working slow, and wasting resources (Faridahwati, 2006, p.63). Property deviance contains more serious and organisationally harmful behaviours like sabotaging equipment, accepting kickbacks, lying about hours worked, stealing from company (Faridahwati, 2006, p.63). Minor and interpersonally harmful deviant behaviours are named political deviance by Robinson and Bennett (1995). They define this behaviour as an "engagement in social interaction that puts other individuals at a personal or political disadvantage," (p. 566). This political deviance category covers behaviours like showing favouritism, gossiping about other co-workers, blaming co-workers, competing non-beneficially. On the other hand, the more serious interpersonally harmful personal aggression includes verbal abuse, sexual harassment, stealing from co-workers, and endangering co-workers (Faridahwati, 2006, p.63).

Incivility at the workplace can be categorized as minor deviant behaviours that appear in the Robinson and Bennett's (1995) political deviance category as incivility refers to the bad behaviours characterized by rudeness or discourtesy and disregard towards others, which shows a lack of consideration for others (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Shim & Park, 2008). Workplace incivility tends to be viewed as located at the lower end along the continuum of workplace mistreatment or deviant behaviour but it can take on any sort of disrespectful behaviours such as gossiping about co-workers, glaring at or ignoring colleagues, sending nasty and demeaning notes, undermining employee's credibility in front of others, using others' office supplies without permission, excluding colleagues from social activities and much more (Hutton, 2006; Lim et al., 2008; Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Shim & Park, 2008).

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As previously mentioned, although workplace incivility is a relatively mild form of interpersonal deviant behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005), the costly and detrimental effects caused by the uncivil behaviours justify the need for more scholarly attention, especially as to why these rude behaviours are prevalent in the modern workplace. Unfortunately, the number of research investigating the antecedents of incivility is relatively scant compared to the studies of its consequences (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Liu, Chi, Friedman, & Tsai, 2009).

Past studies on workplace deviance as a whole have generally considered individual, organisational and situational variables. Individual antecedents include anger (Meier & Semmer, 2012), perceived ambiguity, interpersonal injustice (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009), affectivity and workplace adaptation (Reio & Ghosh, 2009), personality (Bartlett et al., 2008; Cortina et al., 2001; Hornstein, 2003), job stress and dissatisfaction (Omar, Halim, Zainah, Farhadi, Nasir & Khairudin, 2011; Penney & Spector, 2005), retaliation (Bunk, Karabin, & Lear, 2011), and self-control (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). Organisational factors identified include organisational changes such as downsizing, increased workload, poor working condition, budget cuts and pressure for productivity (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Johnson & Indvik, 2001; Pearson et al., 2000).

Despite various investigations on these factors, previous studies have generally presented an oversimplified view built upon a direct relationship. If the causes of incivility are not well studied and understood, it will be very difficult to identify solutions to reduce this plague, thus limiting the utility contribution to practitioners. More investigations on the antecedents of incivility are therefore needed in order to further facilitate a more comprehensive understanding on the mechanisms of why and

how uncivil behaviours are triggered. Indeed, this need is highly pressing in view of the relatively scant research on workplace incivility compared to other forms of mistreatment like workplace deviant behaviours and counterproductive work behaviour.

Previous research trying to explain how various misbehaviours or "negative behaviours" develop, such as workplace deviant behaviours, antisocial behaviour, counterproductive behaviour, and aggression, has widely employed social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), frustration-aggression model (Berkowitz, 1989; Fox & Spector, 1999), and attraction-selection-attrition framework (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). Incorporating the role of emotion, Spector and Fox (2005) developed an alternative model called stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour to examine counterproductive work behaviours (Spector & Fox, 2005). Their stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour attempts to explain that stressors lead to negative emotion, which in turn motivates individuals to engage in counterproductive behaviours. Even though this model has provided some good theoretical support, it is still subject to further validation (Spector & Fox, 2005). Furthermore, to date no study has examined workplace incivility, specifically, based on this model. While employee's uncivil behaviour can be viewed as the less intense form of counterproductive behaviour, it has some nuances with counterproductive behaviour, especially in terms of the intent of the act. Thus, the present study aims to validate the stressor-emotion model and explore if the model is applicable to incivility as well. Besides, this study has tested whether inclusion of other personality variable could enhance the predictive power of the stressor-emotion model.

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The stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour suggests that occupational stress or job stressors, such as organisational conflict and interpersonal conflict, play a crucial role in predicting counterproductive behaviour (Spector, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2005). One of the gaps identified here is that role stressors could also be a potential cause of incivility. There is evidence that role stressors, such as role ambiguity and role conflict, affect employee behaviour (Frone, 2008; Jex, 1998; Mojoyinola, 2008). Various studies have demonstrated the adverse effects of these two stressors on employee attitudes and strain response (Chiu, Man, & Thayer, 1998; O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970; Stordeur, D'hoore, & Vandenberghe, 2001). Due to the complex environment and nature of services sector, role conflict and role ambiguity are possibly important variables in the study of services sector where there is a high level of human interaction among people. For example, Chung and Schneider (2002) found that customer service employees tended to face role conflict when serving customers and management at the same time. Sharma and Sharma (2008) found a high stress level among banking employees in India due to excessive working hours, psychologically demanding work, unclear objectives and expectations apart from other personal factors. Yet, little is known regarding the role of work stressors in influencing uncivil behaviour at the workplace especially in the financial service sector (Aftab & Javeed, 2012). Therefore, this study intends to close the gap by examining the influence of role conflict and ambiguity on workplace incivility in the service sector.

Another possible antecedent identified by the stressor-emotion model is perceived injustice (Spector & Fox, 2005). Beyond doubt, the issue of organisational

justice has received considerable attention within the research on deviant behaviour (Griffin, 2010). However, previous studies tend to focus their attention on distributive and procedural justice in affecting other more serious forms of deviant behaviour at work such as theft (Greenberg, 1993), sabotage (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002), aggression (Kennedy, Homant, & Homant, 2004), and retaliation (Sania Zaheer Ali, 2011). Little is known on the effect of other dimensions of organisational justice, particularly interactional justice, on uncivil behaviour at the workplace. As interactional justice deals with interpersonal treatment, it is reasonable to suggest that it is linked with incivility on the ground that incivility is a form of political deviance that greatly involves human and social interaction (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). This study, thus, aims to fill the gap by investigating interactional justice as a potential predictor of workplace incivility.

A mere investigation into the direct relationships between the above-mentioned stressors and uncivil behaviours, nonetheless, seems to represent an oversimplification in the research of the subject matter. The stressor-emotion model proposes emotion as an important element in triggering counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005). Emotions form a critical part of our daily life experience and have a great impact on our attitudes, behaviour, cognition, and personality (Fox & Spector, 2002). Yet, the role of emotions tends to be deemphasized in organisational research until 1990s (Jarymowicz, 2012; Lazarus, 1993). Based on the stressor-emotion model, emotion will mediate the relationships between stressors and various counterproductive work behaviours. Prior research to certain extent has also supported that emotions mediate the relationships between stressors and counterproductive work behaviour either fully or

partially (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Rodell & Judge, 2009; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). Among the existing research of incivility, there is a dearth of work examining the role of emotions. Therefore, it is the aim of the present study to close this gap by investigating the mediating effects of emotions in the linkages between stressors (i.e. role conflict, role ambiguity, and interactional justice) and uncivil behaviours.

Naturally, it should be recognized that stressors do not always elicit negative emotions, and negative emotions do not always lead to counterproductive behaviours (Spector & Fox, 2005). Whether people react emotionally varies greatly and is dependent upon a number of factors such as differences in personality. The extent to which stressors will lead to negative emotions and the extent to which negative emotions will prompt deviant behaviours, including uncivil behaviour, are very likely to be influenced by personality (Liu et al., 2009; Spector, 2011; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). In fact, Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model suggests that control (autonomy) and personality variables (trait anger, trait anxiety, Big Five personality, locus of control and narcissism) may moderate the links. A much-neglected variable is self-monitoring, which refers to the extent to which individuals monitor, adjust, and control their expressive behaviours based on how it is perceived by other (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Snyder, 1974). People with high self-monitoring are very much concerned with how others perceive them, thus they may control or alter their behaviours. It makes sense to assume that high self-monitoring employees will regulate their acts even though they experience negative emotion because they care for their positive appearance in the eyes of others. Blakery, Andrews, and Fuller (2003) even found that high self-monitors engaged in more interpersonal organisational citizenship

behaviour (OCB) than low self-monitors. Unfortunately, very limited study has looked at the possible influence of self-monitoring to workplace deviant behaviour or counterproductive behaviour (Parks & Mount, 2005; Gunawan & Muammar, 2008). The relationship between self-monitoring and workplace incivility also has not been examined empirically despite some indirect evidence from counterproductive work behaviour studies (Parks & Mount, 2005). This study therefore intends to close the gap by exploring whether self-monitoring explains any unique variance in uncivil behaviour by examining the moderating effect of self-monitoring on the relationship between negative emotion and uncivil behaviours.

Even though workplace incivility has been receiving attention over the past few decades, most of the studies are conducted in U.S. and Europe. Studies to understand this issue in Asia, especially Malaysia, are still very limited. The work of Yeung and Griffin (2008) only covered China, Hong Kong, India, Japan, Korea and Singapore. In the Malaysian context, the descriptive study done by Ida Rosnita Ismail and Zeti Zuryani (2012) only provides some background information on whether workplace incivility happens in Malaysia. Most of the studies in the country focus on other type of workplace deviance and not the subtle issue of incivility. A number of prominent studies by Faridahwati and colleagues have laid the ground for the conceptualization and empirical supports in the research of workplace deviance (Faridahwati, 2003; Faridahwati, 2006; Faridahwati, Ajay, & Kabiru, 2012; Faridahwati, Chandrakantan, & Hadziroh, 2011a, 2011b). Local studies also cover a few industries and specific geographical areas in Malaysia. For example, Abdul Rahman (2008) investigated the predictors of workplace deviance behaviours among production employees in the

manufacturing companies; Omar et al. (2011) found that job stress and job satisfaction are related to workplace deviant behaviour among civil servants in Malaysia; Faridahwati (2003) examined deviant behaviour among hotel employees in Langkawi while Mohamed and Aizzat (2006) focused their study in Penang; Mazni, Roziah, and Al-Mansor (2012) studied a variety of private organisations in Malacca; and Yuzana, Dempster, and Stevenson (2013) explored the inappropriate behaviours among healthcare support employees at Kuala Lumpur Hospital.

Despite the importance of banking sector to the economy, there is a serious dearth of research about deviant behaviours or incivility among bank employees in Malaysia. Bank employees are the key success factors in determining the competitiveness and sustainability of the banks. This is because bank employees play a very crucial role in service delivery and establishing relationships with customers (Tan, Syaiful Rizal Hamid, & Chew, 2015). Frost and Sullivan (2015) reported that 81% of retail banking customers in Malaysia discontinued their services with a bank due to customer experience issues. Indeed, in their study to examine customers' perception of the service quality dimensions of commercial banks in Penang, Santhi Appannan, Barathy Doraisamy, and Teoh (2013) found bank employees' responsiveness was perceived to be the most important component of service quality. In this context, it can be reasonably expected that uncivil behaviours of bank employees may affect the service quality of the bank, and, hence, the subsequent bank performance. Hence, understanding to what extent bank employees engage in uncivil behaviour toward their colleagues and what provoke these uncivil acts still remain largely unexplored. And it is the aim of the present study to address these issues.

In short, it is indisputable that research on workplace incivility in Malaysia is still seriously lacking despite its prevalence and costly impact. Therefore, the present study is of utmost significance theoretically and practically. By filling the theoretical gaps within the incivility literature, our understanding on the factors that influence uncivil behaviours at the workplace can be enhanced. Practically, we would be able to take appropriate measures to avoid and address the issues of incivility, thus enhance the competitiveness of the service industry, which will ultimately contribute to the achievement of our Vision 2020.

1.4 Research Questions

Based on the gaps identified above, the following research questions are drawn:

1. What is the level of experienced workplace incivility among employees in the Malaysian banking sector?
2. What is the level of instigated workplace incivility among employees in the Malaysian banking sector?
3. What is the relationship between role conflict and negative emotion?
4. What is the relationship between role ambiguity and negative emotion?
5. What is the relationship between interactional justice and negative emotion?
6. What is the relationship between negative emotion and workplace incivility?
7. Does negative emotion mediate the relationship between role conflict and workplace incivility?
8. Does negative emotion mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and workplace incivility?

9. Does negative emotion mediate the relationship between interactional justice and workplace incivility?
10. Does self-monitoring moderate the relationship between negative emotion and workplace incivility?

1.5 Research Objectives

Following the research questions in earlier section, the main aim of this study is to investigate the role of role conflict, role ambiguity and interactional justice in predicting workplace incivility through the mediating mechanism of emotion. This study also aims to examine the moderating effect of self-monitoring on the relationship between negative emotion and workplace incivility. Consistent with these aims, the research seeks to meet the following objectives:

1. To identify the level of experienced workplace incivility among employees in the Malaysian banking sector.
2. To identify the level of instigated workplace incivility among employees in the Malaysian banking sector.
3. To investigate the relationship between role conflict and negative emotion.
4. To investigate the relationship between role ambiguity and negative emotion.
5. To examine the relationship between interactional justice and negative emotion.
6. To inquire the relationship between negative emotion and workplace incivility.
7. To determine the mediating effect of negative emotion on the relationship between role conflict and workplace incivility.

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8. To determine the mediating effect of negative emotion on the relationship between and role ambiguity and workplace incivility.
9. To look into the mediating effect of negative emotion on the relationship between interactional justice and workplace incivility.
10. To examine the moderating effect of self-monitoring on the relationship between negative emotion and workplace incivility.

1.6 Significance of the Study

As mentioned in the earlier section, the problem of incivility at the workplace has become more serious and prevalent. Unfortunately, there are still theoretical gaps in the existing body of knowledge. It is believed that the present study contributes significantly to both theoretical development and to organisations in practice.

Theoretically, by expanding the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005) to uncivil behaviour, this study has explored the applicability of this model in explaining instigated workplace incivility and providing further empirical validation to the model. The present study investigated the relationships among work-related variable (role conflict and role ambiguity), organisational-related variable (interactional justice) and instigated workplace incivility. Besides, the roles of negative emotion as mediator and self-monitoring as moderator were also tested. This study introduced a new variable, self-monitoring, to the stressor-emotion model developed by Spector and Fox (2005). By doing so, the validity and predictive power of the model can be ascertained. This study hopes to enrich the

knowledge body of workplace incivility by integrating various streams of research (occupational stress, social psychology, and organisational behaviour).

In addition, the issues of instigated workplace incivility and its predictors have been sparsely researched in relative to other forms of misbehaviours (Liu et al., 2009; Reio & Ghosh, 2009). This is especially so in the context of Malaysia. Hence, this study has added further understanding on the work-related and organisational antecedents to workplace incivility. By being among the first empirical investigation in Malaysia to examine the predictors of workplace incivility, this study also contributes to the literatures regarding workplace incivility in the local context.

This study also has its practical utility. An effective organisation should create a workplace where employees feel included and work together with mutual respect to enhance productivity and effectiveness. A civil working environment is also crucial to attract and retain talented employees. When employees work in an uncivil workplace, they may not be able to concentrate their effort or energy in improving individual and organisational performance. It is, therefore, important for organisations to identify the root cause of uncivil behaviours. Without understanding what cause employees to act uncivilly at work, organisations are unable to address the problem and find ways to eliminate or minimize it. This study thus helps organisations to identify what drive their employees to behave uncivilly. The findings of the study provide a better understanding to the industry in regards to the variables that predict uncivil behaviours at work, for example, role conflict, role ambiguity, interactional justice and self-monitoring. In other words, the information provided by this study can assist policy makers and practitioners

in developing strategies and formulate programmes to overcome workplace incivility, which is an increasingly prevalent and detrimental problem at the workplace currently.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The Malaysian service sector contributed almost 55% to the country's GDP and accounted for the largest share of employment in 2008 (Treasury Malaysia, 2009). The services sector in the country encompasses a wide range of categories including wholesale and retail, transportation, professional services, and financial services. The financial services sector alone contributed 11.6% to the country's GDP in 2011 (Bank Negara Malaysia, 2012) and is one of the largest sectors in the service industry. However, this study only covered the banking sector, specifically, within the financial services sector due to its dominating role in the industry.

This study concentrated on two largest cities in the country, Kuala Lumpur and Penang. These two cities are embraced with economic prosperity that nurtures banking activities. Kuala Lumpur, capital city of the country, is the important centre of economic growth and attractive location to hundreds of multinational companies including financial institutions. The financial sector's gross national income (GNI) is expected to worth USD38 billion by year 2020 (Ernst & Young, 2012). Penang is chosen in this study due to some economic and historical factors. Penang is the third largest economy state in Malaysia (Penang Development Corporation, 2011; Department of Statistics, 2012) with the highest population density of 4,561 people per square kilometre based on the World Development Report (World Bank, 2009). It is also impossible to ignore Penang in the development of the banking history. The oldest bank in Malaysia,

Standard Chartered Bank, was opened in Penang in 1875 (Lo, Osman, Ramayah, & Rahim, 2010). The Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation Limited (presently known as HSBC) operated its first office in Penang in 1884 with the privileges to issue currency notes (HSBC, 2013). In essence, the city has been an important banking hub historically. The scope of study is limited to commercial banks in Kuala Lumpur and Penang. Samples respondents were selected from bank employees in these two cities based on random sampling discussed in Chapter 3.

Another important scope of study is in relation to the variables investigated in the research. The stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Fox & Spector, 2005) suggests a number of job stressors as potential antecedents, for example, organisational constraints, interpersonal conflicts, role conflict, role ambiguity, workload, and perceived injustice. Only role conflict, role ambiguity, and perceived injustice (specifically interactional justice) were studied as independent variables in the research framework of the current study. Besides, Fox and Spector (2005) also suggest a few personality variables as possible moderator, such as trait anger, trait anxiety, locus of control, and narcissism. However, the present study introduced a novel personality variable that deserved examination, i.e. self-monitoring. The role of self-monitoring as a moderator was examined instead.

1.8 Definition of Key Terms

This section presents the definitions of key terms used in the study, namely, workplace incivility, role conflict, role ambiguity, interactional justice, negative emotion and self-monitoring.

1.8.1 Workplace Incivility

The dependent variable, workplace incivility, is defined as "low-intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm, and in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Uncivil behaviours include rude and discourteous behaviours towards others, displaying a lack of regards for others, hard to get along with and so on.

1.8.2 Role Conflict

Role conflict refers to simultaneous contradictory expectations from work colleagues that interfere with each other and make it difficult to complete the work tasks (Katz & Kahn, 1978). It is the conflict that arises when people face with competing role requirements (Rizzo et al., 1970).

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1.8.3 Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity refers to unclear expectations set for employees or insufficient information given (Katz & Kahn, 1978). It is the confusion people experience related to not understanding what is expected from them, not knowing how to perform, or not knowing the consequences of failing to meet expectations (Rizzo et al., 1970).

1.8.4 Interactional Justice

Interactional justice refers to the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment (Colquitt, 2001; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009). Interactional justice focuses on the quality of the interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented (Colquitt,

Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Generally, it is the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment and concerns with fairness of how individuals treat each other in everyday interactions.

1.8.5 Negative Emotion

In specific, negative emotions refer to unpleasant affective states with variable intensity and with calm or tumultuous conduct reactions (Andries, 2011). Lazarus (1993) has roughly identified nine different negative emotions. They are anger, fright, anxiety, guilt, shame, sadness, envy, jealousy, and disgust (Lazarus, 1993). Negative emotions generally include anger, fear, sadness, disgust, anxiety, guilt, shame, jealousy, furious, frightened, anxious, depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued, and bored.

1.8.6 Self-monitoring

Self-monitoring is the extent to which individuals monitor, adjust, and control their expressive behaviours based on how it is perceived by others (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Snyder, 1974). High self-monitors are concerned with how they are perceived by others and will actually control and change their behaviour in order to fit different situations and social climate. On the other hand, low self-monitors tend to be true to themselves and show a more consistent behaviour across various social contexts (Day, Unckless, Schleicher, & Hiller, 2002).

1.9 Outline of the Dissertation

This dissertation consists of five chapters. The first chapter serves as an introduction, which comprises the background of the study, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, significance of the study, scope of the study, and definition of key terms. Chapter two presents the literature review that includes research framework and research hypotheses. Chapter three explains the research design and methodology used. Chapter four discusses the data analysis and findings. The last chapter, chapter five offers discussion of the findings, implications, limitations, and directions for future research. It also includes an overall conclusion of the study.

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of previous related works and provides the necessary background for the current study. The literature review concentrates on the major variables and their relationships. Section 2.2 presents the underpinning theory and model supporting this study. Section 2.3 explains how the main constructs of the study are derived from the underpinning model. Section 2.4 gives a conceptualization of the main constructs. It introduces the dependent variable, workplace incivility, and its definitions. A brief highlight of the antecedents and consequences of workplace incivility are also presented. This section also looks at the theoretical development of all other constructs, namely, role conflict, role ambiguity, interactional justice, negative emotion, and self-monitoring. Section 2.5 shows the hypotheses development through the discussion of the relationships among various constructs. Section 2.6 presents the research framework developed in this study. Lastly, section 2.7 serves as a summary of the chapter.

2.2 Underpinning Theory and Model

This study is basically supported by the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour developed by Spector and Fox (2005). This stressor-emotion model provides a solid theoretical foundation and logical explanation to the proposed research

framework of the present study. This section presents an overview of the stressor-emotion model.

2.2.1 The Stressor-emotion Model of Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Spector and Fox (2005) developed the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour by integrating theories of human aggression and occupational stress in order to explain why individuals engage in counterproductive behaviours at the workplace. According to this stressor-emotion model, individuals engage in counterproductive work behaviours as a consequence of their emotional responses towards organisational stressors (Spector & Fox, 2005). When environmental conditions or events are perceived as threatening, they are considered as stressors. These perceived stressors result in negative emotions, which are the precursor to counterproductive work behaviours (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Spector and Fox's (2005) model has some distinctions with previous works of human aggression and counterproductive work behaviours, for example, with those by Berkowitz (1989), Sackett (2002), and Spector (1978). These distinctions are important in providing a more solid foundation conceptually to support the current study. It is therefore noteworthy to review these distinctions here. The first distinction lies in the definition counterproductive work behaviour provided. In examining the key literatures of counterproductive behaviours and their interrelationships, Sackett (2002) defined counterproductive work behaviour as "any intentional behaviour on the part of an organisation member viewed by the organisation as contrary to its legitimate interests" (p.5). An example is the intentional violation of safety procedures, which jeopardizes

the individual and organisation. Unlike Sackett's (2002) definition that takes on the perspective of organisation, Spector and Fox (2005) extended the party harmed to employees, customers, and other stakeholders. This perspective suggests that counterproductive acts may bring detrimental effects on individuals but not on the organisation (Spector & Fox, 2005). This definition can thus better support the concept of workplace incivility as a milder form of counterproductive work behaviour. It is also more relevant to encompass the incivility problem in the current study.

The second difference comes from the precipitating factor. The frustration-aggression model (Berkowitz, 1989; Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939) suggests that frustration leads to aggression. In this model, frustration means interference with a person's goals or on-going activity (Berkowitz, 1989). Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model expands farther and considers more than frustration in the frustration-aggression model. To them, any perceived stressful work conditions can induce negative emotions. These conditions may not necessarily involve interference with employees' goals and cause frustration among employees. For example, a harsh critique from supervisor in public (Marchiondo, 2012) may be perceived as stressful but may not necessarily interfere with an employee's goals.

Thirdly, unlike earlier models of human aggression (Berkowitz, 1989; Dollard et al., 1939; Spector, 1978), which focus mainly on one negative emotion, i.e. anger, the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005) suggests that many other forms of negative emotions are associated with counterproductive work behaviour apart from anger, including anger, anxiety, guilt, and frustration. Fourthly, control and personality are important elements in the model since

not all individuals will respond in the same manner though under similar situations (Spector & Fox, 2005). These two elements determine the extent to which an individual perceives an event as a threat.

The central theme of the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour is the critical links from environment to perceptions, then to emotions, and finally to counterproductive work behaviour. Environmental conditions refer to the events and situations at work (Spector & Fox, 2002, 2005) and can become a kind of stressor. Environmental stressor is a condition of the workplace that tends to be perceived as a stressor and induces a negative emotional reaction (Spector, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2005). In other words, when environmental situations or events are perceived to be threatening, they are considered as stressors and induce negative emotions and subsequently create a tendency to react. The reactions include counterproductive behaviours or uncivil behaviours. Appraisal process takes place when individuals interpret whether the situations are threatening and are considered as stressors (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). It is then essential to understand what constitutes stressful situations or stressors at work. Previous studies have identified a number of stressors at work such as organisational constraints, interpersonal conflict, role ambiguity, role conflict, workload, and perceived injustice (Chen & Spector, 1992; Fox et al., 2001; Miles, Borman, Spector & Fox, 2002; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) within the stressor-emotion model.

According to the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour, the perceived stressors provoke emotional responses (Spector & Fox, 2005). Emotion plays an instrumental role in energizing the individual physiologically and motivates

intentions to engage in certain behaviour (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Since emotions represent the immediate response to perceived stressful events or situations (Lazarus, 1991), a felt stress is therefore assumed to generate negative emotions, for example, anger, guilt, frustration and shame (Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). Research has also generally supported the association between perceived job stressors and negative emotion. For example, Spector and Goh (2001) found a correlation of 0.49 between organisational constraints and anger. As emotion works to organize and motivate behaviour (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997; Dess, 2010), it serves as a mediating role in the relation between stressors and counterproductive work behaviour in the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour.

The last crucial link in the model is from emotion to behaviour. Counterproductive work behaviour, according to Spector and Fox's (2005) model, is a response to emotion-arousing situation. The psychological state of emotion is instrumental to a person's behaviour. The connection between emotion and counterproductive behaviour has gained significant support in extant research (DeCremer & van Hiel, 2006; Penney & Spector, 2007; Yang& Diefendorff, 2009). For example, Yang and Diefendorff (2009), using diary observations across 25 days on 231 samples in Hong Kong, found that negative emotions fully mediated the relation of supervisor interpersonal injustice and counterproductive work behaviour directed at individuals.

In addition, the stressor-emotion model recognizes individual differences in employee behaviours (Spector & Fox, 2005). Not all individuals experiencing the same emotion will behave in the same way. The ways individuals perceive the situation,

respond to stressors, and regulate their emotions are not the same. Studies found that the extent to which stressors induce negative emotions and the extent to which negative emotions lead to uncivil behaviours are influenced by personality (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Spector & Fox, 2005). Spector and Fox (2005) also proposed several potential affective and cognitive personality traits to the model, namely, trait anger, trait anxiety, narcissism, and locus of control.

In summary, the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour developed by Spector and Fox (2005) proposes that perceived work stressors lead to counterproductive work behaviour through the arousal of emotion. This model has provided a framework to understand the incidence of counterproductive work behaviour, including uncivil behaviour that is specifically examined by the present study.

2.3 Deriving Constructs from the Theories

As discussed in the earlier section, Spector and Fox (2005) suggested some potential environmental stressors to the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour including organisational constraints, role conflict, role ambiguity, interpersonal conflict, psychological contract, and injustice. In addition, the model also acknowledges individual differences in predicting counterproductive work behaviour. Several relevant personality variables concerned are trait anger, trait anxiety, locus of control, and narcissism (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Built on the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour described earlier, the present study derives its main constructs for investigation. It is argued here that the model can be applied to the study on workplace incivility as it is

generally agreed that incivility at work is a form of counterproductive behaviour, albeit a minor one (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Johnson & Indvik, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2005), that is interpersonal in nature. Furthermore, the measures of counterproductive workplace behaviours used in previous studies, to a certain extent, overlap with uncivil behaviours. For example, gossiping and making sarcastic remarks are regarded as uncivil behaviours (Leiter, 2013; Shim & Park, 2008) but they have also been used to measure counterproductive behaviours. Regrettably, limited research has explained incivility based on the stressor-emotion model mechanism despite this model's applicability in helping us understand why individuals engage in negative behaviours at work (Roberts, 2012). Thus, this research validates the model and explores its applicability to workplace incivility, a milder form of interpersonal deviance.

Based on the model also, the present study has examined role conflict, role ambiguity and interactional justice as antecedents of workplace incivility. Spector and Fox (2005) noted that although there is empirical evidence that provides support for the relations between these stressors and counterproductive work behaviour, the number of research work in this area is scarce. More studies are therefore needed to further validate the links and the model. Hence, by considering these three antecedents, the study is able to enrich the existing literatures on job stressors and their effect on counterproductive behaviour.

Role conflict refers to simultaneous and conflicting demands that make it difficult for the employee to perform the job, whereas role ambiguity involves the degree to which an employee is uncertain about what is expected of him (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Role conflict and role ambiguity are chosen as the antecedents of workplace

incivility for several reasons. Firstly, both of them have been found to be an important source of work-related stress or occupational stress in the current complicated work environment (Holmlund-Rytkönen& Strandvik, 2005; Kakoli Sen, 2012; Nelson & Burke, 2000). Besides, role conflict and ambiguity are likely to be a serious problem in the service sector due to the nature of the business that involves frequent social interaction not only within but also outside the organisation particularly with customers. Studies on sales and service personnel found that service employees, as boundary spanning employees, are prone to high level of role conflict and role ambiguity (Bettencourt & Brown, 2003; Brewer & Clippard, 2002; Jaramillo, Mulki, & Solomon, 2006; Kim, Murrmann, & Lee, 2009). This is because the service employees are often required to play two or more roles that are conflicting to each other. Thus, they are more likely to face different expectations from both customers and organisation that are difficult to reconcile. As revealed by Chung and Schneider (2002), customer service employees tend to experience role conflict in serving customers and management. Furthermore, the current study chose to examine role conflict and ambiguity because there is still a dearth of study on this particular stressor in the Malaysian context (Safaria, Ahmad, & Muhammad Nubli, 2011).

Another construct, interactional justice, was chosen because the topic of organisational justice in general has been gaining increasing attention in counterproductive behaviour research (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Unfortunately, findings on the impact of justice on counterproductive work behaviour have been inconsistent (Aquino, Lewis & Bradfield, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Spector & Fox, 2005). Interactional justice in particular is chosen among other

dimensions of organisational justice such as procedural and distributive justice (Colquitt et al, 2001; Greenberg & Bies, 1992) because interactional justice is more relevant in the context of service sector characterized by a high level of human interaction. As suggested by Bies (2013), interactional justice would be useful in analysing the dynamics of boundary-spanning roles of service employees because this is a critical concern in the interaction and experience of dealing with customers (p. 96).

Because the model suggests that counterproductive work behaviour is an emotion-based response to perceived stressful conditions, this research studied employees' negative emotions provoked by these stressors, for example, anger, anxiety, depression, and frustration. According to Spector and Fox (2005), employees will experience feelings of anger and frustration particularly when encountered with stressors at work (Spector & Fox, 2005). It is argued that workplace incivility is displayed by individuals at work as response to the emotional experience felt as a result of work stressors perceived.

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In keeping with the recommendation of Spector and Fox (2005), the present study investigated a personality trait, namely self-monitoring, in an attempt to see whether workplace incivility was enhanced or buffered when such personality trait was at work given the work stressors experienced. According to Oh and Kilduff (2008), research on self-monitoring is important because it can help us understand to what extent individual differences shape not just behaviours but also social patterns of interaction. Individual differences explain the variance in aggressive behaviour (Glomb & Liao, 2003) including uncivil behaviour. Not all individuals experiencing negative emotions will act rudely towards others. Self-monitoring, thus, may be an important

factor in explaining this variation in engaging incivility. Regrettably, self-monitoring factor has been neglected in the study of incivility. In fact, there has also been a scarcity of research with regards to the role of self-monitoring in various job performance dimensions (Day & Schleicher, 2006). Hence, this study conceptualized self-monitoring as a moderator of emotion-incivility relationship.

The conceptualizations and definitions of these main constructs, namely workplace incivility, role conflict, role ambiguity, interactional justice, negative emotion, and self-monitoring are discussed in the following section.

2.4 Conceptualizations of Main Constructs

This section reviews the conceptualizations of the main constructs derived as aforementioned, starting from the dependent variable of instigated workplace incivility. This is then followed by the three independent variables, role conflict, role ambiguity and interactional justice. In addition, negative emotion (mediator) and self-monitoring (moderator) are explained.

2.4.1 Workplace Incivility

Since workplace incivility is the subject matter of the present study, it is essential to gain more understanding on this main construct. As such, this sub-section not only shows the conceptualization of workplace incivility, but also discusses related subjects to incivility such as critiques to the definition, its outcomes and antecedents.

2.4.1.1 Definition of Workplace Incivility

Since Andersson and Pearson published their work on workplace incivility in 1999 (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), many scholars have been focusing more on this covert behaviour than other overt forms of misbehaviour like theft, violence, and bullying (Caza & Cortina, 2007; Hornstein, 2003; Pearson et al., 2000; Zauderer, 2002).This is because incivility has been found as one of the most prevalent types of antisocial behaviour in organisation (Cortina, 2008; Pearson et al., 2000) and can have far-reaching and detrimental consequences to both organisation and employees (Cortina & Magley, 2009). Incivility can also become a chronic feature of organisational climates which create daily stressor for employees (Marchiondo, 2012). Thus, incivility deserves a serious scrutiny in both research and practice.

First and foremost, it is important to understand what constitute an uncivil behaviour or what incivility means. According to the Oxford Dictionary, civility means "formal politeness and courtesy in behaviour or speech" (Oxford Dictionaries Online). In the early stage, the use of this term, civility, signified "the state of being a citizen and hence good citizenship or orderly behaviour" (Oxford Dictionaries Online). Subsequently, a sense of 'politeness' arose since the mid-16th century. As the antonym of civility, incivility refers to rude or unsociable speech or behaviour. It involves behaving rudely, or discourteously, without regard for others, and in violation of norms for respect in social interactions (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Shim & Park, 2008). Putting the concept into the context of workplace, incivility means acting with disregard for others at the workplace, in violation of workplace norms for respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Yeung and Griffin (2008) viewed workplace incivility as "verbal and

non-verbal behaviours that make people feel oppressed, humiliated, de-energized, or belittled in the workplace" (pp. 15).

When introducing this concept, Andersson and Pearson (1999) define workplace incivility as "low-intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect," (p. 457). Two distinguished criteria or features are *intensity* and *intent* (Lim & Lee, 2011; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Based on the formative definition provided by Andersson and Pearson (1999), uncivil behaviours are *mildly intense*. They represent the mildest form of workplace deviant behaviours and have low level of negative charge (Cortina & Magley, 2009). Examples of incivility include speaking to co-worker condescendingly, supervisor ignoring a worker in a meeting (Miner & Eischeid, 2012), avoiding from returning a phone call or even a smile (Bartlett et al., 2008), making demeaning remarks about co-workers (Cortina et al., 2001) and many more. These uncivil behaviours can be contrasted from serious forms of workplace deviance such as physical aggression or sexual harassment.

The next feature of incivility is its *ambiguous intent*. Uncivil behaviours normally lack clear intent to harm (Roberts, 2012). Instigators may intentionally or unintentionally engage in uncivil acts to harm their target. On the other hand, the targets or witnesses may perceive these behaviours as intentional or accidental acts from the instigators (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson & Porath, 2005). This means that some uncivil behaviour may be due to the instigator's ignorance or a target's misinterpretation. Hence, in this manner, workplace incivility is referred to as a "milder form of psychological mistreatment in which intentionality is less apparent" (Cortina et al., 2001).

Another feature of workplace incivility in its definition, according to Lim et al. (2008), is the *violation of norms for respect*. Workplace incivility involves acting rudely or discourteously with disregard for others in the workplace, and in violation of workplace norms for respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Workplace norms are unwritten rules and beliefs about how people should think, behave and interact with each other (Hammer, Saksvik, Nytro, Torvatn, & Bayazit, 2004). Shared moral understanding and foundational norms for mutual respect exist among organisational members (Hartman, 1996). Although Andersson and Pearson (1999) recognized that norms vary across organisations, industries, and cultures, they postulated that in every workplace there are norms for respect for co-workers, without which, cooperation among co-workers will be disrupted. This *norm deviant* nature of incivility has also been recognized by other researchers (Marchiondo, 2012; Roberts, Scherer, & Bowyer, 2011).

By looking at the characteristics or elements in the definition of workplace incivility, one can learn that workplace incivility can be distinguished from other more serious forms of deviance, for instance, workplace aggression, workplace bullying, and workplace violence. Workplace aggression is defined as efforts or intended behaviours by individuals to harm others at work or the organisation (Neuman & Baron, 1998). Intentions to harm are present in workplace aggression. Workplace bullying involves repeated behaviour that threatens, intimidates, humiliates, sabotages, or isolates target individuals at work, undermines their reputation or job performance (Daniel, 2009; Oslf, 2010). Workplace violence can be narrowly defined as physical acts of violence such as

homicide, robbery, and assault (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002), or psychological violence like verbally abusive actions (Barling, 1996).

In order to provide a clearer insight of the differences between workplace incivility and other forms of deviant behaviour, Andersson and Pearson (1999) have presented a diagram to show how workplace incivility differs from and overlaps with other forms of mistreatment in organisations such as antisocial behaviour, deviant behaviour, workplace violence and aggression (Everton et al., 2007; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Kennedy et al., 2004; Marcus & Schuler, 2004). This diagram is illustrated in Figure 2.1 below.

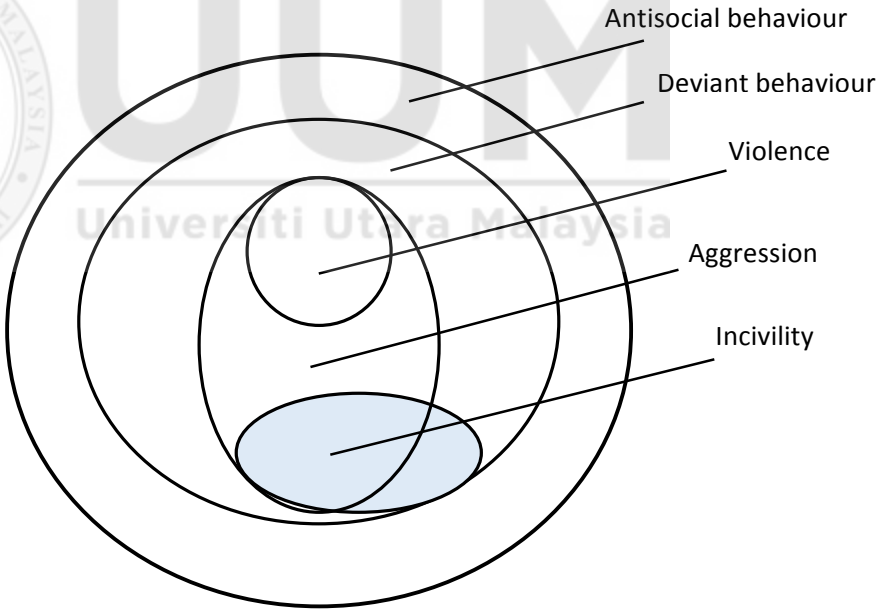

Figure 2.1
Incivility and Other Mistreatment
Source: Andersson and Pearson (1999)

As illustrated by Andersson and Pearson (1999) in Figure 2.1 above, antisocial employee behaviour encompasses all other conceptualizations of mistreatment in the organisation. Antisocial behaviour includes any behaviour that brings harm to the organisation and/or its members. Deviant behaviour is a form of antisocial behaviour that violates workplace norm and it includes aggression and incivility. Violence refers to high-intensity, physically aggressive behaviour that falls under aggression. Aggression refers to the behaviours that are intended to harm the organisation and/or people in the organisation.

Obviously, considerable overlaps exist among the many different terms of misbehaviour (Greenberg, 2010). As pointed out by Faridahwati (2006), research in organisational misbehaviour suffers from some conceptual difficulties due to the lack of agreement in terms of terminologies and definitions. Anyway, one should be aware of these diverse definitions offered. Table 2.1 below provides the definitions of some frequently used constructs of negative behaviours in organisational research, including insidious workplace behaviour which was recently introduced by Edwards and Greenberg (2010).

In summary, the present study employs the working definition of workplace incivility introduced by Andersson and Pearson (1999), i.e. “low-intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm, and in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect” (p. 457). This definition is used by most of the researchers in the incivility studies (Shim & Park, 2008).

Table 2.1

Definitions and Examples of Negative Behaviours at Work

Concept	Authors	Definition	Examples
Noncompliant behaviours	Puffer (1987)	Non-task behaviours that have negative organisational implications and break rules and norms.	• Being late and take excessive breaks • Taking sales from other workers • Complaining about the organisation or other employees
Workplace deviant behaviour	Robinson & Bennett (1995)	Voluntary behaviours that break significant organisational norms and threaten the well-being of the organisation or its members	• Production deviance: damaging quantity and quality of work • Property deviance: abusing or stealing company property • Political deviance: bad-mouthing others, spreading rumours • Personal aggression: being violent towards others
Organisational misbehaviour	Vardi & Weitz (2004); Vardi & Wiener (1996)	Acts that violate core organisational or societal norms; intentional workplace acts that violate rules pertaining to such behaviours.	• Intending to benefit the self and the organisation, intending to inflict damage, wasting time, absenteeism, sexual harassment, crime
Antisocial behaviour	Giacalone & Greenberg (1997)	Actions that bring harm, or are intended to bring harm, to an organisation, employees or stakeholders	• Aggression • Theft • Discrimination • Sabotage • Harassment • Lying • Revenge
Dysfunctional behaviour	Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly & Collins (1998)	Actions by employees or groups of employees that have negative consequences for an individual, a group, or organisation.	• Violent and deviant: aggression, physical and verbal assault • Non-violent and dysfunctional: alcohol

Concept	Authors	Definition	Examples
			and drug abuse, absence, theft
Workplace aggression	Neuman & Baron (1998)	Efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organisations in which they are presently, or were previously, employed.	• Homicide and assault • Theft • Intentional work slowdown • Yelling and making racist remarks
Workplace incivility	Andersson & Pearson (1999)	Low-intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target and in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect.	• Making demeaning remarks • Addressing someone in unprofessional terms • Open co-worker's desk drawer without prior permission
Social undermining	Duffy et al. (2002)	Behaviour intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work related success, and favourable reputation.	• Making insulting personal comments • Failing to share important information • Deliberately misreporting information
Workplace bullying	Einarsen et al. (2003)	A range of negative behaviours including harassing, offending, socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone's work tasks.	• Rumour spreading and slander • Hurtful teasing and jokes • Blame without factual justification
Counterproductive work behaviour	Gruys & Sackett (2003); Sackett (2002)	Intentional behaviour of organisation member that is viewed by the organisation as contrary to its legitimate interests.	• Theft • Destruction of property • Unsafe behaviour • Poor quality of work • Misuse of information

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Concept	Authors	Definition	Examples
Counterproductive work behaviour	Spector & Fox(2002, 2005)	Voluntary, volitional acts that hurt or intended to hurt organisations or people in organisations.	• Doing tasks incorrectly • Verbal hostility • Sabotage • Theft
Workplace violence	Bulatao & Vandenbos (1996); LeBlanc & Kelloway (2002)	Act or threat of physical violence, harassment, intimidation, or other threatening disruptive behaviour at the work site.	• Threats and verbal abuse • Physical assaults • Homicide • Rape • Robbery
Insidious workplace behaviour	Edwards & Greenberg (2010)	A form of intentionally harmful workplace behaviour that is legal, subtle, and low level, repeated over time, and directed at individuals or organisations.	• Badmouthing the company to others • Repeatedly chastising co-worker • Repeatedly sabotaging the sales reports submitted by a co-worker

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2.4.1.2 Critiques of the Definition of Workplace Incivility

The construct of workplace incivility apparently overlaps with other constructs of workplace misbehaviour. As illustrated in Figure 2.1, workplace incivility in fact is a subset of aggression, deviant behaviour, and antisocial behaviour. The definition of workplace incivility provided by Andersson and Pearson (1999) seems specific in meaning but vague in practice (Marchiondo, 2012). The main problem lies with the ambiguous intent or the covert intentionality of the acts. Does an employee ignore a co-worker because he dislikes this co-worker or because he accidentally overlooks the co-worker? Does the supervisor question an employee's professional judgment because he does not respect this employee or because he is trying to promote creativity? Asked Marchiondo (2012). Clearly, these situations are too vague for researchers to identify as incivility in research practically.

Besides, to determine whether the behaviours are performed intentionally or violate norms of respect is a highly subjective matter (Cortina & Magley, 2009). As suggested by Andersson and Pearson (1999), the perception of incivility involves the instigators, observers and targets. Whether the behaviours of a person towards others are viewed as uncivil is dependent upon the perception of the instigator, observers or targets. Instigator may deny his intention or violation of norms. Targets may not feel offended personally. All of these create obstacles to accurate measurement in related research. Researchers may not be able to capture the real situation whether a true uncivil act is perpetrated. To address this problem in the research, in the present study, the overall level of incivility was measured in the descriptive analysis. Respondents were asked from multiple perspectives, both as instigators and as targets. This has helped to reduce problems of inaccurate measurement. The details of the measurement are discussed in Chapter 3.

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2.4.1.3 Outcomes of Workplace Incivility

When an organisation experiences breakdown in its effectiveness, much focus is given to the common organisational factors like employees' skill base, budgeted resources, organisational structure (Zauderer, 2002). Unfortunately, less focus is channelled to consider that the organisational breakdown may also stem from low morale and commitment, and a distrustful atmosphere among employees caused by incivility at the workplace. This section reviews the impact or consequences of workplace incivility found in previous literatures.

As pointed out by Pearson et al. (2000), incivility violates the norms for mutual respect at the workplace and leads to disconnection, breach of relationships and erosion of empathy among co-workers. This milder form of deviance brings serious consequences to organisations. Workplace incivility has always been associated with employees' intention to leave (or its reverse, intention to stay) or turnover intention (Cortina et al., 2001; Griffin, 2010; Lim et al., 2008). Penney and Spector (2005) showed that incivility was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to counterproductive work behaviour. Lim and Lee (2011) observed that incivility from co-workers was related to decreased co-worker satisfaction, increased perceptions of unfair treatment, and increased depression. Employees experiencing incivility from co-workers also saw reductions in their work effort and higher levels of counterproductive work behaviours through the mediation of negative emotions (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Other study also showed a similar result whereby hurt feelings partially mediated the relationship of workplace incivility and co-worker helping (Ida Rosnita Ismail, 2011).

Besides the most frequently studied outcomes of productivity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Blau & Andersson,

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2005; Cortina et al., 2001; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Pearson & Porath, 2000), workplace incivility was also found to be associated with higher absenteeism and lower organisational commitment (Pearson, Andersson & Wegner, 2001). Incivility at the workplace was also reported to bring negative effects on mental health and psychological distress to employees, like anxiety, loss of concentration, stress and depression (Cortina et al., 2001; Gardner & Johnson, 2001; Lim et al., 2008).

Among the abundant research investigating the negative impact of workplace incivility on work-related outcomes, a recent study by Marchiondo (2012) is worth noting. Marchiondo (2012) studied whether targets of incivility appraised incivility experience as harm, or as a learning opportunity or opportunity to grow, and thus produced positive outcomes. Using a sample of 479 working adults across occupations in the United States, Marchiondo (2012) found that some targets appraised incivility as challenging, meaning they treated their uncivil encounters as a growth or learning opportunity. This group of targets demonstrated improvements in their job satisfaction. Some individuals just viewed stressor as opportunity through which they could gain resources (Marchiondo, 2012). As an example, an employee receiving harsh critique from supervisor may evaluate this as challenging if he believes that the critique will help to improve his performance. As the employee appraises the supervisor's incivility as a learning opportunity, he will utilize positive coping mechanisms, for instance actively develops his skills through feedbacks. This employee is therefore very likely to report good psychological and occupational health (Marchiondo, 2012, pp. 17). Marchiondo (2012) also found that targets were more likely to treat incivility as a challenge when they perceived their perpetrators' acts as unintentional. The conclusion is that workplace incivility may not absolutely

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cause negative consequences. Rather, it depends on the target or receiver's perception, appraisal, and personality perhaps.

2.4.1.4 Antecedents of Workplace Incivility

Literatures are replete with studies examining the prevalence and impact of workplace incivility (e.g., Caza & Cortina, 2007; Cortina et al., 2001; Estes & Wang, 2008; Griffin, 2010; Lim et al., 2008; Lim & Lee, 2011; Owens, 2012; Pearson et al., 2000; Pearson & Porath, 2005; Sguera, Bagozzi, Boss, & Huy, 2011). Yet relatively limited focus is given to investigating the causes of incivility at the workplace. Some authors have acknowledged this limitation in research (Meier & Semmer, 2012; Roberts 2012). Only a few researchers have empirically examined why individuals engage in uncivil behaviour towards others, for instance, Blau and Andersson (2005), Liu et al. (2009), Meier and Semmer (2012), Reio and Ghosh (2009), and Roberts et al. (2011). Most of the other works are integrative literature reviews or conceptual studies and thus lack the empirical support for their speculations of antecedents. These researchers have suggested a plethora of potential antecedents of uncivil behaviours, including, but not limited to, overwhelming job demands, stressful working conditions, overwork, employee diversity, informal culture, budget cuts, negative affects, and intention to harm (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Bartlett et al., 2008; Estes & Wang, 2008; Johnson & Indvik, 2001; Lewis, 2009; Pearson & Porath, 2005; Vickers, 2006; Yeung & Griffin, 2008).

Generally speaking, the postulated antecedents can be classified into structural or organisational, environmental and individual factors (Bartlett et al., 2008). Structural antecedents refer to organisational-related factors, such as downsizing, reengineering, hierarchical organisational structure and organisational

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change (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Bartlett et al., 2008; Blau & Andersson, 2005; Vickers, 2006; Yeung & Griffin, 2008). These factors have been found to lead to a higher level of incivility because they increase work pressure on individuals. Besides, employees would also experience a lower level of perceived job security and subsequently an increased level of stress, which prompt them to act rudely consciously or unconsciously.

Environmental factors refer to the working environment at the workplace, such as autocratic work environment, difficult working conditions, and poor work atmosphere (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Muir, 2000). Lately, another predictor examined was organisational justice (Griffin, 2010). Distributive justice, together with job satisfaction and work exhaustion, was found to contribute significantly to workplace incivility (Blau & Andersson, 2005). Employees experiencing distributive injustice, job dissatisfaction, and work exhaustion might intentionally or unintentionally showed rude, discourteous behaviours in the workplace to let out their dissatisfaction and frustration (Blau & Andersson, 2005). The spiralling of incivility begins when these instigated uncivil behaviours further invoke uncivil behaviours in the target (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Blau & Andersson, 2005).

Individual characteristics refer to individual-level factors involving demographics, personality, affectivity, and what the individual does. Examples are position held, gender, self-efficacy, affective state or emotion. Pearson and Porath (2005) found that status in an organisation and gender affected incivility at workplace. Through in-depth interviews, Pearson and Porath (2005) revealed that those who held higher positions and have greater power tend to be uncivil overtly, for example, disrupting meetings, speaking in condescending words and tone. Although men and women possess equal opportunities to be the targets of incivility,

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the incivility spiral will grow into a more intense direct retribution if the targets are men, whereas female targets will reinforce their support, recoup their strength and be ready to take recourse when the best opportunities come (Pearson & Porath, 2005).Other individual factors identified in previous research include negative emotions like anger (Meier & Semmer, 2012; Reio & Ghosh, 2009), personality (Bartlett et al., 2008), self-control (Marcus & Schuler, 2004), and self-efficacy (Liu et al., 2009).

As stated in the earlier section, the study intended to find out what causes employees act uncivilly at the workplace, in other words, what instigated employees' incivility at the workplace. The research examined role conflict, role ambiguity and interactional justice as the antecedents of workplace incivility based on the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005). It is therefore essential to firstly review the conceptualizations of role conflict, role ambiguity and interactional justice in the next sub-sections.

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2.4.2 Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity

Based on the stressor-emotion model, the present study suggested that stressors like role conflict and role ambiguity would lead to workplace incivility through emotion arousal. Prior to looking at these role stressors, it is useful to understand the meaning of stress. This section provides some conceptualizations of stress in general, followed by the meaning of role conflict and role ambiguity to facilitate a better comprehension.

The issue of stress in the organisational context has become a major topic of interest amidst the highly competitive and rapidly changing working environment. According to Stress in America survey 2012, 65% of the respondents said their work

or job causes them the most stress (American Psychological Association, 2013). But what is stress? Initially, the term “stress” was first used in physics in order to analyse the problem of how man-made structures must be designed to carry heavy loads and resist deformation by external focus (Krohne, 2001). In the early stages of studies on stress, stress was simply defined in terms of stimulus and response, or the interaction between the two (Dewe, O'Driscoll, & Cooper, 2012). Selye (1976) defined stress as “a state manifested by a syndrome which consists of all the non-specifically induced changes in a biologic system”(pp.64).In the organisational context, Judge and Colquitt (2004) defined stress as “an aversive or unpleasant emotional and physiological state resulting from adverse work experiences, particularly experiences that are uncertain or outside the employee’s control,” (p.396). Stress is also “an unpleasant psychological process that occurs in response to environmental pressures” (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p.60).

Generally speaking, organisational stress is said to come from job demands, job characteristics, job insecurity, job scope, time pressure, responsibility for others, career progress or promotion, physical work environment, politics, supervisory styles, organisational structure, workload, work pressure, conflict and other task- and role-based factors (American Psychological Association, 2013; Brewer & Clippard, 2002; Hsieh & Wang, 2012; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1987; Lawrence & Kacmar, 2012; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). But the seminal work of Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal (1964) in organisational role theory has provided a platform for organisational stress research, particularly role-related stress in organisational context.

The concept of role is one of the most popular topics in the social sciences (Biddle, 1986). On the basis of role theory, it is presumed that persons are members

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of social positions and hold expectations for their own behaviours and for those of others. Much attention has been given to how roles impact employees' behaviours since decades ago (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). According to Kahn et al. (1964), role ambiguity (unclear or vague expectations) and role conflict (conflicting or incompatible expectations) are the two primary dysfunctions in roles and form sources of stress. Both role conflict and role ambiguity evaluate the extent to which an individual perceives inconsistent or mutually exclusive expectations or insufficient expectations about his or her role (Rizzo et al., 1970). Nevertheless, according to Eatough, Miloslavic, Chang, and Johnson (2011), these two stressors are unique and should be treated as distinctive stressors. Indeed, role conflict and role ambiguity have become one of the most frequently investigated job-related strains (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001).

Role conflict refers to inconsistent or incompatible expectation required of an individual (Rizzo et al., 1970). An individual generally behaves in a way that is consistent with how his/her role is defined (Kahn et al., 1964). However, role conflict occurs when two or more sets of role pressures exist in the individual's work environment, and the compliance with any of these pressures hinders the achievement of another (Kahn et al., 1964). Role conflict is also referred to as "simultaneous contradictory expectations from work colleagues that interfere with each other and make it difficult to complete work tasks" (Katz & Kahn, 1978). In a simpler term, expectations that are conflicting to each other may result in role conflict for the individual.

The implications of role conflict can be drawn from Henri Fayol's principles of management, one of the earliest and most influential theories of management. Role conflict violates the principle of chain of command and the principle of unity of

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command in classical organisation theory (Rizzo et al., 1970). An individual will encounter role conflict when the behaviours expected of him/her are inconsistent. He/she will then experience stress, become dissatisfied, and perform less effectively, causing decreased individual satisfaction and decreased organisational effectiveness (Rizzo et al., 1970). When a person faces role conflict, it becomes increasingly more difficult for him/her to meet all of the sent expectations (Zohar, 1995). Tension will be created when individuals find it difficult to perform their various roles successfully.

Role ambiguity refers to unclear or vague expectations given to an individual pertaining to his or her performing role (Kahn et al., 1964; Rizzo et al., 1970). In classical organisational theory, every position in an organisation should have a clearly specified set of task responsibilities. If an employee is unclear about what he/she has to do, what he/she is expected to accomplish, what authority he/she has, and how he/she will be appraised, he/she will be hesitate to make decisions and rely on a trial and error approach in meeting expectation (Rizzo et al., 1970). In short, role ambiguity is the term used when "there is a lack of clarity on the part of an individual about the expectations of the organisation and colleagues regarding his or her role within the organisation" (Wood, 2010, p.2).

Role ambiguity arises when there is insufficient information given to an employee, causing him/her to take on some coping behaviours. He/she may attempt to solve the problem in order to avoid the stress or employ defence mechanisms which distort the reality of the situation (Kahn et al., 1964). Role theory, therefore, suggests that role ambiguity "should increase the probability that a person will be dissatisfied with his role, will experience anxiety, will distort reality, and will thus perform less effectively,"(Rizzo et al., 1970, p.151).

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Role ambiguity involves four frequent instances of uncertainty: (i) uncertainty about how work is evaluated, (ii) uncertainty about advancement opportunities, (iii) uncertainty about scope of responsibilities, and (iv) uncertainty about others' performance expectations (Handy, 1985). The higher the role ambiguity, the less able employees are to predict the outcomes of their behaviours (Black, 1988). An employee with higher role ambiguity may not make necessary decision because he or she is less able to predict how others will respond to the decision he or she makes. On the other hand, Bedeian and Armenakis (1981), Sawyer (1992), and Singh, Verbeke, and Rhoads (1996) took a multidimensional approach to study role ambiguity. Four dimensions of role ambiguity identified from their foundational works are: (1) goal/expectation/responsibility ambiguity (what is expected?), (2) process ambiguity (how to get things done?), (3) priority ambiguity (when things should be done and in what order?), and (4) behaviour ambiguity (how am I expected to act in various situations?) (Bauer & Simmon, 2000).

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For the purpose of this study, the most influential definition from previous works (Kahn et al., 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Rizzo et al., 1970) was used. Role conflict is defined as the inconsistency or incompatibility of expectation and requirements from an individual's performing role at work. Role ambiguity refers to the ambiguity on the job due to unclear expectations given to an individual. These definitions are most widely recognized in the studies of role stressors (Glissmeyer, Bishop, & Fass, 2007).

2.4.3 Interactional Justice

This section provides an overview of the concept of interactional justice, a type of organisational justice. As suggested by the stressor-emotion model (Spector & Fox,

2005), perceived interactional injustice forms a potential stressor that may lead to counterproductive work behaviour. This study focuses on interactional justice particularly because incivility at the workplace involves interaction of people, which is in line with the interactional aspect of justice. Studies have also found that interactional justice is related to deviant behaviour (Ambrose et al., 2002; Aquino et al., 1999; Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993; Le Roy, Bastounis, & Minibas-Poussard, 2012).

Since the ancient times of Aristotle and Plato until the modern times of John Rawls, one of the most prominent philosophers in moral and political philosophy who published his much influential work, *A Theory of Justice*, in 1971, justice has been greatly studied as an aspect of morality and as a supreme value in ethical thought. The concept of justice deals with "how assets and liabilities are allocated in the manner due recipients" (Greenberg & Bies, 1992, p. 433). Justice, in fact, is multi-faceted and it involves outcomes, procedures, and treatment (Barclay, 2005). Since 1970s, the notion of justice has become an increasingly important construct in social science. Research of organisational justice involves efforts to explain the dimensions of validity (Bies, 2005; Blader & Tyler, 2003; Colquitt, 2001), dynamics (Barclay, 2005; Colquitt et al, 2001; Greenberg, 1987) and impact of justice (or fairness) on effective organisational functioning (Colquitt et al, 2013; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009; Wang, Liao, Xia, & Chang, 2010).

Based on the writings of Aristotle and Rawls, generally, there are three types of organisational justice that have gained scholarly interest, namely, distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Colquitt et al, 2001; Greenberg & Bies, 1992). Prior to 1975, the study of justice primarily focused on distributive justice based on social exchange theory and equity theory (Adams, 1965).

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Distributive justice essentially involves perceived fairness in outcome allocation. Thibaut and Walker (1975) introduced the procedural justice notion and subsequently Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry (1980) extended this notion to organisational setting (Colquitt et al., 2001). In brief, procedural justice deals with perceived fairness of the procedures. Interactional justice is a relatively newer aspect in the literatures of justice, introduced by Bies and Moag (1986), who focused on the quality of interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented. In other words, interactional justice refers to perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment (Colquitt et al., 2001; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009).

Although some researchers recognize interactional justice as a social form of procedural justice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), many other researchers argue about the distinctiveness between procedural justice and interactional justice (Blader & Tyler, 2003; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). No doubt, interactional justice and procedural justice are highly correlated (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) but they are not completely redundant and can be distinguished conceptually (Lonsdale, 2013). Interactional justice is more strongly related to supervisor-related variables like leader-member exchange (LMX) and organisational citizenship behaviours. On the other hand, procedural justice has a stronger relationship with organisational-level variables like perceived organisational support (POS) and organisational commitment (Masterson et al., 2000; Lonsdale, 2013). Bies (2005) also confirmed the distinctiveness between procedural justice and interpersonal justice. As stated earlier, interactional justice focuses on the quality of the interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented (Colquitt et al., 2001). It is the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment.

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Some researchers further divide interactional justice into two dimensions (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1993). According to Colquitt et al. (2001), two specified types of interpersonal treatment are interpersonal justice and informational justice. *Interpersonal justice* describes the extent to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect. It covers the relational aspects of interactional justice. *Informational justice* involves the explanations given to people about why procedures are being used in certain way or why outcomes are distributed in certain ways (Colquitt et al., 2001; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009). It concerns the perception of being informed and receiving sufficient explanation of the procedures. In sum, interactional justice concerns with fairness of how individuals treat each other in everyday interactions.

In this study, the working definition of interactional justice provided by Colquitt (2001) was followed. Interactional justice refers to the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment in everyday interactions. It includesthe individuals' perceptions of fairness whether they are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect, as well as the perception of being informed and receiving sufficient explanation of the procedures implemented (Colquitt, 2001).

2.4.4 Negative Emotion

Individuals have different ways of thinking and feeling, and emotions are central to human adaptation. The philosophical history of emotions has been developed since the ancient times until present. Originally emotions play adaptive functions in dealing with basic biological needs and external challenges (Jarymowicz, 2012). The feelings of threat, fear or anger come from any physical imbalances, for example, hunger or famine and physical pain. After human socialization took place,

psychological needs emerged and became important. The inability to fulfil the needs for safety, social belonging, and acceptance leads to negative emotions (Jarymowicz, 2012). The great philosopher, Aristotle, might be considered as the first cognitive theorist of the emotions (Lazarus, 1993). Although Aristotle lived in the ancient times of about 2500 years ago, his ideas are quite modern and relevant in today's world. For example, Aristotle wrote that, "Anger may be defined as a belief that we, or our friends, have been unfairly slighted, which causes in us both painful feelings and a desire or impulse for revenge" (Aristotle, 1941, p.1380, as cited in Lazarus, 1993, p.17). If we were unfairly neglected, we would have some hard feelings (like anger). Sometimes, we might even have "impulse for revenge."

The development of the notion of emotion has come a long way. In spite of this, academic psychologists and theorists almost abandoned the concept of emotion 80 years ago. Many viewed emotion as "unneeded" in scientific research or felt that "nothing special about emotion" and predicted that emotion would eventually fade out from scientific psychology (Duffy, 1941; Meyer, 1933, both as cited in Lazarus, 1993). Nonetheless, since 1960s and 1970s, the topic of emotions had regained attention in different disciplines (Lazarus, 1993). People realize that emotion, a seemly irrational term, does really matter in a rational organisational setting. Emotions had since then been examined from different perspectives (Averill, 1982; De Sousa, 1987; Izard, 1977; Jarymowicz, 2012) and have received considerable attention in management and organisational psychology literatures (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000; Fox, 2002; Weiss, 2001; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). As stated by Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2008), some researchers are of the opinion that an "affective revolution" is underway in the mainstream study of organisational behaviour.

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In psychology and widely used textbooks, emotion generally refers to a feeling state that involves thoughts, physiological changes, and expressive behaviour (Shergill, 2010). Emotion is a complex state of feeling that results in physical and psychological changes, which influence our thoughts and behaviours (Myers, 2004).

There is no one definite and universally accepted definition of emotion thus far. The British Oxford dictionary states that emotion means "a strong feeling deriving from one's circumstances, mood, or relationships with others." Others referred to emotion as an individual's subjective feelings and moods (e.g., Parker & Ettinger, 2007) but Dess (2010) suggested that emotion is distinct from feeling, mood and affect. Dess (2010) asserted that feeling refers to the "subjective experience associated to an emotion," while mood is "an emotional state that is general and extended in time," and affect "encompasses feelings and mood and categories of emotion for example positive or negative affect" (p.3). On the other hand, to Dess (2010), emotion is "a relatively brief episode of synchronized, evaluative physiological, behavioural, and subjective responses" (p. 3). While the debate in defining emotion still goes on, the generally acceptable definition of emotion in psychology and widely used in the textbooks refers to a feeling state that involves thoughts, physiological changes, and expressive behaviour (Shergill, 2010). It is a complex state of feeling that results in physical and psychological changes that influence thought and behaviour (Myers, 2004).

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) pointed out that emotion is a reaction to an event, has object specificity and involves experience. An emotion can be aroused by an environmental demand, constraint or resource. It can also be aroused by a person's beliefs and motives. Jarymowicz (2012) believed that both self-standards and axiological standards form the sources of emotions. For example, a discrepancy

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between the real self and the ideal self, between axiological standards (for instance, personal conceptualization of justice) and reality will lead to passive and negative emotions like sadness, disappointment, sorrow and pity (Jarymowicz, 2012).

There are indeed many different kinds of emotion; in fact, much more than we can use (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and many researchers have identified some basic emotions. Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, and O'Connor (1987) categorized emotions into anger, fear, joy, love, sadness, and surprise. Ekman (1992) suggested six basic emotions: anger, fear, sadness, enjoyment, disgust, and surprise. Plutchik (1994) proposed eight categories: anger, fear, disgust, sadness, acceptance, joy, expectation, and surprise. Lazarus (1991, 1993) roughly identified 15 different emotions and within these there are nine so-called negative emotions. These negative emotions are anger, fright, anxiety, guilt, shame, sadness, envy, jealousy, and disgust (Lazarus, 1993). Van Katwyk, Spector, Fox and Kelloway (2000) developed their notable Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS) by dividing emotions into four categories: high pleasure high arousal (ecstatic, enthusiastic, excited, energetic, inspired), high pleasure low arousal (satisfied, content, at ease, relaxed, calm), low pleasure high arousal (furious, angry, frightened, anxious, disgusted), and low pleasure low arousal (depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued, bored).

Specifically, negative emotions refer to unpleasant affective states with variable intensity and with calm or tumultuous conduct reactions (Andries, 2011, p. 33). The above mentioned vocabularies of emotions thus can enter into the category of negative emotion: anger, fear, sadness, disgust, anxiety, guilt, shame, jealousy, furious, frightened, anxious, depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued, and bored.

Negative emotions, in the present study, are defined as unpleasant (low pleasure) discrete states of feeling that involve psychological, physiological changes

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and expressive behaviour (Katwyk et al., 2000; Shergill, 2010). Negative emotions include furious, angry, frightened, anxious, disgusted, depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued, bored.

2.4.5 Self-monitoring

There are certain people who are very sensitive to the ways they express and present themselves in social situations, and tend to control their images or impressions conveyed to others. They possess ability and skill to carefully observe and adjust their own performances in order to maintain appearances suited to the current situations. Snyder (1974) called these people 'high self-monitoring individuals.' On the other hand, some people are not so concerned with evaluating the social situations, and tend to express what they think and feel. Snyder (1974) called them 'low self-monitoring individuals.' Since Snyder (1974) introduced the construct of *self-monitoring* based on his doctoral dissertation, many theory and research on self-monitoring have emerged.

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Conceptually, self-monitoring refers to the extent to which individuals observe, regulate, and purposefully adjust their public appearance and behaviour in social settings in order to impress others (Barrick, Parks, & Mount, 2005; Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). High self-monitors tend to act differently in different situations and with different people (Snyder, 1987). They are good at controlling and modifying self-presentational and expressive behaviour (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1982). Their acts come with status enhancement motive, meaning they control and adjust their behaviours with intention to enhance their status and to maximize their self-interests (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). High self-monitors are sometimes called social chameleons (Blakely et al., 2003; Snyder, 1979).

On the contrary, low self-monitors are less likely to adjust their behaviour in social context (Snyder, 1987). They tend to behave consistently with their dispositions and internal cues for example, inner traits and feelings, across all situations (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Low self-monitors are more concerned with their self-validation and preserving their self-defined identity (Day & Schleicher, 2006). As identified by Snyder (1974) in his seminal work that low self-monitors tend to express what they think and feel instead of moulding their self-presentations to fit the situations. They lack either the ability or motivation to regulate their expressive behaviours (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986).

In this study, the definition of self-monitoring developed by Snyder who introduced this construct is adopted. Self-monitoring refers to the extent to which individuals monitor, adjust, and control their expressive behaviours in social context (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Snyder, 1974).

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2.5 Hypotheses Development

This section reviews the relationships of various constructs as found in the previous literatures. It then shows how the hypothesized relationships among the variables are derived based on the literatures.

2.5.1 Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity and Workplace Incivility

Not only role conflict and ambiguity are linked to a number of negative work-related consequences (Bettencourt & Brown, 2003; Chang & Hancock, 2003; Glissmeyer et al., 2007), they have also been identified as one of the key predictors of employee behaviour (Jex, 1998), including organisational citizenship behaviour (Eatough et al. 2011). Earlier studies showed that both role conflict and role ambiguity were

associated with lower level of job satisfaction and dysfunctional behaviours (Greene & Organ, 1973; House & Rizzo, 1972; Keller, 1975; Rizzo et al., 1970). Recent studies also found the negative impact of both role conflict and role ambiguity on a number of work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job performance, and turnover intention or intention to quit (Babin & Boles, 1996; Glissmeyer et al., 2007; De Ruyter, Wetzels, & Feinberg, 2001; Sager, 1994; Siegall, 2000). Safaria et al. (2011) demonstrated that both role ambiguity and role conflict had indirect effect on job stress through the mediation of job insecurity.

In particular, studies also showed that role conflict was associated with many negative outcomes, for example, emotional exhaustion, tension and anxiety, psychological strain, job dissatisfaction, interpersonal conflict, and absenteeism (Chung & Schneider, 2002; Coverman, 1989; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994; Perrewe´, Zellars, Ferris, Rossi, Kacmar & Ralston, 2004; De Ruyter et al., 2001; Stordeur et al., 2001,). Despite the overwhelming evidence, there are also some contradicting findings with respect to the effect of role conflict. For example, some studies found that role conflict did not have a direct effect on the intention to leave (Netemeyer, Johnston & Burtons, 1990; Siegall, 2000). Due to differences in cognitive process, some employees might not appraise role conflict as threatening thus did not experience any distress (Siegall, 2000). Beyond workplace context, Chiu et al. (1998) showed that role conflict was related to role satisfaction (job satisfaction, marital satisfaction, and life satisfaction).

Earlier research found significant relationships between role ambiguity and voluntary turnover, propensity to leave, lower job satisfaction and job performance (Greene & Organ, 1973; Lyon, 1971; Rizzo et al., 1970). Johnson and Stinson (1975) showed that the need for independence and need for achievement moderated

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the relationships between role conflict, role ambiguity and satisfaction. While role conflict was related to extrinsic source of satisfaction, role ambiguity was related to intrinsic satisfaction (Keller, 1975). In recent literatures, role ambiguity is viewed as a hindrance, a stressor that is considered threatening and impeding employees' work achievements (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008). Indeed, some studies observed that role ambiguity, in relative to role conflict, had a stronger negative relationship with job performance (Tubré & Collins, 2000) and organisational citizenship behaviour (Eatough et al., 2011). According to Eatough et al. (2011), this is because when employees try to cope with role ambiguity, they may do things that are likely to be evaluated favourably, thus restricting efforts devoted to their own tasks.

With regard to the consequences on employee behaviours, Taylor and Kluemper (2012) found support for the indirect effects of perceived role conflict and role ambiguity on aggression through the mediation of experienced incivility. Chen and Spector (1992) also found significant correlations between role conflict, role ambiguity and hostility, aggression, and sabotage. Role conflict and role ambiguity were also found to be associated with perceived workplace mistreatment (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007).

Previous studies supported the idea that counterproductive work behaviour can be a response to role stressors as suggested by the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005). Based on the stressor-emotion model, Meier and Semmer (2012) studied the lack of reciprocity as a stressor that trigger incivility, while Roberts (2012) examined job demands, organisational change, interpersonal conflict, and work/life interference as stressors that lead to incivility. Though none of them investigated the impact of role conflict

and ambiguity, both studies have provided some support to the current research on incivility that built upon the stressor-emotion model. In a disorganized workplace where employees face high level of role conflict and ambiguity, employees are unclear of the guidelines for what constitute appropriate behaviour or conduct at the workplace (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006). Employees may engage in behaviours that protect their self-interests (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). As observed by Pearson et al. (2000), an ambiguous work setting can foster incivility among employees and worsen collegial relationships.

Therefore, on the basis of the model and previous research above, it was hypothesized that employees who experience higher level of role conflict and ambiguity engage more in incivility.

H1: Role conflict is positively related to instigated workplace incivility.

H2: Role ambiguity is positively related to instigated workplace incivility.

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2.5.2 Interactional Justice and Workplace Incivility

The notion of justice is important to individuals because justice communicates how they are viewed by the group they belong to (Ferris, Spence, Brown, & Heller, 2012; Lind & Tyler, 1988). When an individual is treated in an interpersonally just way, for instance, in a polite manner with dignity and respect, he or she will perceive that his or her rights are respected and feel more positive about his/her standing in the organisation (Bies & Moag, 1986; Ferris et al., 2012). On the contrary, injustice happens when an employee believes that he/she (or someone else) has been treated unfairly and embarks on certain actions to restore the justice (Masterson et al., 2000). Therefore, it is not surprising that the perception of justice (or injustice) has been found to have impact on several variables in an organisational context such as

litigation intentions (Goldman, 2001), and organisational commitment and turnover intentions (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009). Caza and Cortina (2007) found that perception of injustice led to lower satisfaction with the organisation.

The perception of injustice could be a source of stress (Zohar, 1995) as well. Previous evidence suggests that injustice affected measures of subjective well-being (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Zohar, 1995). People are expected to experience a higher level of stress under the conditions of unfair treatment or perceived injustice (Spector & Fox, 2005). This stressor is greatly impactful in shaping an employee's behaviour. As a source of stress, Judge and Colquitt (2004) found that interpersonal and procedural injustices led to greater increases in stress relative to other types of injustice.

In the workplace, injustice was also found to be associated with employees' deviant behaviours. Perceived injustice led to hatred, anger, and workplace aggression (Kennedy et al., 2004), workplace sabotage (Ambrose et al., 2002), and theft (Greenberg, 1993). Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found that distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice interacted to predict organisational retaliatory behaviour. Interpersonal justice alone was associated with workplace deviance (Aquino et al., 1999; Bies & Moag, 1986; Ferris et al., 2012; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006). Employees who think that they are being treated unfairly will be upset, demotivated, and even display deviant behaviours or retaliatory behaviours (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Greenberg, 1993; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). Empirical evidence shows that low perceived interactional justice was the strongest predictor of violent workplace behaviours (Bies, 2005; Jawahar, 2002).

Interactional justice has stronger relationship with employees' reactions because information about procedure and interpersonal interaction is salient to

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employees, and the fair environment shows the degree an organisation concerns and cares for its employees (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002; Thau, Aquino, & Wittek, 2007). Indeed, interactional justice involves a relational perspective, which emphasizes that fair treatment affirms individual's identity within the groups. Any unfair treatment prompts the individual to take actions to protect their social standing (Folger, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2005; McCardle, 2007). If an employee feels that he is unfairly treated by the organisation, manager, supervisor, or colleague, he may display deviant behaviour in reaction. The work of Ferris et al. (2012) supports this incidence by explaining that daily interpersonal injustice lower the self-esteem of employees, who then involve in workplace deviance. VanYperen, Hagedoorn, Zweers and Postma (2000) found that low perceived interactional justice was related to verbal aggression directed to co-workers or supervisors. While examining the social contextual variables that influence workplace incivility, Sayers, Sears, Kelly and Harbke (2011) found that interactional (in)justice was one of the contributors. Hence, it was hypothesized that:

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H3: Interactional justice is negatively related to instigated workplace incivility.

2.5.3 Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity and Negative Emotion

Stressor tasks always evoke negative emotion and cardiovascular responses (Feldman, Cohen, Lepore, Matthews, Kamarck, & Marsland, 1999). An early research by Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler and Schilling (1989) found that daily stressors (including work overload and interpersonal conflicts) explained about 20% of variance in mood. Role stressors were also found to be directly affecting job

satisfaction and physical health, and emotional well-being (Deckard & Present, 1989; Keller, 1975; Kemery, Mossholder & Bedeian, 1987). For example, Deckard and Present (1989) found that role stressors created frustration and strains that depleted individuals' physical and emotional well-being and affectivity. They also observed that burnout and somatic tension arose when the respondents encountered with role stressors.

More recently, extant literatures also support that role conflict and role ambiguity elicit the feelings of negative emotion, like tension, anxiety and emotional exhaustion of employees through their appraisal process (Dormann & Zapf, 2002; Eatough et al., 2011; Fox & Spector, 1999; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Lazarus, 1991; Perrewé & Zellars, 1999; Spector & Fox, 2005). Spector and Goh (2001) found a correlation between role conflict and anxiety. Various studies suggest that role stressors lead to the arousal of negative emotions, such as anxiety, guilt, and distress (Penney & Spector, 2005) because emotions represent the immediate response of human beings towards a perceived stressful event (Lazarus, 1991; Fox et al., 2001). In fact, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) say that "emotion is a reaction to an event," (p. 18). For example, anxiety results from ambiguity and uncertainty (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008). An employee fails to perform a task due to unclear expectation and conflicting demand can feel guilty or angry depending on the attribution (Perrewé & Zellars, 1999).

Clearly, various literatures support that role conflict and ambiguity elicit negative emotions, in line with the propositions of the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005). In the present study, role conflict and role ambiguity served as the stressors that aroused negative feelings. Therefore, in this study it was predicted that:

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H4: Role conflict is positively related to negative emotion.

H5: Role ambiguity is positively related to negative emotion.

2.5.4 Interactional Justice and Negative Emotion

Various researchers have pointed out that the perception of injustice could be a form of stressor that arouses felt emotion (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Kennedy et al., 2004; Spector & Fox, 2002; Zohar, 1995). Intentionally unfair treatment and perceived injustice were found to induce a high level of negative emotions (Folger & Baron, 1996; Fox et al., 2001). Specifically, the perception of unfair managerial actions and interpersonal treatment tend to create negative feelings (e.g., inferiority, anger, outrage, and resentment) of the affected employees (Colquitt et al., 2001; Ferris et al., 2012; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997). Negative emotions are the employees' immediate responses to situations where they perceive as unfair (Lazarus, 1991; Le Roy et al., 2012; Weiss & Cropanzano; 1996). For example, a recent study by Le Roy et al. (2012) showed that interactional justice was significantly related to anger and fear. Supported by the empirical evidence in previous literatures, it was hypothesized that:

H6: Interactional justice is negatively related to negative emotion.

2.5.5 Negative Emotion and Workplace Incivility

Emotions result from cognitive appraisals of an event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The instrumental role played by emotions in influencing organisational behaviour has well been acknowledged (Spector & Fox, 2002). For instance, negative emotions were found to be associated with lower likelihood of cooperation and engagement in organisational citizenship behaviour

(Bachrach & Jex, 2000; Belschak & Den Hartog, 2009; De Cremer & Van Hiel, 2006; Eatough et al., 2011). Many studies have also examined counterproductive work behaviours as an emotional-based response to organisational environment (Chen & Spector, 1992; Fox & Spector, 1999; Rodell & Judge, 2009; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Spector & Fox, 2002; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). Recently, Krischer, Penney, and Hunter (2010) showed that employees experiencing negative emotion tended to perform counterproductive workplace behaviour.

The negative behaviours of employees are not difficult to understand as a result of negative emotions. Researchers theorize that individuals engage in certain behaviours such as sabotage, aggression and withdrawal as an attempt to minimize negative feelings (Chen & Spector, 1992; Lazarus, 1991; Spector & Fox, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano; 1996). As pointed out by Robinson and Bennett (1995), employees need to let out or express their feelings of indignation, anger or frustration in order to cope with their negative emotion. Employees may lash out at co-workers or subordinates intentionally or unintentionally by performing uncivil acts (Roberts et al., 2011). Therefore, it made sense to hypothesize that negative emotion would lead to uncivil behaviours.

H7: Negative emotion is positively related to instigated workplace incivility.

2.5.6 The Mediating Role of Negative Emotion in Role Conflict-Workplace Incivility and Role Ambiguity-Workplace Incivility Relationships

The core value of the stressor-emotion model is the emotion-centred approach to explaining counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005). As a mediator, negative emotion could explain why employees were involved in counterproductive work behaviours. Emotions are immediate response to an event and may motivate subsequent behaviour (Lazarus, 1991; Le Roy et al., 2012; Weiss & Cropanzano;

1996). Research on the mediating role of negative emotion between work stressors and counterproductive behaviours found good support (Berkowitz, 2003; Meier & Spector, 2013; Spector & Fox, 2005). Rodell and Judge (2009) also demonstrated that anxiety and anger mediated the positive relationships between hindrance stressors (red tape, role conflict, role ambiguity and hassles) and counterproductive behaviours. In short, evidence suggests that negative emotion is an important aspect of work experience associated with stressors that subsequently provoke counterproductive work behaviour. It was therefore hypothesized in the study that:

H8: Negative emotion mediates the relationship between role conflict and instigated workplace incivility.

H9: Negative emotion mediates the relationship between role ambiguity and instigated workplace incivility.

2.5.7 The Role of Negative Emotion in Interactional Justice-Workplace Incivility Relationship

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Some studies have explored the indirect effect of interpersonal justice on workplace deviance. For example, Judge et al. (2006) found that job satisfaction mediated the relationship of interpersonal justice and workplace deviance. Ferris et al. (2012) demonstrated that daily self-esteem mediated the effect of daily interpersonal injustice and interact with trait self-esteem in predicting daily workplace deviance.

Theoretical works suggest that affect or emotion is a potential mediator between injustice and negative behaviour. When employees perceive that they experience injustice at the workplace, they may feel angry and frustrated, outrage, resentment, upset, demotivated or stressful and even display deviant behaviours or retaliatory behaviours (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1993; Spector & Fox, 2005; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002).

Interpersonally unjust treatment received by an individual tends to create negative feelings that he or she is less worthy, more inferior or excluded by the group (Ferris et al., 2012; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Literatures also reveal that perceived interactional injustice evokes negative emotion, attitude and behaviour from individuals (Colquitt et al., 2001). Employees experiencing interactional injustice may reciprocate uncivil interpersonal treatment (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Apparently, the results of numerous studies are in line with the proposition of the stressor-emotion model whereby negative emotion plays a central role in mediating the relationship of justice and counterproductive work behaviour (Berkowitz, 2003; Colquitt et al., 2001; Fox et al., 2001; Fox & Spector, 1999; Meier & Spector, 2013; Spector & Fox, 2005;Van Yperen et al., 2000). Therefore, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H10: Negative emotion mediates the relationship between interactional justice and instigated workplace incivility.

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2.5.8 Self-Monitoring and Workplace Incivility

Self-monitoring, a novel dispositional variable introduced in the present study, is postulated to affect numerous outcomes at work. On the positive side, high self-monitors (HSMs) have better interpersonal skills and social networks, are more responsive to others, and more effective in performing boundary spanning roles (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1982; Day & Kilduff, 2003; Day, Schleicher, Unkless, & Hiller, 2002). At work, HSMs also get promotion faster than low self-monitors (LSMs) and hold more central positions (Kilduff & Day, 1994; Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 2001). In fact, Day et al. (2002) found a small but significant positive relationship between self-monitoring and performance. But HSMs were found to be

less committed to the organisation and perform discretionary citizenship behaviour less frequent than low self-monitors (Caligiuri & Day, 2000; Day et al., 2002). A meta-analysis of Day et al. (2002) also found that HSMs were more likely to be deceptive and to lie.

Nonetheless, using longitudinal data, Blakely et al. (2003) observed that individuals high in self-monitoring were more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) directed to others. One aspect of OCB is altruism and courtesy directed towards individuals (Organ, 1988; Williams & Anderson, 1991). High self-monitors tend to display prosocial values, for example, by being more sensitive to others' need and feelings, being friendly and courteous, and helping others (Blakely et al., 2003). Their behaviours are in line with their self-interest of status enhancement, as found by Flynn, Reagans, Amanatullah, and Ames (2006). They demonstrated that HSMs gained status by maintaining a generous impression and reputation.

In addition to organisational citizenship behaviour, other studies, though limited, have examined the role of self-monitoring in counterproductive work behaviour or deviant behaviour. Parks and Mount (2005) demonstrated that self-monitoring was related to organisationally related deviance but not interpersonal deviance. Given that HSMs have strong desire to be perceived favourably, they are unlikely to engage in interpersonal counterproductive behaviour (e.g., making racial slurs, playing mean prank, and being rude) because these behaviours are visible can detract them from achieving self-interest (Oh, Charlier, Mount & Berry, 2013; Parks & Mount, 2005). Because HSMs are highly image-conscious and always portray themselves positively, they are not likely to engage in counterproductive behaviour directed towards individuals. It is less likely that high self-monitors will engage in

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negative public behaviours such as interpersonally directed counterproductive work behaviour, too (Oh et al., 2013), including uncivil acts towards co-workers. On the other hand, LSMs are less sensitive to their impact on others and are guided more by their internal feelings (Blakely et al., 2003). They have difficulty in impression management and carrying off appearances (Turnley & Bolino, 2001). LSMs are not motivated to adjust their behaviours to fit situational demands and their behaviour is consistent with their internal dispositions (Snyder, 1974; Snyder & Cantor, 1980). It is not surprising that sometimes LSMs' behaviours may be perceived as discourteous and rude by co-workers.

2.5.9 The Moderating Role of Self-Monitoring

Spector and Fox (2005), in developing their stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour, acknowledge that not all individuals engage in deviant behaviour when experiencing negative emotion. Individual differences or dispositional factor is important. Behaviour is a function of individual difference and situations (Snyder, 1974). This study suggested that self-monitoring personality has a role to play in attenuating the impact of negative emotion on uncivil behaviour engagement.

A number of studies have examined the role of self-monitoring as a moderator, for example, Barrick et al. (2005), Becherer and Richard (1978), Bryant, Mitcham, Araiza and Leung (2011), Chang, Rosen, Siemieniec and Johnson (2012). Bryant et al. (2011) concluded that self-monitoring was a useful moderator in explaining efforts in terms of motivational orientation and patterns of behaviours (p.150). Their study found that self-monitoring moderated the relationship between organisational position and perceived effort. High self-monitors (HSMs) in

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management were perceived as putting more effort than HSMs in non-management, whereas no difference was found in perceived effort of low self-monitors (LSMs) across positions. Chang et al. (2012) examined the joint moderating effects of conscientiousness and self-monitoring on the relationship between perception of organisational politics (stressor) and organisational citizenship behaviour. They showed that high self-monitoring alleviated the negative effects of politics on the citizenship behaviours of highly conscientious employees. Oh et al. (2013) investigated the moderating effects of self-monitoring on personality and counterproductive work behaviour. They revealed that the negative relationship between agreeableness and interpersonal counterproductive behaviour became weaker when self-monitoring increased.

In studying the nonverbal display of emotion, Friedman and Miller-Herringer (1991) found differences between HSMs and LSMs in terms of expressive regulation. HSMs hid their true emotion and modified their expressive behaviours when they were with other people. Conversely, LSMs did not conceal their emotion. This is in line with self-monitoring theory (Snyder, 1974) that HSMs can better regulate their behaviour in social context and create a good impression.

Given all the evidence, this study had predicted that negative emotion was less likely to lead to uncivil behaviour among high self-monitors than low self-monitors. Spector and Fox (2002) proposed that counterproductive work behaviours give employees a way to avoid stressors or reduce negative emotion. Employees perceiving a threatening stressor may experience feelings of anger and distressed, which consequently lead them to engage in deviant behaviours (Roberts et al., 2011; Spector & Fox, 2002; 2005). But in an organisational setting where social interaction is frequent and observable, a HSM is less likely to yell at his co-worker in an attempt

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to attenuate the negative emotion because this goes against his motives to portray a favourable image (Day & Kilduff, 2003; Oh et al., 2013). Thus, the present study hypothesized that:

H11: Self-monitoring moderates the relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility, such that the relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility is weaker for high self-monitors than low self-monitors.

2.6 Research Framework

This section presents the theoretical framework of this study. Built upon the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005), this study has illustrated a research framework to explore what leads to incivility among employees at the workplace and the mechanism how this is likely to happen.

Based on the literatures reviewed and discussion above, this study predicted that the felt stressors (independent variables) would produce negative emotion (mediating variable) which led to instigated workplace incivility (dependent variable). An individual difference, namely self-monitoring, would play a moderating role to moderate the relationship between negative emotion and workplace incivility. The three independent variables suggested are role conflict, role ambiguity and interactional justice. The mediating variable is negative emotion while self-monitoring serves as a moderating variable. The research framework is clearly conceptualized in the following Figure 2.2.

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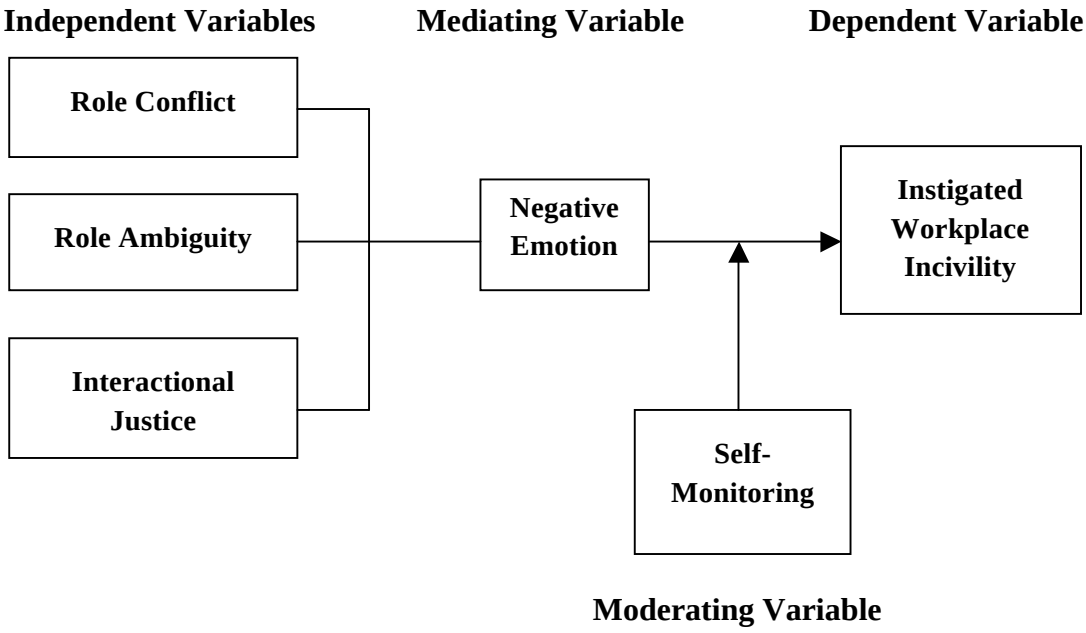

Figure 2.2
Research Framework

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2.7 Summary

This chapter presents the literature review of the underpinning theoretical model and the related main constructs. It also shows how these main constructs were derived and the conceptualizations of each construct. Based on the underpinning model and initial evidence from previous literatures, some hypotheses were developed to test the relationships among the variables. The summary of the hypotheses is as below:

H1: Role conflict is positively related to instigated workplace incivility.

H2: Role ambiguity is positively related to instigated incivility.

H3: Interactional justice is negatively related to instigated workplace incivility.

H4: Role conflict is positively related to negative emotion.

H5: Role ambiguity is positively related to negative emotion.

H6: Interactional justice is negatively related to negative emotion.

H7: Negative emotion is positively related to instigated workplace incivility.

H8: Negative emotion mediates the relationship between role conflict and instigated workplace incivility.

H9: Negative emotion mediates the relationship between role ambiguity and instigated workplace incivility.

H10: Negative emotion mediates the relationship between interactional justice and instigated workplace incivility.

H11: Self-monitoring moderates the relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility, such that the relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility is weaker for high self-monitors than low self-monitors.

Lastly, the research framework is depicted in Figure 2.2. There were six variables tested in the study and the analysis results are discussed in the subsequent chapters. Chapter 3 explains the research methodology used to investigate the hypothesized relationships of the variables in the research framework.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 addresses the research questions raised in Chapter 1 and outlines the research design and methodology of the study. Using the methodology specified, the hypothesized relationships developed in Chapter 2 were tested empirically. The chapter starts with the description of the research paradigms; followed by the research design that includes the purpose of the study, type of investigation, unit of analysis, and time horizon. Section 3.4 shows operational definition of main variables. Section 3.5 presents the measurements employed. Sampling design is discussed in Section 3.6. Subsequently, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques are stated in Section 3.7 and 3.8 respectively. Section 3.9 and 3.10 talk about the pre-test and pilot test respectively. Ethical consideration in research is mentioned in Section 3.11. Last section serves as a summary of the chapter.

3.2 Research Paradigm

Research is a systematic investigation or inquiry (Burns, 1997). The classic research process is a cyclical process starting with a theory, generating hypotheses, testing the hypotheses, and interpreting results (VanderStoep & Johnston, 2009). This general process is illustrated in Figure 3.1 below.

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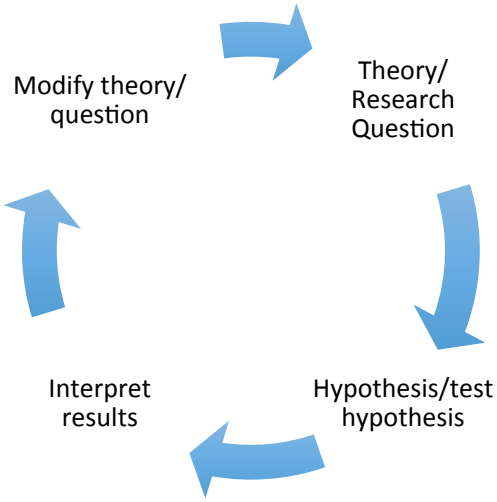

Figure 3.1
Classic Research Process Model
Source: VanderStoep and Johnston (2009)

In scientific research, a theory is used to establish relationships among constructs that explain a phenomenon whereas paradigm is used to determine the way knowledge is being studied and interpreted (Mertens, 2005). Paradigm determines the intent, motivation, and expectations for the research. As stated by MacKenzie and Knipe (2006, p. 194), "Without nominating a paradigm as the first step, there is no basis for subsequent choices regarding methodology, methods, literature or research design." Based on the discussion work of MacKenzie and Knipe (2006), commonly, there are several research paradigms as described in Figure 3.2.

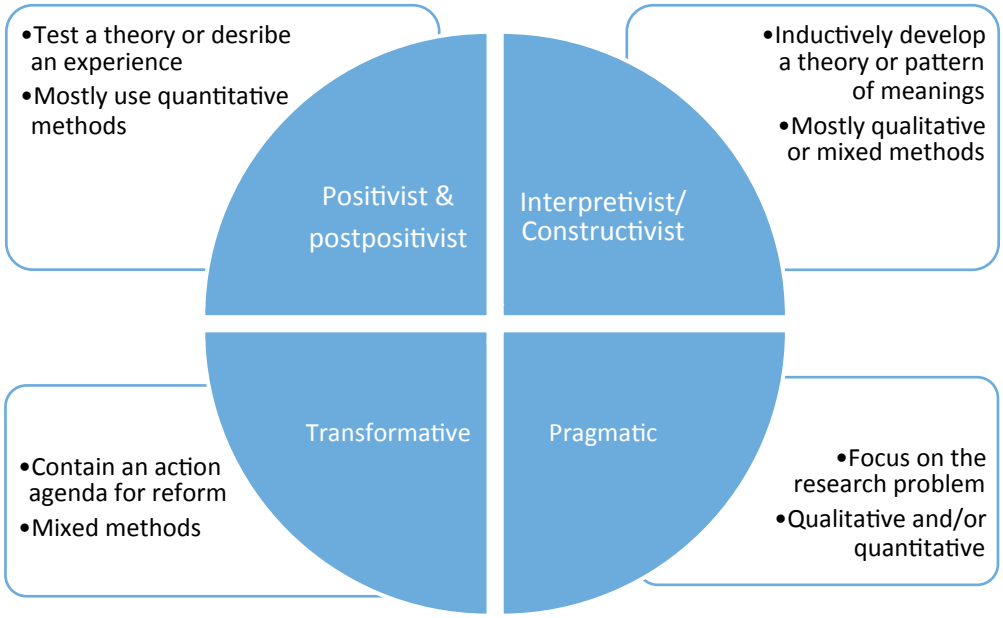

Figure 3.2
Four Common Research Paradigms
Source: MacKenzie and Knipe (2006)

The present study fits into the positivist paradigm as it intended to "test the theory." As stated in Chapter 1 and 2, the objectives of this study are to validate the application of the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005) to workplace incivility and examine the determinants of workplace incivility. Thus, the present study is considered as a positivist study.

3.3 Research Design

Research design is an integral part of the research process. Choices of research design come after nominating a research paradigm (MacKenzie & Knipe, 2006). This section discusses the research design of the present study, which is a positivist study.

A research design is a master plan that specifies the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the information and provides a framework of how the

research is to be conducted (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2013). Research design forms the conceptual structure within which research will be conducted and concerns the decisions of what, where, when, how much, by what means the inquiry is to be carried out (Dhawan, 2010). In other words, research design refers to a comprehensive plan for data collection in an empirical research (Bhattacherjee, 2012). It is a blueprint to collect, measure, and analyse data (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Cooper and Schindler (2008) noted that a research design is a plan, guide, and framework that involve type, purpose, time frame, scope, and environment. To be more specific, they identified eight descriptors of a research design: (1) question crystallization, (2) data collection method, (3) experimental effects, (4) time dimension, (5) topical scope, (6) research environment, (7) purpose of study and (8) perceptual awareness (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Similarly, according to Sekaran (2000), a research design involves six major issues, which are comprehensive and clearly defined. The present study builds the research design based on the major aspects following Sekaran (2000)'s work, namely (1) the purpose for the study, (2) type of investigation, (3) unit of analysis and (4) time horizon. The following sub-sections discuss these research design aspects.

3.3.1 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is hypothesis testing, which explains the nature of certain relationships or establishes the differences among groups (Sekaran, 2000). Supported by previous literatures and conceptual framework, several hypotheses were developed in Chapter 2. The relationships among various variables, namely role conflict, role ambiguity, interactional justice, negative emotion, self-monitoring,

and workplace incivility, were examined. Thus, this study involves hypothesis testing to investigate these relationships.

3.3.2 Type of Investigation

The primary objective of this study is to identify the antecedents of workplace incivility in the banking sector in Malaysia. The study aims to investigate possible cause and effect relationships among the main variables through structural equation modelling. Thus, the present study is considered a non-experimental correlational causal-comparative study (McMillan, 2004). It does not involve any controllable experiment. As stated by McMillan (2004), the primary purpose of correlational causal comparative study is to investigate the causal relationships when experimental designs are not possible and the presumed causal condition exists.

3.3.3 Unit of Analysis

The problem statement of this study focuses on what influence the uncivil behaviours of employees in the banking sector. Naturally, the unit of analysis is individual. Employees at the selected commercial banks and branches were asked to respond to the questionnaires that are individual-oriented. For instance, respondents were asked to indicate their encountering of injustice and stressful events, feeling of negative emotion, and displaying of uncivil behaviours to other co-workers.

3.3.4 Time Horizon

Cross-sectional study involves one-time data collection. Data are gathered over a period of time, for example, few days or weeks or months. It is sometimes called one-shot study (Sekaran, 2000). Longitudinal study is carried out across a period of

time. Data are gathered at more than one point in time to answer the research questions.

Due to some research constraints, the present study was a cross-sectional study whereby data was only collected once. The formal data collection process commenced in November 2014 and spanned across four to five months. Subsequently, data analysis process was carried out.

3.4 Operational Definition of Key Terms

According to Calmorin and Calmorin (2007), the operational definition is based on the observed characteristic and how it is used in the study. In order to operationally define a concept and making it measureable, one can look at the behavioural dimensions, facets, or properties denoted by the concept (Sekaran, 2000). Operational definition thus should contain two important elements: observable and measurable elements.

The operationalization of the main constructs is offered in the following respective sub-sections of measurements in section 3.5.

3.5 Measurements

To measure the variables, this study adapted the relevant instruments developed and validated in the previous research. These are described in the below sub-sections from 3.5.1 to 3.5.5. Next, the measurement of demographic variables is presented in 3.5.6. Lastly, Table 3.2 in sub-section 3.5.7 summarizes the measurements of the main constructs in the present study.

The study employed seven-point scale for all measurements. This is for the reasons of reliability and validity, as well as for the ease of response and

administration (Malhotra, 1993). Barnes, Daswar and Gilber (1994) argued that using a seven-point scale instead of a five-point scale has no effect on principal components analysis but always improves the reliability of the answers. Caruana, Ramaseshan, and Ewing (1997) also stated that increasing the scale to seven points improves the reliability and does not affect its psychometric properties. Furthermore, Blau and Andersson (2005), while developing a measure for instigated workplace incivility scale, suggested that future research should consider using a seven-point frequency response scale, ranging from 1= never to 7= very frequently (at least several times/day). This is because it is very likely for a respondent to display uncivil behaviours and across different targets at least several times a day (Blau & Andersson, 2005, p. 609). Hence, a seven-point response scale is better at producing more accurate results.

3.5.1 Workplace Incivility

Workplace incivility, is conceptualized as "low-intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm, and in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" by Andersson & Pearson (1999) in their seminal work.

Operationally, workplace incivility refers to the frequency an employee exhibits incivility (disrespectful, rude and condescending behaviours) to others and experiences incivility from others at the workplace within a certain period of time (Cortina et al., 2001). In this study, in order to gauge the overall level of workplace incivility in the Malaysian banking sector, participants were asked to respond to both incivility they experienced and instigated. Both these experienced workplace incivility and instigated workplace incivility measures were used for the descriptive

analysis in the study. On the other hand, only instigated workplace incivility measure was used in the relationship testing as postulated in the research framework.

Experienced workplace incivility was measured using the seven-item Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS) developed by Cortina et al. (2001). The alpha coefficient of WIS in Cortina et al.'s (2001) study was 0.89, demonstrating a high reliability and cohesiveness. Many researchers have also used this scale and reported a reliability coefficient greater than 0.80 (e.g., Caza & Cortina, 2007; Cortina & Magley, 2009; Taylor et al., 2012; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). In fact, WIS is one of the most widely used scales in incivility studies. Participants were asked to indicate how often they experienced a list of behaviours done to them at work in the past one year. Some of the behaviours included "paid little attention to a statement you made or showed little interest in your opinion" and "addressed you in unprofessional terms either privately or publicly".

The dependent variable in this study, instigated workplace incivility, was measured with WIS modified by Blau and Andersson (2005). To measure the incidences of instigated incivility, Blau and Andersson (2005) reversed the perspective and repeat the general content of the seven-item WIS previously mentioned. The lead in phase now became "How often have you exhibited the following behaviours in the past one year to someone at work?" The items include "Paid little attention to a statement made by someone or showed little interest in their opinion", "Doubted someone's judgment in a matter over which they have responsibility" and "Addressed someone in unprofessional terms either privately or publicly". A reliability coefficient of 0.89 was recorded by Blau and Andersson (2005).

Both the experienced WIS and instigated WIS had seven items measured on a seven-point frequency response ranging from '1' "never", '2' "hardly ever/once every few months", '3' "rarely/about once a month", '4' "occasionally/at least several times a month", '5' "sometimes/at least once a week", '6' "frequently/at least once a day", to '7' "very frequently/at least several times a day". The present study employed a seven-point frequency response scoring in order to capture the multiple incidences of incivility within a day as suggested by Blau and Andersson (2005). Higher scores reflected higher levels of workplace incivility. The original lists of items for experienced WIS and instigated WIS are shown in Appendix A.

3.5.2 Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity

Role conflict concerns the extent to which an employee feels that he encounters a lack of resources, incompatible practices, and inconsistent requirements of his work role. Role ambiguity refers to the degree to which an employee believes that he is clear about his authority, responsibilities and expectation of his work role (Rizzo et al., 1979; Siegall, 2000). Both are indeed the perceptions of employees.

The present study adopted the widely accepted measures of role conflict and role ambiguity developed by Rizzo et al. (1970). The reported reliability coefficients for role conflict and role ambiguity were 0.82 and 0.80 respectively (Rizzo et al., 1970). Many other studies had used the same or similar measures (De Ruyter et al., 2001; Siegall, 2000; Valentine, Godkin, & Varca, 2010). Kelloway et al.'s (1990) research further confirmed the construct validity and generalizability of the measures of role conflict and role ambiguity.

There were eight items measuring role conflict, for example, "I have to do things that should be done differently", "I work with two or more groups who

operate quite differently". Meanwhile, there were six items assessing role ambiguity, including "I know what my responsibilities are", "I know exactly what is expected of me". All items were measured using seven-point Likert scale anchored at '1' "strongly disagree" and '7' "strongly agree". The original lists of items for role conflict and role ambiguity are shown in Appendix B.

3.5.3 Interactional Justice

Interactional justice is operationally defined as the perceived quality of interpersonal treatment employees receives from their supervisors or managers (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 2003).

Interactional justice was measured by the Justice Measure developed by Colquitt (2001). Based on the work of Bies and Moag (1986) and Shapiro, Buttner and Barry (1994), Colquitt (2001) came out with a nine-item measurement and achieved a high Cronbach's alpha of 0.90 (Colquitt, 2001). Several studies using these measures also reported satisfactory reliability coefficients (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009; Graham, 2009; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Le Roy et al., 2012).

Sample items include "Has your supervisor/manager treated you in a polite manner?", "Has your supervisor/manager treated you with respect?", "Has your supervisor/manager been candid in his/her communication with you?" and "Has your supervisor/manager explained the procedures thoroughly?" All items used a seven-point scale with anchors of '1' "never" to '7' "to an extremely large extent". Higher scores showed higher perceived level of interactional justice. The list of items for interactional justice is shown in Appendix C.

3.5.4 Negative Emotion

Negative emotion refers to the experience or feeling of a variety of negative mood states, such as angry, annoyed, anxious, depressed, and frustrated. It is measured by how often any part of an employee's job has made him feels a particular negative emotion (Van Katwyk et al., 2000).

Van Katwyk et al. (2000) developed the Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS) to investigate how various emotions relate to job stressors. The present study adopted the negative emotion dimensions because, firstly, JAWS measures pure affect and not the belief-oriented or attitude-oriented emotions (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Secondly, JAWS measures context-specific affect. In this study, specific affect experienced is in response to stressors like role conflict and interactional injustice.

Van Katwyk et al. (2000) reported a high Cronbach's alpha of 0.95 for the overall JAWS scale. In specific to negative emotions, both low pleasure (negative emotions) subscales in their study also showed high levels of internal reliability with coefficients of 0.80. Several other studies had validated the JAWS in measuring emotional experience (Devonish, Kouvonen, & Coyne, 2012; Fox et al., 2001; Roberts, 2012).

Ten items of negative emotion from the low pleasure categories were used in the present study. Respondents needed to indicate the extent to which any part of their jobs had made them felt with a particular emotion within the past month. Examples of items were: "My job made me feel angry", "My job made me feel bored", and "My job made me feel depressed". Responses were indicated on a seven-point frequency scale ranging from '1' "never" to '7' "every time". Higher

scorings represented higher levels of that emotional state. The list of items for negative emotion is shown in Appendix D.

3.5.5 Self-monitoring

Self-monitoring refers to the extent to which a person's belief that he has the ability to modify self-presentation and is sensitive to the expressive behaviours of others (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984).

Based on the original 25-item scale developed by Snyder (1974) which had a reliability estimate of 0.66, Lennox and Wolfe (1984) revised the Self-Monitoring Scale to particularly indicate the ability to modify self-presentation and sensitivity to the expressive behaviours of others. The 13-item revised scale was reported to have reliability of 0.75 (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Day et al. (2002) conducted meta-analyses to test the validity of self-monitoring personality in organisational settings and their findings suggested that Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) scale gave higher reliability than Snyder's 25-item scales (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985; Snyder, 1974). The revised scale had also been used in many previous studies (Chang et al., 2012; Flynn & Ames, 2006; Miller & Cardy, 2000).

Examples of items were "In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behaviour if I feel that something else is called for", "When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does", and "I have found that I can adjust my behaviour to suit different people and different situation". All 13 items were measured by seven-point Likert scale with anchors ranging from '1' "strongly disagree" to '7' "strongly agree". Higher scores showed that respondents were higher in self-monitoring or respondents are so called high self-monitors (HSMs). Appendix E exhibits the list of items for self-monitoring

3.5.6 Demographic Variables

In the present study, demographic information asked included gender, age, educational level, marital status, position held, supervisor's gender, tenure under current supervisor, and frequency of interaction with supervisor.

Respondent's gender, supervisor's gender, and marital status were measured by nominal scales. Educational level was measured with five ordinal categories: SPM/STPM, Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, Doctorate, and Others. Respondents were also required to specify their position held at the current organisation. Age and tenure under current supervisor were measured using ratio scales. Lastly, frequency of interaction with supervisor was measured by a 7-point frequency scale. The details of demographic information asked can be found in Appendix F, sample of questionnaire distributed.

3.5.7 Summary of Measurements

Table 3.1 shown on the following page summarizes the measurements used, including the variables and their corresponding dimensions, number of items, scales, internal reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) and sources.

Table 3.1
Distribution of Variables

Variables	No. of items	Scales	Reported Cronbach's alpha	Sources
Experienced Workplace incivility (EWS)	7	7-point frequency scale	0.89	Cortina et al. (2001)
Instigated Workplace incivility (DWS)	7	7-point frequency scale	0.89	Cortina et al. (2001); Blau and Andersson (2005)
Role conflict (RC)	8	7-point Likert scale	0.82	Rizzo et al. (1970)
Role ambiguity (RA)	6	7-point Likert scale	0.80	Rizzo et al. (1970)
Interactional justice (IJ)	9	7-point frequency scale	0.90	Colquitt (2001)
Negative emotion (NE)	10	7-point frequency scale	0.80	Van Katwyk et al. (2000)
Self-monitoring (SM)	13	7-point Likert scale	0.75	Lennox and Wolfe (1984)

3.6 Sampling Design

In scientific research, an appropriate sampling design should be used to make the findings generalizable to the population. Sampling design decisions are important aspects of research design (Sekaran, 2000). This section discusses the sampling design constructed, which included sampling plan and sample size determination.

3.6.1 Population

Population refers to a complete group of entities that share some common set of characteristics (Zikmund et al., 2013). This study had attempted to examine the uncivil behaviours among employees of the banking sector in Malaysia. Bank

employees who were prone to frequent interaction with both internal and external customers were the population elements. However, due to time and resource constraints, and as justified in Chapter 1, the scope of study was limited to commercial banks in Kuala Lumpur and Penang, the two largest cities in the country. This is because commercial banks form the largest group in the banking industry and are the most important group of financial institutions (Bank Negara Malaysia, 2013; Izah Mohd Tahir & Nor Mazlina Abu Bakar, 2007).

According to the Annual Report 2012 published by The Association of Banks in Malaysia (ABM), the total number of staff of commercial banks in Malaysia was 131,584 (ABM, 2012). Based on the ABM Annual Report 2012, there were 2,042 bank branches throughout the country as of 31 December 2012, and a quarter of them (497) were located in Kuala Lumpur and Penang, as indicated in Table 3.2 below. Unfortunately, it was unable to know the total number of staff at all branches in these two areas exactly.

To estimate the population, some preliminary works had been done. Based on some preliminary conversations with a few local bank managers in February 2014, averagely there were 20 employees at each branch. Using the estimate, there should be about 10,000 employees working at the commercial banks in Kuala Lumpur and Penang (497 branches x 20 employees = 9,940 employees). The population was these commercial bank employees in Kuala Lumpur and Penang. Thus, the estimated population of the present study was 10,000.

Table 3.2

Number and Percentage of Commercial Banks and Branches in Kuala Lumpur and Penang as at 31 December 2012

	Bank	Ownership (Local/ Foreign)	Kuala Lumpur	Penang
1	Affin Bank Berhad	L	16	9
2	Alliance Bank Malaysia Berhad	L	18	7
3	AmBank (M) Berhad	L	26	16
4	Bangkok Bank Berhad	F	1	1
5	Bank of America Malaysia Berhad	F	1	-
6	Bank of China (Malaysia) Berhad	F	1	1
7	Bank of Tokyo-Mitsubishi UFJ Berhad	F	1	1
8	BNP Paribas Malaysia Berhad	F	1	-
9	CIMB Bank Berhad	L	50	28
10	Citibank Berhad	F	1	2
11	Deutsche Bank (Malaysia) Berhad	F	1	-
12	Hong Leong Bank Berhad	L	50	28
13	HSBC Bank Malaysia Berhad	F	6	3
14	India International Bank Malaysia Berhad	F	1	-
15	Industrial and Commercial Bank of China (Malaysia) Bhd	F	1	-
16	J.P. Morgan Chase Bank Berhad	F	1	-
17	Maybank Berhad	L	61	34
18	Mizuho Corporate Bank (Malaysia) Berhad	F	1	-
19	National Bank of Abu Dhabi	F	1	-
20	OCBC Bank (Malaysia) Berhad	F	8	3
21	Public Bank Berhad	L	38	21
22	RHB Bank Berhad	L	26	11
23	Standard Chartered Bank Malaysia Berhad	F	4	3
24	Sumitomo Mitsui Banking Corporation Malaysia Berhad	F	1	-
25	The Bank of Nova Scotia Berhad	F	-	1
26	The Royal Bank of Scotland Berhad	F	1	1
27	United Overseas Bank (Malaysia) Bhd	F	6	4
	Total		**323**	**174**

	Number	Percentage
Local Banks	8	29.6%
Foreign Banks	19	70.4%
Total Number of Banks (KL & Penang)	**27**	100.0%

	KL	PG	Total	Percentage
Total Branches of Local Banks	285	154	439	88.3%
Total Branches of Foreign Banks	38	20	58	11.7%
	323	**174**	**497**	**100.0 %**

	Local Banks	Number of Branches in KL and Penang	Percentage
1	Maybank Berhad	95	22%
2	CIMB Bank Berhad	78	18%
3	Hong Leong Bank Berhad	78	18%
4	Public Bank Berhad	59	13%
5	AmBank (M) Berhad	42	10%
6	RHB Bank Berhad	37	8%
7	Affin Bank Berhad	25	6%
8	Alliance Bank Malaysia Berhad	25	6%
		439	**100%**

Source: The Association of Banks in Malaysia Annual Report (2012)

3.6.2 Sample and Sampling Techniques

A sample is a subset or some parts of a population (Zikmund et al., 2013). Sampling involves procedure that draws conclusions based on measurements of the sample. A good sample should produce the results that can be representative of the entire population (Zikmund et al., 2013).

Two major types of sampling designs are probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Sekaran, 2000). The common sampling techniques of both designs are depicted in Figure 3.3 below (Sekaran, 2000; VanderStoep & Johnston, 2009; Zikmund et al., 2013).

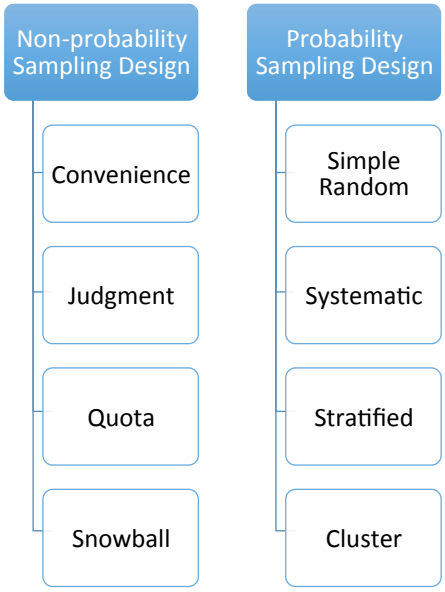

Figure 3.3
Types of Sampling Techniques

The present study utilized *cluster sampling* to select the samples. Cluster sampling technique involves dividing the population into clusters, then randomly choosing the required number of clusters as sample subjects, and investigating all the elements in each of these clusters (Sekaran, 2000). Cluster sampling is an economically efficient sampling technique and frequently used when the lists of sample population are not available (Zikmund et al., 2013). As stated earlier that since the exact number of population and sampling frame was unknown in this study, cluster sampling was the most appropriate sampling technique.

The general steps of selecting samples by cluster sampling technique are described in the following Figure 3.4.

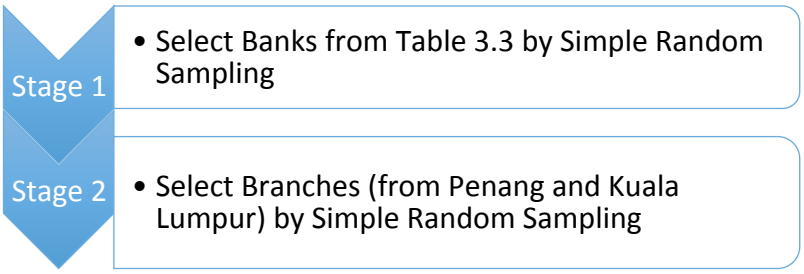

Figure 3.4
Multistage Cluster Sampling to be Used in the Study

As illustrated in Figure 3.4 above, a multistage cluster sampling (Sekaran, 2000) was used specifically. Firstly, based on the list of banks in Table 3.2, ten sample banks were selected randomly one-by-one (Stage 1, Figure 3.4). Ten banks selected at this first stage were AmBank, CIMB Bank, Citibank, Hong Leong Bank, HSBC Bank, Maybank, OCBC Bank, Public Bank, RHB Bank and United Overseas Bank (UOB). As summarised in Table 3.2, although there are 19 foreign banks and 8 local banks, there are only 58 branches of foreign banks in both Kuala Lumpur and Penang, compared to 439 local bank branches. In other words, local banks constitute a majority of 88.3% out of a total of 497 bank branches in these two areas. Therefore, there should be similar percentage of local bank branches in the samples to ensure more representative data.

At the second stage of sampling, 30 branches were selected in total: 26 local bank branches (87%) and 4 foreign bank branches (13%). This presented a fairer representation of the population in the study. One branch was selected from each of the four foreign bank samples. Two to six branches were selected from the six local banks in proportionate to their number and percentage of branches in Table 3.2. For instance, AmBank has 42 branches in Kuala Lumpur and Penang. This constitutes about 10% of total local bank branches (439 branches). Thus, three AmBank

branches were selected (10% x 30 sample branches = 3 sample branches). Following this principle, the numbers of local bank branches selected were as follows: AmBank - 3 branches; CIMB Bank - 6 branches; Hong Leong Bank - 5 branches; Maybank - 6 branches; Public Bank - 4 branches; and RHB Bank - 2 branches. These particular thirty branches selected formed the clusters. Individual employees at the selected branch formed the sample subjects for the study.

In specific, the selected branches were: AmBank (Bangsar Baru, Bayan Baru, and Farlim), CIMB Bank (Bayan Baru, KL Sentral, Menara CIMB, Prangin Mall, Queensbay, and Taman Seri Damai), Citibank (Penang), Hong Leong Bank (Bukit Mertajam, Burmah Road, Butteroworth, Kepala Batas, and Petaling Street), HSBC Bank (Bishop Street), Maybank (Greenlane, i-Avenue, Jalan Pudu, Pandan Jaya, Plaza MWE, and Sungai Besi), OCBC Bank (Batu Maung), Public Bank (Jalan Tun HS Lee, Jelutong, Pulau Tikus, and Sungai Nibong), RHB Bank (Ayer Itam and Prai), and UOB (Bishop Street).

Cluster sampling is not without its flaws. The major problem is that there is more intra-cluster homogeneity than heterogeneity (Sekaran, 2000). As such, the generalizability of the study will be affected. However, this problem may be mitigated by constructing clusters that contain diverse elements and by selecting a large number of sampled clusters (Zikmund et al., 2013).

3.6.3 Determining the Sample Size

Determining the sample size is an important issue because it is related to precision and confidence in estimation. In a causal experiment, the determination of sample size is dependent upon three factors: the significance level, power, and magnitude of the difference or effect size (McCrum-Gardner, 2010). Significance level is the

probability cut-off level. Power refers to the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when alternative hypothesis is true. The effect size measures the difference in the outcomes or the effectiveness of the treatment (McCrum-Gardner, 2010). A few common ways of determining the sample size were evaluated before finalizing the sample size for the study.

The first method was referring to the table developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Based on the below formula, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) produced a referencing table for determining sample size.

$$s = X^2 NP(1-P) \div d^2(N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)$$

where,

s = required sample size.

χ^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

N = the population size

P = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50)

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (0.05)

The second common way of determining sample size was considered by using Slovin's formula (Altares et al., 2003) given below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+Ne^2}$$

where,

n = sample size

N = population size

e = desired margin of error

Besides, several computer software packages are available for sample size calculation, for instance, Minitab, PS, and G*Power (McCrum-Gardner, 2010). The use of computer software or program has been able to produce a precise result in statistical calculation. One of the useful programs is G*Power developed by Faul and Erdfelder (Howell, 2013). In behavioural science, the power level of 0.80 is a reasonable value (Templin, 2009). Researchers generally agree that the minimum acceptable level of power is 80% or 0.80 (Cohen, 1992; McCrum-Gardner, 2010; Wuensch, 2009). In the present study, a higher power level of 0.95 was used to obtain a more appropriate sample size. Following the conventions by Cohen (1992) for the medium effect size of 0.15 and other procedural guidelines (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009; Wuensch, 2009), the outputs of calculation by G*Power are shown in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3
*Required Sample Size Computed Using G*Power*

Input:	
Effect size f^2	0.15
α err probability	0.05
Power (1-β err probability)	0.95
Number of predictors	6
Output:	
Noncentrality parameter λ	21.9000000
Critical F	2.1644088
Numerator df	6
Denominator df	139
Actual power	0.9507965
Total Sample Size	**146**

Table 3.4 shows the comparison of sample size computed based on the three popular methods discussed above. As indicated in Table 3.3, computation by

G*Power suggested a sample size of 146 (with effect size of 0.15 and power of 0.95). However, Slovin's formula suggested a higher number of 385.

Table 3.4
Sample Size Calculated (Based on Predicted Population of 10,000)

Source/Method	Sample Size
Krejcie and Morgan (1970)	370
Slovin's formula	385
G*Power	146

Since the present study was using structural equation modelling (SEM) in data analysis, a large number of sample size was required. As noted by Kline (2010), SEM is a large sample technique. The adequacy of sample size is critical to the reliability of parameter estimates, model fit, and statistical power. Nevertheless, there is no unanimous agreement regarding the minimum requirement of sample size in SEM. One of the most frequently used rule of thumbs is the N:q rule as referred by Jackson (2003). N refers to the sample size and q refers to the number of model parameters that require statistical estimates. According to Jackson (2003), the ideal sample size-to-parameters ratio (N:q) would be 20:1. The decrease in N:q ratio (for example 10:1 and 5:1) would reduce the trustworthiness of the results. In the present study, the number of model parameters was q=6 (role conflict, role ambiguity, interactional justice, negative emotion, self-monitoring, and instigated workplace incivility). Therefore, an ideal minimum sample size for the present study would be 20 x 6 = 120, or N = 120. On the other hand, Kline (2010) recommended that the sample size should be more than 200 and is dependent on the model complexity. Shah and Goldstein (2006) reviewed the application of SEM in 93 articles from management science and operations management journals and found that the average

sample size is 246 (p. 153). Table 3.5 below summarizes the discussion above regarding sample size requirement.

Table 3.5
Sample Size Suggested in SEM

Source	Method	Sample Size
Jackson (2003)	N:q rule	120
Kline (2010)	N > 200	> 200
Shah and Goldstein (2006)	Meta-analysis mean	246

After reviewing various suggestions for sample size, it was decided to obtain 200-385 samples for the analysis in the present study, following the required sample size computed by Slovin's formula and Kline (2010). A minimum of 200 samples is needed in SEM (Kline, 2010). This sample size is deemed to be appropriate in obtaining reasonably stable results and more accurate standard errors, in addition to reducing the likelihood of technical problems in SEM analysis (Kline, 2010). Apart from this, larger sample size helps to mitigate the problem of intra-cluster homogeneity that might affect the generalizability of the study (Zikmund et al., 2013).

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

After determining the measurements and sampling technique, data was collected for the purpose of analysis, testing of hypotheses, and answering the research questions stated in Chapter 1. Data collection methods are an important part of research design and will enhance the value of the research if appropriate methods are used (Sekaran, 2000). This section discusses the instrument and process employed in the present study.

3.7.1 Survey Instrument

In the present study, data was gathered through self-administered questionnaire based on several justifications below. A questionnaire is a printed self-report form containing a formalized set of questions designed to get information from the participants (Malhotra, 2006). It is the main method of collecting quantitative primary data. One major advantage of using a questionnaire is that researchers are able to collect quantitative data in a standardized way, so that the data are internally consistent and coherent for analysis (Malhotra, 2006).

Although using questionnaire might produce some weaknesses in terms of validity and accuracy (Burns & Grove, 1993), it was still the most appropriate instrument in the current study. As noted by Dillman (1991), this common method of data collection produces cost efficiency and ease of implementation. More accurate information may be gathered because respondents are less prone to giving socially desirable responses when answer an anonymous self-report survey questionnaire (Dillman, 1991).

Furthermore, majority of the counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) and workplace incivility studies generally use self-reported measures that are easier to obtain (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Fox et al., 2001; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Krischer et al., 2010; Meier & Semmer, 2012; Meier & Spector, 2013; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). Although self-reported questionnaires are the most efficient means of assessment, using self-reported as the sole source of data may motivate under-reporting of CWB and create common method bias (Campbell, 1982; Penney & Spector, 2005; Spector, 2006). A more appropriate alternative suggested by many researchers is peer-report CWB (Penney & Spector, 2005). In non-Western context, nonetheless, a peer-report evaluation may not be able to produce objective results as

well. Asian countries including Malaysia are generally high in collectivism (Hofstede, 1980). In a highly collectivistic culture, relationship prevails over task (Hofstede, 1980). Peers who work closely with a particular employee may be reluctant or feel uncomfortable to give negative comments on the employee. The issue of under-reporting may still be present. In addition, uncivil behaviour is the mildest form of misbehaviour and does not bring serious legal responsibility to the employees who engage in it. Employees may thus be less hesitant to admit to it. Furthermore, Spector and Fox (2005), when reviewing numerous counterproductive work behaviour studies, found that mono-method bias is not necessarily inflating the correlations within self-reported questionnaires.

Based on these justifications, the present study used self-reported questionnaire as instrument in data collection. To address the possible common method variance that might arise, procedural control recommended by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff (2003) was followed accordingly wherever possible. Items in the questionnaire were reshuffled as much as possible.

The survey questionnaire was divided into seven parts, Part A to Part G. The first six parts were made up of the measurements of the main variables discussed in section 3.5 above. Firstly, in Part A, respondents were asked regarding their experiences of incivility at the workplace as targets. Part B was questions about perception on role conflict and role ambiguity. The 14 questions about these two constructs were shuffled to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Part C consisted of questions regarding perception on interactional justice received at the workplace. Next, questions pertaining to negative emotion were incorporated in Part D. In Part E, respondents were asked how often they did the uncivil behaviours to someone at work. These questions about instigated incivility were purposely

separated from questions regarding experienced incivility in order to minimize common method bias ((Podsakoff et al., 2003). Part F consisted of the measurement for self-monitoring. Lastly, demographic and background information of the respondents were asked in Part G for descriptive analysis and profiling purpose. Appendix F exhibits a sample copy of questionnaire distributed.

In the present research, the questionnaires were offered in both hard copy and electronic modes. Both modes contained the same set of questions. There were some reasons using hard copy and electronic questionnaires at the same time. Electronic or online questionnaires were used because of cost and time efficiency. Besides, it was easier to identify non-responses and analyse the responses using SPSS due to the electronic form of email-administered surveys (Gill & Johnson, 2010). Bank employees who had Internet access completed the survey online. Many managers and employees, especially from sample banks in Kuala Lumpur, also requested to answer through electronic questionnaire. Using electronic questionnaire might bring some disadvantages, including respondent's unwillingness to complete the survey and computer literacy requirement (Sekaran, 2000), which might contribute to a lower response rate. Unfortunately, some local bank employees had no Internet access at the workplace. It was understood from a local bank manager (based on a conversation with the manager on 9 February 2014) that for certain banks, branch employees have no access to external email or Internet. Only the branch managers can access to Internet and direct email communication with external parties. As such, hard copy questionnaires were necessary in the present study. For the employees of selected banks in Penang state or those respondents without internet access, hard copy questionnaires were distributed.

3.7.2 Data Collection Process

Data collection process commenced immediately after the research proposal was approved in August 2014. After some amendments of the questionnaire based on comments given during proposal defense, data collection was started in September 2014 by conducting a pre-test, followed by a pilot test and then the formal data collection.

Online questionnaire was created through Google Form in Google Drive. A pre-notification email explaining the research study was sent to the selected bank branch manager. Two days following the pre-notification email, a telephone call was made to the bank manager for follow-up and establishing personal contact. The manager's cooperation was sought to forward an email invitation (with the link to survey) resembling a cover letter to the employees. The email invitation with online survey link was then sent to the manager for forwarding to all employees at the branch. The email invitation explained the purpose of the study, cooperation needed from the participants, and assurance of the confidentiality. Instructions were also provided to access the online survey through the link.

In order to increase the response rate, a reminder was emailed to the branch manager about a week later. A "thank you" email was sent to the manager requesting them to remind the employees once more to complete the survey. As there was no direct access to the participants in the study, all communication was channelled through the branch manager or contact person. Working directly with the bank branch managers or contact persons also helped to control the problem of variability of response rates in the electronic survey (Trudel, 2009).

At the same time, hard copy questionnaires, along with cover letter and an empty envelope for completed survey were given to the selected bank branch

managers and contact persons in Penang state. Branch manager's or contact person's help was sought to distribute the questionnaires to all the employees at the sample branch. The employees were advised to complete the questionnaire on their own time or during their break time. A week after giving the questionnaires to the manager, follow-up was done with the manager or contact person in order to remind them of the distribution and completion of questionnaires. The questionnaire was put into the envelope provided once completed by the employee. The envelopes were then sealed to ensure anonymity and collected back personally for analysis after an agreed time frame, or after being notified by the manager and contact person.

3.8 Data Analysis Techniques

The next step after data collection is data analysis. In data analysis, researchers apply reasoning to understand the data that have been collected by them. An analysis is concerned with determining consistent patterns and summarizing the relevant details found in the investigation (Zikmund et al., 2013). Descriptive analysis and structural equation modelling (SEM) were employed in the present study.

3.8.1 Descriptive Analysis

The statistical tool used to perform the analysis was IBM SPSS Version 21. All data were coded and saved into SPSS.

The demographic data gathered was meant for descriptive analysis and profiling. The frequency, mean, standard deviation of demographic data were computed. Minimum values, maximum values, means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables were calculated to present the general results of the study. Descriptive analysis was also performed to understand the prevalence of

workplace incivility in Malaysia. This is an important objective to fulfil as the current research about incivility occurrence in the country, particularly in the banking sector, is still seriously lacking.

3.8.2 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed to analyse the data and to test the hypothesized relationships. The statistical package of SEM used was AMOS in IBM SPSS Version 21. Appendix G shows the hypothesized model drawn for causal relationships testing based on the research framework.

SEM is a multivariate analysis technique that has gained extensive popularity in the past 20 years (Hair et al., 2010). SEM has several advantages over other techniques. It can accommodate measurement error directly in the estimation of a series of dependence relationship (Hair et al., 2010). It also can test theories that contain multiple equations involving dependence relationships (Hair et al., 2010). In other words, SEM can effectively explain the relationships among multiple variables. Drawn upon some underpinning theory, a structural model is specified and SEM is able to estimate a series of separate but interdependent multiple regression equations at the same time (Hair et al., 2010). SEM is unique in the sense that it combines both confirmatory factor analysis and multiple regression analysis. As SEM is testing a set of relationships representing multiple equations, the predictive accuracy must reflect the overall model and not only single relationship. The entire model fit must be achieved before examining any specific relationship. Model fit is determined by the correspondence between observed covariance matrix and an estimated covariance matrix that results from the proposed model (Hair et al., 2010). The six stages in SEM are as below and they were being followed in the current study:

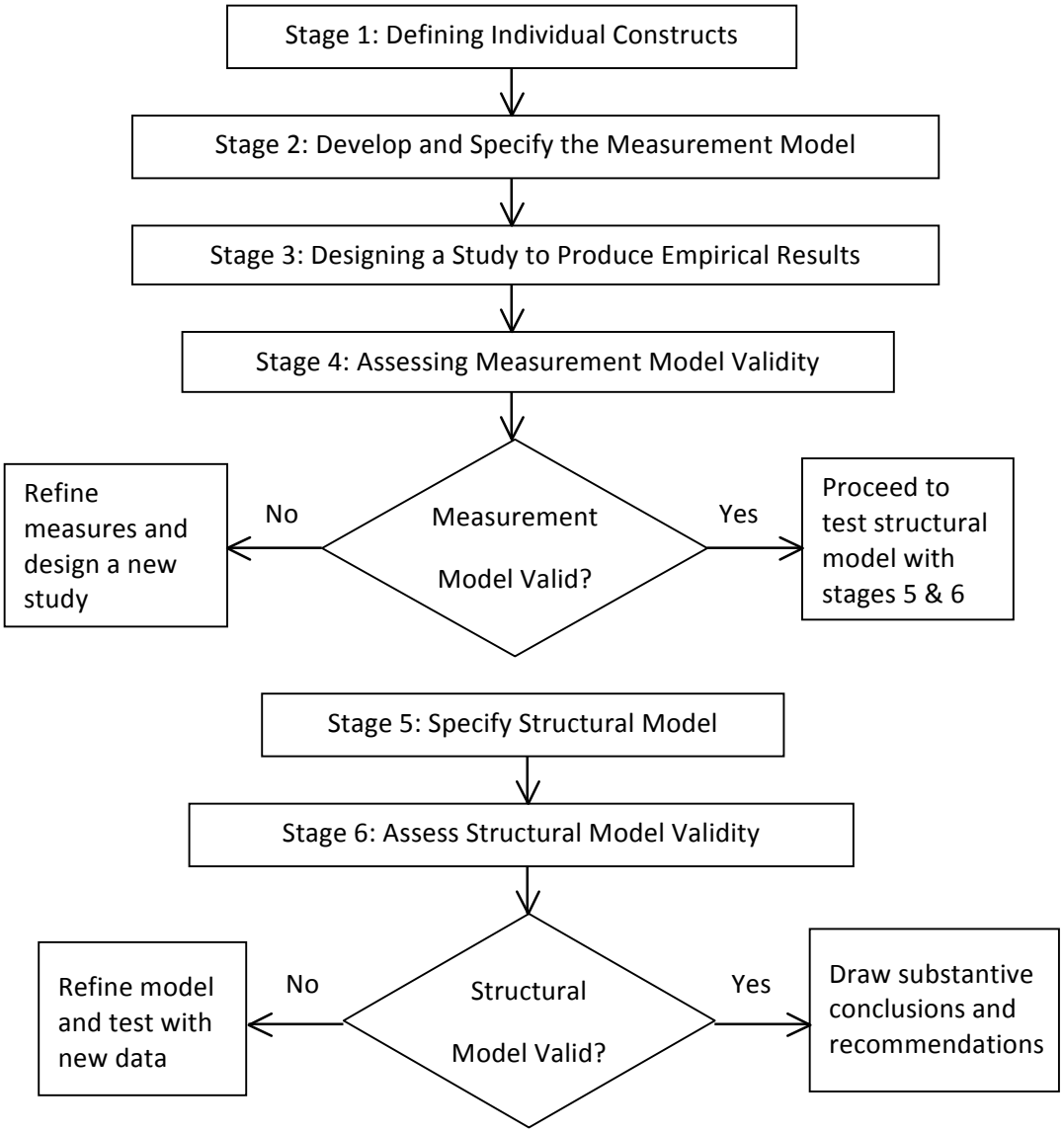

Figure 3.5
Six-Stage Process for Structural Equation Modeling
Source: Hair et al., 2010, p.654

In the present study, data screening process was first carried out to detect missing values, outliers, and normality of data distribution. Mahalanobis values (D^2) was compared against chi-square values (χ^2) to determine outliers. Normality test was conducted using Z-scores of skewness statistics and Kurtosis statistics. Non-

normal data with Z-score skewness of more than 2 were transformed (Hair et al., 2010). The transformed values were used in confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural model analysis subsequently. Non-response bias test, multicollinearity test, and common method variance test were also conducted.

Next, validity test and reliability test were conducted. Cronbach's Alpha was computed to test the internal reliability; composite reliability was calculated to measure the reliability of a construct in the measurement model; average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated to test the discriminant validity. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and CFA were done in SPSS and AMOS respectively.

SEM was then utilized to evaluate whether the stressor-emotion of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005) could be applied to workplace incivility. Fit of the overall model was assessed using maximum likelihood estimation. Maximum likelihood is the most common estimation method in SEM which has less bias (Hair et al., 2010). The assessment criteria used in determine the goodness of fit of the structural model were CMIN/df ratio, p-value, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The acceptable goodness-of-fit indices cut-off values were further discussed in Chapter 4. Paths between the variables were examined to test the specific stressor-emotion and emotion-incivility relationships. The hypothesized mediating effects of negative emotion were tested by indirect effect estimates. To examine whether self-monitoring moderated the relationship between negative emotion and workplace incivility, multiple-group analysis in SEM was performed. Critical ratio method and regression were also conducted in SPSS to further ascertain the moderating effect of self-monitoring and to illustrate the effect (Aiken & West, 1991; Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hair et al., 2010; Hopwood, 2007).

3.9 Pre-test

A pre-test was conducted to evaluate the appropriateness of the questions in the questionnaire. The pre-test of this study was initiated on 10 September 2014. A convenient sample of 23 bank employees participated in the pre-test by answering self-administered questionnaires. In the final section of the questionnaires, participants were asked to provide their comments, inputs, and feedback for further improvement. Time taken to complete the questionnaire was measured. Also, participants were debriefed in post-interview after they completed the questionnaires (Czaja, 1998; Fowler, 1993).

The following Table 3.6 exhibits the summary of participants' demographic profile in the pre-test. Most of the participants were female, aged from 30 to 49, and were working with local banks. Two-thirds of them possessed Bachelor degree. 65% of the participants had worked with their current employer for 4-9 years.

Averagely, participants took about 12-15 minutes to answer the questions. Most of the participants were concerned about the difficulty of questions in terms of wording used though overall they were able to understand the questions clearly. They expressed that they were not too sure about some uncommon words used, for example, "condescending" and "buck a rule". Many of them suggested changing certain words like "fatigued" to "tired", "derogatory" to "rude". Questions were then revised to provide a clearer and better understanding for the participants in formal data collection. Final version of improved questions used in actual questionnaire distribution is shown in Appendix F.

Table 3.6
The Profile of Pre-test Participants (N=23)

Demographics	Frequency	Valid Percent
Gender:		
Male	7	30
Female	16	70
Age:		
Below 20	0	0
20-29	4	17
30-39	9	39
40-49	9	39
50-59	1	4
60 and above	0	0
Highest Educational Level:		
SPM/STPM	0	0
Diploma	3	13
Bachelor	15	65
Master	5	22
Doctorate	0	0
Others	0	0
Place of Work:		
Foreign bank	6	26
Local bank	17	74
Years in the Current Company		
Less than 1 year	1	4
1-3 years	3	13
4-6 years	8	35
7-9 years	7	30
10-12 years	2	9
13-15 years	1	4
More than 15 years	1	4

3.10 Pilot Test

A pilot study or pilot test is a small-scale study conducted prior to the real study. In a pilot study, researchers collect data from respondents similar to those that will be used in the full research (Zikmund et al., 2013). It is a trial study to test the research design with a subsample of respondents who have similar characteristics with the main sample (Gill & Johnson, 2010). Conducting a pilot study is important in identifying and correcting any potential problem, ultimately refining and improving

the research design. The recommended minimum sample size for pilot test or pre-test is 20 (Daniel, 2012).

A pilot test for the present study was carried out from 21 November 2014 to mid of January 2015. The modified and improved questions were used in the pilot test. 75 sets of electronic and hardcopy questionnaires were distributed to employees of three banks in Kuala Lumpur and Penang, namely Citibank (Jalan Ampang), United Overseas Bank (Bukit Mertajam), and CIMB Bank (Menara Bumiputra Commerce). The participants were employees from these three banks. 49 sets of questionnaires were successfully collected back, yielding a response rate of 65%.

Table 3.7 below shows the demographic profile of pilot test participants. Similar to the results of prior pre-test, majority of the participants were female (78%), married (61%), aged between 30 to 49 (72%), and possessed Bachelor degree (53%). However, 55% of them worked in foreign banks. About three quarters of the participants had been with their current supervisors for 1 to 6 years, and 70% of the employees said they worked frequently and very frequently with their supervisors.

Table 3.7
The Profile of Pilot Test Participants (N=49)

Demographics	Frequency	Valid Percent
Gender:		
Male	11	22.4
Female	38	77.6
Marital Status:		
Single	19	38.8
Married	30	61.2
Age:		
20-29	9	18.4
30-39	18	36.7
40-49	18	36.7
50-59	4	8.2
Educational Level:		
SPM/STPM	13	26.5
Bachelor	26	53.1
Master	9	18.4
Others	1	2.0

Place of Work:		
Foreign bank	27	55.1
Local bank	22	44.9
Supervisor's Gender:		
Male	13	26.5
Female	36	73.5
Tenure under Supervisor:		
Less than 1 year	7	14.3
1-3 years	24	49.0
4-6 years	13	26.5
7 years and above	5	10.2
Frequency of Interaction with Supervisor:		
Never	0	0.0
Hardly Ever	1	2.0
Rarely	1	2.0
Occasionally	1	2.0
Sometimes	11	22.4
Frequently	16	32.7
Very Frequently	19	38.8

Reliability test was conducted to assess the internal consistency of the variables. All the variables had demonstrated good internal reliability with Cronbach's Alpha values above acceptable level of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). As shown in Table 3.8 below, instigated workplace incivility, interactional justice, and negative emotion produced rather high Cronbach's Alpha estimates. Although the Cronbach's Alpha for self-monitoring was only 0.741, this was consistent to previous finding by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) which had 0.75 reliability value.

Table 3.8
Internal Reliability of Variables (N=49)

Variable Name	**No. of Items**	**Mean**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
Instigated Workplace Incivility	7	2.312	0.891
Role Conflict	8	4.202	0.765
Role Ambiguity	6	3.228	0.706
Interactional Justice	9	4.202	0.958
Negative Emotion	10	3.639	0.906
Self-monitoring	13	4.587	0.741
Total Items	**53**		

3.11 Research Ethics

Honesty and integrity are important elements required in conducting research. Upholding participants' rights to confidentiality and privacy is important in any research work (Smith, 2003). To render the study ethical, survey participants' right to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity would be observed.

In compliance to APA Ethics Code (Smith, 2003), the purpose of the study was explained through a cover letter and personal briefing. Participation was on voluntary basis. Questionnaires were anonymous and the disclosure of response would not place participants at liability or affect their employability. Participants were also assured of the strict confidentiality.

3.12 Summary

This chapter presents the research methodology utilized in the current study. The chapter discusses the relevant research paradigm and appropriate research design that was constructed. After giving the operational definition of variables, measurements for each variables and sampling design are presented. This chapter also specifies how the data was collected and analysed. Pre-test and pilot test were conducted and the brief results were shared. Lastly, the chapter discusses some ethical considerations in the research work. Based on the mentioned methodology in this chapter, the results of analysis are presented in the following Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and findings of various analyses using statistical tools and structural equation modeling (SEM). It begins with a brief description of data collected and demographic profile of the participants. Data screening outcomes are reported, including the descriptive statistics of variables. It is then followed by a number of tests and analyses such as exploratory factor analysis (EFA), reliability test, construct validity test, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Lastly, the results of hypotheses testing, which include both the mediation and moderation tests, are presented. A brief summary is also included to conclude the chapter.

4.2 Data Collected

A total of 416 questionnaires were distributed via both online survey form (Google Form) and hardcopy printed questionnaires, of which 221 sets were returned. The response rate was 53%. Out of these 221 responses received, five were dropped because the missing data were more than 50% (Hair et al., 2010). Although the missing data was less than 10%, another three were eliminated because the participants did not give any scoring on the dependent variable, instigated workplace incivility (Hair et al., 2010). Additional two cases were dropped from the analysis because the important moderating variable, self-monitoring, was not rated at all. Thus, only 211 sets of responses were used in the analysis. All data were entered into IBM SPSS version 21 and analysed using IBM SPSS and AMOS.

4.3 Demographic Profile of the Participants

The profile of the participants is exhibited in Table 4.1. Out of 211 valid participants, 68 (32.2%) were male. More than half of them were married (58.8%). One third (36.5%) were within the age group of 30-39 years old, and 27.5% from the age groups of 20-29 years old and 40-49 years old group each. Only 18 of them (8.5%) aged between 50 and 59 years old. The average age was 36 years old (Mean=35.87, SD=8.77).

In terms of educational level, more than half of the participants (52.1%) had a bachelor's degree, followed by SPM/STPM (36.5%). The distribution of employees' place of work was quite even, with 40.8% of them worked in foreign banks and the rest in local banks (59.2%). Majority (87.2%) had been working under their current supervisors for six years or less. About three-quarter of them interacted frequently or very frequently with their immediate supervisors.

Table 4.1
The Profile of Participants (N=211)

Demographics	Frequency	Valid Percent
Gender:		
Male	68	32.2
Female	143	67.8
Marital Status:		
Single	79	37.4
Married	124	58.8
Divorced	7	3.3
Widowed	1	0.5
Age:		
20-29	58	27.5
30-39	77	36.5
40-49	58	27.5
50-59	18	8.5
Educational Level:		
SPM/STPM	77	36.5
Bachelor	110	52.1
Master	18	8.5
Others	6	2.8

Place of Work:		
Foreign bank	86	40.8
Local bank	125	59.2
Supervisor's Gender:		
Male	91	43.1
Female	119	56.4
Missing Value	1	0.5
Tenure under Supervisor:		
Less than 1 year	25	11.8
1-3 years	105	49.8
4-6 years	54	25.6
7-9 years	17	8.1
10-12 years	5	2.4
13-15 years	0	0
15-20 years	1	0.5
Missing Value	4	1.9
Frequency of Interaction with Supervisor:		
Never	0	0
Hardly Ever	1	0.5
Rarely	10	4.7
Occasionally	13	6.2
Sometimes	33	15.6
Frequently	72	34.1
Very Frequently	81	38.4
Missing Value	1	0.5

4.4 Data Screening

Data screening process was first performed to detect any missing value, outliers, and to assess the normality of the data. Some appropriate treatments to fix the missing values and outliers were done before proceeding with the analysis in SEM. This is a crucial step prior to the analysis as SEM in a confirmatory approach (Hair et al., 2010).

4.4.1 Missing Values

Missing values often happen when respondents fail to answer one or more questions in the survey (Hair et al., 2010). In the initial dataset entered and coded, there were eight missing values corresponding to items RS8, RS11, RS12, RS14, and SM7.

Missing Completely At Random (MCAR) test was conducted to see if the missing value was random (Little, 1988). Result showed no evidence of random missing (Chi-square=343.541, df=295, p=0.27), and hence, no treatment was carried out. In view of the minor missing values occurrence, the "median of nearby points" treatment was used to replace the eight missing values (Hair et al., 2010).

4.4.2 Outliers

Outliers are extreme cases that might affect the outcome of the analysis because they are extremely different from other observations on one or more variables (Hair et al., 2010). To identify outliers, Mahalanobis distance tests were done. Mahalanobis distance refers to the distance between a case and the centroid and multivariate outlier is defined as a case with Mahalanobis distance greater than its critical value of Chi-square distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006; Ullman, 2006).

In the current analysis, datasets with Mahalanobis (D^2) values which were substantially greater than the $\chi 2$ value (χ^2=90.57; n=53, p<0.001) were deleted (Hair et al, 2010). These extreme cases are exhibited in Table 4.5. Deleting these outliers left 208 cases for the final analysis.

Table 4.2
Outliers Deleted

Respondent #	Mahalanobis Distance Value
51	148.77311
105	139.54306
190	129.17321

4.4.3 Assessment of Normality

Normality refers to the degree to which the sample data is normally distributed (Hair et al., 2010). It is one of the most fundamental assumptions in multivariate analysis.

Hence, assessment of normality and remedies for non-normality are critical steps in data screening process.

Normality tests were conducted in SPSS using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, and by examining Z-scores of skewness statistics and Kurtosis statistics. Appendix H indicates the results of normality tests for all items of all the constructs in the present study. All of them were significant ($p<0.05$) in both Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, suggesting that the data significantly deviated from a normal distribution. Furthermore, most of the items had Z-values of more than 2. This suggested that the data was not normally distributed. As such, non-normal data with Z-score skewness of more than 2 were transformed (Hair et al., 2010).This was a crucial step to fulfil the normality assumption in multivariate analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

Appendix I and J show the data before and after the transformation. The Z-scores of all transformed variables are well below 2 (Appendix K). In order to fulfil the requirement of normality in SEM, the transformed values were used in confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural model analysis subsequently.

4.4.4 Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Descriptive statistics of variables (N=208) which include minimum and maximum values, means, and standard deviations are shown in Table 4.3 below. Overall, interactional justice produced the highest mean amongst the independent variables, indicating that participants perceived that they were treated fairly by their supervisors at least to a moderately large extent. On the other hand, the mean of instigated workplace incivility was the lowest amongst all variables. This is in fact

within expectation due to self-report bias which is inevitable and consistent with other previous studies (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Within the same variable or construct, it is worth noting that one item (NE10) in negative emotion construct scored the highest mean (Mean=4.4952, SD=1.3831) compared to other items in the same construct. This higher mean of item NE10 ("My job makes me feel frustrated.") suggested that, on average, the respondents felt more frustration caused by their job in relative to other discrete negative emotions. Apart from this, Item RS1 ("I feel secure about how much authority I have.") in role ambiguity (RA) construct recorded the highest mean (Mean=4.1250, SD=1.52079), way above other five items in the same construct. As this is a reverse-coded item, higher mean indicated higher level of ambiguity. Respondents relatively perceived higher ambiguity in terms of how much authority they have. The details of means and standard deviation of all items in all constructs are displayed in Appendix L.

Table 4.3
Descriptive Statistics of Manifest Variables (N=208)

Items	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Role Conflict (RC)	1.50	5.88	3.8149	1.01461
Role Ambiguity (RA)	1.17	6.33	3.6691	1.20380
Interactional Justice (IJ)	1.00	7.00	4.2751	1.30073
Negative Emotion (NE)	1.00	5.70	3.4707	1.06904
Self-Monitoring (SM)	2.77	6.08	4.5148	0.59647
Instigated Workplace Incivility (DWS)	1.00	5.14	2.3310	1.04870

4.4.5 Non-Response Bias Test

Non-response bias arises when people who do not return the questionnaire are having significantly different opinions with those who return the questionnaire (McNabb, 2014).

Independent sample t-test was conducted to test for non-response bias. The mean of the first 20 responses received were compared against the mean of the last 20 responses received in relation to each variable. Table 4.4 presents the result. The t-test revealed that all variables produced insignificant results, except for role ambiguity (RA) (t=7.870, p=0.000). This means that for most of the variables, there was no major difference in the responses given by the first 20 and last 20 participants. In other words, non-response bias was not reported for all variables except role ambiguity (RA) only. Having acknowledged that non-response bias may still exist even in the most rigorous survey (Peress, 2010), the bias was inevitable in the study and not deemed as a major threat but a limitation to the generalisability of sample data, which would be addressed in subsequent chapter (Lindner, Murphy & Briers, 2001). The result of independent sample t-test is exhibited in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4
Mean and Standard Deviation of First and Last 20 Responses

Variables		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	p-value
Instigated Workplace Incivility (DWS)	First 20 Responses	20	2.3786	1.08428	.24245	0.517	0.608
	Last 20 Responses	20	2.2214	.81800	.18291		
Role Conflict (RC)	First 20 Responses	20	4.2563	.65579	.14664	0.472	0.640
	Last 20 Responses	20	4.1500	.76369	.17077		
Role Ambiguity (RA)	First 20 Responses	20	4.9917	.65220	.14584	7.870	0.000
	Last 20 Responses	20	2.9833	.93643	.20939		
Interactional Justice (IJ)	First 20 Responses	20	3.7778	.96931	.21675	-0.778	0.441
	Last 20 Responses	20	4.0278	1.06139	.23733		
Negative Emotion (NE)	First 20 Responses	20	4.0800	.86060	.19244	0.809	0.423
	Last 20 Responses	20	3.8300	1.08098	.24172		
Self-monitoring (SM)	First 20 Responses	20	4.4962	.30308	.06777	-0.812	0.422
	Last 20 Responses	20	4.6077	.53463	.11955		

4.4.6 Multicollinearity Test

Multicollinearity refers to the extent to which a construct (or independent variable) can be explained by other constructs in the analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Multicollinearity is undesirable. If the multicollinearity is high, it is much more difficult to explain the effect of a single construct because of the interdependence among the constructs. It is, therefore, more difficult to interpret the relationship in the analysis.

In order to determine if there is any high correlation or similarity among the independent variables, multicollinearity test was performed in SPSS. One of the most common measures of multicollinearity is the variance inflation factor (VIF). The value of VIF can be calculated by the following formula, whereby R^2 is obtained from regression model:

$$\text{VIF} = \frac{1}{1-R^2}$$

$(1–R^2)$ is referred as tolerance, which shows the amount of variability of the selected independent variable not explained by the other independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.5 exhibits the values of tolerance and VIF for the exogenous variables. It is clear that the VIF vales were all below 2, much lower than the suggested cut-off of 3 to 5 (Hair et al., 2010), indicating that there was no issue of multicollinearity.

Table 4.5
Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) Values

Variables	Tolerance	VIF
Role Conflict (RC)	0.662	1.511
Role Ambiguity (RA)	0.794	1.260
Interactional Justice (IJ)	0.757	1.322
Negative Emotion (NE)	0.633	1.581

4.4.7 Common Method Variance Test

Common method bias has always been a concern in research using self-report measures (Maeda, Watson & Kroustalis, 2007). Harman's single factor test was used to check if there was any possible common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Based on this test, if there is any one single factor accounts for the majority of the covariance, common method variance is very likely to be present. In the current study, the test found no dominant factor from the factor analysis. No single factor explained majority of the covariance. This implied that common method bias was not a serious threat in the current study (Maeda et al., 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2003).

4.5 The Levels of Experienced and Instigated Workplace Incivility

To fulfil the first and second research objectives, some descriptive analyses were performed to find out the levels of experienced and instigated workplace incivility among the employees in the Malaysian banking sector.

Table 4.6 (page 127) shows the frequencies of responses for each of the seven items of experienced workplace incivility, its respective mean and standard deviation, descending from the highest mean value. As indicated, the most frequent uncivil act experienced by the employees was being doubted their judgment over the matter that they have responsibility in (Item 6), with more than 85% of the participants reported that they experienced this at least once every few months, and about 11% of them said they encountered it at least once a week. However, the mean score for Item 2 (“Paid little attention to your statement or opinion”) was the highest (Mean=2.89, SD=1.23). Item 3 (“Made degrading, rude or unfavourable remarks about you”) scored the lowest mean (Mean=2.24, SD=1.24) among all items. Still,

less than 35% of the participants had never experienced rude or unfavourable remarks made against them at their workplace.

Table 4.6
Frequency of Experienced Workplace Incivility (N=208)

	Items	Response Frequency (%)							
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**Mean (SD)**
2	Paid little attention to your statement or opinion.	15.9	22.1	29.3	24.5	6.3	1.9	0	2.89 (1.23)
6	Doubted your judgment in a matter that you have responsibility in.	12.5	36.5	17.8	22.1	10.6	0.5	0	2.83 (1.24)
7	Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters.	23.1	33.7	15.4	17.8	7.2	2.4	0.5	2.62 (1.37)
5	Ignored or excluded you from professional gathering (e.g. social conversation).	24.0	29.8	22.6	13.9	9.6	0	0	2.55 (1.26)
1	Looked down on you in some way.	25.5	32.7	19.7	12.5	8.7	0.5	0.5	2.50 (1.30)
4	Addressed you in unprofessional terms (either privately or publicly).	36.5	31.3	13.9	10.1	5.8	2.4	0	2.25 (1.33)
3	Made degrading, rude or unfavourable remarks about you.	34.6	30.3	19.7	7.7	7.2	0.5	0	2.24 (1.24)

Note.
1=Never; 2=Hardly ever (about once every few months); 3=Rarely (about once a month); 4=Occasionally (about 2-3 times a month); 5=Sometimes (about once a week); 6=Frequently (about once a day); 7=Very frequently (at least several times a day)

Table 4.7 (page 129) presents the frequencies of responses for the seven items of instigated workplace incivility, mean, and standard deviation. Averagely, the mean scores were lower compared to experienced workplace incivility. The highest mean of 2.68 (SD=1.25) was recorded by Item 6 (“Doubted someone's judgment in a matter that they have responsibility in”). This is also the most frequent uncivil act committed by the participants. About 85% of the participants stated that they had done this to others at least once every few months. The least frequent act was addressing someone in unprofessional terms either privately or publicly (Item 4), with more than 40% of the participants said they had never done this to others. Item 1 (“Looked down on others in some way”) scored the lowest mean of 2.08 (SD=1.19).

Although participants gave relatively lower scores to experienced and instigated workplace incivility than to other variables, it is undeniable that workplace incivility is a rather general occurrence at the workplace in the Malaysian banking sector.

Table 4.7
Frequency of Instigated Workplace Incivility (N=208)

	Items	Response Frequency (%)							Mean (SD)
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6	Doubted someone's judgment in a matter that they have responsibility in.	15.4	38.0	22.6	12.0	11.1	1.0	0	2.68 (1.25)
2	Paid little attention to someone's statement or opinion.	20.2	33.7	20.2	16.8	6.3	2.9	0	2.64 (1.30)
5	Ignored or excluded someone from professional gathering (e.g. social conversation).	25.5	37.0	18.3	10.1	8.7	0.5	0	2.41 (1.24)
7	Made unwanted attempts to draw someone into a discussion of personal matters.	30.8	39.4	10.6	11.5	5.8	1.9	0	2.28 (1.28)
3	Made degrading, rude or unfavourable remarks about someone.	36.1	36.5	13.5	7.7	5.3	1.0	0	2.12 (1.19)
4	Addressed someone in unprofessional terms (either privately or publicly).	41.3	25.0	22.1	5.3	5.8	0.5	0	2.11 (1.20)
1	Looked down on others in some way.	38.9	35.1	11.5	8.7	5.3	0.5	0	2.08 (1.19)

Note.
1=Never; 2=Hardly ever (about once every few months); 3=Rarely (about once a month); 4=Occasionally (about 2-3 times a month); 5=Sometimes (about once a week); 6=Frequently (about once a day); 7=Very frequently (at least several times a day)

4.6 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

In order to explore the possible underlying factor structure of the observed variables, EFA was run in SPSS using maximum likelihood estimation for the three exogenous variables, role conflict (RC), role ambiguity (RA), and interactional justice (IJ). Maximum likelihood method, which is a type of common factor analysis, is appropriate as the objective is to identify the latent dimensions represented, and there is little knowledge about the amount of unique and error variance (Hair et al., 2010). Maximum likelihood is more flexible and able to cope with severe model misspecification thus may describe the population pattern more accurately (De Winter & Dodou, 2012).

The EFA of exogenous variables produced a significant Bartlett's Test (p=0.000) and a very high Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure at 0.889, well above the acceptable level of 0.50 (Kaiser, 1974) and the threshold of 0.70 for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). The Goodness-of-fit test was also significant (Chi-square=404.964, df=167, p=0.000).

Three components were obtained for the three constructs and all items fell into the respective components of the constructs. Interactional justice (IJ) achieved the highest factor loadings, ranging from 0.789 to 0.957. The factor loadings for role conflict (RC) were moderate but acceptable, ranging from 0.511 to 0.657.

Six items loaded on another construct, role ambiguity (RA). Nevertheless, one of the items, RS1, was deleted because its factor loading was less than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, RS1 was not included in the hypothesis testing in SEM. The overall EFA results of exogenous variables are shown in Table 4.8 and 4.9 below.

Table 4.8
Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) Results

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.889
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Approx. Chi-Square	4377.157
df	253
Sig.	.000
Goodness-of-fit Test	
Chi-Square	404.964
df	167
Sig.	.000

Table 4.9
Factor Loadings for EFA of Independent Variables

Rotated Factor Matrix[a]				
	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
IJ2: Has your supervisor treated you with dignity?	.957			
IJ3: Has your supervisor treated you with respect?	.937			
IJ1: Has your supervisor treated you in a polite manner?	.930			
IJ5: Has your supervisor been honest in his/her communications with you?	.889			
IJ6: Has your supervisor explained the procedures that concern you thoroughly?	.887			
IJ7: Were your supervisor's explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?	.883			
IJ4: Has your supervisor refrained from improper remarks or comments?	.831			
IJ9: Has your supervisor seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?	.799			
IJ8: Has your supervisor communicated details in a timely manner?	.789			
RS3: I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.		.657		
RS14: I work on unnecessary things.		.647		

RS6: I have to go against a rule or policy to carry out an assignment.		.641	
RS8: I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.		.641	
RS13: I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	-.316	.641	
RS10: I do things that are likely to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.		.606	
RS5: I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.		.592	
RS2: I have to do things that should be done differently.		.511	
RS11: I know exactly what is expected of me.			.936
RS9: I know what my responsibilities are.			.818
RS12: Explanation is clear of what has to be done.			.784
RS4: Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.			.680
RS7: I know that I have divided my time properly.			.628
RS1: I feel secure about how much authority I have.		-.349	.381

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

4.7 Reliability Test

Reliability refers to the extent to which a variable or a set of variables is consistent in what it is intended to measure (Hair et al., 2010). Reliability, thus, is an assessment to ensure that the measurement is reliable. A more commonly used measure of reliability is internal consistency (Hair et al., 2010).

Cronbach's alpha, the most widely used reliability coefficient, was employed in the present study to measure the internal consistency of variables in a summated scale. The Cronbach's alpha values calculated for all variables showed very good reliabilities of 0.840 and higher, as indicated in Table 4.10. Interactional justice

produced the highest Cronbach's alpha value of 0.970. In fact, when item RS1 was deleted after the EFA due to its low factor loading, the Cronbach's alpha for role ambiguity (RA) increased to 0.900 from 0.856. The values for all variables were higher than the recommended level of 0.7 (Nunally, 1970; Nunally & Bernstein, 1994), indicating good reliabilities of variables.

Table 4.10
Internal Reliability of All Latent Variables (N=208)

Variables	No. of Items	Mean	Cronbach's Alpha
Role Conflict (RC)	8	3.815	0.851
Role Ambiguity (RA)	6	3.669	0.856
Role Ambiguity (RA)**	5	3.578	0.900
Interactional Justice (IJ)	9	4.275	0.972
Negative Emotion (NE)	10	3.471	0.926
Instigated Workplace Incivility (DWS)	7	2.331	0.935
Self-monitoring (SM)	13	4.515	0.844

Note.
** After Item RS1 deleted due to low factor loading in EFA.

4.8 Construct Validity Test

Validity refers to whether or not the test measures what it claims to measure (Borsboom, Mellenbergh & van Heerden, 2004). Items with high validity will be closely linked to the intended focus of the test. One of the most important validity in psychology research is construct validity (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003). Construct validity measures the extent to which a set of measured variables represents the theoretical latent construct those variables are designed to measure (Hair et al., 2010). Construct validity can be established by examining the correlations of a measure with other measures which are supposed to be related to it or be different with it theoretically (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003). Two types of construct validity were tested in the current study: convergent validity and discriminant validity.

4.8.1 Convergent validity

Convergent validity measures the extent to which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common (Hair et al., 2010). It can be tested by EFA, CFA, or by examining the composite reliability or the standardized factor loadings (Hair et al., 2010). Composite reliability measures the reliability of a construct in the measurement model. In relative to Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability produces a more retrospective approach in overall consistency of the construct. The formula for composite reliability is as below (Fornell & Larcker, 1981):

$$\text{Composite reliability} = \frac{(\Sigma \text{ standardized factor loading})^2}{(\Sigma \text{standardized factor loading})^2 + \Sigma e_j}$$

Based on the hypothesized model, the calculation of composite reliability was done manually in Microsoft Excel. The working is shown in Appendix M. The details of the factor loading are exhibited in the following Table 4.11.

Table 4.11
Factor Loadings of Each Item

	Items in Each Construct	**Factor Loading (Std regression weight)**
Role Conflict (RC)	tRS2	0.453
	tRS3	0.670
	tRS5	0.598
	tRS6	0.583
	tRS8	0.639
	tRS10	0.619
	tRS13	0.762
	tRS14	0.755
Role Ambiguity (RA)	tRS4	0.723
	tRS7	0.698

	Items in Each Construct	Factor Loading (Std regression weight)
	tRS9	0.867
	tRS11	0.931
	tRS12	0.789
Interactional Justice (IJ)	tIJ1	0.936
	tIJ2	0.964
	tIJ3	0.944
	tIJ4	0.820
	tIJ5	0.874
	tIJ6	0.856
	tIJ7	0.857
	tIJ8	0.796
	tIJ9	0.799
Negative Emotion (NE)	tNE1	0.627
	tNE2	0.839
	tNE3	0.743
	tNE4	0.849
	tNE5	0.742
	tNE6	0.812
	tNE7	0.853
	tNE8	0.832
	tNE9	0.794
	tNE10	0.361
Instigated Workplace Incivility (DWS)	tDWS1	0.810
	tDWS2	0.781
	tDWS3	0.887
	tDWS4	0.881
	tDWS5	0.812
	tDWS6	0.836
	tDWS7	0.837

After calculating based on the abovementioned formula, the composite reliability of each construct is presented in Table 4.12. The values of composite reliability for all constructs were well above 0.60 (all above 0.9), showing high reliability (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010; Nunally, 1970). The composite reliability of each construct is also higher than its internal reliability of Cronbach's Alpha.

Table 4.12
Composite Reliability of Constructs

Variable	No. of Items	Mean (Std. Dev)	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
Role Conflict (RC)	8	3.815 (0.355)	0.851	0.931
Role Ambiguity (RA)	5	3.578 (0.032)	0.900	0.970
Interactional Justice (IJ)	9	4.275 (0.118)	0.972	0.994
Negative Emotion (NE)	10	3.471 (0.392)	0.926	0.978
Instigated Workplace Incivility (DWS)	7	2.331 (0.253)	0.935	0.985
Total Items	39			

Furthermore, CFA of exogenous variables was conducted in SEM AMOS using the transformed datasets. From the CFA results shown in Appendix N, O, and P, the regression estimates or factor loadings of all manifesting observed variables were considered good. With the exception of item tRS2 in role conflict (RC) which carried a slightly lower factor loading of 0.49, all other factor loadings ranged from 0.60 (tRS6) to 0.96 (tIJ2). According to Hair et al. (2010), the standardized factor loadings of latent to observed variable should be greater than 0.50. The results thus showed that generally all the constructs had good convergent validity.

4.8.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity evaluates the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other construct (Hair et al., 2010). In order to measure discriminant validity, average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated manually in Microsoft Excel worksheet and then compared to the correlation squared of the interrelated variables. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), in order to meet the requirements of discriminant validity, the AVE of any two constructs must be more than the square of the correlation between the given two constructs. AVE is derived from the calculation of variance extracted based on the following formula:

$$\text{Variance Extracted (VE)} = \frac{\Sigma \text{ (standardized SMC)}}{\Sigma \text{ (standardized SMC)} + \Sigma e_j}$$

The calculation works and result of variance extracted, AVE, and correlation are presented in Appendix Q and R. The findings are also shown in the matrix in the following Table 4.13 and Table 4.14. Based on the correlation matrix and AVE matrix, it is well observed that discriminant validity was supported in this study. All AVE values were greater than the correlation squared values. For instance, AVE for interactional justice and negative emotion was 0.995 (Table 4.14). This is greater than its correlation squared of 0.265 (Table 4.13). As such, these two constructs were discriminant. In sum, all constructs showed good discriminant validity.

Table 4.13
Correlation and Correlation Squared Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Role Conflict (1)	-				
	0.482				
Role Ambiguity (2)	(0.232)	-			
	-0.380	-0.264			
Interactional Justice (3)	(0.144)	(0.070)	-		
Negative	0.616	0.330	-0.515		
Emotion (4)	(0.379)	(0.109)	(0.265)	-	
Instigated Workplace	0.490	0.175	-0.197	0.496	
Incivility (5)	(0.240)	(0.031)	(0.039)	(0.246)	-

Note.
Values in diagonal are correlation estimates among constructs and values in the brackets are squared correlation.

Table 4.14
Average Variance Extracted (AVE) Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Role Conflict (1)	1.000				
Role Ambiguity (2)	0.990	1.000			
Interactional Justice (3)	0.992	0.996	1.000		
Negative Emotion (4)	0.989	0.993	0.995	1.000	
Instigated Workplace Incivility (5)	0.991	0.995	0.997	0.994	1.000

4.9 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The CFA model, or also termed as measurement model, defines the relationship between the observed indicator variables and unobserved latent variables (Byrne, 2010). Using SEM AMOS, CFA was first conducted for every construct (role conflict, role ambiguity, and interactional justice) and then the measurement model of all exogenous variables. Model fitting process was carried out before proceeding to the structural model and examining the goodness-of-fit index (Zainudin Awang, 2012). The goodness-of-fit allows us to see if the model fits into the variance-covariance matrix of the dataset.

There are indeed many different propositions regarding which goodness-of-fit index is to be used. Until today, there is no one definite measure that can tell absolutely that the model is fit. Most of the researchers propose to use a variety of evaluation criteria from multiple perspectives (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentley, 1999). For example, Hair et al. (2010) suggest that there should be at least one index from each group of fit indices: Chi-square and the associated *df*, absolute fit index, incremental fit index, parsimony fit index, and goodness-of-fit index.

Following the suggestion by Hair et al. (2010) the model fit assessment criteria used in this study were CMIN/df ratio, p-value, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI), and root mean

square error of approximation (RMSEA). The model is considered fit if it fulfils these criteria: CMIN/df ratio < 2 or 3; p-value > 0.05; GFI > 0.90; CFI > 0.90; and 0.00 < RMSEA < 0.08 (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). Furthermore, Hair et al. (2010) mention that p-value is expected to be significant if the sample size is less than 250 and there are 30 or more observed variables (p. 672). Thus, a significant p-value (<0.05) was treated to be acceptable in the present study that has 208 samples and 39 observed variables.

Table 4.15 shows the goodness-of-fit indices for CFAs of each individual construct, including exogenous and endogenous constructs, and the measurement models. After applying model identification and fitting process, all individual constructs were well fit. The measurement model of the exogenous variables also showed a good fit (CMIN/df ratio=1.697; GFI=0.937; CFI=0.980; RMSEA=0.058) despite a significant p-value (p=0.001). Nevertheless, this is still acceptable based on the guidelines drawn by Hair et al. (2010).

Table 4.15
Goodness-of-Fit Analysis: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Models (N=208)

Final Models	RC	RA	IJ	NE	DWS	Exogenous : RC, RA & IJ	Endogenous: NE & DWS	All Endogenous and Exogenous
Original Items	8	5	9	10	7	22	17	39
Items remain	6	4	5	6	4	12	9	17
Chi-Square	12.346	3.086	6.014	16.598	4.365	86.554	51.551	170.453
DF	9	2	5	9	2	51	26	109
CMIN /df	1.372	1.543	1.203	1.844	2.183	1.697	1.983	1.564
p-value	0.194	0.214	0.305	0.055	0.113	0.001	0.002	0.000
GFI	0.981	0.993	0.989	0.974	0.989	0.937	0.944	0.917
CFI	0.989	0.997	0.999	0.988	0.996	0.980	0.980	0.976
PNFI	0.577	0.331	0.498	0.585	0.331	0.737	0.694	0.751
RMSEA	0.042	0.051	0.031	0.064	0.076	0.058	0.069	0.052

4.10 Hypothesized Model and Generated Model

The hypothesized model based on the underpinning theory, the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005), had three exogenous variables (role conflict, role ambiguity, interactional justice) and two endogenous variables (negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility). As discussed in Chapter 2, 11 hypotheses were developed, of which seven were direct relationship hypotheses.

The hypothesized model produced a rather average Goodness-of-Fit index but it was still not a fit model (CMIN/df ratio=3.0; p-value=0.000; GFI=0.646; CFI=0.813; RMSEA=0.098). The Goodness of Fit index did not meet the criteria of fitness set for the study. Therefore model identification and fitting process was carried out again to obtain the best fit structural model, or generated model, for subsequent analyses (Byrne, 2010; Zainudin Awang, 2012). Model was revised by deleting some indicators or items one-by-one as justified by modification indexes. Then, the model was run again until the best fit was obtained. As indicated in Table 4.16, only 17 items (originally 39 items) remained in the final best fit generated model (Appendix S). The deleted items are shown in Appendix T.

The generated model had a better Goodness-of-fit than the hypothesized model (see Table 4.16 below). GFI of the generated model was achieved at 0.917, much higher than GFI of the hypothesized model of 0.646. CFI had also improved from 0.813 to 0.976. RMSEA was recorded at 0.052 compared to 0.098 in the hypothesized model. Overall, this was the best fit model that could be obtained despite a significant p-value (p=0.000), and it is considered acceptable following Hair et al. (2010)'s guidelines.

Table 4.16
Goodness-of-Fit Analysis: Hypothesized Model and Generated Model (N=208)

	Hypothesized Model	Generated Model
Original Items	39	
Items remain		17
Chi-Square	2075.674	170.453
DF	692	109
CMIN/df	3.000	1.564
p-value	0.000	0.000
GFI	0.646	0.917
CFI	0.813	0.976
PNFI	0.695	0.751
RMSEA	0.098	0.052

4.11 Hypotheses Testing

The generated model presented in Appendix S was used to perform the hypotheses testing because the hypothesized model was not a fit model.

Of seven hypotheses developed for direct relationships, four were supported (refer to Table 4.17 and Figure 4.1) i.e. H1, H4, H6, and H7. Role conflict was found to be positively related to instigated workplace incivility (H1: ß=0.392; CR=-2.407; p=0.016) and negative emotion (H4: ß=0.582; CR=3.822; p<0.001). Interactional justice was negatively related to negative emotion (H6: ß=-0.299; CR=-4.327; p<0.001), while negative emotion had a direct significant impact on instigated workplace incivility (H7: ß=0.268; CR=2.143; p=0.032).

On the other hand, three hypotheses (H2, H3, H5) were not supported as they were found to be insignificant statistically (refer to Table 4.17). Result suggests that role ambiguity (RA) had no direct relationship with either instigated workplace incivility or negative emotion (H2 and H5). Interactional justice (IJ) was also found to have no direct relationship with instigated workplace incivility (H3: ß=0.019;

CR=0.254; p=0.800). The results of the direct effects tested are presented in Table 4.17 and Figure 4.1.

Table 4.17
Direct Impact of Generated Model: Standardized Regression Weights

H	Exogenous		Endogenous	Std Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P-value	Status
H1	Role conflict	→	Instigated workplace incivility	0.392	0.398	2.407	0.016	**Significant**
H2	Role ambiguity	→	Instigated workplace incivility	-0.085	0.107	-1.031	0.302	**Not Significant**
H3	Interactional justice	→	Instigated workplace incivility	0.019	0.073	0.254	0.800	**Not Significant**
H4	Role conflict	→	Negative emotion	0.582	0.372	3.822	***	**Significant**
H5	Role ambiguity	→	Negative emotion	-0.007	0.101	-0.089	0.929	**Not Significant**
H6	Interactional justice	→	Negative emotion	-0.299	0.066	-4.327	***	**Significant**
H7	Negative emotion	→	Instigated workplace incivility	0.268	0.125	2.143	0.032	**Significant**

*Note: *** p<0.001*

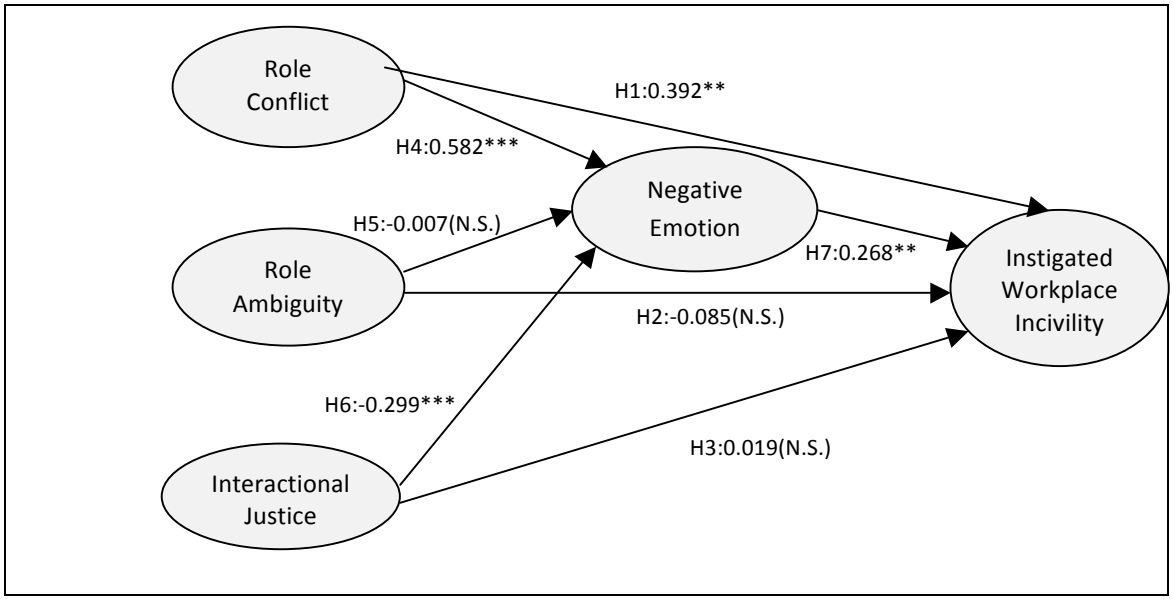

Figure 4.1
Hypothesis Testing Findings (Standardized Beta Estimates)

4.12 The Mediating Effect of Negative Emotion

Mediation occurs when a third variable intervenes between two other related variables (Hair et al., 2010). In the present study, negative emotion (NE) is hypothesized to play a mediating role between the independent variables, role conflict (RC), role ambiguity (RA), interactional justice (IJ), and the dependent variable, instigated workplace incivility (DWS). These are hypothesized in H8, H9, and H10.

Using the causal steps approach by Baron and Kenny (1986) and the guidelines set forth in Hair et al. (2010), the mediating role of negative emotion was investigated via a series of steps. Firstly, the direct effects of independent variables (RC, RA and IJ) on the dependent variable (DWS) were investigated in the context of no mediator involved. When the mediator, NE, was introduced to the relationship, the direct effect and indirect effect were examined. Table 4.18a to Table 4.18d below exhibit the workings and results of mediation testing.

Table 4.18a
Direct Effect Without Mediator

	Direct effect WITHOUT mediator		
	β	CR	P
RC --> DWS	0.555	3.617	***
RA --> DWS	-0.099	-1.09	0.276 (Not significant)
IJ --> DWS	-0.061	-0.792	0.429 (Not significant)

Table 4.18b
Testing for the Mediating Effect of NE in Hypothesis 8

	WITH mediator		
H8: RC→ NE→ DWS	β	P-value	
RC → NE	0.582	<0.001	Significant
NE → DWS	0.268	0.032	Significant
RC → DWS	0.392	0.016	Significant

Table 4.18c
Testing for the Mediating Effect of NE in Hypothesis 9

	WITH mediator		
H9: RA→ NE→ DWS	β	P-value	
RA → NE	-0.007	0.929	Not Significant
NE → DWS	0.268	0.032	Significant
RA → DWS	-0.085	0.302	Not Significant

Table 4.18d
Testing for the Mediating Effect of NE in Hypothesis 10

	WITH mediator		
H10: IJ→ NE→ DWS	β	P-value	
IJ → NE	-0.299	<0.001	Significant
NE → DWS	0.268	0.032	Significant
IJ → DWS	0.019	0.800	Not Significant

The direct effect of role conflict (RC) on instigated workplace incivility (DWS) was significant in the absence of a mediator (β=0.555, CR=3.617, p<0.001). When the mediator, negative emotion (NE), was added, the direct effect reduced but still remained significant (β=0.392, CR=2.407, p=0.016). And the indirect effects were also significant. Partial mediation occurs when the direct effect is reduced but

still significant or when the indirect effect contains paths that are all significant (Hair et al., 2010). Hence, H8 was partially supported. Negative emotion (NE) partially mediated the relationship between role conflict (RC) and instigated workplace incivility (DWS).

On the other hand, there was no direct relationship found between role ambiguity (RA) and instigated workplace incivility (DWS). Without a mediator, the direct effect was not significant (β=-0.099, CR=-1.09, p=0.276). Role ambiguity (RA) was also not significantly linked to the negative emotion (β=-0.007, CR=-0.089, p=0.929). No mediation observed with the presence of negative emotion (NE). H9, thus, was rejected. Negative emotion (NE) did not mediate the relationship between role ambiguity (RA) and instigated workplace incivility (DWS).

Based on Hair et al. (2010), a full mediation occurs when the direct effect is not significant in the presence of the indirect effect. The direct effect of interactional justice (IJ) on instigated workplace incivility (DWS) was found to be insignificant (β=-0.061, CR=-0.792, p=0.429). When the mediator negative emotion (NE) was introduced to the relationship, the indirect effect (both the individual paths) became significant (IJ → NE: β=-0.299, CR=-4.327, p<0.001; NE →DWS: β=0.268, CR=2.143. p=0.032). Negative emotion (NE) fully mediated the relationship between interactional justice (IJ) and instigated workplace incivility (DWS). Hence, H10 was supported.

4.13 The Moderating Effect of Self-monitoring

One of the significant contributions of the current study is the inclusion of self-monitoring to moderate the relationship between negative emotion (NE) and instigated workplace incivility (DWS). In H11, it was proposed that self-monitoring

moderates the relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility, such that the relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility is weaker for high self-monitors than low self-monitors.

Multi-group analysis in SEM was performed to test the moderating effect in this study. Hair et al. (2010) suggested that categorical variables are to be used in multi-group analysis in testing moderation. In addition, Snyder (1974), who developed the self-monitoring construct and scale, suggested to split self-monitoring into two categories: low self-monitor and high self-monitor. Hence, in the current study, the scorings of self-monitoring were split into two categories. Scoring below the median score (median= 4.54) was grouped as low self-monitor (LSM), whereas participants who scored above the median was grouped under high self-monitor (HSM). As indicated in Table 4.19, the distribution of respondent into these two categories was quite even, thus making multi-group analysis plausible (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 4.19
Number and Percentage of LSM and HSM

Groups	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Low self-monitor (LSM)	98	47.1
High self-monitor (HSM)	110	52.9
Total	208	100.0

The moderation test result is presented in Table 4.20 below. This study followed the suggestions by Hair et al. (2010) to test the moderating effect of self-monitoring. The structural model estimate was evaluated by a comparison of group models. The first group model was estimated with path estimates calculated separately (totally free) for each group (LSM and HSM). The second group model

was then estimated with path estimate of interest constrained to be equal between the groups. Comparison was made to examine if there was a significant difference between the two models (Hair et al., 2010).

In the analysis, the constrained group showed a slightly worse model fit. The Chi-square difference between the two models was 25.489, with 2 degrees of freedom. Chi-square difference test indicated that this difference was significant with p-value < 0.001. This means that when the path estimate of NE → DWS was constrained to be equal between LSM and HSM, the model fit was significantly reduced. A significant difference between the models suggests that moderation does exist (Hair et al., 2010). In the current study, since there was a significant difference between unconstrained and constrained groups in the analysis, H11 was supported.

Table 4.20
Testing for Self-monitoring as a Moderator in the Structural Model of Workplace Incivility (Multi-Group Analysis)

Model Characteristics	**Unconstrained Group Model (Totally Free for Each Group**	**Constrained Group Model (NE → DWS Equal Across Groups)**	**Model Differences**
Model Fit:			
Chi-square	425.159	450.648	25.489
df	218	220	2
CFI	0.923	0.914	
GFI	0.819	0.809	
RMSEA	0.068	0.071	
Standardized Estimate (NE → DWS)	0.315 (LSM) 0.243 (HSM)		

When applying the critical ratio method to the multi-group analysis, the result was also significant at p <0.10 with Z-score=-1.92 (see Table 4.21). In other words, there was a significant difference between LSM and HSM in engaging uncivil behaviour caused by negative emotion. The relationship between negative

emotion (NE) and instigated workplace incivility (DWS) was weaker for HSM (β=0.377) than LSM (β=0.678). This difference found was in accordance to the hypothesis postulated (H11) and theoretically consistent.

In summary, the moderation test suggests that self-monitoring moderated the relationship between negative emotion (NE) and instigated workplace incivility (DWS), such that the relationship between negative emotion (NE) and instigated workplace incivility (DWS) was weaker for high self-monitors (HSM) than low self-monitors (LSM). Using SPSS, the moderating effect of self-monitoring is also illustrated in the below diagram (see Figure 4.2).

Table 4.21
Testing for Self-monitoring as a Moderator in the Structural Model of Workplace Incivility (Critical Ratio)

	LSM		**HSM**		
	Estimate	**P**	**Estimate**	**P**	**Z-score**
NE → DWS	0.678	***	0.377	***	-1.92*

*p-value < 0.10

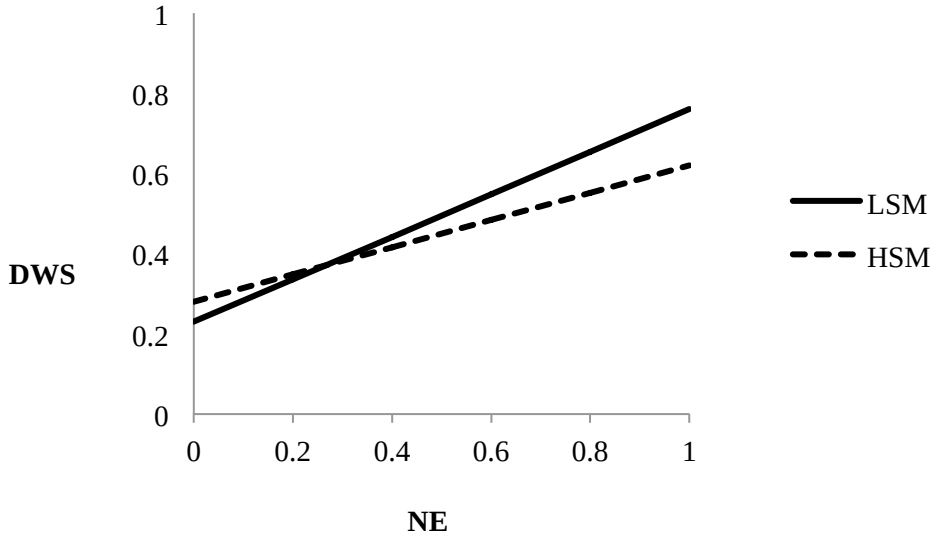

Figure 4.2
Moderating Effect of Self-monitoring

4.14 Summary

This chapter presents the results of the various statistical analysis and hypotheses testing. Of 11 hypotheses developed for the present study, 4 were not supported. The results of hypotheses testing are summarized as below:

H1: Role conflict is positively related to instigated workplace incivility (Supported).

H2: Role ambiguity is positively related to instigated workplace incivility (Not supported).

H3: Interactional justice is negatively related to instigated workplace incivility (Not supported).

H4: Role conflict is positively related to negative emotion (Supported).

H5: Role ambiguity is positively related to negative emotion (Not supported).

H6: Interactional justice is negatively related to negative emotion (Supported).

H7: Negative emotion is positively related to instigated workplace incivility (Supported).

H8: Negative emotion mediates the relationship between role conflict and instigated workplace incivility (Supported partially).

H9: Negative emotion mediates the relationship between role ambiguity and instigated workplace incivility (Not supported).

H10: Negative emotion mediates the relationship between interactional justice and instigated workplace incivility (Supported).

H11: Self-monitoring moderates the relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility, such that the relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility is weaker for high self-monitors than low self-monitors (Supported)

The results of analysis are discussed in the following Chapter 5. A number of theoretical and practical implications are also offered based on the findings. Some concluding remarks follow to end the thesis.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the analysis conducted in Chapter 4 and examines whether the hypothesis results support the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005). To fulfill the first and second research objectives, this chapter begins with the results of descriptive analysis that reveal the level of workplace incivility in the Malaysian banking sector. Secondly, the applicability of the stressor-emotion model is discussed. This discussion is in line with the other research objectives. Subsequently, the chapter continues to discuss a few theoretical and practical implications. Limitations in the current research are also identified. Before concluding the chapter, some directions for future research are suggested.

5.2 Workplace Incivility in the Malaysian Banking Sector

Workplace incivility is a relatively new interest area in Malaysia. To date, not many studies have looked into this issue in the Malaysian context. As pointed out by Ida Rosnita and Zeti Zuryani (2012), the research of workplace incivility in the country is still very scarce. Their descriptive study, nonetheless, has provided some good background information whether workplace incivility occurs in Malaysia.

The first and second research objectives of the present study were to identify the levels of experienced and instigated workplace incivility among employees in the Malaysian banking sector. In general, it was found that workplace incivility is not an uncommon occurrence in the country. This finding supports that reported by Ida

Rosnita and Zeti Zuryani (2012), despite some differences regarding the specific uncivil behaviour most experienced by the participants. For example, the current study found that the most frequent uncivil behaviour employees experienced was being doubted their judgment over the matter that they have responsibility in, whereas Ida Rosnita and Zeti Zuryani (2012) found that the most frequent uncivil behaviour experienced by employees was being paid little attention to or shown little interest in their opinion. Besides, in the current study, the mean scores for all items were also higher (highest=2.89, lowest=2.24) than that reported by Ida Rosnita and Zeti Zuryani (2012). The standard deviations were relatively stable too, ranging from 1.23 to 1.37 for all 7 items.

In summary, majority of the participants in this study revealed that they were mostly doubted for their judgment on the matter they had responsibility in and were paid little attention to their statement and opinion. When asked if they had been rude to others at the workplace, the results were rather consistent too. Most of the participants admitted that they had doubted others' judgment before too, at least once every few months. The second most frequent incivility done to others was paying little attention to their statements or opinion. This finding regarding instigated workplace incivility was of significant contribution as it is among the first study to provide further insights on uncivil behaviours instigated by employees.

The situation reflects the key definition of workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), which has ambiguous intention to harm and violates the workplace norms for mutual respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson & Porath, 2005). The finding also further confirms the theory that incivility is a reciprocal and spiraling phenomenon (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

5.3 The Stressor-Emotion Model and Workplace Incivility

Many researchers have suggested that workplace incivility is a consequence of stressful event at work and can be a result of employees' emotional response and personality traits (Johnson & Indvik, 2001; Pearson et al., 2000; Pearson & Porath, 2009). Not many of them have actually investigated the combined effect of organisational stressors, emotions and personality on workplace incivility, particularly applying Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Roberts, 2012).

The current research supported the stressor-emotion model by showing that role conflict and interactional justice, the two stressors suggested by Spector and Fox (2005), were associated with negative emotion, which in turn instigated uncivil behaviours of employees. The influence of role ambiguity, nonetheless, was not found in the present study despite the proposition in the model.

5.3.1 Stressors and Workplace Incivility

Spector and Fox (2005) suggested a number of job stressors that are linked to counterproductive work behaviours. These include role conflict, role ambiguity, and injustice which were examined in the present study. However, only role conflict, a work-related stressor, was found to have a direct effect on employee's uncivil behaviour

The fact that role conflict plays a critical role in shaping incivility is consistent with earlier studies which have identified role conflict as one of the predictors of employee's behaviour (Eatough et al., 2011; Jex, 1998). In relation to deviant behaviour, role conflict was also found to have relationship with aggression,

sabotage, and other workplace mistreatment (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Chen & Spector, 1992; Skogstad et al., 2007). Present study found that respondents, who are bank employees, generally experienced role conflict as a stressor, which subsequently triggered uncivil behaviour. In Malaysia, bank employees are "serving two masters", i.e. company management and customers (Chung & Schneider, 2002). In this highly competitive service sector, bank employees have to entertain and fulfill customer's needs. It is also very common that bank employees have close relationship with their customers due to the interactive nature in service delivery (Chung & Schneider, 2002). At the same time, employees need to meet the requirements from management as well. Employees might feel the stress when both parties have contradicting demands and expectations towards the employees. A very common example is when applying loan from banks, customers always want to obtain the lowest possible interest rate and the best deal package. However, as profit-oriented organisations, banks have their own policies and bottom-lines guarding company interest. Hence, employees who serve and receive demands from these customers may encounter role conflict in this situation. When facing conflicting demands, employees engage in behaviours that protect their self-interests (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). This may have caused them to be more defensive and behave rudely in the eyes of others. The present study provides some support to the stress-emotion model in the sense that role conflict is the only suggested stressor which shows direct effect onto instigated workplace incivility.

On the contrary, results unexpectedly showed that role ambiguity was neither directly associated with instigated workplace incivility, nor to negative emotion. The finding is not parallel with previous works (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Eatough et al.,

2011; Gilboa et al., 2008; Rodell & Judge, 2009; Tubré & Collins, 2000) and does not support the proposition by Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model.

One possible cause may be that the participants had a higher level of tolerance of ambiguity, a personality variable that may affect the perception and reaction of individuals. Amidst a spectrum of different definitions available, it is generally agreed that tolerance of ambiguity is an individual difference (Furnham and Marks, 2013; McLain, Kefallonitis & Armani, 2015). It involves the cognitive sensitivity of an individual to ambiguous stimuli (McLain et al., 2015). Budner (1962) stated that "tolerance of ambiguity is the tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as desirable" (p. 29). Theoretically, tolerance of ambiguity has been proposed as a moderator to cognitive and behaviour al reactions (McLain et al., 2015). This suggests that tolerance of ambiguity may moderate the relationship between ambiguous situation and reactivity to perceived ambiguity, in this case, instigated workplace incivility. Employees having higher tolerance of ambiguity may not be displaying more uncivil behaviours. There is therefore a need to further investigate the influence of ambiguity tolerance in future research.

The second possible reason may be related to the cognitive perception and evaluation of the participants. The participants may not perceive ambiguity as a threatening event that arouses negative feeling. Cognitive appraisal plays a very significant role in reaction to stress (Lazarus, 1993). The degree of stress reaction is very much dependent upon the evaluative thoughts (appraisal and coping) of the individuals (Goh, Sawang & Oei, 2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). An emotion is aroused not just because of an environmental constraint or factor, but due to the motives and beliefs of an individual as well. If employees do not appraise role ambiguity as a threatening or stressful event, they may not experience negative

emotion, and as a result, may not respond to ambiguity with uncivil behaviours. However, it is unknown at this stage, and particularly in this context, why employees do not perceive ambiguity as a stressor that elicits negative emotion and incivility. Further investigation and research need to be conducted for this purpose.

In the statistical analysis, role ambiguity failed the non-response bias test. In fact, role ambiguity was the only variable that produced significant p-value ($p=0.000$). This means the first and the last 20 participants provided a significantly different response to role ambiguity items in the questionnaire. Hence, role ambiguity is subject to non-response bias which may affect the accuracy of data. This limitation in the current study and effect of bias need to be further analysed in future research.

The third independent variable or stressor investigated in the present study is interactional justice. Although perceived injustice received could be a source of stress (Zohar, 1995) and interactional injustice was one of the strongest predictors of violent workplace behaviours found by previous works (Bies, 2005; Jawahar, 2002), the present study gained insufficient support to establish a direct relationship between interactional justice and instigated workplace incivility. However, while suggesting the injustice is possibly an important stressor, Spector and Fox (2005) did acknowledge that the correlation between perceived injustice and counterproductive work behaviours might be variable. This study has proved that the effect of interactional justice on instigated workplace incivility was fully mediated by negative emotion. It provides empirical support to the stressor-emotion model which is built upon causal flows from stressors to emotions, then to counterproductive work behaviours (Spector & Fox, 2005).

5.3.2 The Mediating Effect of Negative Emotion

The stressor-emotion model suggests that counterproductive work behaviour is a response to emotion-arousing events in organisation. In other words, emotion, particularly negative emotion, is a precursor to counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Indeed, negative emotion is the immediate response that a person has when confronted with any perceived stressful event (Lazarus, 1991; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). It also explains why employees are engaged in certain behaviours. Generally, behaviours are always the results of how people handle their emotions (Lazarus, 1993). If one handles his or her negative emotions in a negative way, it is very like that he or she will act negatively. Examples of negative acts include rudeness, aggression, physical abuse and others. Various past studies have also confirmed that negative emotions provoke counterproductive work behaviours (Berkowitz, 2003, Meier & Spector, 2013).

The mediator role of negative emotion as suggested by the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour has been supported in the present study. The study also expands the extant research by demonstrating that negative emotion is a significant mediator in between stressors and incivility, a less severe form of counterproductive behaviour.

Most of the bank employees in this study perceived conflicting demand and perceived injustice as stressors, which produced negative emotions (Lazarus, 1991; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), such as, anxiety and tension because they are not sure which demand they should attend to first when there is a conflict (Eatough et al., 2011; Fox & Spector, 1999; Spector & Goh, 2001). When serving demanding customers, bank employees might need to deal with requirements from customer

while fulfilling expectations from their superior or organisation. If they fail to perform their tasks due to the conflicting demand, they are likely to feel guilty, angry, frustrated and distressed (Dormann & Zapf, 2002; Deckard & Present, 1989; Penney & Spector, 2005; Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). The finding on role conflict's contribution to the arousal of negative emotion is in consistence with prior researches (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008; Penny & Spector, 2005; Spector & Goh, 2001). And when employees are unfairly treated, they feel angry, resented, and fearful (Colquitt et al., 2001; Ferris et al., 2012; Le Roy et al., 2012). In the present study, although most of the bank employees stated that the unfair interpersonal treatment they received from their supervisor was not serious, employees who experienced more interactional injustice were reported to be feeling more negative emotion. This is not difficult to understand. Negative emotion is the immediate reaction when one is faced with any unfair treatment. This finding is consistent with prior theoretical and empirical research of interactional justice (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Fox et al., 2001; Spector & Fox, 2002).

These employees who experience negative emotion will "do something" to release their emotion and to cope with it. Employees engage in, for example, aggression, sabotage, and withdrawal as an attempt to minimize their negative feelings or to cope with their negative emotion (Chen & Spector, 1992; Lazarus, 1991; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). When an employee feels angry, he or she may perform a negative act to "retaliate" or "revenge". Many studies have confirmed that counterproductive work behaviour s are an emotional-based response (Krischer et al., 2010; Rodell & Judge, 2009; Spector & Fox, 2002; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). For example, the work of Rodell and Judge (2009) supported that negative emotions (anxiety and anger) mediates the relationship

between role conflict and counterproductive behaviours. Employees in the service sector, particularly bank employees, would feel angry, depressed, and furious when under pressure. They might lose their temper as a release of stress. And this would be reflected in their behaviours consciously or subconsciously. Thus, it makes sense that when employees feel negative emotion they display uncivil behaviours towards others at the workplace. This finding also expands the extant literatures by indicating that employees who experience negative emotion are reported to engage in more uncivil behaviours.

It is interesting to note that negative emotion fully mediates the negative relationship between interactional justice and instigated workplace incivility. This means that interactional injustice alone does not cause employees to display incivility. Employees only show incivility when they believe that they are being treated unfairly and when they feel negative about this injustice. If employees do not perceive the unfair treatment as a problem or a stressor, their negative emotion does not arouse. And thus, employees will not involve in displaying uncivil behaviours. In short, employees seem to show incivility only when interactional injustice leads to negative feelings. They may conduct uncivil acts as a form of retaliation. The finding of mediating effect shows the mechanism how unfairness creates deviance among employees at the workplace. It supports the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour developed by Spector and Fox (2005).

5.3.3 The Moderating Effect of Self-Monitoring

A novel addition to the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005) is self-monitoring, a personality variable. Not all individuals respond to negative emotion in the same manner. By introducing a new personality

variable as moderator, the study has helped to ascertain the validity and predictive power of the stressor-emotion model. In addition, the finding has also enriched the understanding of the relationship between self-monitoring and workplace incivility, which is still very scant (Oh et al., 2013).

Results suggested that self-monitoring did moderate the emotion-incivility relationship in the study. The relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility is found to be weaker for high self-monitors (HSMs) than low self-monitors (LSMs). The findings are in line with theoretical assumption and previous studies (Chang et al., 2012; Parks & Mount, 2005; Oh et al., 2013). It is less likely for HSMs, who have strong desire to be perceived favourably and positively, to show disrespect or uncivil behaviour in a public context. HSMs are image-conscious and can better regulate their behaviours to create a good impression (Snyder, 1974) at the workplace where interaction is observable by others.

In Malaysia, the working environment of bank employees, specifically operation and customer service staff, is rather open in the sense that customers can see what and how the staff is doing. As such, it is not difficult to understand why HSMs at banks are less likely to yell at his co-worker in an attempt to attenuate the negative emotion felt. Furthermore, bank employees generally receive training about customer handling etiquette. As service providers, basically banks are very concerned with their images and reputation among customers.

5.4 Theoretical and Practical Implications

The present findings have several theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically speaking, this study has filled some theoretical gaps in the existing body of knowledge in workplace incivility, especially regarding the antecedents of

incivility. By expanding the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005) to uncivil behaviour, this study has empirically validated the applicability of this model in explaining instigated workplace incivility and its causes.

It is noted from this study that stressors might not have a direct impact on employees' uncivil behaviours. Emotion plays a very critical role in mediating the effects of stressors. If employees do not perceive the stressful events negatively and do not feel negatively, they might not misbehave. Furthermore, self-monitoring, a novel personality beyond the suggestions of the stressor-emotion model (Spector & Fox, 2005), has been proved to influence uncivil behaviours. Future research, therefore, should not only focus on the direct effects of stressors upon workplace incivility or any other counterproductive work behaviours.

Practically speaking, although workplace incivility sounds less serious than other deviance, it is of significant importance for organisations to identify ways to minimize workplace incivility as it has been proven to cause huge losses, both monetary and non-monetary (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson & Porath, 2009).

Findings from the present study help to identify the potential causes of instigated incivility in the banking industry and some possible methods of reducing incivility at the workplace. Based on the findings, employees who encountered greater role conflict and interactional injustice are more likely to instigate incivility at the workplace. Banks in the country are suggested to mitigate the negative impact of these two stressors.

Firstly, top management of the banks must be aware of and admit the existence of role conflict and its severe impact on employees. Bank management should acknowledge that role conflict would provoke negative emotions of employees, as

found in the study. In order to help employees who may face competing customer demand and management expectation, bank management and human resource department should consistently review the current policy and job scopes. If there are any potential clashes of expectation towards the employees, bank management and human resource department need to calibrate clearly to employees.

Human resource professionals play a crucial role in helping the management to develop clearer job scopes of employees. Job descriptions have to clearly specify the job scope, what the employees can do and cannot do. For instance, the bank's sales teams or customer service employees have to be very clear what promise they could commit to customers. Furthermore, empowerment must be given when necessary to reduce role conflict (Ang et al., 2014). Employees should have autonomy over certain minor matters, for examples, giving away small gifts of less than RM20 to customers during festive seasons.

The findings revealed that 27% of the respondents interact with their supervisors, either via phone call, email, or face-to-face communication, about once a week or less. To minimize role conflict, in fact a more frequent communication must be established between bank employees and their supervisors. Both parties should always communicate directly to avoid misinterpretation of expectation. Face-to-face communication should be held at least once a week. Supervisors should encourage their staff to seek clarification when there is any potential conflicting demand. Human resource department of banks should draw a clear guideline to ensure that employees, especially new and inexperienced employees, meet up with their supervisors personally at least once a week.

Bank management also should identify the behaviours that customers want their employees to perform and develop rewards for those employees engaged in

such behaviours (Chung & Schneider, 2002). Management and human resource professionals should work out training programmes in relation to what customers want the employees to do. For example, banks in the country can refer to the comprehensive list of different customer expectations identified by Chung and Schneider (2002) and use this as a basis in designing training programmes and reward system. Employees should be trained so they can do the things customers want them to do. Managers should also be trained so they can recognize and support employees. One example of expectation is the response time getting back to customer (Chung & Schneider, 2002). Furthermore, training provided to frontline employees should not only focus on sales and service techniques. A less neglected area, like handling conflicting demand from customer and management, should be included in the training needs.

Apart from creating a positive service climate, bank management must also develop formal policies and corporate cultures that uphold the value of justice and fairness. Treating all staff with justice and fairness is a very important way to reduce workplace incivility (Doshy & Wang, 2014). The results of this study showed that negative emotion fully mediated the perceived interactional injustice and instigated workplace incivility. Employees will be angry, upset and frustrated if they receive unfair interpersonal treatment. Their resentments will then transform into negative acts. Bank supervisors and managers who hold legitimate power must be well-trained to interact with their subordinates in a professional and fair manner. They must treat their employees with respect and dignity. Human resource professionals are also responsible for fostering a fair working environment by helping the top management to develop fair organisational policies. Companies can also lay the

foundation for positive interaction among employees by establishing clear expectations and fair guidelines (Pearson et al., 2000)

Since negative emotion was found to be a significant mediator in the study, another implication involves stress management, appraisal and coping. In the fast-paced service sector like banking, organisations sometimes are inherently stressful and unable to eliminate the stressors. An alternative way is to equip employees with stress management skills so that employees can cope with stressors like role conflict and interactional injustice effectively. Employees' cognitive appraisals determine whether a stressor is a challenge or hindrance to them (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). If a stressor is appraised as a challenge, employees will cope with it with positive emotions and responses (Shiota, 2006). At the present moment, it is unfortunate that not all banks in Malaysia provide stress management, appraisal and coping training to their employees. Therefore, it is recommended here that all banks should equip their employees with stress management, appraisal and coping skills through various training programmes, workshops or seminars. Bank managers should foster a culture of positive appraisal. Human resource professionals can work closely with the bank management and/or external training provider to organize relevant stress management and coping training for the employees in different departments. Both banks and universities must work closely to achieve mutual benefits by leveraging on academic research activities. The focus of stress management skills training should be revamped to be in line with latest research findings. For example, employees can be trained in terms of positive cognitive appraisal. They should learn to interpret stressors as challenges, rather than hindrances or threats (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Rodell & Judge, 2009). If employees do not cope with the stressors

with negative emotion and mechanism, they will be less likely to commit deviant behaviours.

In addition, as self-monitoring was found to be a significant moderator between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility, bank management can include this variable into their recruitment and selection procedures. Personality test, aptitude test or questions to evaluate whether a job candidate has high self-monitoring or low monitoring can be made part of the selection criteria. High self-monitors should be preferred because they are less likely to display uncivil behaviours although unhappy, as found in the current study.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

In spite of the significance of the findings and their implications, the current study has several limitations and leaves rooms for future research.

Firstly, the use of self-report questionnaires brings some limitations to the accuracy of data. There is a possibility that social desirability bias might be present and affect the quality of the analysis. Although employees may be more hesitant to admit and report their own rude behaviours at work, self-report questionnaires may still be an appropriate means to gather the information. Incivility involves mild and ambiguous deviance that may be unnoticed and off the company records. Thus, given the private knowledge that employees have of their own behaviours, Spector and Fox (1999) state that self-report is the best available tool in data gathering. Other studies have reported that participants are actually quite honest in telling their uncivil behaviours (de Jonge & Peeters, 2009). In fact, it is rather surprising that most of the participants in the present study had been reporting their engagement in uncivil behaviours quite honestly, with the overall mean for instigated workplace incivility

recorded at 2.3310 (Minimum=1.00, Maximum=5.14). Though this mean is still the lowest in relative to other variables, it is within expectation due to certain extent of social desirability bias (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Another limitation within the present study is the cross-sectional design. Respondents were required to answer self-response questionnaires in this cross-sectional study. Respondents might not remember or understand what exactly cause their negative emotion. The behaviours of employees might have changed as a result of stressful encounters, thus affecting the tendency to express frustration (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). It is also uncertain that the relationship between incivility and other variables do not reflect other unmeasured variable, when all of them were only measured at one point in time (Spector & Fox, 2005). A longitudinal design may thus be able to produce a more accurate and convincing result in the study of stressor-emotion-incivility relationships.

Lastly, using SEM in the analysis allows one to examine whether the data are consistent with the hypothesized causal sequence, but it is still impossible to rule out alternative explanations. The present study is able to confirm the associations among variables but cannot substantiate the temporal sequence of the variables. Therefore, it is unable to draw a definite causal conclusion from the present study. For example, although results show that negative emotion leads to incivility, it is also very possible that incivility leads to the arousal of negative emotion, which may bias the relationship between negative emotion and incivility (Roberts, 2012).

5.6 Directions for Future Research

To address the limitation mentioned above, future research should not solely rely on single source data but must try to obtain information from multiple sources,

for example, from self-report, superior's report, subordinate's report, and peer report. Human beings tend to underreport the improper acts they have done. Researcher should take alternative methods to minimize social desirability bias in future study.

Next, longitudinal study provides more convincing evidence to the causal relationship (Spector & Fox, 2005), it is hence suggested for future research to employ experimental and longitudinal design to study the stressor-emotion or emotion-incivility relationships.

Besides, future research is needed to further investigate the influence of role ambiguity as an organisational stressor. In the present study, role ambiguity was not found to be associated with instigated incivility nor with negative emotion. This finding was not consistent with previous research (Rodell & Judge, 2009) thus deserves further investigation. For example, Mohamed and Tan (2011) found that role ambiguity was one of the main causes of stress among customer service staffs in the investment banks in Malaysia. It was also noted that in the current study, role ambiguity was the only variable that failed the t-test in non-response bias test. The first 20 responses and last 20 responses provided were found significantly different, indicating the possible existence of non-response bias. The composite values of role ambiguity also reported a higher standard deviation (SD=1.20380) in relative to other variables. Future study may want to explore the impact of tolerance of ambiguity and scrutinize the employee's cognitive appraisal of stressors (Goh et al., 2010; Lazarus, 1993).

The role of perceived injustice as a stressor and its direct impact on deviant behaviours need to be further ascertained. Although the present study found that employees instigated rude behaviours when they experience negative emotion due to unfair interpersonal treatment, it is still too early to conclude that perceived injustice

is directly linked to counterproductive work behaviour, including incivility. Studies have found inconsistent results regarding the correlations of injustice and counterproductive work behaviours (Fox et al., 2001; Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Spector & Fox, 2005). More investigation is needed to examine perceived injustice in-depth and confirm its impact.

5.7 Conclusion

Workplace incivility is not the most popular research topic in Malaysia. However, it is a prevalent phenomenon in the workplace here. Organisations should be serious in finding out the causes of incivility, knowing that incivility may bring costly damages to the organisations and individual employees.

Based on the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour developed by Spector and Fox (2005), the present study explains why and how uncivil behaviours were instigated at the workplace. The analytical results from SEM have presented further empirical validation to the model, by asserting the impacts of role conflict and interactional injustice as work-related and organisational-related stressors that arouse negative emotions of employees. The findings of mediating effect of negative emotion also provide evidence to support the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005). One of the key contributions of the present study is the incorporation of self-monitoring in the model to examine its moderating effect to the emotion-incivility relationship. And results suggest that self-monitoring does play a moderating role in it. The relationship between negative emotion and instigated workplace incivility is found to be weaker for high self-monitors (HSMs) than low self-monitors (LSMs).

Employees who have high self-monitoring are less likely to perform uncivil acts to preserve their positive images and appearances.

Organisations may reduce the negative impacts of incivility by giving clear expectation and communication, and by providing stress and emotion management training to their employees. Employees must be treated in a fair manner. Organisations may also create a positive culture of civility at the workplace by developing policies and guidelines for decent behaviour, educating company leaders to manage any cases of incivility. Ultimately, every employee deserves the right to work in a respectful environment and to be treated with dignity.

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Appendix A

Workplace Incivility Measures

Please indicate how often you have experienced the following behaviours by someone at work in the past one year:

1= Never
2= Hardly ever (about once every few months)
3= Rarely (about once a month)
4= Occasionally (at least several times/month)
5= Sometimes (at least once/week)
6= Frequently (at least once/day)
7= Very frequently (at least several times/day)

1. Put you down or was condescending to you in some way.
2. Paid little attention to a statement you made or showed little interest in their opinion.
3. Made demeaning, rude or derogatory remarks about you.
4. Addressed you in unprofessional terms either privately or publicly.
5. Ignored or excluded you from professional gathering (e.g. social conversation).
6. Doubted your judgment in a matter over which you have responsibility.
7. Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters.

Please indicate how often you have exhibited the following behaviours in the past one year to someone at work:

1= Never
2= Hardly ever (about once every few months)
3= Rarely (about once a month)
4= Occasionally (at least several times/month)
5= Sometimes (at least once/week)
6= Frequently (at least once/day)
7= Very frequently (at least several times/day)

1. Put down others or were condescending to them in some way.
2. Paid little attention to a statement made by someone or showed little interest in their opinion.
3. Made demeaning, rude or derogatory remarks about someone.
4. Addressed someone in unprofessional terms either privately or publicly.
5. Ignored or excluded someone from professional gathering (e.g. social conversation).
6. Doubted someone's judgment in a matter over which they have responsibility.
7. Made unwanted attempts to draw someone into a discussion of personal matters.

Appendix B

Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Measures

Role Conflict

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding your work.

1= Strongly disagree
2= Disagree
3= Somewhat disagree
4= Neither agree nor disagree
5= Somewhat agree
6= Agree
7= Strongly agree

1. I have to do things that should be done differently.
2. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.
3. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.
4. I have to buck a rule or policy to carry out an assignment.
5. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.
6. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
7. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.
8. I work on unnecessary things.

Role Ambiguity

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding your work.

1= Strongly disagree
2= Disagree
3= Somewhat disagree
4= Neither agree nor disagree
5= Somewhat agree
6= Agree
7= Strongly agree

1. I feel secure about how much authority I have.
2. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.
3. I know that I have divided my time properly.
4. I know what my responsibilities are.
5. I know exactly what is expected of me.
6. Explanation is clear of what has to be done.

Appendix C

Interactional Justice Measures

The following items refer to your supervisor/manager at work. Please indicate to what extent:

1= To an extremely small extent
2= To a very small extent
3= To a small extent
4= To a moderate extent
5= To a large extent
6= To a very large extent
7= To an extremely large extent

1. Has your supervisor/manager treated you in a polite manner?
2. Has your supervisor/manager treated you with dignity?
3. Has your supervisor/manager treated you with respect?
4. Has your supervisor/manager refrained from improper remarks or comments?
5. Has your supervisor/manager been candid in his/her communications with you?
6. Has your supervisor/manager explained the procedures that concern you thoroughly?
7. Were your supervisor's/manager's explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?
8. Has your supervisor/manager communicated details in a timely manner?
9. Has your supervisor/manager seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?

Appendix D

Negative Emotion Measures

Please indicate the amount to which any part of your job (e.g. the work, co-workers, supervisor, clients, pay) has made you feel that emotion in the past 30 days.

1= Never
2= Rarely
3= Occasionally
4= Sometimes
5= Frequently
6= Usually
7= Every time

1. My job made me feel bored.
2. My job made me feel disgusted.
3. My job made me feel gloomy.
4. My job made me feel angry.
5. My job made me feel anxious.
6. My job made me feel depressed.
7. My job made me feel discouraged.
8. My job made me feel frightened.
9. My job made me feel furious.
10. My job made me feel fatigued.

Appendix E

Self-monitoring Measures

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

1= Strongly disagree
2= Disagree
3= Somewhat disagree
4= Neither agree nor disagree
5= Somewhat agree
6= Agree
7= Strongly agree

1. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behaviour if I feel that something else is called for.
2. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes.
3. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.
4. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with.
5. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives.
6. I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.
7. When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.
8. I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes.
9. I have trouble changing my behaviour to suit different people and different situations.
10. I have found that I can adjust my behaviour to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.
11. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from that person's manner of expression.
12. Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front.
13. Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions according.

Appendix F

Sample of Questionnaire Distributed

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am pursuing a Doctor in Business Administration (DBA) program at Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business, Universiti Utara Malaysia. Currently I am conducting my DBA dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the DBA program. Through my research, I intend to understand how people behave and what makes them behave the way they do at the workplace. If completed successfully, this research can help provide suggestions to managers on how to make your organization a better place to work in.

In helping me to achieve my objective, I kindly seek your assistance to participate in my research. Although your participation is voluntary and you can choose to withdraw at any time from participating, I sincerely hope that you would assist me by completing the survey attached. It goes without saying that your participation is absolutely vital for the success of the research.

The survey questions are self-explanatory and should take about 10 to 15 minutes of your precious time to complete. **All information will be used for research purposes only and will be kept strictly confidential. Your identity will not be disclosed.**

When completed, please return the questionnaire by using the attached envelope to me. Should you have any query, please do not hesitate to contact me, as indicated at the end of this letter.

Thank you very much for your kind participation. Your support is sincerely appreciated. I wish you have a good day ahead.

Yours faithfully,

_____

Lim Hui Ling
DBA Candidate
Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business
Universiti Utara Malaysia
Tel: 012-311 8849
Email: hllim1415@gmail.com

UNCIVIL BEHAVIOR AT WORKPLACE SURVEY

Part A: Please indicate how often **YOU EXPERIENCED** the following behaviors by someone at work in the **PAST ONE YEAR**. Please circle the most appropriate response, using the scale below.

		Never	Hardly ever (about once every few months)	Rarely (about once a month)	Occasionally (about 2-3 times a month)	Sometimes (about once a week)	Frequently (about once a day)	Very frequently (at least several times a day)
1	Looked down on you in some way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Paid little attention to your statement or opinion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Made degrading, rude or unfavorable remarks about you.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Addressed you in unprofessional terms (either privately or publicly).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Ignored or excluded you from professional gathering (e.g. social conversation).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Doubted your judgment in a matter that you have responsibility in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part B: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding **YOUR WORK**. Please circle the most appropriate response scale.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly
1	I feel secure about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I have to go against a rule or policy to carry out an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I know that I have divided my time properly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I do things that are likely to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Explanation is clear of what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I work on unnecessary things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part C: The following items refer to **YOUR IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR** at work and his/her interaction with you. Please circle the most appropriate response scale.

		To an extremely small extent	To a very small extent	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent	To an extremely large extent
1	Has your supervisor treated you in a polite manner?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Has your supervisor treated you with dignity?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Has your supervisor treated you with respect?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Has your supervisor refrained from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Has your supervisor been honest in his/her communications with you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Has your supervisor explained the procedures that concern you thoroughly?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Were your supervisor's explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Has your supervisor communicated details in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Has your supervisor seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part D: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree that your job (e.g., your work, co-workers, supervisor, and clients) makes you produce the following emotions. Please circle the most appropriate response scale.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	My job makes me feel bored.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My job makes me feel disgusted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My job makes me feel sad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My job makes me feel angry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My job makes me feel nervous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My job makes me feel depressed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My job makes me feel discouraged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	My job makes me feel frightened.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	My job makes me feel furious.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	My job makes me feel tired.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part E: Please indicate how often **YOU DID** the following behaviors in the **PAST ONE YEAR** to someone at work. Please circle the most appropriate response, using the scale below.

		Never	Hardly ever (about once every few months)	Rarely (about once a month)	Occasionally (about 2-3 times a month)	Sometimes (about once a week)	Frequently (about once a day)	Very frequently (at least several times a day)
1	Looked down on others in some way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Paid little attention to someone's statement or opinion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Made degrading, rude or unfavorable remarks about someone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Addressed someone in unprofessional terms (either privately or publicly).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Ignored or excluded someone from professional gathering (e.g. social conversation).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Doubted someone's judgment in a matter that they have responsibility in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Made unwanted attempts to draw someone into a discussion of personal matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part F: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Please circle the most appropriate response scale.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	In social situations, I have the ability to change my behavior if I feel that something else is needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from that person's manner of expression.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty keeping up good appearances.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part G: The following questions ask about your demographic information. Please provide the answer that best represents you.

1. Gender ❑ Male ❑ Female

2. Marital status ❑ Single ❑ Married ❑ Divorced ❑Widowed

3. Age _____ years old

4. Highest education level ❑ SPM/STPM ❑ Bachelor's degree ❑ Master's degree
❑ Doctorate
❑ Others, please specify _____

5. Place of work ❑ Foreign bank ❑ Local bank

6. Current position held _____

7. Gender of immediate supervisor ❑ Male ❑ Female

8. How long have you been under the supervision of the current supervisor? _____ years / months

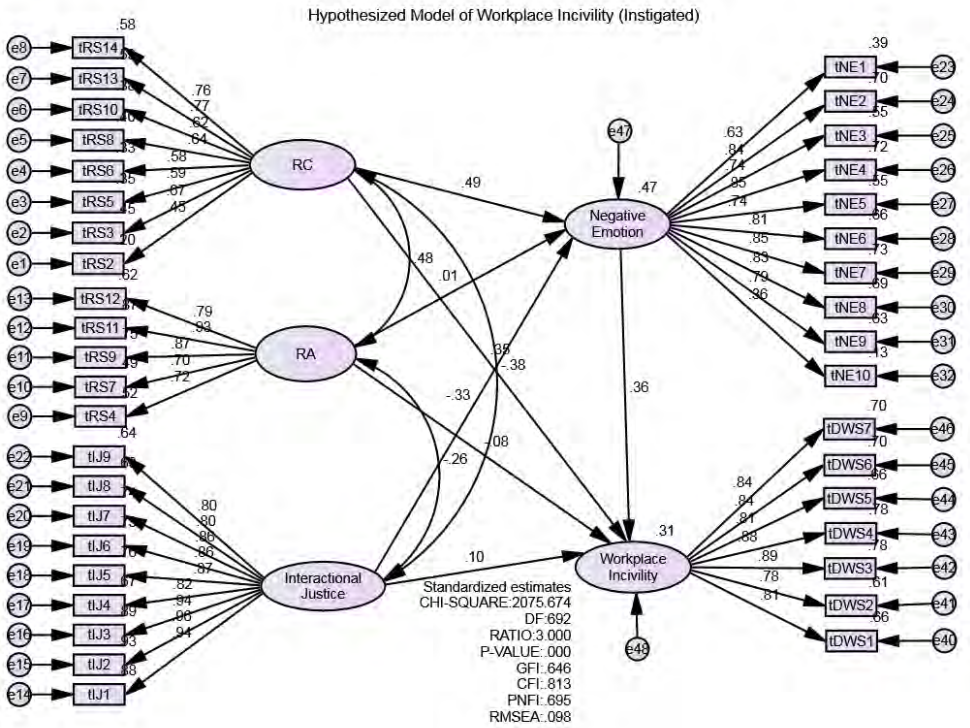
9. How often do you interact (via email, phone call, or face-to-face) with your immediate supervisor at work?

❑ Never
❑Hardly ever (about once every few months)
❑Rarely (about once a month)
❑Occasionally (about 2-3 times a month)
❑Sometimes (about once a week)
❑Frequently (about once a day)
❑Very frequently (at least several times a day)

~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~Thank you very much for your cooperation~~~~~~~~~~~~~

Appendix G

Hypothesized Model



Appendix H

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
RS1	0.143	208	0.000	0.940	208	0.000
RS2	0.180	208	0.000	0.928	208	0.000
RS3	0.154	208	0.000	0.936	208	0.000
RS4	0.167	208	0.000	0.906	208	0.000
RS5	0.171	208	0.000	0.930	208	0.000
RS6	0.172	208	0.000	0.905	208	0.000
RS7	0.144	208	0.000	0.926	208	0.000
RS8	0.193	208	0.000	0.927	208	0.000
RS9	0.173	208	0.000	0.906	208	0.000
RS10	0.170	208	0.000	0.922	208	0.000
RS11	0.172	208	0.000	0.922	208	0.000
RS12	0.158	208	0.000	0.934	208	0.000
RS13	0.157	208	0.000	0.945	208	0.000
RS14	0.140	208	0.000	0.941	208	0.000
IJ1	0.168	208	0.000	0.935	208	0.000
IJ2	0.177	208	0.000	0.934	208	0.000
IJ3	0.168	208	0.000	0.930	208	0.000
IJ4	0.180	208	0.000	0.944	208	0.000
IJ5	0.153	208	0.000	0.947	208	0.000
IJ6	0.128	208	0.000	0.951	208	0.000
IJ7	0.171	208	0.000	0.946	208	0.000
IJ8	0.178	208	0.000	0.944	208	0.000
IJ9	0.139	208	0.000	0.948	208	0.000
NE1	0.183	208	0.000	0.921	208	0.000
NE2	0.207	208	0.000	0.916	208	0.000
NE3	0.193	208	0.000	0.908	208	0.000
NE4	0.182	208	0.000	0.908	208	0.000
NE5	0.190	208	0.000	0.900	208	0.000
NE6	0.177	208	0.000	0.932	208	0.000
NE7	0.195	208	0.000	0.917	208	0.000
NE8	0.226	208	0.000	0.906	208	0.000
NE9	0.215	208	0.000	0.911	208	0.000
NE10	0.181	208	0.000	0.916	208	0.000
SM1	0.235	208	0.000	0.899	208	0.000
SM2	0.213	208	0.000	0.885	208	0.000
SM3	0.225	208	0.000	0.887	208	0.000
SM4	0.212	208	0.000	0.909	208	0.000
SM5	0.202	208	0.000	0.895	208	0.000
SM6	0.245	208	0.000	0.896	208	0.000
SM7	0.216	208	0.000	0.904	208	0.000
SM8	0.253	208	0.000	0.892	208	0.000
SM9	0.182	208	0.000	0.928	208	0.000

SM10	0.264	208	0.000	0.876	208	0.000
SM11	0.223	208	0.000	0.911	208	0.000
SM12	0.210	208	0.000	0.924	208	0.000
SM13	0.234	208	0.000	0.883	208	0.000
DWS1	0.266	208	0.000	0.810	208	0.000
DWS2	0.227	208	0.000	0.898	208	0.000
DWS3	0.268	208	0.000	0.820	208	0.000
DWS4	0.235	208	0.000	0.824	208	0.000
DWS5	0.254	208	0.000	0.867	208	0.000
DWS6	0.242	208	0.000	0.890	208	0.000
DWS7	0.288	208	0.000	0.833	208	0.000

Appendix I

Assessment of Normality Before Transform

Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
RS1	1.00	7.00	4.1250	1.52079	.036	-.865
RS2	2.00	7.00	4.1587	1.23899	-.013	-.457
RS3	1.00	7.00	3.8654	1.37653	.133	-.673
RS4	1.00	6.00	3.5337	1.39316	.293	-.985
RS5	1.00	7.00	4.0913	1.39229	-.154	-.765
RS6	1.00	7.00	3.0337	1.61330	.224	-1.084
RS7	1.00	6.00	3.6298	1.52673	-.031	-1.018
RS8	1.00	7.00	3.9808	1.36187	-.313	-.565
RS9	1.00	7.00	3.5721	1.80032	.273	-1.188
RS10	1.00	7.00	3.6779	1.44700	.066	-.994
RS11	1.00	7.00	3.6010	1.67661	.140	-1.153
RS12	1.00	7.00	3.5529	1.52819	.153	-.960
RS13	1.00	7.00	3.9712	1.50655	-.130	-.714
RS14	1.00	7.00	3.7404	1.62407	-.024	-.931
IJ1	1.00	7.00	4.4423	1.44682	-.449	-.013
IJ2	1.00	7.00	4.4183	1.41184	-.336	-.012
IJ3	1.00	7.00	4.4038	1.49407	-.505	-.077
IJ4	1.00	7.00	4.1202	1.50039	-.086	-.311
IJ5	1.00	7.00	4.1923	1.42495	-.222	-.347
IJ6	1.00	7.00	4.1971	1.54000	-.015	-.575
IJ7	1.00	7.00	4.2933	1.36752	.029	-.391
IJ8	1.00	7.00	4.1971	1.35653	.188	-.336
IJ9	1.00	7.00	4.2115	1.38084	-.075	-.226
NE1	1.00	6.00	3.3702	1.42187	.189	-.920
NE2	1.00	6.00	3.1779	1.33409	.052	-.917
NE3	1.00	6.00	3.2788	1.32939	.011	-1.133
NE4	1.00	7.00	3.4231	1.42573	-.040	-1.133
NE5	1.00	6.00	3.4038	1.25509	.117	-1.106
NE6	1.00	7.00	3.6106	1.47025	.034	-.816
NE7	1.00	7.00	3.5433	1.45398	.004	-.974
NE8	1.00	6.00	3.0817	1.35063	.206	-1.009
NE9	1.00	6.00	3.3221	1.35742	-.005	-.990
NE10	1.00	7.00	4.4952	1.38312	-.532	-.398
DWS1	1.00	6.00	2.0769	1.18519	1.116	.516
DWS2	1.00	6.00	2.6394	1.30395	.628	-.284
DWS3	1.00	6.00	2.1250	1.19328	1.134	.725
DWS4	1.00	6.00	2.1058	1.19918	.965	.254
DWS5	1.00	6.00	2.4087	1.23996	.764	-.250
DWS6	1.00	6.00	2.6827	1.24539	.607	-.450
DWS7	1.00	6.00	2.2788	1.27750	1.036	.341
SM1	2.00	7.00	4.7404	.97302	-.380	-.141
SM2	2.00	6.00	4.5481	.89421	-.207	-.139
SM3	2.00	6.00	4.5192	1.01658	-.540	.059
SM4	2.00	7.00	4.5337	1.06722	-.402	-.081
SM5	2.00	6.00	4.5192	.95786	-.172	-.492
SM6	2.00	7.00	4.4760	1.01648	-.478	-.028
SM7	2.00	7.00	4.3942	.96227	-.238	-.116

SM8	2.00	7.00	4.6394	.95289	-.338	-.351
SM9	2.000	7.000	4.18750	1.199210	-.011	-.522
SM10	2.00	6.00	4.6010	.97772	-.631	.154
SM11	2.00	7.00	4.4663	.99701	.168	.062
SM12	2.00	7.00	4.1202	1.15050	.204	-.403
SM13	1.00	7.00	4.9471	.93359	-.578	1.051

Appendix J

Assessment of Normality After Transform

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
tRS1	.02	.97	.4988	.30225	.023	-1.319
tRS2	.04	.99	.5019	.29178	-.054	-1.135
tRS3	.02	.99	.4971	.29874	.000	-1.276
tRS4	.03	.96	.4895	.30632	.161	-1.417
tRS5	.01	.98	.5062	.29927	-.128	-1.243
tRS6	.10	.99	.4938	.31200	.060	-1.551
tRS7	.04	.94	.5010	.30566	-.020	-1.383
tRS8	.01	.99	.5122	.29627	-.261	-1.222
tRS9	.08	.97	.4888	.31127	.227	-1.464
tRS10	.03	.99	.4993	.30903	-.038	-1.504
tRS11	.06	.98	.4949	.31113	.083	-1.504
tRS12	.05	.99	.4951	.30709	.068	-1.463
tRS13	.02	.98	.5049	.29873	-.096	-1.267
tRS14	.05	.98	.5018	.30444	-.059	-1.382
tIJ1	.01	.96	.5120	.28528	-.148	-1.085
tIJ2	.01	.97	.5071	.28617	-.013	-1.124
tIJ3	.01	.96	.5144	.28609	-.196	-1.089
tIJ4	.02	.97	.5025	.28733	-.034	-1.031
tIJ5	.01	.98	.5060	.29175	-.066	-1.192
tIJ6	.02	.97	.4995	.29590	.030	-1.265
tIJ7	.01	.98	.4973	.29335	.089	-1.228
tIJ8	.01	.98	.4932	.29123	.130	-1.179
tIJ9	.01	.98	.5011	.29046	.001	-1.220
tNE1	.05	.97	.4940	.30532	.065	-1.440
tNE2	.05	.98	.5000	.30720	-.055	-1.518
tNE3	.04	.98	.4997	.31185	.001	-1.548
tNE4	.04	.99	.5023	.31315	-.049	-1.578
tNE5	.03	.98	.4964	.31162	.034	-1.535
tNE6	.04	.99	.5011	.30427	-.089	-1.425
tNE7	.04	.99	.5020	.30830	-.104	-1.491
tNE8	.06	.98	.4934	.31024	.093	-1.570
tNE9	.04	.98	.5019	.30846	-.092	-1.517
tNE10	.01	.96	.5166	.29451	-.246	-1.230
tDWS1	.18	1.00	.4667	.28201	.573	-.953
tDWS2	.10	1.00	.4813	.29557	.294	-1.282
tDWS3	.17	1.00	.4677	.28012	.539	-.948
tDWS4	.18	1.00	.4726	.29101	.399	-1.307
tDWS5	.13	1.00	.4754	.29126	.419	-1.113
tDWS6	.09	1.00	.4796	.29430	.370	-1.180
tDWS7	.16	1.00	.4683	.28429	.578	-.948
tSM1	.00	.99	.5102	.29115	-.150	-1.191
tSM2	.00	.95	.5029	.29187	.008	-1.322
tSM3	.01	.93	.5137	.28649	-.166	-1.174
tSM4	.01	.99	.5109	.28830	-.142	-1.182
tSM5	.00	.94	.5033	.29621	-.013	-1.313
tSM6	.01	.99	.5143	.28772	-.247	-1.175
tSM7	.01	1.00	.5069	.29025	-.107	-1.256

tSM8	.00	.99	.5108	.29262	-.210	-1.195
tSM9	.03	.99	.5004	.29332	.010	-1.162
tSM10	.00	.92	.5172	.28558	-.279	-1.116
tSM11	.01	.99	.4944	.28670	.122	-1.192
tSM12	.03	.99	.4933	.29173	.130	-1.136
tSM13	.00	.99	.5101	.28593	-.109	-1.132

Appendix K

Z-scores of Transformed Variables

Z-Score	N	Minimum	Maximum
Zscore(tRS1)	208	-1.58414	1.56129
Zscore(tRS2)	208	-1.58049	1.66971
Zscore(tRS3)	208	-1.60141	1.64526
Zscore(tRS4)	208	-1.48551	1.54136
Zscore(tRS5)	208	-1.64724	1.58884
Zscore(tRS6)	208	-1.25009	1.60017
Zscore(tRS7)	208	-1.49994	1.43546
Zscore(tRS8)	208	-1.68044	1.60166
Zscore(tRS9)	208	-1.32452	1.55080
Zscore(tRS10)	208	-1.51187	1.58508
Zscore(tRS11)	208	-1.39654	1.55484
Zscore(tRS12)	208	-1.45794	1.60480
Zscore(tRS13)	208	-1.60874	1.58314
Zscore(tRS14)	208	-1.49798	1.56295
Zscore(tIJ1)	208	-1.76445	1.57537
Zscore(tIJ2)	208	-1.74500	1.60455
Zscore(tIJ3)	208	-1.75842	1.55345
Zscore(tIJ4)	208	-1.68339	1.63594
Zscore(tIJ5)	208	-1.69141	1.60956
Zscore(tIJ6)	208	-1.62405	1.57526
Zscore(tIJ7)	208	-1.66789	1.63230
Zscore(tIJ8)	208	-1.66179	1.67369
Zscore(tIJ9)	208	-1.69090	1.64269
Zscore(tNE1)	208	-1.46158	1.55186
Zscore(tNE2)	208	-1.46071	1.57151
Zscore(tNE3)	208	-1.46366	1.53917
Zscore(tNE4)	208	-1.46152	1.57007
Zscore(tNE5)	208	-1.50410	1.55399
Zscore(tNE6)	208	-1.52249	1.60475
Zscore(tNE7)	208	-1.49812	1.58704
Zscore(tNE8)	208	-1.39182	1.58338
Zscore(tNE9)	208	-1.48570	1.53629
Zscore(tNE10)	208	-1.73447	1.52239
Zscore(tDWS1)	208	-1.01055	1.88927
Zscore(tDWS2)	208	-1.27544	1.73802
Zscore(tDWS3)	208	-1.05258	1.89799
Zscore(tDWS4)	208	-1.01141	1.81046
Zscore(tDWS5)	208	-1.19279	1.79475
Zscore(tDWS6)	208	-1.32936	1.75532
Zscore(tDWS7)	208	-1.09025	1.86382
Zscore(tSM1)	208	-1.74388	1.64773
Zscore(tSM2)	208	-1.71546	1.52429
Zscore(tSM3)	208	-1.77011	1.44393
Zscore(tSM4)	208	-1.74160	1.66032
Zscore(tSM5)	208	-1.68478	1.47066
Zscore(tSM6)	208	-1.76162	1.66549
Zscore(tSM7)	208	-1.72433	1.68723
Zscore(tSM8)	208	-1.73612	1.64903

Zscore(tSM9)	208	-1.58998	1.67069
Zscore(tSM10)	208	-1.79734	1.42369
Zscore(tSM11)	208	-1.70122	1.74419
Zscore(tSM12)	208	-1.57890	1.71583
Zscore(tSM13)	208	-1.78384	1.66478
Valid N (listwise)	208		

Appendix L

Descriptive Statistics of Manifest Variables After Data Screening (N=208)

		Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Role Conflict (RC)	RS2	2.00	7.00	4.1587	1.23899
	RS3	1.00	7.00	3.8654	1.37653
	RS5	1.00	7.00	4.0913	1.39229
	RS6	1.00	7.00	3.0337	1.61330
	RS8	1.00	7.00	3.9808	1.36187
	RS10	1.00	7.00	3.6779	1.44700
	RS13	1.00	7.00	3.9712	1.50655
	RS14	1.00	7.00	3.7404	1.62407
Role ambiguity (RA)	RS1	1.00	7.00	4.1250	1.52079
	RS4	1.00	6.00	3.5337	1.39316
	RS7	1.00	6.00	3.6298	1.52673
	RS9	1.00	7.00	3.5721	1.80032
	RS11	1.00	7.00	3.6010	1.67661
	RS12	1.00	7.00	3.5529	1.52819
Interactional Justice (IJ)	IJ1	1.00	7.00	4.4423	1.44682
	IJ2	1.00	7.00	4.4183	1.41184
	IJ3	1.00	7.00	4.4038	1.49407
	IJ4	1.00	7.00	4.1202	1.50039
	IJ5	1.00	7.00	4.1923	1.42495
	IJ6	1.00	7.00	4.1971	1.54000
	IJ7	1.00	7.00	4.2933	1.36752
	IJ8	1.00	7.00	4.1971	1.35653
	IJ9	1.00	7.00	4.2115	1.38084
Negative emotion (NE)	NE1	1.00	6.00	3.3702	1.42187
	NE2	1.00	6.00	3.1779	1.33409
	NE3	1.00	6.00	3.2788	1.32939
	NE4	1.00	7.00	3.4231	1.42573
	NE5	1.00	6.00	3.4038	1.25509
	NE6	1.00	7.00	3.6106	1.47025
	NE7	1.00	7.00	3.5433	1.45398
	NE8	1.00	6.00	3.0817	1.35063
	NE9	1.00	6.00	3.3221	1.35742
	NE10	1.00	7.00	4.4952	1.38312
Self-monitoring (SM)	SM1	2.00	7.00	4.7404	0.97302
	SM2	2.00	6.00	4.5481	0.89421
	SM3	2.00	6.00	4.5192	1.01658
	SM4	2.00	7.00	4.5337	1.06722
	SM5	2.00	6.00	4.5192	0.95786
	SM6	2.00	7.00	4.4760	1.01648
	SM7	2.00	7.00	4.3942	0.96227
	SM8	2.00	7.00	4.6394	0.95289
	SM9	2.00	7.00	4.18750	1.19921
	SM10	2.00	6.00	4.6010	0.97772
	SM11	2.00	7.00	4.4663	0.99701
	SM12	2.00	7.00	4.1202	1.15050
	SM13	1.00	7.00	4.9471	0.93359

Instigated	DWS1	1.00	6.00	2.0769	1.18519
Workplace	DWS2	1.00	6.00	2.6394	1.30395
Incivility	DWS3	1.00	6.00	2.1250	1.19328
(DWS)	DWS4	1.00	6.00	2.1058	1.19918
	DWS5	1.00	6.00	2.4087	1.23996
	DWS6	1.00	6.00	2.6827	1.24539
	DWS7	1.00	6.00	2.2788	1.27750

Appendix M

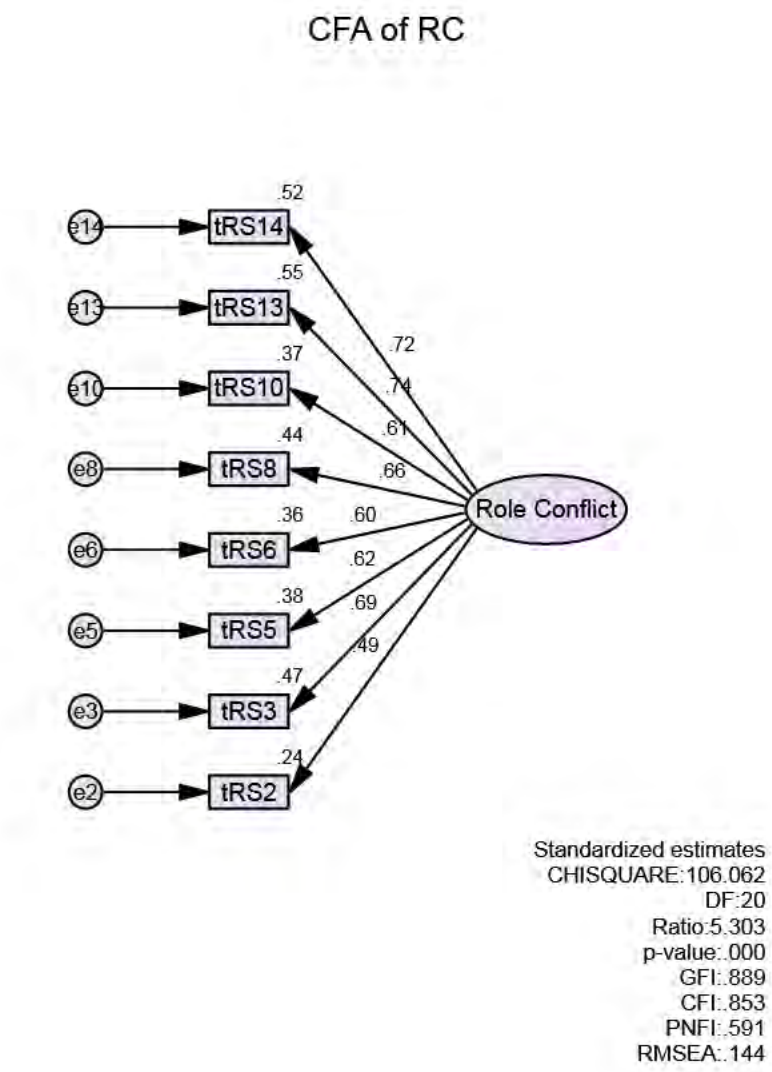
Calculation of Composite Reliability (CR)

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Factor Loading (Std regression weight)	(sum fl)2	S.E.	CR
tRS2	0.453		0.112	
tRS3	0.670		0.256	
tRS5	0.598		0.241	
tRS6	0.583		0.248	
tRS8	0.639		0.247	
tRS10	0.619		0.253	
tRS13	0.762		0.277	
tRS14	0.755		0.280	
Role Conflict	5.079	25.796241	1.914	**0.931**
tRS4	0.723		0.105	
tRS7	0.698		0.098	
tRS9	0.867		0.099	
tRS11	0.931		0.100	
tRS12	0.789		0.098	
Role Ambiguity	4.008	16.064064	0.500	**0.970**
tIJ1	0.936		0.032	
tIJ2	0.964		0.034	
tIJ3	0.944		0.037	
tIJ4	0.820		0.049	
tIJ5	0.874		0.045	
tIJ6	0.856		0.048	
tIJ7	0.857		0.047	
tIJ8	0.796		0.052	
tIJ9	0.799		0.052	
Interactional Justice	7.846	61.559716	0.396	**0.994**
tNE1	0.627		0.075	
tNE2	0.839		0.135	
tNE3	0.743		0.133	
tNE4	0.849		0.138	
tNE5	0.742		0.133	
tNE6	0.812		0.133	
tNE7	0.853		0.136	
tNE8	0.832		0.136	
tNE9	0.794		0.134	
tNE10	0.361		0.114	
Negative Emotion	7.452	55.532304	1.267	**0.978**
tDWS1	0.810		0.077	
tDWS2	0.781		0.078	
tDWS3	0.887		0.070	
tDWS4	0.881		0.073	
tDWS5	0.812		0.076	
tDWS6	0.836		0.076	
tDWS7	0.837		0.073	
Instigated Workplace Incivility	5.844	34.152336	0.523	**0.985**

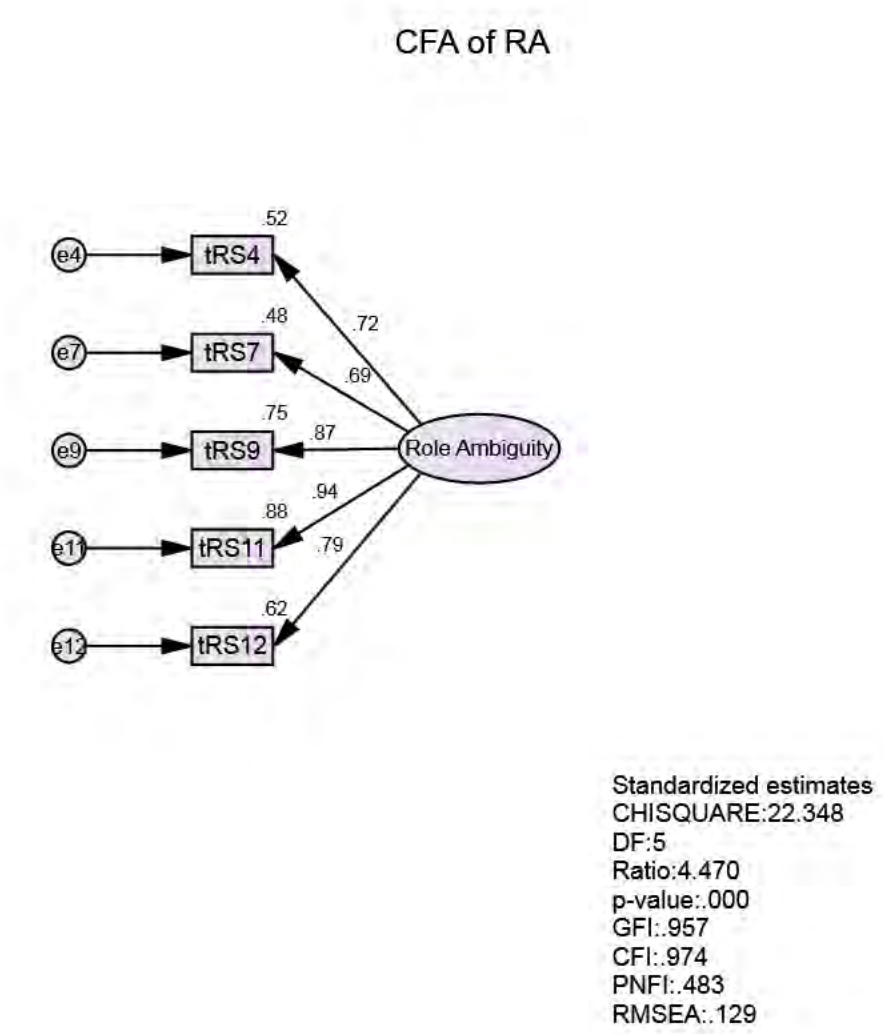
Appendix N

CFA of Role Conflict (RC)



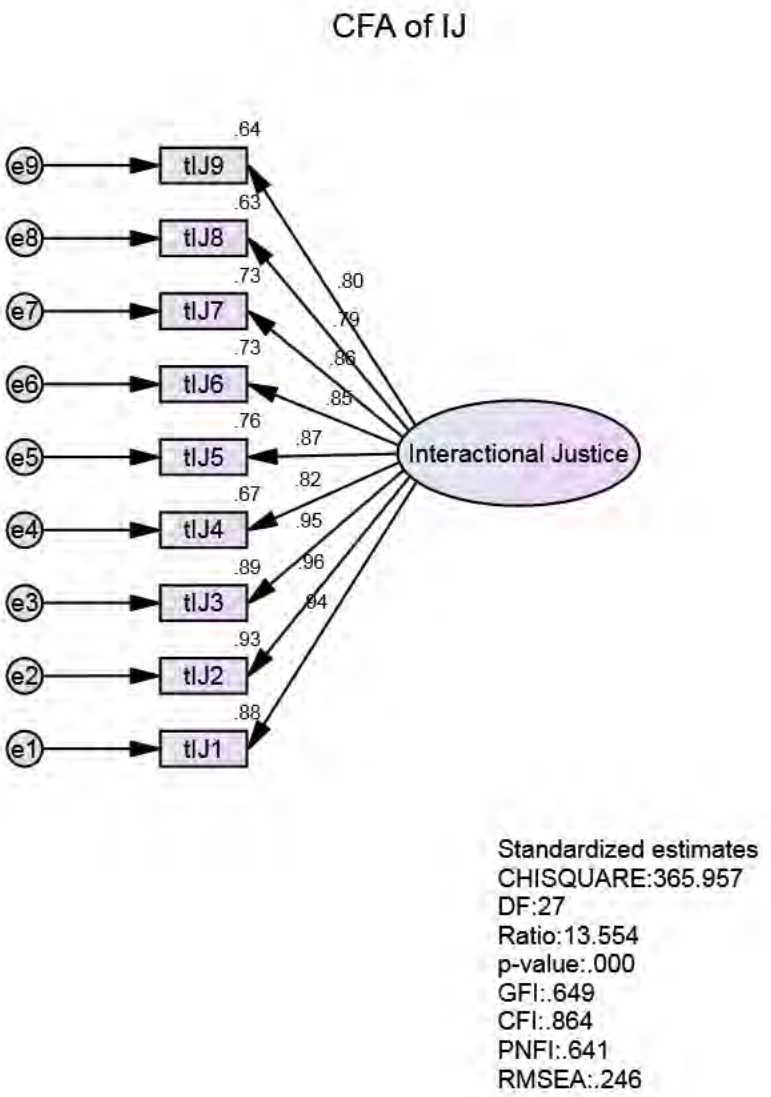
Appendix O

CFA of Role Ambiguity (RA)



Appendix P

CFA of Interactional Justice (IJ)



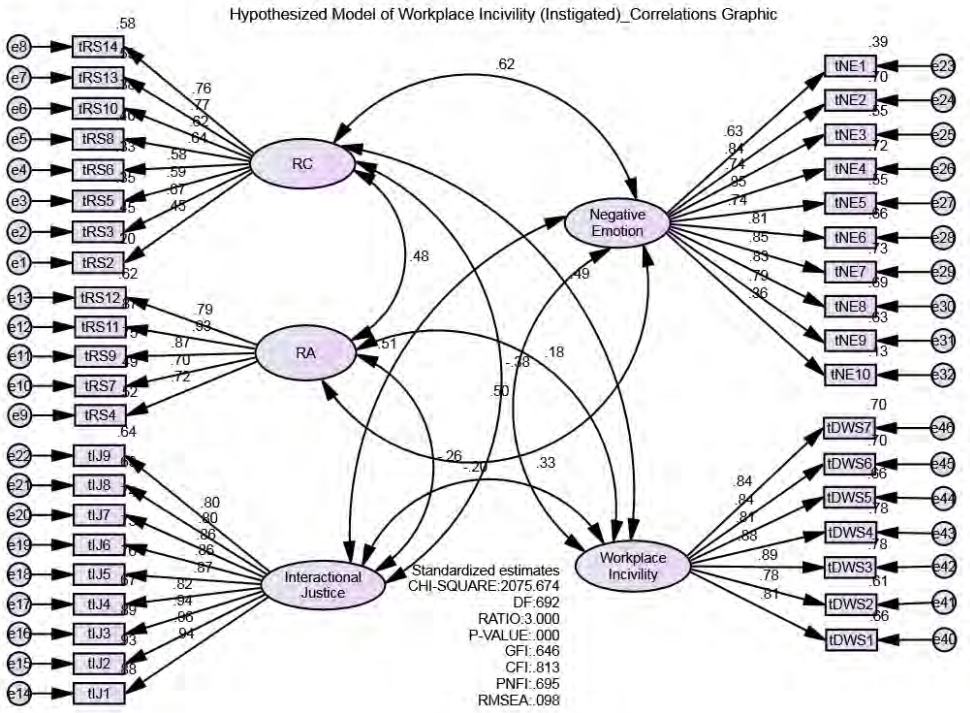
Appendix Q

Calculation of Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

	SMC	S.E.	VE	AVE	
tRS2	0.206	0.007			
tRS3	0.449	0.005			
tRS5	0.358	0.006			
tRS6	0.34	0.007			
tRS8	0.408	0.006			
tRS10	0.383	0.006			
tRS13	0.581	0.005			
tRS14	0.57	0.005			
Role Conflict	3.295	0.047	0.986	0.990	RC-RA
tRS4	0.522	0.005		0.992	RC-IJ
tRS7	0.488	0.005		0.989	RC-NE
tRS9	0.751	0.003		0.991	RC-WS
tRS11	0.868	0.003			
tRS12	0.622	0.004			
Role Ambiguity	3.251	0.020	0.994	0.996	RA-IJ
tIJ1	0.876	0.001		0.993	RA-NE
tIJ2	0.928	0.001		0.995	RA-WS
tIJ3	0.892	0.001		0.990	RA-RC
tIJ4	0.672	0.003			
tIJ5	0.764	0.002			
tIJ6	0.733	0.002			
tIJ7	0.735	0.002			
tIJ8	0.633	0.003			
tIJ9	0.639	0.003			
Interactional Justice	6.872	0.018	0.997	0.995	IJ-NE
tNE1	0.393	0.006		0.997	IJ-WS
tNE2	0.703	0.003		0.992	IJ-RC
tNE3	0.552	0.005		0.996	IJ-RA
tNE4	0.72	0.003			
tNE5	0.551	0.005			
tNE6	0.66	0.003			
tNE7	0.727	0.003			
tNE8	0.691	0.003			
tNE9	0.631	0.004			
tNE10	0.13	0.007			
Negative Emotion	5.758	0.042	0.993	0.994	NE-WS
tDWS1	0.656	0.003		0.989	NE-RC
tDWS2	0.611	0.004		0.993	NE-RA
tDWS3	0.786	0.002		0.995	NE-IJ
tDWS4	0.777	0.002			
tDWS5	0.660	0.003		0.991	WS-RC
tDWS6	0.698	0.003		0.995	WS-RA
tDWS7	0.701	0.003		0.997	WS-IJ
Instigated Workplace Incivility	4.889	0.020	0.996	0.994	WS-NE

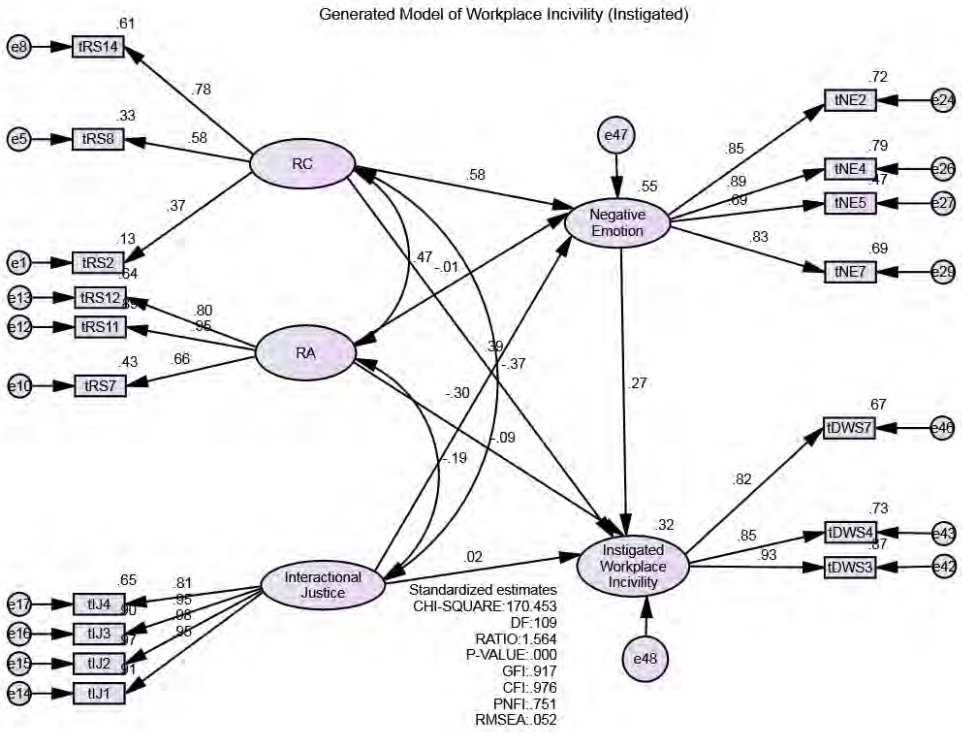
Appendix R

Correlations Graphic for Calculation of Average Variance Extracted (AVE)



Appendix S

Generated Model



Appendix T

Deleted Items in Generated Model

Constructs	Items	Description
Role Conflict (RC)	tRS3	I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.
	tRS5	I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.
	tRS6	I have to go against a rule or policy to carry out an assignment.
	tRS10	I do things that are likely to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
	tRS13	I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.
Role Ambiguity (RA)	tRS4	Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.
	tRS9	I know what my responsibilities are.
Interactional Justice (IJ)	tIJ5	Has your supervisor been honest in his/her communications with you?
	tIJ6	Has your supervisor explained the procedures that concern you thoroughly?
	tIJ7	Were your supervisor's explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?
	tIJ8	Has your supervisor communicated details in a timely manner?
	tIJ9	Has your supervisor seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?
Negative Emotion (NE)	tNE1	My job makes me feel bored.
	tNE3	My job makes me feel sad.
	tNE6	My job makes me feel depressed.
	tNE8	My job makes me feel frightened.
	tNE9	My job makes me feel furious.
	tNE10	My job makes me feel tired.
Instigated Workplace Incivility (DWS)	tDWS1	Looked down on others in some way.
	tDWS2	Paid little attention to someone's statement or opinion.
	tDWS5	Ignored or excluded someone from professional gathering (e.g. social conversation).
	tDWS6	Doubted someone's judgment in a matter that they have responsibility in.
Total Items Deleted	22	