

CHAPTER 6

JOB SATISFACTION

6.1 *Overview*

Job satisfaction can be described as an expression of employees' emotional attitudes or beliefs toward their work, measured as an overall satisfaction with the job or in terms of satisfaction with specific aspects of the job (Bootzin, Bower, Crocker, & Hall, 1991). Locke (1976) referred to job satisfaction as a pleasurable and positive emotional state that resulted from the appraisal of the job or the job experience. Hackman and Oldham (1975; Job Diagnostic Survey) suggested that particular work characteristics or core job dimensions are what affect employees' critical psychological states and experiences at work. Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) emphasized situational determinants of job satisfaction such as the nature of pay, promotions, supervisor, and co-workers.

Research on job satisfaction has led to a wealth of literature on diverse workplace outcomes. For example, downsizing and restructuring have major implications for job satisfaction and emotional well-being of the employees concerned (Burke & Greenglass, 2001). Dissatisfaction has been found to be associated with fewer promotional opportunities for women (Smucker, Whisenant, & Pedersen, 2003). Job attitudes of older and younger workers have also been measured and shown to be affected by the ages of their co-workers (Cleveland & Shore, 1992; Cleveland, Shore, & Murphy, 1997) and managers and supervisors (Shore, Cleveland, & Goldberg, 2003).

6.2 *Interpersonal Perspectives of Job Satisfaction*

The workplace could not survive without its members behaving in a certain manner and engaging in positive behaviours that are pertinent to the overall workplace functioning of the organization (Markoczy, 2004). Making an active positive contribution, being punctual in coming to work, as well as abstaining from harming one's co-workers, such as refraining from complaints, appeals and accusations that relate to trivial matters (Organ, 1988) are concepts that have been examined in relation to workplace functioning.

6.2.1 *Organizational citizenship behaviour*

Some workplace behaviours have been described as Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Organ (1988) defined this behaviour as discretionary, not a behaviour that is directly recognized by the formal reward system yet overall promotes effective workplace functioning. While it is often difficult for individuals to communicate what constitutes effective functioning in every given situation (Folger & Cropanzano 1998), they generally know when effective functioning has been violated (Cropanzano & Byrne 2000).

Citizenship behaviour may be based on ethical considerations (Markoczy, 2004). As Markoczy argued, behaviours can, for example, be based on a constraint-based belief that it is best to not exacerbate an already difficult situation. Yet, an active positive contribution, motivated by the consequences of actions, may maximize benefits for all concerned (Markoczy, 2004). The distinctive climates that emerge within organizations have different effects on the beliefs and behaviour of employees (Liao & Rupp, 2005) determining what is, and what is not, considered acceptable organizational behaviour. When individuals experience unfavourable workplace

outcomes they draw upon a pre-existing judicial belief in deciding whether a particular party is responsible for the outcome (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005).

Immediate supervisor support has been found to be related to overall satisfaction in the workplace (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayana, & Schwartz, 2002; Hochwarter, 2005). If exchanges are thought of as unfair, unjust or disrespectful, employees involved often experience feelings of anger, outrage and resentment (Greenberg, 1990; Barclay, et al., 2005), sometimes culminating in withdrawal of organizational citizenship behaviours (Jermier, Knights, & Nord, 1994).

6.2.2 *Organizational retaliatory behaviours*

Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found a relationship between justice conditions on the one hand and organizational retaliatory behaviours (a form of antisocial behaviour) on the other. These authors assume that anger intervenes between the sense of unfairness and the aggressive response. For instance, unfairness might trigger resentment and the resentful employee might retaliate by thieving (Greenberg & Scott, 1996) or some other workplace incivility. Assessments of the perception of fair interpersonal treatment have been found to be positively correlated to job satisfaction and negatively correlated with work withdrawal, experiences of antisocial behaviours such as sexual harassment, and the organization's tolerance of these behaviours (Donovan, Drasgow, & Munson, 1998).

Employees' subjective fears stemming from the threat of such behaviours partially mediated the relationship between antisocial behaviour and job satisfaction (Sinclair, Martin, & Croll, 2002). Outward-focused negative emotions, such as anger and hostility in response to perceived violations can increase a need to right a wrong

or engage in retaliatory behaviours (Barclay et al., 2005; Poulson, Duncan, & Massie, 2005). Pro-social organizational behaviour, on the other hand, is undertaken with intention of benefiting the overall welfare of the individual, team or organizational whole (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986).

6.3 *Affect and Job Satisfaction*

Employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the job may be influenced by a disposition to experience negative affect (Levin & Stokes, 1989). Affect has been measured as a disposition or trait (e.g. Watson & Slack, 1993) or as a state (e.g. Ilies & Judge, 2002; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999). State affect has been shown to have stronger correlations with job satisfaction than trait affect (Fisher, 2002). As argued by Levin and Stokes (1989), jobs can have both positive and negative aspects which have been found to have an orthogonal relationship (Russell & Carroll, 1999; Watson & Tellegen, 1985).

6.4 *Workplace Outcomes*

When job-related opportunities are limited, a low sense of self-efficacy is often reflected in avoidance behaviour, such as absenteeism (Bandura, 1997). Positive affect reduces absenteeism (Iverson & Deery, 2001) whereas negative affect increases absenteeism as well as turnover levels (Pelled & Xin, 1999; Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Glomb, & Ahlburg, 2005). Employees with high levels of negative affect are absent from the workplace for longer periods of time (Hardy, Woods, & Wall, 2003). Some employees use such time to change negative affect to more positive affect, resulting in more functionality on return to the job (Martocchio & Jimeno, 2003).

Some employees experience intense work-related anxiety and if unable to solve their problems may want to escape the threatening situation by changing jobs or occupation (Hutri & Lindeman, 2002). Others are reluctant to leave an organization, and so engage in negative political behaviour, which can be a means of control, that appears to make a work situation less negative (Harrell-Cook, Ferris, & Dulebohn, 1999). It has been proposed that employees with low emotional intelligence or emotional competency are more likely to adopt negative coping strategies to deal with workplace situations than those employees with high emotional intelligence (Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Hartel, 2002).

6.5 Job Satisfaction and Emotional Intelligence

Abraham (2000b) found that emotional intelligence predicted a substantial amount of the variance in job satisfaction. Other research has supported these findings. For example Sinha and Jain (2004) found emotional intelligence to be related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, reputational effectiveness and turnover intention. Research also indicates that emotional intelligence can augment positive work attitudes and altruistic behaviour yet have not have an effect on job satisfaction (Carmeli, 2003).

There has been marginal support for the moderating role of emotional competence on the relationship between emotional demands and emotional dissonance (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Empirical evidence suggests that emotional dissonance is consistently negatively related to measures of wellbeing (Morris & Feldman, 1996) and leads to job dissatisfaction and emotional exhaustion (Abraham, 1999). The skills of emotional intelligence are of particular importance to employees

who outwardly express emotions that conform to organizational expectations but clash with their own true feelings (Rafaela & Sutton, 1987).

CHAPTER 7

WORKPLACE INCIVILITY

7.1 *Overview*

At one time the business sphere was considered to be a mainstay of civility (Johnson & Indvik, 2000). The business world was perceived as a place where contact between co-workers was observed as being formal yet friendly, distant yet polite, and where a shared understanding and respect among associates was evident (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Johnson & Indvik, 2000). When employees feel overworked and underappreciated, workplace behavioural problems may become increasingly visible (Johnson & Indvik, 2000). As the workplace increases in complexity and associated overwhelming workloads, extended working hours, and increased unresolved conflicts, there may also be an increase in the display of uncivil behaviour among associates (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Johnson & Indvik, 2000). Media attention has focussed on acts of workplace incivility and ignited an interest in the understanding of this antisocial behaviour (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

7.1.1 *Safe working environment*

Organizations have a legal responsibility to provide a safe work environment for their employees, which can include an obligation to ban uncivil behaviour (Burler, 2003). For example, psychological harassment has been banned from the workplace in Quebec, Canada after the province of Quebec's Labour Standards were changed in December, 2002 (Namie, 2003). The Labour Standards define psychological harassment as any vexatious behaviour, such as repeated, hostile or unwanted conduct that affects an employee's psychological or physical integrity, including unwanted attitudes, comments and gestures (cited in Namie, 2003).

7.2 *The Nature of Workplace Incivility*

Workplace incivility does not necessarily involve direct physical forms of interpersonal maltreatment, where the intent to harm is quite obvious yet it does constitute a low-intensity deviant behaviour with a sometimes ambiguous, less transparent intent to harm the target (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). With covert tactics it is easy for a perpetrator to deny the event, plead ignorance, or assign responsibility to the target.

Violating workplace norms is a form of uncivil behaviour that consists of a lack of regard for others that violates workplace norms for mutual respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Examples include refusing to listen to others, demanding credit for all group work, emotional outbreaks, impulsive use of verbal slurs and verbal attacks and coercive action, and rude and discourteous behaviours (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Burler, 2003; Namie, 2003). These types of behaviours can cross the boundaries of gender, race and organizational rank; often undermining genuine business interests in the process (Namie, 2003)

Interpersonal deviance is related to workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) and includes political manipulations, such as incessant gossiping about co-workers, blaming co-workers instead of accepting responsibility for failure, competing in an intimidating manner (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), as well as displaying a sense of entitlement and a right to reject and exploit others (Pulich & Tourigny, 2004). Some of the milder forms of bullying, such as covert, psychological violations (Namie, 2003) can also come under the umbrella of workplace incivility. This type of incivility includes strategic moves that render the target unproductive, such as, for example, not consulting an employee in reference to a decision he or she

should have been involved in, being unreasonably slow in seeing to matters which the co-worker was reliant on, intentionally failing to pass on information which the co-worker should have been made aware of, talking behind others backs, reading others emails, going through others' desks and files and intentionally not telling another when a meeting was to be scheduled (Martin & Hine, 2005).

Gossiping, which is widespread in many organisations, is another form of uncivil behaviour that has recently become part of management research (Kurland & Pelled, 2000). These and other uncivil behaviours are occurring at an ever increasing rate, so much so that new terms, such as 'desk rage' are being coined to capture extreme forms of uncivil behaviour (Burler, 2003).

As part of an examination of workplace incivility, Martin and Hine (2005) developed the Uncivil Workplace Questionnaire (UWBQ). Using this instrument they found workplace incivility is associated with lower satisfaction with co-workers and supervisors and lower levels of wellbeing and health satisfaction. Although in a study by Cortina and Magley (2001) females reported more frequent incidents of incivility than males, both males and females experienced similar negative effects of being a target of incivility on job satisfaction.

7.3 The Target of Incivility

Data collected from 1,180 public service employees showed that 75% reported being the target of workplace incivility in the preceding 5 year period (Cortina & Magley, 2001). According to Namie and Namie (2003), in the United States, Great Britain, and Australia, 70 % to 90% of the people who show uncivil behaviours are supervisors and managers.

7.3.1 *Gender*

A study of 47 female private-sector employees and 300 female university employees found that relatively low-level but frequent workplace incivility can have significant negative consequences for females (Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997). In some studies women have been found to be targeted more frequently (Cortina et al., 2002). However other recent research showed that in some samples, males report being the target of incivility more frequently than females (Kirk, Schutte, & Hine, 2005). Discriminant function analyses indicated that women who had been the target of uncivil behaviour had poorer workplace and psychological outcomes (Schneider et al., 1997).

7.3.2 *Psychological outcomes*

Namie and Namie (2003) found that among those who were the target of incivility, 41% were clinically depressed, and 30% of the females and 21% of the males suffered from post-traumatic stress disorder. Additionally, if a workplace was perceived as hostile toward females, this had a negative effect on both female and male employees' well being; even those who had never been the target of incivility in the workplace were affected (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004).

7.3.3 *Characteristics*

Being the target of uncivil behaviour may result in retaliatory behaviour that is itself uncivil (Cortina & Magley, 2003). Being victimised can distress the target and this distress in turn may prompt retaliatory behaviour (Cortina & Magley, 2003). Aquino and Bradfield (2000) found a positive relationship between a tendency to yield or concede as a means of resolving conflict with co-workers and self-perceived victimization. A victim precipitation model found that some targets become visible to

the perpetrator because they exhibit such yielding characteristics, or conversely, the target shows a behaviour that, according to the perpetrator, is so over dominating that he or she deserves mistreatment (Acquino & Bryon, 2002).

7.3.4 *Social comparison theory*

It has been argued that the person who is a target of incivility may be less afraid of the perpetrator of incivility when a good relationship exists between these two people (Kurland & Pelled, 2000). However, if threatened by the behaviour, the targeted individual may strive to decrease dependency on the perpetrator (Kurland & Pelled, 2000). Schachter's (1959) social-emotional comparison theory suggests that those being targeted would prefer to be with other individuals exposed to the same distressing events and displaying the same emotional reactions as themselves (Gump & Kulik, 1997 cited in Berkowitz, Schrage, & Dunand, 2006). The similarity in emotional responses might be reassurance that their own feelings are appropriate under the circumstances (Berkowitz et al., 2006).

7.3.5 *Emotional suppression*

Not speaking out against incivility has for the target of incivility been associated with the most psychological and physical harm, suggesting that self-silencing emotional suppression is an effort that takes its toll on the body and disrupts emotional regulation (Cortina & Magley, 2003). In general, being able to disclose thoughts and emotions associated with a stressful event has various benefits for the individual's sense of control (Cortina & Magley, 2003) and physical well-being, particularly when expressed through a writing paradigm (Pantchenko, Lawson, & Joyce, 2003; Stanton, 2000; Greenberg, Wortman, & Stone, 1996; Goode, 1999; Pennebaker, & Beall, 1986; Blanchard, 2003; Petrie, Booth, Pennebaker, Davidson, &

Thomas, 1995; Esterling, Antoni, Fletcher, Margulies, & Schneiderman, 1994; Pennebaker, Mehl, & Niederhoffs, 2003).

7.4 *The Perpetrator of Workplace Incivility*

Perpetrating workplace incivility is, like aggression, an anti-social behaviour; however, the intention to harm is usually less clear (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Some uncivil behaviour may be part of the norm of an organisation, rather than atypical (Gresham, Lane, & Lambros, 2000). However, people do not just react to external influences they can induce self-generated and self-produced consequences, thereby exercising an influence over their own behaviour (Bandura, 1978).

7.4.1 *Impulsivity*

Anti-social behaviour has been proposed as being a combination of impulsivity and increased behavioural activation (Siever & Davis, 1991) and is often driven by the perpetrator's need to control another individual (Namie, 2003). Such behaviour appears to go hand in hand with the entitlement movement; which can foster the right to have extreme emotional outbursts, rather than manage emotions (Burler, 2003). An occasional angry response may, at times, be appropriate; however this may become the typical response of a perpetrator. Angry employees can destroy team moral as they may engage in sabotage behaviours which creates tension among co-workers (Johnson & Indvik, 2001).

Impulsive people are less inhibited in showing uncivil behaviour than those with a stronger self-regulatory capacity (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Baumeister, 2000). Resisting impulse is a core element of emotional self-regulation (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Schuettpeitz, Wood, Schutte, & Malouff, 2000 cited in Schutte, et al., 2001). Impulsive use of verbal slurs and coercive action (Burler, 2003) are important

contributors of workplace incivility; incivility in turn, may harm the interactions leading to success in the workplace (Drake, 2003).

7.4.2 *Rejecting the rights of others*

Some perpetrators, who use uncivil behaviour to bully, choose to humiliate their targets in the presence of another and use covert insidious tactics that ultimately distort the performance appraisal of a co-worker and undermine his or her competence (Namie & Namie, 2003). The perpetrator may choose a target because of his or her refusal to be subservient, because the target is an ethical whistle-blower, or because the target has superior work or social skills characteristics that can be threatening to a perpetrator of incivility (Namie & Namie, 2003).

7.4.3 *Subtle intimidation*

When feeling threatened the perpetrator may spread half truths about those he or she perceives as being more successful and more competent (Waddell, 1997). Despite possible severity and prevalence of perpetrating behaviour, it is often ignored, because unlike sexual harassment, it is not generally classified as an illegal activity and is often dismissed as being a clash of personalities or an aspect of overall diversity (Namie & Namie, 2003; Baron & Neuman, 1998).

Some employees who cause problems for their co-workers have a very pleasant manner, are highly intelligent, have good working skills and in the main get along well with many associates; when this type of person does not get along with a co-worker, those in management are more inclined to focus on the target (Arnold & Roach, 1992; Johnson & Indvik, 2000).

7.4.4 Co-workers

Without personal support from or satisfaction with co-workers, employees may commit uncivil acts, such as aggression and verbal abuse targeted at other team members (Cropanzano, et al., 2000). However, in some instances the greater the co-worker support the higher the levels of organizational and interpersonal deviance (Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004). Liao et al., (2004) argued that when employees perceive higher levels of co-worker support, they are more willing to believe that their colleagues will cover up for them in the event that they engage in negative behaviours.

Unfortunately, perpetrators may have a penchant for finding other disgruntled co-workers (Waddell, 1997), which can spread the uncivil behaviour from the individual to the group level, often referred to as mobbing (Shallcross, 2005). Females are just as likely as males to be the perpetrator of workplace incivility. Females are more likely to target other females (in more than four out of five cases), than are their male counterparts, who target females only 69% of the time (Namie & Namie, 2003).

7.5 *Social Exchange Theory*

From a social exchange perspective, workplace incivility can be viewed as an outcome of the one-to-one exchanges between co-workers (Liao, et al., 2004). For example, overall diversity has been found to be positively associated with the level of workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1998). When Liao, et al. (2004) examined the extent to which an employee's work environment can influence his or her deviant or uncivil behaviour, they found that when employees are dissimilar in personality to their co-workers, they will have difficulty communicating effectively with peers,

achieving co-operative relationships and integrating into the organizational environment. They argued that the mechanism through which dissimilarity transforms into a specific type of deviance will depend on the people involved in the exchange (Liao, et al., 2004).

An empirical examination of interpersonal aggressive behaviour within the workplace suggested a pattern of negative social exchange in which an employee may reciprocate unfair or adverse treatment received from the workplace by engaging in an aggressive manner towards co-workers (Glomb & Liao, 2003). Lee and Allen (2002) argued that it is the level of emotions in the workplace that would predict such interpersonal deviance.

Preventing antisocial and promoting pro-social behaviour may require a shift from reliance on external controls (blaming another for how one feels) to internal mechanisms (Koenig, Cicchetti, & Rogosch, 2000) such as the skills comprising emotional intelligence.

7.5.1 *Externalizing blame*

Externalizing or attributing blame to a victim can serve to exonerate a person in order to make his or her own actions excusable (Bandura, 1986). When people are aided in socially dehumanizing and blaming others through a stereotyping indoctrination (Bandura, 1986), a gradual desensitization process can occur, in which a person may not fully recognize the marked changes he or she is undergoing until deeds, originally considered as objectionable, can be performed without a great deal of distress (Bandura, 1986).

Recent results have found that blaming others in the workplace is associated with a general negative emotionality that can distinguish among employees'

spontaneous responses to positive and negative work events (Hutri & Lindeman, 2004; Necowitz & Roznowski, 1994; Thompson, 1985). Blaming others for one's misfortune is associated with impairments in emotional well-being and physical health (Tennen & Affleck, 1990), whereas linking it to one's own behaviour (internalization) has been found to be associated with more adaptive health outcomes (Timko & Janoff-Bulman, 1985).

Blaming others might reflect a defensive projection and may be associated with poor emotional and physical adaptation (Vaillant, 1977). Central to Vaillant's thesis is that if individuals' "are to master conflict gracefully their adaptive styles have to mature" (Vaillant, p. 369). Blaming others could be a characteristic pattern that shifts the locus of responsibility entirely away from the person doing the accusing (Snyder & Higgins, 1988).

7.6 *Social Learning Theory*

Social learning theory refers to cognitive structures that provide standards of referral against which the behaviour of an individual is judged, together with a set of functions for the perception, evaluation, and regulation of action (Bandura, 1986). For example, as infants come to learn that their actions affect the environment and produce results, they begin to test their sense of agency through planning intentional action, and as they do so, they look for anticipated outcomes; through this exploration they also verify their agentive capabilities by knowing they have the ability to make things happen (Bandura, 1997).

Social learning factors need to be considered in determining whether feelings of discontent will take an aggressive form or some other behavioural expression (Bandura 1978). For example, during the process of socialization people are trained

to adhere to orders. By rewarding conformity and punishing non-conformity, directions issued with commanding authority may bring forth an obedient aggression. In studies of obedient aggression, Milgram (1974) found that adults, with the best of intentions, have given on demand, increasingly higher levels of electric shocks to subjects, regardless of their pleas to stop. As Bandura (1978) argued it only requires the right social conditions for aggressive types of behaviour to be adopted, if these appear to be approved by influential others.

7.6.1 Vicarious reinforcement

Vicarious reinforcement operates mainly through information regarding whether an observed behaviour leads to a good outcome (Bandura, 1978). When observed outcomes are judged as being personally attainable, this can create the necessary incentive motivation; thus future aggressors may come to learn that they may gain, not lose, status in the eyes of their peers when they observe another person showing aggressive behaviour that leads to good outcomes (Bandura, 1978).

7.7 Social Inter-actionist Perspective

A social inter-actionist perspective emphasizes the antecedent factors involved in the exchange of uncivil coercive and/or negative behaviours by describing how uncivil behaviours unfold and escalate overtime (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Figure 3 illustrates the spiral of what can occur when a person believes his or her incivilities to another to be legitimate or moral. Andersson and Pearson provided an explanation of the 'incivility spiral' in which a tit for tat pattern increases an excitatory series of uncivil behaviours.

7.7.1 Incivility spiral

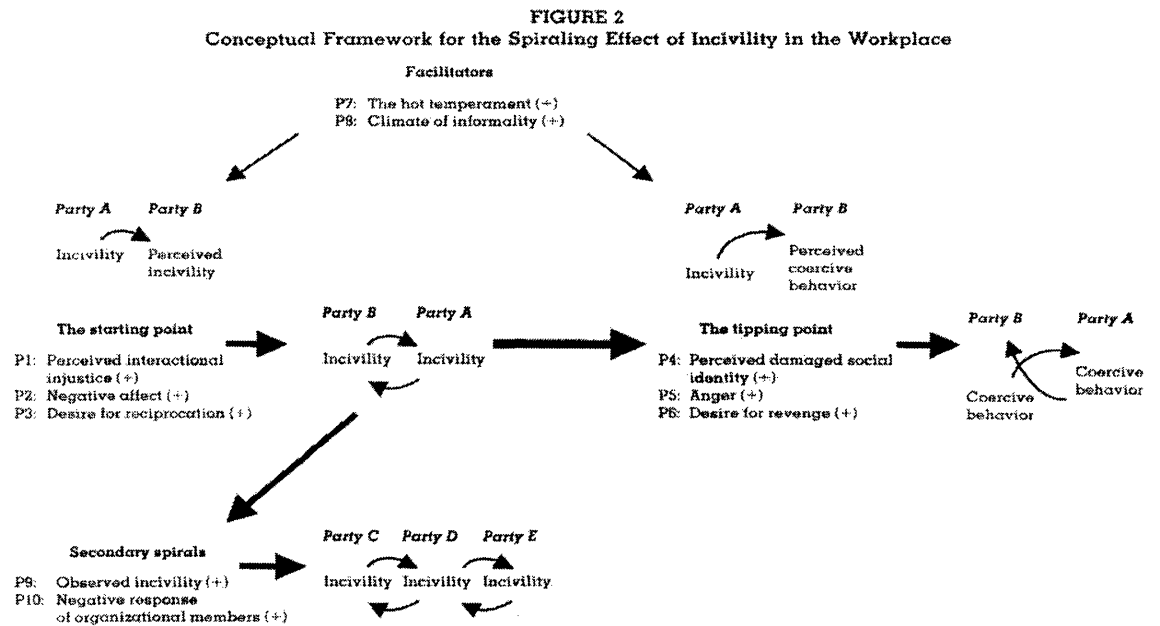


Figure 7.1. Incivility Spiral. Conceptual Framework for the Spiraling Effect of Incivility in the Workplace (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

7.8 Possible Connections between Emotional Intelligence and Workplace Incivility

Emotional intelligence is related to employees’ emotional reactions, stress reactions, negative coping strategies (Jordan, et al., 2002) and impulsivity (eg., Schutte, et al., 1998). Impulsivity is an emotional reaction that appears to be particularly high in those who display uncivil behaviour (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Baumeister, 2000). Adopting the skills of emotional intelligence has been shown to regulate the impulsive outbursts of others, such as offender’s uncivil behaviour. An example of how emotional intelligence can ameliorate uncivil behaviour is provided by the research of (Manzella & West, 2003).

7.8.1 *Empathy*

As Manzella and West (2003) argued, offenders cannot be expected to possess high levels of self-awareness or empathy; therefore, it is helpful if officers either come to the job with these characteristics or are trained to acquire them. Manzella and West reported that effects of emotional intelligence training were found to be valuable for virtually all levels of criminal justice professionals. Particularly useful was training in self-awareness and empathy. Officers with higher emotional intelligence were better equipped to successfully confront challenging assignments, which in turn created fewer incidents, providing higher levels of safety as well as reducing the risk of liability.

CHAPTER 8

DEVELOPMENT OF EMOTIONAL SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE

8.1 *Rationale*

As discussed in the previous chapters, research on emotional intelligence has shown that this construct is a viable concept that has been found to be related to a variety of positive outcomes. Further, other lines of research have found that individuals who have greater self-efficacy for a realm of behaviour have better functioning in this realm.

The concept of emotional self-efficacy relates to the confidence and belief in oneself to correctly perceive, understand and regulate emotions in the self as well as in others. It is also about being able to have the confidence to use emotions to facilitate thinking. Having the confidence to think about an emotion, currently being felt, as well as being able to understand and regulate the emotion, creates an opportunity for change. It may change an assumption that another person has caused or is responsible for the felt emotion. Having the confidence to use emotions intelligently may change the negative emotion associated with blaming others for their own feelings. Having the confidence to use these skills is of particular importance in the workplace if negative emotions, expressed through blaming others, are important contributors to the mechanisms that fuel the dynamics of uncivil workplace behaviour.

To date no studies have investigated self-efficacy for the functions included in the construct of emotional intelligence. As self-efficacy in other realms has been shown to be a powerful predictor of adaptive functioning, it would be fruitful to explore the role of self-efficacy in emotional intelligence.

Petrides and Furnham (2003) made an astute distinction between trait emotional intelligence and ability emotional intelligence. Petrides and Furnham argued that trait emotional intelligence could also be called 'emotional-self-efficacy'. However, equating trait emotional intelligence with emotional self-efficacy may be an overgeneralisation. As Petrides and Furnham pointed out, trait emotional intelligence may include dispositions as well as self-perceptions related to emotional functioning. An even finer distinction among aspects of emotional intelligence than the one made by Petrides and Furnham may be that self-perceptions related to emotional functioning can include emotional self-efficacy, but that there are other aspects of self-perception and other dispositions that are not encompassed by emotional self-efficacy. Thus, emotional self-efficacy may be an aspect of trait emotional intelligence, but not be identical to what Petrides and Furnham described as trait emotional intelligence or Mayer and Salovey (1997) described as mixed model emotional intelligence.

8.2 *Measurement*

In order to examine the utility of a construct such as emotional self-efficacy, the construct must be measurable. This chapter describes the development and validation of a measure of an emotional self-efficacy. As Mayer and Salovey's (1997; Mayer et al., 1999) four branch model of emotional intelligence presents a conceptually and empirically well-grounded description of what emotional intelligence may comprise, this model was used to define the realm of adaptive emotional functioning. Bandura (2001) presented specific guidelines on how to assess self-efficacy in a given realm. These guidelines were used in assessing emotional self-efficacy.

As emotional self-efficacy may be an aspect of trait or dispositional emotional intelligence one, would expect a measure of emotional self-efficacy to be related to, but not redundant with, a measure of trait emotional intelligence. Further, as both emotional self-efficacy and ability emotional intelligence may be different facets of emotional intelligence, one would expect these constructs to be somewhat related. Finally, as emotional self-efficacy includes confidence in accurately perceiving and understanding emotions and effectively regulating emotions, one would expect emotional self-efficacy to be related to mood.

Emotional Self-Efficacy Questionnaire Scale Development

Method

8.3.1 *Development sample*

The development sample consisted of six experts in the area of emotional intelligence. All members of the development sample possessed a Masters degree or higher in psychology. Two of these experts were practicing clinical psychologists. The other four were senior academic staff members with many years experience in the research field with published articles on the topic of emotional intelligence and aspects of abnormal and cognitive psychology.

8.3.2 *Procedure*

Item development for the Emotional Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (ESEQ) involved three stages. First, the author and her supervisors generated an initial pool of items that covered the main dimensions in the Mayer and Salovey (1997; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 1999) four-factor mental ability model of emotional intelligence: (1) perceiving emotions in self and others, (2) using emotions to facilitate thought, (3) understanding emotions and emotional knowledge, and (4) regulating emotions to

promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 1999). The format of the individual items, as well as the general instructions for the measure, followed the guidelines outlined in Bandura (2001). Following these guidelines, instructions directed respondents to rate their *confidence* in being able to carry out functions described by the items.

Second, the instructions and items were subjected to an expert review (Appendix A). As mentioned, six emotional-intelligence experts, including Professor John Mayer who is one of the developers of the emotional intelligence model on which the items were based, rated the items. The experts were asked to: (1) allocate each item into one of the four dimensions from Mayer and Salovey's (1997; Mayer, et al., 1999) mental ability model; (2) rate the clarity of each item on a five-point Likert scale (1 = extremely poor, 5 = excellent); (3) rate the appropriateness of the measure's instructions, item sequencing, reading level, and overall format for assessing *emotional intelligence self-efficacy* in samples of employed adults (1 = not at all appropriate, 5 = very appropriate), and (4) rate the appropriateness of the descriptive anchors on the Likert scale for how confident a person is to undertake the items (1 = Not at all, 2 = A little, 3 = moderately, 4= quite a bit, 5 = extremely).

Third, as per advice from one of the reviewers, the descriptive anchor 'extremely confident' was changed to 'very confident' instead of extremely confident. The list of the 32 items retained for the ESEQ, along with their corresponding facets is presented in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1

Items Retained for the ESEQ Following the Expert Review

<i>Facet</i>	<i>Items: How well can you:</i>
1. Perceiving Emotions in the Self and Others	Correctly identify your own negative emotions Correctly identify when another person is feeling a negative emotion Correctly identify your own positive emotions Correctly identify when another person is feeling a positive emotion Notice the emotion your body language is portraying Notice the emotion another person's body language is portraying Recognize what emotion is being communicated through your facial expression Recognize what emotion another person is communicating through his or her facial expression
2. Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought	Create a positive emotion when feeling a negative emotion Use positive emotions to generate novel solutions to old problems Generate in yourself the emotion another person is feeling Get into a mood that best suits the occasion Use positive emotions to generate good ideas Create emotions to enhance cognitive performance Create emotions to enhance physical performance Generate the right emotion so that creative ideas can unfold expression

3. Understanding Emotions in the Self and Others

Know what causes you to feel a positive emotion
Realise what causes another person to feel a positive emotion
Know what causes you to feel a negative emotion
Realise what causes another person to feel a negative emotion
Understand what causes your emotions to change
Understand what causes another person's emotions to change
Figure out what causes you to feel differing emotions
Figure out what causes another person's differing emotions

4. Regulating emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth

Change your negative emotion to a positive emotion
Help another person change a negative emotion to a positive emotion
Regulate your own emotions when under pressure
Help another person to regulate emotions when under pressure
Calm down when feeling angry
Help another person calm down when he or she is feeling angry
Regulate your own emotions when close to reaching a goal
Help another person regulate emotions after he or she has suffered a loss

8.4 *Scale Validation*

8.4.1 *Participants*

The scale-validation sample consisted of 207 adults (125 females, 74 males, and 8 not specified). To ensure that the sample was representative of the characteristics of a working population, a selection of occupational groups in three states of Australia were assessed. This assessment included age, education level, years of service, and level of seniority.

At the time of the study respondents were employed in full-time or part-time work in New South Wales, Queensland, or Western Australia. Respondents ranged in age from 18 to 72 years ($M = 38.42$, $SD = 14.44$). In terms of education, 6.5% indicated they had some secondary schooling, 13.6% indicated they had completed the school certificate (4 years high school), 29% received a High School Certificate (6 years high school), 13.6% possessed a Diploma, 2.4% a graduate certificate, 16.6% a Bachelor's Degree, 15.4% had some postgraduate training, 1.1% had obtained a doctorate and 1.8% was other (not specified).

Respondents had been employed by their current organization from between 1 month and 47 years. ($M = 4.20$, $SD = 2.03$). The majority of respondents (57.7%) were employed in non-management positions, 19% were line-managers, 17.3% were middle managers, and 6% were senior managers. Most of the respondents (68%) were recruited directly through organizations' human resource or personnel officers. An additional 18% were recruited through word of mouth, and 14% were employed first year university undergraduates recruited through the psychology subject pool of the University of New England.

8.4.2 *Measures*

Participants signed a consent form (Appendix B) prior to commencement of the study. Respondents completed a questionnaire consisting of the ESEQ, the Assessing Emotions measure of emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 1998), the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), and several work-related measures that were not included in the analyses reported in this chapter (Appendix C).

Just under half the respondents (45%) also completed a computer-based version of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Tests (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002). Most of the respondents completed the measures in their workplaces during regular work hours. The questionnaire booklet took approximate 35 minutes to complete and the MSCEIT took approximately 45 minutes. The computer –based version of the MSCEIT was distributed for use by Multi-Health Systems Inc. (MHS). In order to use the MSCEIT, MHS required the completion of a purchaser qualification form and completion of a request for student research discount (Appendix D).

The participants were given an access code and password allowing them to log onto the MHS web page (Appendix E). If a participant was completing the questionnaire booklet via the UNE web site, a code and password was also supplied (Appendix E). The participants had the opportunity, on request (Appendix B) to receive feedback on their emotional intelligence performance as per the scored raw data supplied by the publishers MHS (Appendix F). If requested the information was placed in a sealed envelope with the only identifier being the ID code on their retained

participant information sheet (Appendix B). Detailed descriptions of the measures are as follows.

Emotional intelligence was assessed using two measures: The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES; Schutte et al., 1998) and the MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002). The Assessing Emotions Scale consists of 33-item and is intended to measure the extent to which respondents typically accurately appraise emotions in self and others, understand emotions in the self and others, regulate emotions in the self and others, and utilize emotions to solve problems. Respondents rate themselves on a 5-point scale for each item. Schutte et al. (1998) report that all items load on a single factor, and the measure exhibits excellent internal consistency; Cronbach's α ranged from .87 to .90 across several development samples and was .95 for the current study.

In a development sample, test-retest reliability for the measure, across a two-week duration, was good ($r = .78$). Schutte et al. (1998) reported that the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) significantly predicts end of year academic performance in college undergraduates. Discriminate validity was demonstrated by a lack of relationship with SAT scores and the Big Five personality dimensions with the exception of openness to experience. Abraham (2000) found the scale to be associated with job control and organizational commitment, supporting its utility in the workplace domain.

The MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002) is a computer-based performance measure of emotional intelligence that assesses the components of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four-factor ability model. The instrument assesses (1) Perceiving emotions (assessed with Faces and Pictures tasks); (2) Facilitating thought (assessed with Facilitation and Sensations tasks); (3) Understanding Emotions

(assessed with Blends and Changes tasks), and (4) Managing Emotions (assessed with Emotional Management and Emotional Relations tasks). Cronbach's α for the overall development sample for the MSCEIT is .91. Brackett and Mayer (2003) found a test-retest reliability of $r = .86$ (3 week duration).

Previous research with the MSCEIT indicates that it correlates moderately with openness, agreeableness and psychological well being (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). In terms of divergent validity, the MSCEIT has been shown to share little variance with cognitive intelligence (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000), social desirability (Salovey, Mayer, Caruso, & Lopes, in press cited in Mayer et al., 2002), and self-report measures of well-being, positive affect, and optimism (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Goldenberg, Matheson, & Mantler, 2006).

Respondents' mood state was assessed using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The PANAS consists of two scales that assess positive and negative affect respectively. Each scale consists of 10 emotion descriptors and respondents are required to rate how well each descriptor reflects their current emotions (1 = not at all, 5 = extremely). Scores on the PANAS can range from a low of 10 to a high of 50 for each subscale. Watson et al. (1988) reported that both subscales good excellent internal consistency. Cronbach's α for the development sample for present moment time instructions for the positive and negative affect were .89 and .85 respectively (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). Internal consistencies for present moment time instructions for the positive and negative affect in the current study were .86 and .94 respectively.

Finally, possible response bias was assessed in the current study by the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSD; Crowne & Marlow, 1960).

According to Schutte et al. (1998) self-report emotional intelligence scales, as is the case with many self-report measures, can be susceptible to self-presentation bias. The MCSD has been widely used since its introduction and various researchers have examined the reliability and validity of the scale with a variety of populations (Reynolds, 1982). The Cronbach's α for the overall development sample for the MCSD was .72. Later studies (e.g. McFarland & Sparks, 1985) found a Cronbach's α of .79. Cronbach's α for the current sample was .80.

Results

8.6 *Exploratory Principal Components Analysis of the ESEQ*

An exploratory principal components analysis was conducted on the 32 ESEQ items to determine the latent structure of the measure. Cattell's (1966) scree plot indicated that one component be retained, whereas Velicer's (1976) MAP test, Horn's (1969) parallel analysis, and Kaiser's (1960) rule (eigenvalues greater than 1) suggested three, four, and five components respectively. All solutions ranging from two to five components were subjected to direct oblimin rotations ($\Delta = 0$) and the resulting pattern matrices were assessed for interpretability. The three-, four-, and five-component solutions all failed to exhibit simple structure and clearly defined components.

The two-factor solution, explaining 51% of the variance in the item set, divided the ESEQ items into two distinct groups: (1) self-efficacy in perceiving, understanding, and regulating emotions in the self, and (2) self-efficacy in perceiving, understanding and regulating emotions in others. Twelve items loaded on each of the factors. A key problem with this two-factor solution was that all items related to using emotions to facilitate thinking in the self and others failed to load on either

component. In addition, the correlation between respondents' scores computed for the two components was .79, suggesting the two components may in fact be assessing a single latent dimension.

8.6.1 *One component solution*

An examination of the one-component solution revealed it explained 44% of the variance in the item set and that all 32 items loaded .54 and above (see Table 8.2). Given that this solution included items covering all four facets of Mayer and Salovey's (1997; Mayer et al., 1999) four-factor ability model, albeit on a single component, and that Cronbach's alpha for the total scale as .96, it was decided that emotional intelligence self-efficacy, as assessed by the ESEQ, was best conceptualised as a uni-dimensional construct. Scale scores were computed summing the ESEQ items.

8.7 *ESEQ Validation*

Correlations between respondents' scores on the ESEQ and the validation measures are presented above the diagonal in Table 8.3. As predicted, the ESEQ significantly correlated with the two measures of emotional intelligence included in this study (AES and MSCEIT) and two subscales of the PANAS (positive affect and negative effect). The ESEQ also significantly correlated with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, but the correlation was small suggesting that ESEQ responses were likely subject to only a mild self-presentation bias. To determine if this self-presentation bias affected the magnitude of the correlations for the validation analyses, partial correlations were computed between ESEQ and the validation measures controlling for respondents' scores on the Marlowe-Crowne scale. The partial correlations, presented below the diagonal in Table 8.3, were very similar to

the uncorrected correlations above the diagonal suggesting that self-presentation bias was not greatly influencing the results of the analyses.

Table 8.2

ESEQ Item Loadings: Single Component Solution

Items	
Understand what causes your emotions to change	.786
Correctly identify your own positive emotions	.745
Know what causes you to feel a negative emotion	.717
Realize what causes another person to feel a negative emotion	.713
Realise what causes another person to feel a positive emotion	.702
Correctly identify when another person is feeling a positive emotion	.700
Figure out what causes another person's differing emotions	.693
Use positive emotions to generate good ideas	.689
Recognize what emotion is being communicated through your facial expression	.688
Notice the emotion your body language is portraying	.682
Generate the right emotion so that creative ideas can unfold	.681
Notice the emotion another person's body language is portraying	.681
Change your negative emotion to a positive emotion	.672
Figure out what causes you to feel differing emotions	.671
Understand what causes another person's emotions to change	.668
Help another person to regulate emotions when under pressure	.662
Correctly identify your own negative emotions	.661
Know what causes you to feel a positive emotion	.661
Help another person calm down when he or she is feeling angry	.660
Correctly identify when another person is feeling a negative emotion	.659
Get into a mood that best suits the occasion	.658
Create emotions to enhance cognitive performance	.654
Regulate your own emotions when close to reaching a goal	.647
Create a positive emotion when feeling a negative emotion	.636
Use positive emotions to generate novel solutions to old problems	.625
Recognize what emotion another person is communicating through his or her facial expression	.616
Create emotions to enhance physical performance	.608
Help another person change a negative emotion to a positive emotion	.596
Calm down when feeling angry	.584
Regulate your own emotions when under pressure	.578
Help another person regulate emotions after he or she has suffered a loss	.540
Generate in yourself the emotion another person is feeling	.536

Table 8.3

Correlations Between ESEQ and Validation Measures (N = 207)

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. ESEQ	-	.73**	.34**	.40**	-.35**	.17*
2. <u>Self Report EI</u>	.73**	-	.29**	.28**	-.66**	.02
3. MSCEIT	.34**	.34**	-	.14	-.19	-.12
4. PANAS Positive	.38**	.28**	.21	-	-.01	.13
5. PANAS Negative	-.37**	-.66**	-.28	-.02	-	.06
6. Marlowe-Crowne	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>M</i>	108.43	119.61	104.28	29.40	18.45	17.18
<i>SD</i>	19.51	18.83	14.57	6.30	8.23	3.77

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. For all correlations involving the MSCEIT $N = 92$. All values above the diagonal are Pearson correlations, whereas values below the diagonal are partial correlations controlling for respondents' scores on the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale.

8.8 Preliminary Discussion

The primary aim in developing the ESEQ was to create and validate a measure of emotional self-efficacy. The measure was based on the Salovey and Mayer (1997; Mayer et al., 1999) conceptualisation of emotional intelligence and Bandura's (1986; 1997) approach to assessing self-efficacy.

Although the results of the factor analysis of the emotional self-efficacy items made possible several interpretations, a one factor solution was the most parsimonious. This solution explained 44 percent of the variance in the item set and

included high loading items from all four branches of the Mayer and Salovey (1997; Mayer et al., 2002) model. It should be noted that a two factor solution, with two interpretable factors representing self-efficacy for one's own emotional functioning and self-efficacy for others' emotional functioning, was also viable. However, this solution did not encompass items from all branches of the model, with no items representing facilitation of thought included in the solution, and resulted in a high correlation between the two factors. With a Cronbach's alpha of .96, internal consistency of the uni-dimensional 32-item scale was high.

The measure of emotional self-efficacy showed preliminary evidence of validity. As would be expected of such a measure, it correlated strongly with a measure of trait emotional intelligence and significantly, though somewhat less strongly, with a measure of ability emotional intelligence. Further, higher scores on the measure were associated with more positive mood and less negative mood.

A limitation of the emotional self-efficacy measure was that it was associated significantly with social desirability responding, although the measures did not share much variance. It may be concluded that the emotional self-efficacy measure is subject to a mild favourable self-presentation bias. To take into account this bias in interpreting validation evidence for the scale, partial correlations controlling for the influence of social desirability responding were conducted. The partial correlations showed the emotional self-efficacy scale to still be significantly associated with the validation measures.

The results of this development and validation study suggested that the Emotional Self-Efficacy Questionnaire may be a viable measure. Assessment of

emotional self-efficacy may be useful in studies that aim to better understand the process of adaptive emotional functioning and its impact on life outcomes.

CHAPTER 9

TESTING A MODEL OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND WORKPLACE FUNCTIONING

9.1 *Rationale*

As argued in previous chapters, workplace functioning and the social and emotional competencies that facilitate workplace functioning are an important focus in today's organizational literature. An interest in the such competencies dates back to early theorists such as Thorndike (1920). Recently, emotional competencies have been operationised through the construct of emotional intelligence (e.g., Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Schutte et al., 1998) and have been found to have relevance to workplace functioning (e.g., Jordan & Askanasy, 2006). The research described in this chapter aims to clarify some of the links between emotional intelligence and workplace functioning.

9.1.1 *Emotional self-efficacy and trait emotional intelligence*

According to self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997), a person who has high self-efficacy for a realm of functioning will be more likely to show behaviours in that realm. Thus, self-efficacy theory suggests that individuals who have self-efficacy for the functions comprising emotional intelligence will be more likely to score high on trait emotional intelligence.

9.1.2 *Emotional intelligence, affect, and the workplace*

As argued in previous chapters, emotional intelligence may have a direct impact on beneficial workplace outcomes. Further, as supported by empirical findings reported in previous chapters, level of emotional intelligence is linked to affective experiences.

Through its influence on affective experience, emotional intelligence may have an indirect impact on workplace outcomes. The antecedents of negative affect have important implications for the workplace (George, 1989). Emotional intelligence may be a psychological resource that enhances workplace functioning in that it is associated with less negative affect, and less negative affect may in turn be associated with workplace outcomes. Similarly, emotional intelligence has been found to be associated with higher levels of positive affect (Schutte et al., 2002) and more positive affect may in turn be associated with workplace outcomes (Fisher, 2002).

9.1.3 *Negative emotions and incivility in the workplace*

The relationship between affect and workplace factors may be bi-directional. Basch and Fisher (2000) explored which types of events were linked to specific emotions and found that negative emotions were associated with being the target of two types of events, negative Acts of Colleagues and negative Acts of Management. The behaviours associated with these event categories were described as backstabbing, refusing to carry one's share of the load, not co-operating, frequently causing frustration, disappointment, annoyance anger, unhappiness, sadness, disgust and hurt.

Other research found that those who had experienced low, moderate, and high frequencies of uncivil behaviour could be distinguished on the basis of workplace and emotional outcomes (Schneider et al., 1997). For example 41% of those who had been the target of such behaviour were found to be clinically depressed, and 30% of females and 21% the males suffered from post-traumatic stress disorder (Namie & Namie, 2003). Even if a person is not a direct target, the hostile emotions directed

towards another employee can have a negative affect on employees' well being (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004).

Negative emotions can increase interpersonal conflict such as uncivil behaviour (Basch & Fisher, 2000). Abraham (2000a) argued that individuals who are predisposed to view life through a negative cognitive and emotional lens are likely to view themselves as victims of inequity even in situations that do not merit such judgements. Cynical beliefs and negative emotions may be both overtly and covertly expressed through harsh criticism of the organization. With such beliefs, it is unlikely that cynics will engage in pro-social behaviour to further the well-being of the organization (Abraham, 2000a), in contrast, they may engage in uncivil behaviour.

Perpetrating incivility in the workplace can be viewed as an antisocial behaviour that is used as a means of control (Namie, 2003). Those individuals who have been targets of workplace incivility may experience negative affect and try to regain a sense of control by themselves becoming perpetrators of workplace incivility. Further, those who are perpetrators of uncivil behaviour may be retaliated against and themselves become targets of incivility.

9.1.4 *Emotional intelligence, emotions, incivility and job satisfaction*

Emotional intelligence has been found to predict variance in job satisfaction (e.g. Abraham, 2000b; Sinha & Jain, 2004). Further, emotions such as negative affect have important implications for the workplace (George, 1989). Negative affect may impact upon an employee's level of job satisfaction (Levin & Stokes, 1989; Weiss, 2002). Most jobs have both positive and negative aspects and individuals who have strong negative emotions may be focusing more closely on the unfavourable features of the job (Kraiger, Billings, & Isen, 1989). Being the victim of workplace incivility

may be a source of negative affect. As argued in previous chapters, being the target of workplace incivility may be associated with lower job satisfaction.

Emotional Intelligence, Affect, Workplace Incivility and Job Satisfaction

9.2 *A Mediation Model*

The model shown in Figure 9.1 shows possible relationships between facets of emotional intelligence, affect, workplace incivility and job satisfaction. It is proposed that ESEQ predicts EI as an important precursor to using the skills of emotional intelligence. ESEQ acknowledges the importance of a person having the confidence and belief in his or her self to organize and execute a course of action to produce a given attainment (Bandura, 1977). The given attainment being to correctly perceive, understand and regulate emotions in the self and others as well as use emotions to facilitate thoughts. Without the confidence and belief to execute this process, the skills of emotional intelligence may not be undertaken. For example, being able to label somatic sensations; to access memories of personal emotional experiences; to be able to express anger assertively; and to avoid personal threats (Mathews & Zeidner, (2000).

Higher self-efficacy for the functions comprising emotional intelligence is likely to lead to greater dispositional (typical) emotional intelligence. Higher dispositional emotional intelligence may be associated with less negative affect and more positive affect.

There may be a feedback loop between affect and workplace incivility. Individuals who experience less negative affect and more positive affect may be less likely to show uncivil workplace behaviours. Further, those who show fewer uncivil behaviours may themselves be less likely to become targets of incivility. Individuals

who do become targets of incivility may experience more negative affect and less positive affect. Finally, being the victim of workplace incivility may have a pronounced impact on job satisfaction.

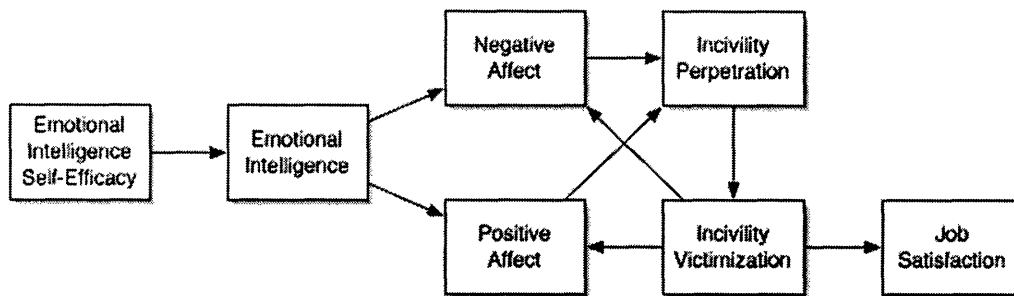


Figure 9.1. Proposed path model linking emotional intelligence, affect, and workplace outcomes

Method

9.3.1 Participants

The sample for this study consisted of the same 207 individuals who participated in the ESEQ validation study described in the previous chapter (please refer to Chapter 8 for additional details).

9.3.2 Measures

Emotional self-efficacy was assessed using the ESEQ, the development of which is described in Chapter 8. Dispositional emotional intelligence was assessed using Schutte et al.'s (1998) Assessing Emotions Scale (AES), described in Chapter 8.

Respondents' mood state at the time of testing was assessed using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The PANAS consists of two scales that assess positive and negative affect respectively, and is described in Chapter 8.

Two aspects of workplace incivility were assessed in the study: victimization and perpetration. Workplace incivility victimization was assessed using the Uncivil Workplace Behaviour Questionnaire (UWBQ; Martin & Hine, 2005). The UWBQ assesses how often respondents were the target of four types of uncivil behaviour: hostility, exclusionary behaviour, gossiping, and privacy invasion during the past 12 months (1 = never, 5 = very often). A total incivility victimization score was computed by averaging responses across the 17 items that comprise the measure. Cronbach's α for the overall UWBQ was .92 in the development sample and .94 for the current study.

Martin and Hine (2005) report that the UWBQ exhibited good convergent validity by explaining unique variance in co-worker satisfaction, job withdrawal, work withdrawal, health satisfaction, psychological well-being and psychological distress after statistically controlling for demographics and job stress. Additionally, the UWBQ exhibited divergent validity shown by it not being significantly related to extrinsic workplace motivation.

A modified version of the UWBQ (the UWBQ-P) was used to assess workplace incivility perpetration. The item content for the new measure was identical to the original UWBQ, with the exception that respondents were asked to indicate how often, in the past 12 months, they had engaged in each uncivil behaviour listed in the measure (1 = never, 5 = very often). Like the UWBQ, the UWBQ-P exhibited excellent internal consistency ($\alpha = .96$).

Job satisfaction was assessed using the 25 item Abridged Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) developed by the JDI Research Group (JDI: 1980, Bowling Green State University, BGSU). A contractual agreement for

the non-commercial use of the BGSU test measures, with conditions, was signed (Appendix D). The five facets examined were satisfaction with work (5 items), pay (5 items), promotions (5 items), supervision (5 items) and co-workers (5 items). Cronbach α coefficients for this facet have exceeded .80 (Parks, Russell, Wood, Robertson, & Shewokis, 1995). Cronbach's α for job satisfaction for the current study was .74.

The percentage of missing data ranged from 0 to 3.05 ($M = 1\%$) across variables and 0 to 22% ($M = .7\%$) across participants. All missing data were replaced by values imputed by the expectation maximization algorithm in SPSS Version 14 (SPSS Inc., 2005). This is an iterative procedure involving two steps, which are repeated until the results converge. In the first step, conditional values for missing data are computed based on the means and covariances in the observed data. These expectations are then substituted for the missing data, and subjected to a maximum likelihood analysis to provide new estimates of the means and covariances, which, in turn, are used in the estimation of a new set of conditional values for the missing data (Allison, 2002).

Results

Path analysis, using AMOS 6.0 (Arbuckle, 2005), was used to test the theoretical model proposed in Figure 9.1. According the model, low emotional self-efficacy will be associated with reduced levels of dispositional emotional intelligence. In turn, individuals who are deficient in emotional intelligence should report higher levels of negative affect and lower levels of positive affect. The model further predicts that high levels of negative affect and low levels of positive affect should increase individuals' propensity to engage in uncivil behaviour in the workplace,

which in turn, should increase their likelihood of becoming victims of incivility.

Being a victim of incivility is predicted to have two distinct outcomes. First, it may initiate a feedback loop in which victim status increases negative affect and decreases positive affect, which in turn increases the likelihood of workplace incivility perpetration, and subsequently victimization. Second, incivility victimization may also lead to reduced job satisfaction. Means, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables in the path analysis are presented Table 9.1.

Multiple indices (Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988; Kline, 1998) were used to evaluate the goodness of fit to the model. These included the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1984), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI; Tucker & Lewis, 1973), Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996) and Normed Chi-Square (χ^2/df). These indices were selected following the recommendations of Kline (1998), and cover the main facets of fit associated with structural equation models. The values of the GFI, CFI, and TLI generally range from 0 to 1, with values above .90 indicating good fit. For the SRMR, a value of 0 represents perfect fit, and values under .10 are generally interpreted as favourable (Kline, 1998).

Table 9.1.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Variables in Path Analysis

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Self-Efficacy (ESEQ)		.73**	.40**	-.35**	-.11	-.31**	.06
2. Emotional Intelligence (AES)			.28**	-.66**	-.30**	-.59**	.21**
3. Positive Affect (PANAS)				-.01	-.02	.00	.01
4. Negative Affect (PANAS)					.54**	.77**	-.22**
5. Incivility Victimization (UWBQ)						.62**	-.33**
6. Incivility Perpetration (UWBQ-P)							-.24**
7. Job Satisfaction (JDI)							
<i>M</i>	108.43	119.61	29.40	18.45	36.68	32.76	46.84
<i>SD</i>	19.51	18.83	6.30	8.23	12.12	12.58	11.48

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Although most of the specified paths in the initial model were statistically significant, two of the five fit indices indicated the fit of the model not acceptable (i.e., χ^2/df was greater than 3, and TLI was lower than .90). In addition, examination of the path coefficients revealed non-significant paths from positive affect to incivility perpetration, and also from incivility victimization to negative affect. Finally, modification indices indicated that model fit could be improved by adding a direct path from emotional intelligence to incivility perpetration, and also by correlating the errors between positive and negative affect. Therefore, a second path analysis was run on a revised model in which non-significant paths for the initial model were deleted, and the new path and correlated errors recommended by the modification indices were added.

Table 9.2

Summary of Fit Indices for Initial and Revised Path Models

	Normed Chi- Square	Goodness of Fit Index	Comparative Fit Index	Tucker- Lewis Index	Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual
Initial Model	4.88	.93	.93	.87	.07
Revised Model	2.99	.95	.96	.93	.06

The revisions improved the fit of the model. The GFI, CFI, and TLI were all well above .90, χ^2/df was less than 3, and the SRMR was below .10; all suggesting acceptable fit. A summary of the fit indices for the initial and revised models is presented in Table 9.2. The revised path model, along with standardized path coefficients and squared multiple correlations for all endogenous variables is presented in Figure 9.2. The decomposed effects for the revised path model are presented Table 9.3.

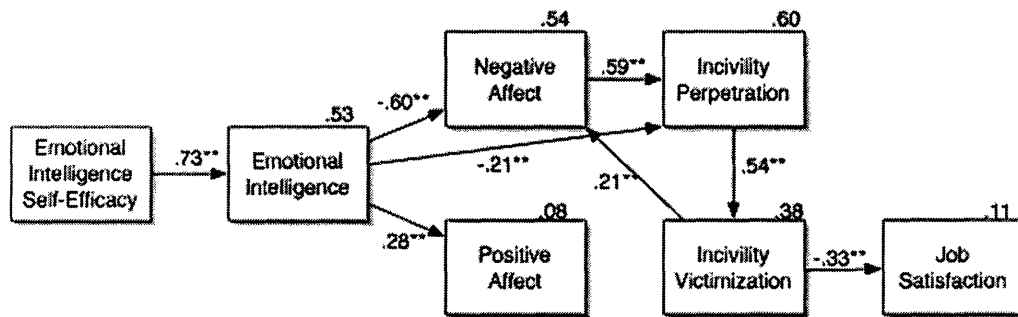


Figure 9.2. Revised path model describing the relationships between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, affect, workplace incivility, and job satisfaction. The numbers associated with the one-headed arrows in the model are standardized path coefficients. Squared multiple correlations are reported in the top right hand corner for each endogenous variable. The correlated errors for negative and positive affect are not shown in the figure ($r = .24$). Given that: (1) two of the endogenous variables, negative affect and perpetrator of incivility were positively skewed, and (2) the use of non-normal variables in path analysis can produce biased standard errors and significance tests, all significance tests for the model were computed using bias-corrected standard errors based on 1000 bootstrapped samples (see Byrne, 2001).

Table 9.3
Standardized Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects for Revised Path Model

	Endogenous Variables					
	Emotional Intelligence	Negative Affect	Positive Affect	Incivility Perpetration	Incivility Victimization	Job Satisfaction
Causal Variables						
Self Efficacy						
Direct	.73**					
Total indirect		-.48**	.20**	-.43**	-.24**	.08**
Total	.73**	-.48**	.20**	-.43**	-.24**	.08**
Emotional Intelligence						
Direct		-.60**	.28**	-.21**		
Total indirect		-.07**		-.39**	-.32**	.11**
Total		-.67**	.28**	-.60**	-.32**	.11**
Negative Affect						
Direct				.59**		
Total indirect		.07**		.04**	.34**	-.11**
Total		.07**		.63**	.34**	-.11**
Incivility Perpetration						
Direct					.54**	
Total indirect		.12**		.07**	.04**	-.19**
Total		.12**		.07**	.58**	-.19**
Incivility Victimization						
Direct		.21**				-.33**
Indirect		.01**		.13**	.07**	-.02**
Total		.22**		.13**	.07**	-.35**

** $p < .01$. All effects were tested using bias corrected standard errors derived from 1000 bootstrapped samples. Empty cells indicate that the effect in question was constrained to equal zero in the revised model.

9.5 Preliminary Discussion

Overall, the results of the path analysis were consistent with the hypotheses, although the initial model required several minor modifications to adequately fit the data. As predicted, emotional self-efficacy significantly predicted dispositional emotional intelligence, which in turn was a significant predictor of respondents' negative and positive affect. Also as predicted: (1) individuals with higher levels of negative affect were more likely to be perpetrators of workplace incivility than individuals with lower levels of negative affect, (2) individuals who engaged in higher levels of incivility perpetration were more likely to be victims of incivility than individuals who never or rarely engaged in uncivil behaviour, and (3) being a victim of incivility was associated with higher levels of negative affect and lower levels of job satisfaction. Counter to the original predictions, positive affect was unrelated to either incivility perpetration or victimization.

CHAPTER 10

INCREASING EMOTIONAL SELF-EFFICACY, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND WORKPLACE OUTCOMES

10.1 *Rationale*

As in the study described in Chapter 9 emotional self-efficacy was found to be a predictor of workplace incivility, modifying emotional self-efficacy may be a promising approach for influencing workplace outcomes relating to incivility. Modification of efficacy beliefs is directed by self-efficacy theory. Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997) describes four main sources that influence efficacy beliefs about a realm of behaviour. As previously stated the four sources of self-efficacy are enactive mastery, vicarious experience, verbal encouragement and physiological and affective arousal.

10.1.1 *Enactive mastery*

Enactive mastery experiences provide evidence of whether a person can actually achieve positive outcomes. Through mastery, a person builds a sound belief in his or her own personal efficacy, then acts on this belief through appraising the achieved performance (Bandura, 1997). In some circumstances, failure may undermine self-efficacy. Unsuccessful outcomes have been found to result in lower self-efficacy (Gernigon, et al., 2000). Enactive mastery focuses not just on existing behaviour, it involves being able to acquire the cognitive, behavioural and self-regulatory tools for creating and carrying out courses of action that enable the managing of continued changing circumstances (Bandura, 1986).

10.1.2 *Vicarious experience*

Vicarious experience which involves observing people mastering a task can increase one's own beliefs that one can do likewise and is a further means through which people can increase their efficacy appraisals (Bandura, 1997). Vicarious and imaged images can teach new skills and enhance the confidence or self-efficacy to undertake these skills.

10.1.3 *Verbal encouragement*

Verbal persuasion from others consists of expressed beliefs regarding a person's ability to accomplish a behaviour successfully. People who are verbally persuaded that they have the ability to master a task are more likely to maintain the effort required to do so than those who are not encouraged (Bandura, 1997). Bandura argues that verbal persuasion can bolster people's beliefs that they do have the capability to achieve their goals (Maddux, 2002).

10.1.4 *Physiological and affective arousal*

Physiological states such as stress and arousal, and mood states such as anxiety also provide information about efficacy beliefs. Changing a person's physiological and affective states can increase his or her beliefs in the ability to master tasks (Bandura, 1997). Individuals often gauge their confidence by the emotional state they experience as they contemplate an action (Bandura, 1984).

10.2 *Writing Paradigm*

Numerous studies have shown that writing about traumatic events for 3-5 days consecutively for 15-20 minutes per day has been shown to produce successful outcomes (Pennebaker, 2002). Writing is a process that may help individuals to

understand their experiences, to integrate thoughts and feelings, and to gain a sense of predictability and control, all of which allow the emotional effects of an experience to become more manageable (Pennebaker & Seagal, 1999).

10.2.1 *Theoretical considerations*

A number of models and therapeutic practices have been developed to explain the operational processes of the writing paradigm. The experiential model of disclosure suggests that cognitive restructuring of an existing schema leads to greater clarity, shifting perspective and decreasing distress (Greenberg & Safran, 1987; Safran & Greenberg, 1991). Alternatively, success of the writing paradigm may be due to the person focussing on the present, investing time in the self, or through permission to delve into past events (Pennebaker, 2002). Additionally writing may result in acceptance of emotional reactions (Lepore, Greenberg, Bruno, & Smyth, 2002) and changes social interactions (Pennebaker, 2002).

Writing about stressful events is considered a self-regulative process during which the writer gradually builds a more effective self through self-reflection (Daiute, & Buteau, 2002), a process that develops through on going self-knowledge and emotional awareness (King, 2002) that can assist emotional regulation. Emotion regulation can be thought of as being on a continuum, that is, either under-regulated, optimally regulated or over-regulated (Lepore, Greenberg, Bruno, & Smyth, 2002).

It has been suggested that the writing paradigm operates on health variables through emotion regulation to effect more constructive means of coping, which lessens autonomic arousal, to ultimately have effect such as reducing blood pressure (Davidson, et al., 2002).

Even though originally the writing paradigm focused on traumatic events, recent theory and research suggests that writing about positive or significant non-traumatic events can also have beneficial effects (e.g., Burton & King, 2004; King, 2001). It may be that the reflection and cognitive restructuring promoted by writing has the potential to be useful in facilitating various positive changes.

10.3 *Research Findings*

Numerous writing disclosure studies demonstrate that writing about emotional events can improve physical and psychological health. For example studies showed significantly improved psychological well-being in undergraduates from an Australian university (Pantchenko & Lawson, 2003), better health outcomes for breast cancer patients (Stanton, 2000), reduced health appointments (Greenberg, Wortman, & Stone, 1996), improvements in objective measures of disease (Goode, 1999), self-reported well-being (Pennebaker, & Beall, 1986), effects on physical well-being as well as subtle change in immune functioning (Blanchard, 2003), immune response (Petrie, Booth, & Pennebaker, et al, 1995), and significantly lower Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) antibody (Esterling, Antoni, & Fletcher et al., 1994). Some of these effects have been replicated across cultures and age groups (Lepore & Smyth, 2002).

Several studies (e.g., Burton & King, 2004; King, 2001) have found that writing about positive aspects of life can also have beneficial effects. For example, Burton and King (2004) examined the effects of writing about intensely positive experiences and found that this resulted in both enhanced positive mood and reduced health center visits for illness.

10.3.1 *Analysis of language*

Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA), a statistical theory and method for extracting and representing the contextual meaning of words, revealed that flexibility in common word usage, especially personal pronouns was related to positive health outcomes (Campbell & Pennebaker, 2003). The Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC; Pennebaker and Francis (1996), developed to examine the exact features of the writing paradigm, found the greatest success occurred for people who used a high number of positive words, and a moderate number of negative words and who gradually increased their use of cognitive words throughout the 3 day writing period (Pennebaker, Mehl, & Niederhoffs, 2003).

A further means of analysing language use is to explore the natural use of language used by an individual and to observe any linguistic style changes as a result of traumatic events (Pennebaker & Lay, 2002). When Pennebaker and Lay (2002) made such an examination of Mayer Rudolph Giuliani's linguistic style, used in 35 press conferences between his election in 1993 until late 2001, significant changes were observed to coincide with a number of personal crisis and the terrorist attack on the World Trade Centre on September, 11, 2001. These changes included the ways he identified with others (became more personal), how he expressed emotion (more emotionally expressive) and exhibited cognitive complexity (Pennebaker & Lay, 2002). His personal crises were associated with his use of pronouns suggestive of social isolation and self focus (Rude, Gortner, & Pennebaker, 2004) whereas the terrorist attack was associated with social connections with others. Both of these events were associated with greater complexity of thinking, yet greater simplicity of language (Pennebaker & Lay, 2002).

10.3.2 *Disclosure, cognitive regulation and negative emotions*

When emotional experiences are confronted, the short-term cost may be an increase in negative affect, whereas the long term benefits are improvements in health and emotional functioning (Pennebaker, Hughes, & O’Heeron, 1987).

Suppressing emotional thoughts that arouse negative emotions is often used as a means of regulating moods and decreasing distress; however studies have revealed that this strategy creates ongoing negative psychological and physiological effects (Petrie, Booth, & Pennebaker, 1998). Petrie et al. (1998) argue this may occur because the cognitive monitoring process heightens the impact of any emotion attached to the thought, which could be interpreted as a stressful event, which in turn affects the number of circulating lymphocytes. When this notion was examined empirically, the authors found that in an emotional expressive writing group, an increase in circulating T lymphocyte (helper) cells were found and in the thought suppression group there was a significant decrease in general T lymphocyte levels.

10.3.3 *Stress and writing paradigm*

When stress reactions and emotions were disclosed during a three day writing intervention, it was found that distress levels significantly decreased and job satisfaction significantly increased (Alford, Malouff, & Osland, 2005). The authors suggested that giving employees the opportunity to express their emotions in writing may be helpful in reducing distress as well as increasing job satisfaction.

10.3.4 *Writing paradigm and self-efficacy*

Social cognitive (Bandura, 1986, 1997) and population change (McAlister, 1991) theorists agree that to be maximally effective, interventions to change

behaviour have to create positive outcome expectations as well as increase an individual's sense of self-efficacy (Galavotti, et al., 2001).

10.4 *Aims of the Present Study*

The present study combined aspects of the writing paradigm with self-efficacy theory in an attempt to increase participants' emotional self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, workplace civility, and job satisfaction. In a new application of the writing paradigm, participants were asked to over the course of 3 days write about workplace events having to do with possible sources of emotional self-efficacy. This focus on sources of emotional self-efficacy was expected to lead to an increase in emotional self-efficacy. Additionally, as in the study described in Chapter 9 it was found that emotional self-efficacy was associated with more dispositional emotional intelligence, more positive affect and less likelihood of being the perpetrator of workplace incivility, it was expected that these variables might also change as a result of the intervention. Even though in the study described in Chapter 9 emotional self-efficacy was not significantly related to likelihood of being a victim of workplace incivility or job satisfaction, as typical emotional intelligence was related to these variables, it was expected that these variables had the potential to also change as a result of the intervention.

The specific hypotheses were that an emotional self-efficacy based writing intervention would:

- 1) increase emotional self efficacy,
- 2) increase typical emotional intelligence.
- 3) increase positive affect
- 4) decrease negative affect

- 5) decrease the likelihood of being a perpetrator of workplace incivility
- 6) decrease the likelihood of being a victim of workplace incivility
- 7) increase job satisfaction

10.5 *Writing Intervention*

Method

10.6.1 *Participants*

Participants were 46 adults (13 males and 33 females) who were employed full- or part-time in New South Wales and Queensland. They ranged in age from 19 to 62 years ($M = 35.11$, $SD = 11.57$), and the majority (82.6%) were Australian citizens. In terms of education, 6.5% had a school certificate, 19.6% possessed higher school certificates (HSC) level, 19.6% had a diploma from technical college, 6.5% had a graduate certificate, 19.6% had bachelor degrees, 17.4% had achieved a post graduate level, with 8.7% obtaining a doctorate and 2.1 % not disclosed. Participants had been employed in their current jobs from 2 months to 13 years ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 2.94$). The majority of respondents, 52.2% were employed in non-management positions; management positions included, line managers, 8.7%, mid-management, 6.5%, senior management, 4.3%, supervisors, 19.3%, and professionals, 9%. Thirteen percent of the participants were employed students enrolled in an introductory psychology unit at the University of New England. There were no significant differences between the treatment and control groups on any of the demographic variables (most $ps > .30$).

Fifty three individuals commenced the study; three individuals who had been assigned to the control condition and four individuals who had been assigned to the experimental condition did not complete study. The percentage of missing data ranged from 0 to 1.03% ($M = .15\%$) across variables and 0 to 6.5% ($M = .13\%$) across

participants. All missing data were replaced by values imputed by the expectation maximization algorithm in SPSS Version 14 (SPSS Inc., 2005).

10.6.2 *Procedure and measures*

Most of the respondents (75%) were employed adults recruited through word of mouth. The remaining participants were employed first year university undergraduates recruited through the psychology subject pool of the University of New England. Participants completed the questionnaires via email attachment or manually. Potential respondents were asked to forward an email stating their intention to participate. They were then requested to read a participation information sheet describing the study, and sign a consent form if they wished to continue their participation (see Appendix G). Participants were then assigned to either a treatment or control group on an alternating basis; the first participant was assigned to the treatment group, the second to the control group, the third to the treatment group, etc.

The study proceeded in three stages. In the first stage, all participants completed pre-test measures (Appendix H) of emotional self-efficacy (Emotional Self-Efficacy Questionnaire), emotional intelligence (Assessing Emotions Scale; Schutte et al., 1998), current affective state (Positive and Negative Affect Schedule; PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), workplace incivility victimization (Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire; Martin & Hine, 2005), workplace incivility perpetration (Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire – Perpetrator), and job satisfaction (Job Descriptive Index; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Detailed descriptions of these measures and their psychometric properties can be found in Chapters 8 and 9. The instructions for the emotional intelligence measures were changed to instruct participants to rate items for the present, paralleling the

instructions for the PANAS. The instructions for the workplace incivility and job satisfaction measures instructed participants to rate items for the past two weeks.

The second stage of the study involved a writing intervention designed to increase emotional self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. Over a three-day period, at the end of each work-day, participants in the experimental treatment condition were asked to reflect about events that occurred during the work-day that involved perceiving, using, understanding and regulating their own and/or others' emotions and write in a journal for at least 20 minutes per day, recording their thoughts and feelings about their most recent workday or a significant workday in the past (Please see Appendix I). To make the instructions more concrete, participants were also provided with four examples of possible journal entries dealing with emotion perception and regulation. These examples explicitly explained and reflected the four sources of self-efficacy proposed by Bandura (1997) and related these sources of self-efficacy to emotional functioning. To minimise potential self-presentation biases, participants were told that the content of their journal entries would not be viewed by anyone but themselves, and that they were not expected to provide their journals to the researchers at the end of the study.

Like those in the treatment group, participants in the control group were also instructed to write in journal for 20 minutes per day for three days. Instructions for the two groups were similar with the exception that control participants: (1) were instructed to write on any topic related to their "non-work day", (2) were not prompted to focus on issues related to emotional perception and regulation, and (3) were provided with sample journal entries that described mundane daily activities

such as helping a child with homework and watching television, rather than samples relating to emotional perception or regulation.

Immediately following the three-day writing intervention, participants in both the treatment and control groups were asked to indicate: (1) on how many days (out of three) they wrote in their journals, and (2) on how many days they wrote in their journals, but not for the full 20 minutes. On an 11-point scale (0 = not at all, 10 = a great deal), respondents were also asked: (1) to what extent did they express their deepest thoughts and feelings in their journal entries, (2) to what degree did they perceive the writing experience to be valuable and meaningful, (3) to what degree did they use the writing exercise to reflect on ways to build confidence in their emotional skills, and (4) to what degree did the writing exercise reduce stress. A complete set of instructions and questions used in the journal writing treatment and control conditions are presented in Appendix I.

The third stage of the study, conducted two weeks following the writing exercises, involved completing the post-test self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, current affect, and workplace outcomes measures, previously completed at pre-test (Appendix J).

Results

10.7.1 *Manipulation checks*

Overall, 85% of participants ($n = 38$) indicated that they wrote in the journals for at least 20 minutes per day over a three-day period. Two participants indicated that they wrote in the journal for two days, two wrote for only one day, and three more failed to provide information about the number of days they spent writing. Frequency breakdowns indicated that rates of instruction compliance were very

similar for participants in the treatment and control groups (all $ps > .50$, see Tables 10.1 and 10.2).

Four t-tests were conducted to determine if the control and experimental groups differed with respect to the extent which: (1) they shared their deepest thoughts and feelings in their journal entries, (2) they found the writing exercise to be valuable and meaningful, (3) the writing exercise caused them to reflect on ways to build confidence in their emotional skills, and (4) the writing exercise helped reduce stress. The results from these analyses, presented in Table 10.3, indicate that participants in the control and experimental groups did not significantly differ on any of the four variables. Examination of the group means suggest that, on average, participants in both groups shared their deepest thoughts and feelings in their journal entries to a moderate degree, found the exercises to be somewhat valuable, and to some extent useful in reducing stress. Finally, participants in the treatment group, relative to those in the control group, were more likely to report that the writing exercises helped them increase their confidence in the emotional skills, although this difference just failed to reach statistical significance ($p = .05$).

Table 10.1

Number of Participants Who Complied with Instructions to Write for Three Days

	Wrote for 3 Days	Wrote for 2 Days	Wrote for 1 Day	No Information
Control Group	20	1	1	2
Treatment Group	19	1	1	1

$\chi^2 (3) = .27, p = .96.$

Table 10.2

Number of Days During Which Participants Wrote for Less than 20 Minutes Per Day

	3 Days	2 Days	1 Day	0 Days	No Information
Control Group	0	1	1	20	2
Treatment Group	0	0	2	19	1

$\chi^2 (3) = 1.61, p = .66.$

Table 10.3

Experimental and Control Group Means and Standard Deviations for Manipulation Check Variables

Dependent Variable	Control	Treatment	t (44)
Expressed thoughts and feelings	7.76 (1.61)	8.00 (2.84)	-.34
Exercises perceived to be valuable	7.90 (1.68)	7.45 (1.99)	.83
Built confidence in emotional skills	6.20 (1.15)	6.92 (1.28)	-1.99 ^a
Exercises perceived to reduce stress	6.11 (1.81)	6.87 (1.78)	-1.44

* p = .05. Values in brackets are standard deviations. A Bonferroni correction to control for alpha-inflation was not employed due to the small sample size in this study.

10.7.2 *Effects of writing intervention*

Seven analyses of covariances (ANCOVA) were conducted to determine if the writing intervention was effective in: (1) increasing emotional self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, positive affect and job satisfaction, and (2) decreasing negative affect, workplace incivility victimization and workplace incivility perpetration. For each analysis, pre-tests scores on the dependent variable served as the covariate and experimental condition (control versus treatment) served as the independent variable. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) recommend this type of ANCOVA as the preferred method of analysing results from between group designs with pre and post test scores for the same variables. The results of the covariance analyses are summarised in Table 10.4, and the adjusted group means and standard errors associated with the significance tests are presented in Table 10.5.

The results indicate that, after controlling for pre-test scores, participants in the treatment condition, relative to the control group, scored significantly higher on emotional intelligence and positive affect, and significantly lower on workplace incivility perpetration. There were no significant treatment effects for negative affect and job satisfaction.

Preliminary analyses revealed the homogeneity of regression slopes assumption was not met for analyses involving emotional self-efficacy and workplace incivility victimization. This indicates that the magnitude of the treatment effect varied as a function of participants' pre-test scores on emotional self-efficacy and incivility victimization. Following the recommendation of Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), treatment effects were examined separately at three levels of the pre-test covariates (the 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles) using the *lmatrix* subcommand in SPSS

14's GLM module. The analyses for emotional self-efficacy revealed significant treatment effects for participants with low [$F(1,42) = 14.98, p < .001$] and moderate scores on the emotional self-efficacy pre-test [$F(1,42) = 7.24, p = .01$] on emotional self-efficacy at pre-test, but not for participants who scored high on the pre-test [$F(1,42) = .08, p = .78$]. Thus, the writing intervention increased emotional self-efficacy, but only for participants who were low or moderate on self-efficacy when they began the study.

A similar set of analyses for workplace incivility victimization indicated that the writing intervention reduced incivility victimization for participants who initially scored low [$F(1,42) = 7.46, p < .01$] or moderate on the incivility victimization pre-test [$F(1,42) = 4.86, p < .05$], but not for participants with high scores on the pre-test [$F(1,42) = .17, p = .69$].

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Table 10.4

Summary of ANCOVAs Investigating the Effects of the Writing Intervention on Post-Test Emotion and Workplace Variables after Controlling for Pre-Test Scores

	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	partial η^2
DV = Emotional Self-Efficacy ^a			
Pre-test	1	13.42**	.24
Treatment	1	4.40*	.10
Pre-test x Treatment	1	11.09**	.21
Error	42		
DV = Emotional Intelligence			
Pre-test	1	9.78**	.19
Treatment	1	19.40**	.31
Error	43		
DV = Positive Affect			
Pre-test	1	14.42**	.25
Treatment	1	6.05*	.12
Error	43		
DV = Negative Affect			
Pre-test	1	.51	.01
Treatment	1	1.19	.03
Error	43		
DV = Incivility Target ^a			
Pre-test	1	5.87*	.12
Treatment	1	1.66	.04
Pre-test by Treatment	1	4.39*	.10
Error	42		
DV = Incivility Perpetrator			
Pre-test	1	21.59**	.33
Treatment	1	5.94*	.12
Error	43		
DV = Job Satisfaction			
Pre-test	1	.04	.00
Treatment	1	.16	.00
Error	43		

^a Preliminary analyses indicated that these variables violated the homogeneity of regression slopes assumption. Following the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), the interactions between treatment and the pre-test covariate were interpreted. These interactions indicate that the experimental treatment had different effects on the dependent variables depending on participants' scores on the pre-tests. The two workplace incivility variables were positively skewed however re-analyses with log-transformed variables produced essentially the same results.

Table 10.5

Adjusted Means and Standard Errors for Control and Experimental Groups

On the Post-Test Measures

Measure	Control Group (<i>n</i> = 24)		Experimental Group (<i>n</i> = 22)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>
Emotional Self-Efficacy ^a				
25 th percentile pre-test	73.70	2.38	86.14	3.65
50 th percentile pre-test	81.87	1.68	90.00	2.02
75 th percentile pre-test	89.11	3.77	83.62	3.34
Emotional Intelligence	111.92	1.79	123.33	1.87
Positive Affect	22.16	1.34	26.96	1.40
Negative Affect	15.19	1.14	17.11	1.20
Incivility Victimization ^a				
25 th percentile pre-test	26.53	1.75	20.79	1.17
50 th percentile pre-test	26.09	1.15	22.65	1.06
75 th percentile pre-test	25.57	1.11	24.84	1.40
Incivility Perpetration	23.34	0.96	19.82	1.00
Job Satisfaction	42.58	2.46	44.01	2.57

^a Given that there were significant interactions between the experimental treatment and participants' pre-test scores for these variables, projected means are reported for the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentile separately. Significance tests comparing the adjusted group means displayed in this table are reported in Table X.4 for the standard covariance analyses, and in the text for the analyses comparing projected means at the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles.

10.8 *Preliminary Discussion*

Participants in the emotional self-efficacy writing intervention condition who were initially low or moderate in emotional self-efficacy showed significantly higher emotional self-efficacy at post-test compared to the control writing group. Those individuals who were already

high in self-efficacy at pre-test were not significantly different at post-test. A speculative interpretation of these results is that individuals already quite high on emotional self-efficacy have less leeway for improvement. Another possibility is that those who are high on emotional self-efficacy already routinely attended to the sources of self-efficacy that were the focus of the intervention, and thus the intervention did not re-direct their attention or provide them with new information.

Individuals in the emotional self-efficacy writing intervention showed significantly higher emotional intelligence at post-test than those in the control writing group. It may be that the increased emotional self-efficacy of those in the intervention condition contributed to this result. The substantial partial η^2 for emotional intelligence indicates that the intervention may have also had some direct effects on emotional intelligence.

Participants in the treatment condition, relative to the control group, also showed significantly more positive affect and scored significantly lower on workplace incivility perpetration. These results for positive affect are consistent with the findings of the study described in Chapter 9, in which greater emotional self-efficacy was found to be associated with more positive affect and less perpetration of workplace incivility. As the present study attempted to use an emotional self-efficacy manipulation to prompt change, the results of the present study provide some evidence for causality of self-efficacy in the relationship between this variable and positive affect and workplace incivility perpetration.

Participants in the emotional self-efficacy writing intervention condition who were initially low or moderate on being the victim of incivility showed significantly lower victimisation at post test compared to the control writing group. Those individuals who were high on victimisation at pre-test were not significantly different. These findings are puzzling as one would expect individuals who had a high rate of victimisation to show the most scope for improvement. A possible explanation is that those with high victimisation rates had a high level of work-place related distress that made them less open to the intervention.

There were no significant intervention effects for negative affect and job satisfaction. As the study described in Chapter 9 found there was a significant association between emotional self-efficacy and negative affect, the lack of an effect of the self-efficacy intervention for negative affect in the present study was somewhat surprising. The finding that there was no significant intervention effect for job satisfaction in the present study is consistent with the lack of association between emotional self-efficacy and job satisfaction found in the study described in Chapter 9.

CHAPTER 11

DISCUSSION

Research on emotional intelligence has shown that this construct is related to a variety of positive outcomes (e.g., Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Prior research also indicates that individuals who have greater self-efficacy for a realm of behaviours have better functioning in this realm (e.g., Benight & Bandura, 2004; Bandura, Caprara et al., 2003). The studies described in this thesis focused on: 1) the development and validation of a measure of emotional self-efficacy, 2) examining the paths between emotional self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, negative and positive affect, and the three workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, workplace incivility perpetration, and workplace incivility victimization), and 3) increasing job satisfaction and decreasing workplace incivility through an intervention designed to increase emotional self-efficacy.

11.1 *Development of Emotional Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (ESEQ)*

Extending prior research in the areas of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy, a measure of emotional self-efficacy was developed and validated. The measure was based on the Mayer and Salovey (1997; Mayer et al., 1999) conceptualisation of emotional intelligence and Bandura's (1986; 1997) approach to assessing self-efficacy. Participants from several regions of Australia completed the emotional self-efficacy questionnaire (ESEQ) as well as measures of several constructs related to emotional self-efficacy.

Results of the factor analyses of 32 emotional self-efficacy items made possible several interpretations. A one factor solution was the most parsimonious. A factor analysis showed that all 32 items grouped into a one-component solution, covering all four facets of the Mayer and Salovey (1997; Mayer, et al., 1999) four-factor ability model of emotional intelligence. This solution explained 44 percent of the variance in the item set. The 32-item scale based on this uni-dimensional solution had a Cronbach's α of .96.

A two factor solution, with two interpretable factors representing self-efficacy for one's own emotional functioning and self-efficacy for others' emotional functioning was also viable. This solution, however, did not encompass items from all branches of the model, with no items representing facilitation of thought included in the solution. Furthermore this solution resulted in a high correlation between the two factors.

A limitation of the emotional self-efficacy measure was that it was associated significantly with social desirability responding, although the measures did not share much variance. As Bandura (1997) argued, a person's judgement when organizing and executing a given course of action may, for some individuals, involve a dispositional tendency to overestimate their capabilities. Such an optimistic belief in one's efficacy is considered a necessity, not a flaw because it raises a person's self-appraisals of capability, which in turn raises aspirations to sustain motivation that enable individuals to achieve the most from their talents (Bandura, 1997). Optimistic efficacy appraisals have been shown to be beneficial while "veridical judgments can be self-limiting" (Bandura, 1997, p. 72).

Nevertheless, it may be concluded that the emotional self-efficacy measure is subject to a mild favourable self-presentation bias. Partial correlations were conducted to take into account the influence of social desirability responding. Partial correlation results showed the emotional self-efficacy scale to have the same association with the validation measure when social desirability was controlled.

The measure of emotional self-efficacy showed preliminary evidence of validity. As would be expected of such a measure it correlated strongly with a measure of trait emotional intelligence and significantly, though somewhat less strongly, with a measure of ability emotional intelligence. Further, higher scores on the measure were associated with more positive mood and less negative mood.

Petrides and Furnham (2003) made a distinction between trait emotional intelligence and ability emotional intelligence. Petrides and Furnham (2003) argued that trait emotional

intelligence could also be called 'emotional-self-efficacy'. Trait emotional intelligence may include dispositions as well as self-perceptions related to emotional functioning (Petrides & Furnham, 2003), thus even though self-efficacy may be a component of trait emotional intelligence, it is not identical to trait emotional intelligence. Results from the current research supported this notion. Trait emotional intelligence was strongly related to emotional self-efficacy; however, the constructs were not redundant.

The overall results of this development and validation study suggested that the Emotional Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (ESEQ) may be a viable measure. Assessment of emotional self-efficacy may be useful in studies that aim to better understand the process of adaptive emotional functioning and its impact on life outcomes.

11.2 *Modification of a Measure of Workplace Incivility*

A measure of workplace incivility perpetration was modified from the Uncivil Workplace Behaviour Questionnaire (UWBQ; Martin & Hine, 2005). The aim in modifying the UWBQ was to have available a scale to measure the perpetration of incivility in the workplace. No scale had previously been developed to assess the behaviour of the perpetrator of incivility in the workplace. The item content for the new measure, the UWBQ-Perpetrator, was identical to the UWBQ with the exception that respondents were asked to indicate how often in the past 12 months they had engaged in each of the uncivil behaviours. The internal consistency of the new scale was .96.

Workplace incivility has two facets, perpetration and victimisation. Having available a reliable measure of workplace incivility perpetration may advance research in the areas of workplace citizenship and workplace incivility.

11.3 *Examining the Paths between Emotional Self-Efficacy, Emotional Intelligence, Negative and Positive Affect, and Workplace Outcomes*

Changing workplace conditions have necessitated a re-examination of the impact that everyday emotions and emotional intelligence have in the workplace (Ashforth & Humphrey,

1995; Ashkanasy, 2000). Path analysis, using AMOS 6.0 (Arbuckle, 2005), was used to test a model positing links between emotional self-efficacy, dispositional emotional intelligence, affect, workplace incivility and job satisfaction.

As predicted, emotional self-efficacy significantly predicted dispositional emotional intelligence, which in turn was a significant predictor of respondents' negative and positive affect. The relationship between low emotional intelligence and high negative affect was especially strong. Also as predicted, individuals with higher levels of negative affect were more likely to be perpetrators of workplace incivility than individuals with lower levels of negative affect, individuals who engaged in higher levels of incivility perpetration were more likely to be victims of incivility than individuals who never or rarely engaged in uncivil behaviour, and being a victim of incivility was associated with higher levels of negative affect and lower levels of job satisfaction.

11.3.1 *Incivility in the workplace*

Being a victim of incivility and being a perpetrator of incivility were both associated with higher levels of negative affect. Negative affect includes emotional states such as fear and anger (Watson, 2002; Watson & Clark, 1984; Watson et al., 1988). Anger, whether passive or aggressive, verbal or non-verbal may be an emotion that is the precipitator of the feedback loop in which a victim status increases negative affect which increases the likelihood of workplace incivility perpetration, and subsequently more victimization. A core reaction of anger is to externalize blame (Thompson, 1985), and perhaps both the victim of incivility and the perpetrator of incivility blame others for their own negative affect. Vaillant (1977) argued that blaming others reflects the use of defensive projection, found to be associated with poor emotional adaptation. The notion of reciprocation between victim and perpetrator is supported by negative social exchange theory (Glomb & Liao, 2003) that suggests that an employee may reciprocate unfair or adverse treatment received in the workplace by engaging in an aggressive manner towards co-workers.

11.3.2 *Job satisfaction*

The present research found that both victims of uncivil workplace behaviour and perpetrators of uncivil workplace behaviour had lower job satisfaction. Low job satisfaction was especially linked to being the victim of uncivil workplace behaviour. The results, together with the findings that being a target and a perpetrator of incivility are strongly linked, and that both are associated with negative affect, support the possibility of a general work disaffection syndrome. It may be that there are reciprocal links between the components of such a disaffection syndrome, suggesting that intervening at the level of one component may have consequences for several of the other components of the syndrome.

11.3.3 *Positive affect*

Counter to the original predictions, positive affect was unrelated to either incivility perpetration or victimization. This supports the general findings that positive and negative affect are two dominant and independent mood dimensions (e.g. Watson, et al., 1988; Diener & Emmons, 1984; Watson & Tellegen, 1985), with different antecedents and consequences (Basch & Fisher, 2000) and distinctive features and correlates (Watson, 2002).

11.4 *An Intervention Designed to Influence Emotional Functioning and Impact Workplace Outcomes*

In the mediational path analysis study emotional self-efficacy was a conceptual antecedent variable to other aspects of emotional functioning and to workplace outcomes. Modifying emotional self-efficacy may be a promising approach for influencing emotional functioning and workplace outcomes. To test this proposition, an intervention study combined aspects of the writing paradigm with self-efficacy theory. In this new application of the writing paradigm, participants were asked to over the course of 3 days write about workplace events that were linked to the possible sources of emotional self-efficacy. It was hoped that the intervention might bring about changes in participants' emotional functioning, workplace civility and job satisfaction.

Participants in the emotional self-efficacy writing intervention condition who were initially low or moderate in emotional self-efficacy showed significantly higher emotional self-efficacy at post test compared to the control writing group. Those individuals who were already high in self-efficacy at pre-test were not significantly different. A speculative interpretation of these results is that individuals already quite high on emotional self-efficacy have less leeway for improvement. Another possibility is that those who are high on emotional self-efficacy already routinely attended to the sources of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) that were the focus of the intervention, and thus the intervention did not direct their attention in new directions or provide them with new information.

11.4.1 *Emotional self-efficacy and emotional intelligence*

Individuals in the emotional self-efficacy writing intervention showed significantly higher emotional intelligence at post test than those in the control writing group. It may be that the increased emotional self-efficacy of those in the intervention condition contributed to this result. The substantial partial η^2 for emotional intelligence indicated that the intervention may have also had some direct effects on emotional intelligence.

Thus the increase in emotional intelligence might be due to the participants reflecting on emotion-related events in which they were able to show mastery of perception and regulation of emotions in the self and others. For example, their focus was directed towards how others in the organization modelled mastery of perception and regulation of emotion, as well as instances of verbal encouragement for perception and regulation of emotion, together with how physiological states can be re-interpreted to better perceive and regulate emotions. Additionally, by encouraging reflection on emotion-related behaviour at work, the intervention might have influenced participants understanding of and intentions regarding their own behaviour somewhat independently of self-efficacy processes.

11.4.2 *Emotional self-efficacy, positive affect and lower workplace incivility perpetration*

Participants in the treatment condition, relative to the control group, also showed significantly more positive affect and scored significantly lower on workplace incivility perpetration. These results for positive affect are consistent with the findings of the mediational path analysis study, in which greater emotional self-efficacy was found to be associated with more positive affect and less perpetration of workplace incivility. As the intervention study attempted to use an emotional self-efficacy manipulation to prompt change, the results of the study provide some preliminary evidence for causality of emotional self-efficacy in the relationship between this variable and positive affect and workplace incivility perpetration.

Participants in the emotional self-efficacy writing intervention condition who were initially low or moderate on being the victim of incivility showed significantly lower victimisation at post test compared to the control writing group. Those individuals who were high on victimisation at pre-test were not significantly different. Perhaps those with high victimisation rates had a high level of work-place related distress that made them less open to the intervention. Another possibility is that a short intervention, such as the one used, may not be sufficient for individuals with high victimisation rates to take steps to reduce the likelihood of being the victim of incivility.

11.4.3 *Negative affect*

There were no significant intervention effects for negative affect. Other writing studies have found when emotional experiences are confronted the short-term cost may be that there is no decrease in negative affect even though there are the long term benefits of improvements in health and emotional functioning (Pennebaker et al., 1987). The manipulation check for the intervention study showed that, on average, participants shared their deepest thoughts and feelings in their journal entries, which supports the notion that participants did confront emotional experiences. Perhaps a future study, similar in format to the present intervention study, but with a longer term follow-up, could examine longer term effects on negative affect.

11.4.4 *Job satisfaction*

The finding that there was no significant intervention effect for job satisfaction in the present study is consistent with the lack of association between emotional self-efficacy and job satisfaction found in mediational path analysis study. As the results of the mediational path analysis study as well as previous research (e.g. Abraham, 2000b) suggested that emotional intelligence is linked to job satisfaction, perhaps future research aiming to increase job satisfaction by targeting emotional functioning might focus more directly on emotional intelligence itself.

11.5 *Future Research*

Building on the findings of the present studies, future research could examine the role of emotional self-efficacy in alternate workplace outcomes, such as leadership and productivity. Possibly emotional self-efficacy also influences functioning in other realms that are not specific to the workplace. Such realms might include social functioning and maladaptive or adaptive personal behaviour. Future research might examine the relationship between emotional self-efficacy and marital satisfaction, parenting, substance use and adherence to medical regimes. Such research might use mediational path analysis designs similar to the one used in the present study or could include longitudinal data collection.

Other research could explore further the utility of emotional self-efficacy targeted interventions. For example, future research might examine the longer-term effects of an emotional self-efficacy intervention on the workplace outcomes targeted in the present research or could test the impact of an emotional self-efficacy intervention on other workplace outcomes. Future research might also examine the effect of emotional self-efficacy interventions on realms of functioning outside the workplace.

11.6 *Conclusions*

The development and validation results of the Emotional Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (ESEQ) suggested that this may be a viable measure. Assessment of emotional self-efficacy may

be useful in studies that aim to better understand the process of adaptive emotional functioning in the workplace and life in general. The ESEQ adds possible dimensions to the exploration of the role of self-efficacy in emotional functioning. Self-efficacy to regulate negative affect has previously been found to be accompanied by a high level of self-efficacy to resist social pressures for antisocial behaviour, and to engage empathetically in other person's emotional experience (Bandura, et al., 2003). Bandura, et al. found that perceived empathic self-efficacy functioned as a generalized contributor to psychosocial functioning.

In a mediational path analysis, emotional self-efficacy significantly predicted dispositional emotional intelligence, which in turn was a significant predictor of individuals' negative and positive affect. Individuals with higher levels of negative affect were more likely to be perpetrators of workplace incivility than individuals with lower levels of negative affect. Individuals who engaged in higher levels of incivility perpetration were more likely to be victims of incivility than individuals who never or rarely engaged in uncivil behaviour. Being a victim of incivility was associated with higher levels of negative affect and lower levels of job satisfaction. Counter to the original predictions, positive affect was unrelated to either incivility perpetration or victimization.

An experimental study examined the effects of a writing intervention intended to enhance emotional self-efficacy on emotional intelligence and affect and on the workplace outcomes of workplace incivility and work satisfaction. Participants in an emotional self-efficacy writing intervention condition who were initially low or moderate in emotional self-efficacy showed significantly higher emotional self-efficacy at post test compared to the control writing group. Those individuals who were already high in self-efficacy at pre-test were not significantly different. Individuals in the emotional self-efficacy writing intervention condition showed significantly higher typical emotional intelligence at post-test than those in the control writing group. Participants in the intervention condition also showed significantly more positive affect and scored significantly lower on workplace incivility perpetration. Participants in the emotional

self-efficacy writing intervention condition who were initially low or moderate on being the victim of incivility showed significantly lower victimisation at post test compared to the control writing group.

Overall, the results of the present studies suggested that emotional self-efficacy may be a promising construct that facilitates better understanding of workplace functioning. Further, the results of the present studies, in conjunction with results of previous research focusing on emotional intelligence and workplace outcomes, affirm that emotional intelligence plays an important role in workplace functioning.