

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE AND COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS:
THE ROLE OF SITUATIONAL AWARENESS SELF-EFFICACY AND PERSONALITY

by

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Psychology,

College of Liberal Arts and Social Sciences

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in Industrial/Organizational Psychology

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May 2021

ABSTRACT

Workplace discrimination and unequal treatment have become important issues for organizations to navigate, as the public places increasing pressure on organizations to promote diverse and inclusive work environments. One way that organizations may address issues of discrimination is by focusing on their climate. Hostile work climate represents the degree to which employees believe that they or others are targets of mistreatment. To better understand the impact of hostile work climate, I propose a psychological process in which hostile work climate predicts two forms of counterproductive work behavior—withdrawal and withholding of effort—both directly and indirectly through situational awareness self-efficacy. Employing conservation of resources theory, I argued that hostile work climate predicts withdrawal and withholding of effort directly. I also offered the stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behavior and social exchange theory as possible alternative explanations. Furthermore, drawing on social cognitive and conservation of resources theories, I argued that hostile work climate hinders employee situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs, which reduces their self-regulatory resources and evokes withdrawal and withholding of effort. Last, I suggested that emotional stability functions as a coping resource and moderates the proposed direct and indirect relationships. Results suggested that hostile work climate predicts withdrawal and withholding of effort directly and indirectly via situational awareness self-efficacy. Findings also suggested that emotional stability plays a role in these relationships. These findings emphasize the need for leaders to create inclusive workplaces to increase employee self-efficacy and reduce counterproductive behavior. Thus, the purposes of this study were to inform theory by exploring: (1) the direct relationship between hostile work climate and withdrawal and withholding of effort; (2) the indirect effect between hostile work climate and withdrawal and withholding of effort via a novel construct, situational awareness self-efficacy; and (3) the role of emotional stability as a moderator.

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CHAPTER I

There has been an increased focus on diversity and equal treatment of all employees as workplace demographics have changed and will continue to shift in the coming years (Prieto, Norman, Phipps, & Chenault, 2016). For example, in 1990, employees of Hispanic or Latino origin represented a mere 8.5% of the workforce (Toossi, 1990), whereas they represented 18% of the workforce in 2019 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). Moreover, the increased participation of women in the workforce throughout the years resulted in women comprising 47% of today's workforce (U.S. Department of Labor Statistics, 2020). These demographic shifts will continue; future projections suggest that one in five of the U.S. population will be foreign born by 2060, and over half of Americans will belong to a minority group (Colby & Ortman, 2014; Prieto et al., 2016). These trends underscore the need to explore how these shifts are affecting work environments, coworker dynamics, organizational outcomes, and employee perceptions and behaviors. If managed correctly, a diverse and inclusive workplace can serve as a competitive advantage to many organizations. However, when done incorrectly, organizations and its members may face unfavorable outcomes (Riordan, Lankau, & Wayne, 2008).

The issue of diversity in the workplace is particularly relevant today. Considering recent events, news headlines, and the rise of social movements (e.g., #MeToo and Black Lives Matter Movement), diversity, equity, and inclusion emerged as the number two workplace trend in 2020 (Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 2020). Indeed, the public's focus has shifted as employees, customers, and stakeholders pay closer attention to the ways that organizations respond to inequity and promote the equal treatment and representation of historically underrepresented groups. As such, organizations today face high expectations from the public as they address and navigate these issues. One way that organizations have sought to address issues of inequity or discrimination involves a focus on

organizational climate. Norms and expectations embedded in the climate play a role in the presence of workplace discrimination (Larsen, Nye, Ormerod, Ziebro, & Siebert, 2013; O’Leary-Kelly, Bowes-Sperry, Bates, & Lean, 2009). In line with this reasoning and using a sample of military personnel, I aimed to contribute to the diversity literature and inform best practices by testing a psychological process in which hostile work climate predicts employee counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) both directly and indirectly through situational awareness self-efficacy. In addition, I also sought to explore the role of individual differences in emotional stability as a moderator of these relationships.

Organizational climate research originated in the 1930’s (Zhang & Liu, 2010), and it has influenced the way that both researchers and practitioners understand and approach organizations. Organizational climate refers to the employee perceptions regarding norms, policies, procedures, and standards that the organization expects and rewards (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013). Climate is multidimensional and can encompass a wide variety of domains (e.g., safety or innovation). Thus, various types of climate can exist within one workplace (Schneider, 1975). As such, scholars have suggested focusing on specific types of climate because a broad measure may not be specific enough to predict various relevant outcomes (Schneider, 1975). The climate literature is vast with studies exploring specific types of climate and their specific outcomes, such as safety climate and its effects on safety compliance at work (Neal & Griffin, 2000). However, hostile work climate has received less attention in the literature. Hostile work climate is present when employees perceive that they or others are targets of mistreatment from other organizational members. The mistreatment can be physical, verbal, or written, and it affects emotional responses, performance, and/or well-being (Riordan et al., 2008). This may include offensive, exclusionary, or abusive behavior (Riordan et al., 2008). It is worth noting that discriminatory behavior may occur in either overt or subtle ways. Although overt racist and biased behavior has declined over the

years, individuals still harbor biased views and stereotypes that manifest themselves through subtle verbal or physical behaviors toward other group members (Dovidio & Gaertner, 1998). For example, employees may not receive equal access to important resources that are necessary to succeed in their jobs. Because hostile work climate measures employee perceptions, it also reflects mistreatment of this subtle nature.

I propose that hostile work climate influences CWB, namely withdrawal and withholding of effort. Withdrawal refers to behaviors that remove the employee from the work situation (e.g., showing up late, leaving early, and taking long breaks), whereas withholding of effort reflects exerting less than the maximum amount of effort when performing work tasks (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993). Scholars and organizational leaders have placed an emphasis on CWB as it results in significant organizational costs (Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010; Robinson, 2008; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). Kelloway and colleagues (2010) have suggested that employees engage in CWB to protest, rectify mistreatment, draw attention to an issue, or display dissatisfaction with the organization. Scholars have explored the effects of organizational factors (i.e., injustice or stressors) on CWB to better understand motives behind this behavior (Chen & Spector, 1992; Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007). Building on these studies and drawing on stress (stressor-emotion model of CWB; Spector & Fox, 2005), resource-based (conservation of resources; Hobfoll, 1989), and social exchange (Blau, 1964) theories, I propose that hostile work climate is related to withdrawal and withholding of effort. Specifically, I argue that hostile work climate reduces employee resources thus evoking withdrawal to conserve remaining resources. I also offer additional possible explanations and suggested that hostile work climate may: (1) serve as a stressor which elicits negative emotions that encourage CWB or (2) create an imbalanced exchange relationship that motivates retaliation via CWB.

Expanding on this framework, I further propose that the effect of hostile work climate on withdrawal and withholding of effort may be indirect via situational awareness self-efficacy. Situational awareness originated from military aviation studies examining pilots working in a dynamic, time-sensitive environment that is filled with information and stimuli (Lukosch, Lukosch, Datcu, Cidota, 2015). In short, situational awareness refers to an understanding of one's surroundings, and it involves understanding the overall situation and a projection of it into the future when taking one's goals into account (Endsley, 1995a). This process involves absorbing information, understanding it, and choosing the best way to move forward based on a projection of its future state (Endsley, 1995a). It is important that employees who work in a fast-paced, dynamic, and complex environment (e.g., mining, transportation, military, petrochemical industry) maintain a high level of awareness as they process a large amount of information (Stout & Salas, 1998). A loss of situational awareness can have vast and lasting consequences. For example, Endsley (1995b) found that 88% of plane incidents are attributed to human error problems related to situational awareness as opposed to problems related to decision making.

Situational awareness is uniquely important in the military context. A review of military aviation accidents found that problems related to situational awareness were the main cause of 175 accidents (Hartel, Smith, & Prince, 1991). However, I focused on situational awareness self-efficacy, which I defined as an individual's judgment around their ability to effectively maintain situational awareness. Self-efficacy is a domain-specific self-regulation mechanism that affects behavior, motivation, persistence despite challenges, and performance (Alessandri et al., 2015; Bandura, 1997). Given the importance of situational awareness in the military setting, I argue that one's self-efficacy regarding situational awareness is equally as important because it dictates individuals' behavior, performance, and confidence in one's own abilities. That is, one's self-efficacy beliefs influence one's

effectiveness and confidence in applying a skill, even if they possess a high level of the skill. Drawing on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989), I propose that hostile work climate creates an environment that is not conducive to high self-efficacy beliefs. Specifically, I suggested that this may be because this climate: (1) reduces the frequency of praise for good work; (2) prevents role modeling by creating an unfriendly and toxic environment; and (3) evokes negative psychological states. Consistent with social cognitive theory, these three factors may reduce one's self-efficacy beliefs. In turn, applying the principles of conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), I propose that employees who experience low situational awareness self-efficacy perceive a loss of personal resources and thus engage in withdrawal and withholding of effort to prevent additional resource loss.

Last, I propose that the direct and indirect relationships previously discussed are conditional on emotional stability. Building on previous literature that explored the interaction between individual difference variables and the work environment in predicting dimensions of CWB (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Penney & Spector, 2002, 2005), I propose to explore emotional stability as a moderator of the proposed direct and indirect effects. The five-factor model of personality (FFM; Digman, 1990) is a widely accepted framework that identifies five personality dimensions, namely conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness to experience, agreeableness, and extraversion (Costa & McCrae, 1988). For the purpose of this study, I focused on emotional stability, which reflects an individual's emotional control, psychological adjustment, and the tendency to report negative affect (i.e., anxiety, depression; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Those who are low in emotional stability tend to be anxious or fearful, have a harder time dealing with stress, and display strong emotional responses to events around them (Eysenck, 1967). Indeed, those low in emotional stability are more likely to report high levels of stress

as compared to those high in emotional stability (Tellegen, 1985). Consistent with findings of Bowling and Eschleman (2010), I suggested that emotional stability may serve as a buffer in the relationship between the negative work environment and CWB. That is, emotional stability serves as a personal resource that may help individuals cope with the stress of a hostile work climate, suggesting that those with high emotional stability are less likely to withdraw or withhold their effort. Similarly, I suggested that emotional stability may serve as a resource that mitigates the relationship between hostile work climate and situational awareness self-efficacy because emotional stability may influence employee appraisal of a situation and their response (Judge et al., 1997).

The purposes of this study are to: (1) test the direct relationship between hostile work climate and withdrawal as well as withholding of effort utilizing stress and social exchange theories; (2) explore an indirect effect between hostile work climate, withdrawal, and withholding of effort via a novel construct, situational awareness self-efficacy; and (3) test the role of emotional stability as a moderator that influences employee perceptions and their response to the climate. Moreover, I tested this model using a military dataset, as situational awareness and CWB are especially impactful in this setting.

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate has received considerable attention throughout the years. Research around this construct has its origins in the 1930's when scholars shifted away from a focus on the physical work environment and began to explore the less tangible, psychological environment (Zhang & Liu, 2010). In particular, Lewin, Lippit, and White's (1939) seminal paper explored three types of leadership styles and simultaneously introduced the concept of "social climate". However, organizational climate research did not gain much momentum until the late 1960's to early 1970's (Schneider, Gonzalez-Roma, Ostroff, & West, 2017). During this time, the development of organizational psychology and

organizational behavior fields spurred interest in organizational climate (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2011; Schneider et al., 2017). This ultimately led to the recognition of organizational climate as a valuable construct.

During early stages of conceptualizing and understanding organizational climate, Forehand (1964) propose that organizational climate is persistent, yet it is different across organizations, and it affects employee behavior. Subsequently, with the rise of several different climate measures during the 1970's, researchers were focused on the appropriate way of measuring climate. As questions around measurement and the unit of analysis developed, James and Jones (1974) coined the term psychological climate, thus providing scholars with a way to clarify the level of analysis in their study. Furthermore, Schneider's (1975) seminal paper suggested that perceptions of a global climate are too broad and thus introduced the idea of climate bandwidth, thereby encouraging researchers to focus on more specific forms of climate (e.g., safety climate; Zohar, 1980). After a couple of decades, researchers and practitioners once again began to explore the concept and apply it across organizations as a means of better understanding them and their dynamics (Zhang & Liu, 2010). This resulted in research focusing on the outcomes of climate (e.g., Schneider, Wheeler & Cox, 1992), antecedents of climate (e.g., leadership; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989), and an emphasis on specific forms of climate (e.g., justice climate; Colquitt, 2001; Simons & Roberson, 2003). Consistent with these trends, I propose to explore the role of a specific form of climate (i.e., hostile work climate) in predicting withdrawal and withholding effort both directly and indirectly through situational awareness self-efficacy.

What is Organizational Climate?

An employee's work climate reflects the organizational norms, standards, and procedures, and it may affect employee thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Indeed, climate is one of the strongest

predictors of both individual and team attitudes as well as behaviors (Ahmad, Jasimuddin, & Kee, 2017; Garcia-Garcia, Ramos, Serrano, Cobos, & Souza, 2011). Climate provides cues that guide employees into behaving in ways that are consistent with the organization's expectations and reward systems. Thus, organizational climate serves the important function of guiding employees to make sense of the environment around them and engage in expected behavior (Schneider, 1990).

Schneider (1975) propose a widely accepted definition of organizational climate. He stated that organizational climate involves “psychologically meaningful moral [environmental] descriptions that people can agree characterize a system's practices and procedures” (Schneider, 1975, p. 474). Another definition describes it as “shared perceptions of and the meaning attached to the policies, practices, and procedures employees experience and the behaviors they observe getting rewarded and that are supported and expected” (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013, p. 362). In essence, organizational climate is a general employee perception based in experiences with the organizational policies, practices, and procedures and the understanding of what the organization rewards, supports, and expects (e.g., HR practices, organizational size, leadership, social norms, team dynamics, coworker relations, etc.; James & Jones, 1974; Schneider et al., 2017). Climate perceptions form as employees make sense of their environment, interact with one another, and understand the policies, practices, and procedures of the organization (Schneider et al., 2017).

Organizational climates emerge in various ways and are typically a function of the organization's decision-making processes, communication patterns, procedures, policies, and the organizational structure (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Scholars delineate three sources of climate development – structural, perceptual, and interactive (Moran & Wolkwein, 1992). The structural perspective asserts that climates may emerge as a result of the employees' common exposure to observable organizational characteristics (Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

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These can include organizational policies and procedures, organizational size, or the organizational hierarchy (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). In contrast, the perceptual perspective suggest that climates reflect the employee; climate is a reflection of an individual's cognitive processes, which are specific to each individual and meaningful to them (James & Jones, 1974; Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Along these lines, the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider, 1987) emphasizes the role of organizational members in forming the climate. This framework suggests that applicants are attracted to organizations that align with their values (i.e., person-organization fit). Likewise, recruiters determine whether the applicant will fit in with the organization and only select those who they perceive as compatible (Schneider, 1987). Those who join the organization will leave if they feel that the organization is ultimately not a good fit. As a result, organizations become homogenous and shared perceptions of the climate begin to form (Schneider, 1987). Last, the interactional approach integrates the structural and perceptual perspectives to suggest that climates may emerge as a result of both, the structural aspects of an organization and employee interactions (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). In particular, the symbolic interactionist approach poses that interactions among employees create a certain organizational climate (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). As the structural aspects of an organization influence employee climate perceptions, they in turn engage in behavior that shapes the climate. For example, unjust application of procedures combined with inappropriate, racially biased comments over time contribute to one's perceptions of a hostile work climate and the organizational norms. The perceptions of a hostile work climate may in turn result in behavioral responses (e.g., retaliatory comments or hostility towards others), which will further strengthen and contribute to the overall climate.

Measuring Climate

It is important to note that there are different ways to conceptualize and measure climate (James & Jones, 1974). Scholars have suggested that climate reflects the individuals' perceptions and cognitive representations of the objective external events (James & Jones, 1974; Schneider & Hall, 1972). As such, climate calls for a focus on the methodological issues involved in measuring it (Schneider et al., 2017). Researchers have the choice of measuring climate at the individual level or at the group, unit, or organizational level. James and Jones (1974) explored these concepts and coined the term psychological climate to describe climate at the individual level of analysis and they differentiated it from organizational climate, which refers to the organizational or unit level of analysis. Stated differently, psychological climate defines each individual's perception of their work climate, whereas organizational climate is a measure of the shared understanding of climate at the team, unit, or organizational level of analysis (James & Jones, 1974; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). The level of analysis of the climate in question largely depends on the research questions and the definition of climate relevant to the study (James & Jones, 1974). I propose to focus on psychological climate because I explored individual perceptions of the environment in relation to experiences of mistreatment or hostility, which may not be consistent at a shared, aggregate organizational level.

Different Types of Climate

Climate is multidimensional and may reflect a few different organizational characteristics (e.g., innovation, safety, creativity; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Indeed, organizations have different types of climate, where each one corresponds to a different aspect of the organization and more than one climate can coexist (Schneider, 1975). Thus, scholars have pushed for the assessment of specific types of climate (Rousseau, 1988; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Schneider (1975) referred to this as the climate bandwidth. He

suggested focusing on a specific type of climate because a broad climate assessment is too general to measure accurately and predict specific outcomes (Schneider, 1975). Consistent with Schneider's recommendations, scholars have explored innovation (Abbey & Dickinson, 1983), safety (Zohar, 1980), justice (Naumann & Bennett, 2000), ethical (Cullen, Victor, & Bronson, 1993), and customer service climates and their outcomes (Schneider & Bowen, 1995). For example, innovation climate predicts seeking out knowledge and opportunities outside of the organization to enhance the organization's innovation (Popa, Acosta, & Martinez-Conesa, 2017). I propose to focus on hostile work climate—a type of climate that has not yet received a considerable amount of attention in the literature.

Hostile Work Climate

The legal field has explored hostile work environment for decades, and it defines it as an environment where a protected class member experiences verbal or physical conduct that affects their conditions of employment or fosters an abusive working environment (EEOC, www.eeoc.gov; Fitzgerald et al., 1988). The behavior is severe or pervasive and either inhibits job performance or creates an intimidating work climate (EEOC, www.eeoc.gov; Fitzgerald et al., 1988). Protected class status can be based in one's race, color, sex, religion, age, disability, or national origin (EEOC, www.eeoc.gov; Fitzgerald et al., 1988). Examples of this may include a supervisor commenting on one's age when refusing a promotion. Although organizations utilize this definition to enforce anti-harassment or anti-discrimination policies, there are instances when employees may experience harassment, discrimination, or mistreatment, yet their experience does not meet the criteria to file a legal claim (Riordan et al, 2008). Indeed, the EEOC does not approve all hostile work environment claims, suggesting that some victims may continue to experience mistreatment because their experiences do not meet the legal criteria (Riordan et al., 2008). Thus, I propose to focus on

hostile work climate, which reflects one's perceptions of the environment and the mistreatment that an employee or their coworkers receive.

A hostile work climate is present when individuals perceive that they are a victim of discrimination or mistreatment from other members of the organization (Riordan et al., 2008). In particular, this refers to discriminatory, offensive, abusive, and hostile mistreatment that results in a negative emotional response, and it affects one's well-being and job performance (Riordan et al., 2008). Hostile work climate perceptions arise not only when an employee has experienced discrimination, but also when the individual believes that such behavior is present and common across their unit or organization (Riordan et al., 2008). Such a climate may result in either overt or subtle forms of discrimination. Examples include making uncharitable comments about one's group, using slurs, or providing fewer resources and developmental opportunities to subordinates who belong to a certain racial group. Although such instances may not constitute discrimination under the legal definition, these are harmful and unwanted experiences which influence employee work conditions, psychological well-being, behavior, and performance, and thus, are relevant to both organizations and its employees. Thus, I attempted to assess the effects of hostile work climate on self-regulation resources (i.e., self-efficacy) and CWB.

Riordan and colleagues (2008) developed a framework outlining the various organizational aspects that may influence one's perception of a hostile work climate and its consequences. The framework suggests that the work unit, organizational characteristics, as well as coworker characteristics all shape one's perceptions of a hostile work climate. Specifically, the authors propose that four broad factors are most robust predictors, these include: (1) employee perceptions of coworkers who are different from them and behavior towards those individuals; (2) social structures embedded within a team; (3) policies,

practices, and systems; (4) and the characteristics of the victims of discrimination (Riordan et al., 2008).

First, personality differences may influence how employees perceive those who are different from them and this may result in mistreatment of those individuals. For example, individuals who are low in agreeableness and openness to experience are more likely to exhibit discriminatory behavior (Jackson & Poulsen, 2005; Riordan et al., 2008). Second, characteristics of the team may evoke employee perceptions of hostile work climate (Riordan et al., 2008). For example, work unit norms that encourage bullying, rude and harmful comments, or competition may influence the emergence of a hostile work climate. Third, organizational practices, policies, and procedures (e.g., leadership behaviors, grievance policies, or hiring and promotion practices) may also impact hostile work climate perceptions (Riordan et al., 2008). For example, an organization with HR practices that do not address the issues of discrimination in performance appraisals may further contribute to the development of a hostile work climate. Fourth, characteristics of the target of discrimination may elicit perceptions of hostile work climate (Einarsen, 2000; Riordan et al., 2008). For example, employees who are high in conscientiousness tend to place a lot of emphasis on achievement and their performance at work (Riordan et al., 2008). Thus, when either their coworkers or the organizational policies are creating barriers to their achievement, they are more likely to notice it and report higher perceptions of a hostile work climate.

Outcomes of Hostile Work Climate Perceptions

A hostile climate may result in a number of unfavorable outcomes as it imposes psychological, emotional, and financial strain on organizations and its members (Riordan et al., 2008). For example, climates where discrimination is common have an unfavorable effect on employee turnover rates, stress levels, performance, and attitudes, all of which pose a reduction in the organization's overall performance and efficiency (Foley & Kidder, 2002;

Murrell, Olson, & Frieze, 1995; Riordan et al., 2008). Indeed, perceptions of discrimination, either from peers, supervisors, or the organization, are related to reductions in favorable organizational attitudes (e.g., organizational commitment, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction; Foley & Kidder, 2002; Gutek, Cohen & Tsui, 1996, Riordan et al., 2008; Sanchez & Brock, 1996). In addition to the negative outcomes for those who are targets of discrimination, scholars have also noted the effects on employees who witness such mistreatment. Those individuals report lower levels of trust, job satisfaction, and productivity (Raver & Gelfand, 2005; Riordan et al., 2008; Willness et al., 2007). In addition, those who work in discriminatory environments, are more likely to disengage from their workplace and report intentions to leave the organization (Volpone & Avery, 2013).

Various frameworks have propose the psychological mechanisms underlying the unfavorable effects of discrimination in the workplace (e.g., Colquitt, 2004). However, studies uniquely exploring the effects of hostile work climate are sparse. Moreover, studies testing the effects of hostile work climate on CWB and their psychological underpinnings have received little attention. To address this gap in literature, I propose to explore the effects of hostile work climate on counterproductive work behavior. Thus, in the following sections, I describe CWB and the psychological mechanisms that explain why hostile work climate plays a role in the manifestation of this behavior.

Counterproductive Work Behavior

Scholars and organizational leaders alike have recognized that counterproductive work behavior (CWB) is a concern as it harms both the organization and organizational members (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Spector & Zhou, 2014). CWB involves committing intentional acts that harm the organization or its stakeholders and go against the best interest of the organization and its members (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Sackett & DeVore, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2005). Examples include theft, aggression towards others, sabotage,

absenteeism, incivility, withholding of effort, withdrawal, and taking long breaks (Dalal, 2005; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennet, 1995; Spector et al., 2006).

Robinson and Bennett (1995) propose a framework that categorized deviant employee behavior using two dimensions, the target, and the severity of the behavior. This distinguished between behavior that targets the employees (i.e., OCB-I) and behavior that targets the organization (i.e., OCB-O), as well as behavior that is minor or severe. This resulted in four categories of behavior that include: (1) property deviance (high severity behavior that targets the organization; e.g., stealing, damaging equipment); (2) production deviance (low severity behavior that targets the organization; e.g., leaving work early, working slowly); (3) personal aggression (high severity behavior that targets the individuals; e.g., insulting others, physical harm); and (4) political deviance (low severity behavior that targets others; e.g., gossiping, favoritism). Similarly, Spector and colleagues (2006) propose that CWB consists of 5 categories—thrift (e.g., stealing an organization's equipment), production deviance (e.g., purposely working slowly or incorrectly, withholding effort), withdrawal (e.g., absenteeism, tardiness, taking long breaks), abusing others (e.g., starting arguments with others), and sabotage (e.g., damaging organizational property). I focused on two types of CWB, namely withdrawal and withholding of effort.

Withdrawal

Withdrawal behavior is a “set of attitudes and behaviors seen in employees whose job performance has deteriorated” (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Even-Zohar, 2011, p. 429).

Employees engage in withdrawal to remove themselves from the work situation by taking longer breaks, showing up late, leaving work early, not coming to work, and getting out of work (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Biron & Bamberger, 2012; Hanisch & Hulin, 1990; Koslowsky, 2009; Spector et al., 2006). In short, withdrawal is a way to avoid or escape the situation at work instead of creating harm. It involves less noticeable behavior that stems

from an individual's emotions and attitude (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Different forms of CWB have different antecedents (Spector et al., 2005). Withdrawal tends to correlate with stressors (Spector et al., 2006). Indeed, research shows that organizational stressors (e.g., interpersonal conflict and incivility) predict withdrawal (Porath & Pearson, 2012; Spector et al., 2006) likely because withdrawal allows employees to reduce their exposure to the work stressor and escape their negative emotions (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; Spector et al., 2006). As such, I propose that hostile work climate serves as a stressor that influences employee withdrawal behavior.

Withholding of Effort

Withholding of effort is one facet of production deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Kidwell and Bennett (1993) suggested that withholding of effort involves “a person who provides less than maximum possible participation of effort due to motivation or circumstance” (p. 430). Examples of withholding of effort include social loafing, working slower, and shirking of duties (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993). Scholars have suggested that withholding of effort is a form of CWB as it is a reaction to an external event that facilitates a negative emotion or attitude (Spector et al., 2006). I propose to explore the mechanisms that explain how withholding of effort serves as a response to a hostile work climate.

Antecedents of CWB

Scholars have focused on understanding the psychological mechanisms that explain CWB and thus explored the roles of organizational factors and individual characteristics as antecedents (e.g., Berry et al., 2007; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Penney & Spector, 2005; Spector & Zhou, 2014). I focused on the role of hostile work climate in predicting CWB (i.e., withdrawal and withholding of effort). Previous studies provide initial support for these relationships. For example, scholars have found that perceptions of injustice, which are present in a hostile work climate, predict CWB because such behaviors allow employees to

rectify their mistreatment and restore a sense of justice (Berry et al., 2007; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Kelloway et al., 2010). Moreover, scholars suggest that organizational constraints, which may exist in a hostile work climate, predict CWB as they hinder an employee's performance by reducing their access to resources (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Last, findings have revealed that workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) and stressful work conditions, both of which may be present in a hostile work climate, also predict CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Building on previous studies, I propose to explore the role of withdrawal and withholding of effort as a response to a hostile work climate using three frameworks, namely: (1) COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989); (2) stressor-emotion model (Spector & Fox, 2005); and (3) social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). I draw on the conservation of resources theory as the primary explanation for this relationship; however, I also utilize the stressor-emotion model and social exchange theory to offer alternative possible explanations for this relationship. First, employees may experience a depletion of their resources and may engage in CWB to conserve their remaining resources through withdrawal and reducing their effort. Second, I propose that CWB serves as a coping mechanism for employees who experience negative emotions when working in an unfavorable climate. Specifically, withholding of effort and employee withdrawal may facilitate emotion-focused coping (Krischer et al., 2010). Third, I propose that withdrawal and withholding of effort may also enable employees to restore a sense of equity in their exchanges with the organization by preventing the organization from achieving its productivity goals.

Conservation of Resources Theory

I suggest that CWB may serve as a way for employees to conserve their resources and cope with the stressor. This is in line with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which states that individuals seek to retain, protect, and build resources and that the possibility of losing

resources is a stressor or a threat. Resources consist of objects, energies, conditions, and personal characteristics that an individual values or that help an individual obtain more resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Examples include time, physical energy, or money. When individuals perceive a potential resource loss, they are motivated to protect and conserve their resources (Hobfoll, 1989). That is, employees who experience stress or mistreatment at work have fewer resources to spare and are more likely to conserve and protect their remaining resources by withholding effort and withdrawing from the organization (Lam, Huang, & Janssen, 2010). Thus, I propose that employees are likely to engage in CWB to protect their resources under the stressful conditions of a hostile work climate. This is consistent with findings from Penney, Hunter, and Perry (2011), which showed that employees with low resources are more likely to engage in CWB to reduce the psychological strain and help obtain more resources.

I propose that hostile work climate is an organizational stressor that reduces employee resources because it depletes emotional as well as cognitive resources as employees try to process their or others' mistreatment and cope with hostile interactions. For example, when employees experience hostility because the supervisor made unkind comments about their culture (e.g., ethnic food an employee brings for lunch), they are likely to experience psychological strain and a reduction in emotional and cognitive resources as they continue to process the negative interaction throughout their workday. Because those who perceive resource loss are motivated to conserve resources, I propose that employees in this climate will exhibit withdrawal and withholding of effort to prevent additional resource loss and regain lost resources. Employees who experience distress due to the climate may avoid completing some tasks or show up to work late because this allows them to reduce their exposure to the hostile environment (Krischer et al., 2010; Spector et al., 2006). Withdrawal

and withholding of effort may thus mitigate the impact of the stressor by allowing employees to restore their cognitive and emotional resources (Krischer et al., 2010).

Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB

In an attempt to offer an alternative explanation for this relationship, I employ the stressor-emotion model of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005). This framework suggests that negative emotions trigger CWB. This model describes the process in which an employee who is facing a stressor at work is likely to experience negative emotions as a result (e.g., anger, frustration), and these emotions lead to counterproductive behavior aimed at the organization or its members (Penney & Spector, 2005). The model suggests that employees engage in such behavior as a way to cope with the negative emotions or to direct their aggression at the organization (Neuman & Baron, 1997). Alternatively, CWB may be a way to regain one's control following mistreatment or a negative experience (Neuman & Baron, 2005).

More specifically, the model suggests that negative emotions occur when employees perceive that a situation is threatening to their goals (Spector & Fox, 2005). One's response to such negative emotions involve behaviors that constitute CWB, such as absenteeism, reductions in performance, withdrawal, or aggression. However, the model states that it is not just the interference with goals that creates frustration, but that stressful and unfavorable job conditions themselves can also elicit negative emotions and CWB. According to the framework, job stressors are central to CWB and these involve any environmental conditions that result in negative emotional reactions. The stressor leads to an emotional reaction, which in turn leads to CWB (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Sackett, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2005). Consistent with the model, various factors may serve as stressors that predict CWB (e.g., role ambiguity, workload, and interpersonal problems; Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2002, 2005). Drawing on this framework, I propose that hostile work climate is a stressor that elicits negative emotions and CWB.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Hostile work climate may serve as a stressor for employees. Individuals appraise the events and conditions that pose a threat to their well-being as job stressors which facilitate unfavorable emotional responses (i.e., anger; Spector, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2005). Perceptions of injustice and hostile work climate function as job stressors as they have been shown to elicit negative emotions (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Spector, 1998). A hostile work climate is a stressor because it pushes employees to navigate a workplace where they face mistreatment (e.g., name calling, racial slurs) and interpersonal conflict based in differences due to their characteristics (e.g., race, religion, or gender). Such climate may also create concern over their employment. Moreover, a hostile climate can hinder the achievement of goals by posing a threat to the goal of belonging and result in additional stress. Thus, employees working in this environment are likely to experience frustration, distress, or anger and engage in CWB to cope with their emotions (Spector & Fox, 2005). This is consistent with the stressor-emotion model as well as with Penney and Spector's (2007) theories of emotion regulation stating that CWB is a way for employees to cope with a stressful workplace and to mitigate negative emotions.

Coping is an attempt to manage a stressor that is overwhelming or taxing one's resources. CWB may elicit emotion-focused coping (Krischer et al., 2010). Individuals utilize emotion-focused coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) when they perceive that trying to change or reduce the stressor (i.e., problem-focused coping) is not an option (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986). Given that a hostile work climate is pervasive and difficult for any one person to change or control, employees are likely to rely on emotion-focused coping by withdrawing and withholding their effort. Together, this suggests that consistent with the stressor-emotion model (Spector & Fox, 2005), employees working in a hostile work climate are likely to engage in

withdrawal and withhold their effort to cope with the negative emotions that this kind of work environment evokes.

Social Exchange Theory

Last, I propose that employees may engage in CWB to reciprocate the negative treatment they receive. This theory serves as a second alternative explanation for this relationship. Individuals believe that everyone deserves respect and when they do not receive it, employees may try to retaliate or seek revenge (Folger & Skarlicki, 1998). Thus, employees may seek to retaliate to restore a perception of fairness after witnessing the injustice involved in a hostile work climate (Meier & Spector, 2013). This is in line with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which states that employees form reciprocal relationships with the organization that allow for the exchange of resources. A central tenet of social exchange theory states that the employee-organization relationship depends on a balanced trade of an employee's loyalty, hard work, and effort, in exchange for the organization's benefits, support, pay, and recognition (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rousseau & Parks, 1993). This notion is based in the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) which delineates that after one person initiates an exchange relationship, the other party feels the obligation to return the favor. For example, a supervisor may provide an employee with a unique career development opportunity and the subordinate may reciprocate by offering to help on a time-sensitive project by working on it through the weekend. Thus, an employee's attitudes and behavior largely depend on a perception of balance in the exchange relationship. A well-balanced exchange relationship where the employee perceives that the organization provides appropriate benefits, pay, and resources leads to employees who are more motivated, willing to exert effort, and contribute to the success of the organization (Van Knippenberg, Haslam, & Platow, 2007).

However, in the same way that employees reciprocate favorable treatment, they also reciprocate unfavorable treatment by retaliating against the organization or its members (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Thus, if an employee perceives an imbalance in their exchange relationship, they may choose to withdraw and engage in CWB (i.e., withdrawal, withholding of effort; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). In support of this, multiple meta-analyses have shown that organizational stressors and mistreatment are related to CWB (e.g., Berry et al., 2007; Colquitt et al., 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Consistent with this framework, I propose that employees engage in CWB (i.e., withdrawal and withholding of effort) to reciprocate the negative treatment they receive or witness when working in a hostile work climate. As employees perceive that the organization mistreats them and does not value them as an employee, they are likely to withdraw or withhold their effort to reduce the amount of work they contribute to the organization. In other words, employees may be likely to show up to work late, take long breaks, work slowly, and not comply with productivity standards as this will allow them to feel that they are reciprocating the unfavorable exchange. Thus, CWB may be a mechanism that employees use to restore a balance in their exchange relationship and reestablish a sense of equity. In line with this, studies have found that employees engage in CWB when they perceive injustice that is pervasive in a hostile work climate (Krischer et al., 2010).

Consistent with the three theoretical frameworks previously discussed (i.e., stressor-emotion model, COR theory, and social exchange theory), I propose that employees who are exposed to a hostile work climate will engage in two forms of CWB, withholding of effort and withdrawal. Engaging in this behavior is instrumental as it allows employees to: (1) cope with the negative emotions stemming from mistreatment; (2) cope with the stress of this climate by conserving resources; and (3) restore a sense of balance in exchanges by reciprocating the mistreatment they have received. Thus, I proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Hostile work climate is positively related to withholding of effort.

Hypothesis 2: Hostile work climate is positively related to withdrawal.

Situational Awareness

In addition to the direct effect of hostile work climate on withdrawal and withholding of effort, I also propose that such climate may have an indirect effect on these outcomes through situational awareness self-efficacy. Situational awareness research dates back to World War I when Oswald Boelke emphasized the need for troops to become aware of the enemy before the enemy became aware of them (Gilson, 1995; Stanton, Chambers, & Piggott, 2001). However, the construct did not receive attention in research until the 1980's when the aviation industry focused on it as they encouraged pilots and air traffic controllers to improve their situational awareness (Jensen, 1997; Stanton et al., 2001). Maintaining situational awareness in the aviation area is crucial because pilots have to maintain an up-to-date, comprehensive picture of their cabin and the environment (Endsley, 1999a). This involves a perception of their surroundings (i.e., elevation, speed, location), a comprehension of the interactions of its components, and an ability predict their future state (Endsley, 1999a). Thus, situational awareness research has its roots in the aviation industry (Haber, Ellaway, Chun, & Lockyer, 2017). However, due to its role in decision-making, the importance of the construct expands beyond the aviation industry and thus research in this area has broadened rapidly into other fields (Saus, Johnsen, Eid, & Thayer, 2006).

As researchers began to acknowledge the importance of situational awareness for decision-making and performance, the concept expanded into other industries, including general aviation (Adams, Tenney, & Pew, 1995; Endsley, 1993; Stanton et al., 2001), medicine (Gaba & Howard, 1995), nuclear power plants and manufacturing factories (Hogg, Felleso, Strand-Volden, & Torralba, 1995), and air traffic control (Endsley & Rogers, 1994;

Falkland & Wiggins, 2019). For example, military personnel, firefighters, and policemen rely on situational awareness and a lapse in situational awareness in this context may result in harm or loss of life (Endsley, 1995b). Situational awareness is also important in fast-paced medical settings (Chapman et al., 2020), as it allows for safer patient service delivery and reduces mistakes and accidents (Brady & Goldenhar, 2013; Chapman et al., 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic has emphasized the importance of situational awareness in the medical setting as health care professionals face the challenge of serving a disproportionately high number of patients and have to keep track of large amounts of information while simultaneously dealing with burnout (Kozasa et al., 2020). Last, daily activities also require situational awareness. For example, driving on a highway or walking all require a certain degree of situational awareness. Thus, situational awareness is crucial across various domains and relevant to a list of industries, roles, and situations.

Situational awareness refers to one's ability to observe and interpret the stimuli and the environment, combine the information into a mental model, and anticipate future results of their behavior. Endsley's (1988) seminal paper defines it as "the perception of the elements in the environment within a volume time and space, the comprehension of their meaning, and the projection of their status in the near future" (p. 97). In short, situational awareness is one's ability to know what is going on. Furthermore, according to Endsley (1995a), situational awareness also involves an understanding and integration of the information in relation to one's goals as well as the ability to anticipate a future status of the system.

According to Endsley's (1995a) seminal paper, situational awareness forms through a hierarchical process composed of three stages or levels. These hierarchical levels include perception (i.e., Level 1), comprehension (i.e., Level 2), and projection (i.e., Level 3; Endsley, 1995a). The first and lowest level of situational awareness involves an accurate

perception of the information and environment around the person. This represents one's receiving of information and perceiving different aspects of the information and characteristics (size, shape, location, color, etc.). For example, in the aviation context, this represents a pilot's perception of the speed and altitude of the aircraft. If a person does not perceive the environment accurately, they will be less likely to form an accurate representation of what is happening (Endsley, 1995a). Indeed, Jones and Endsley (1996) found that 76% of situational awareness errors among pilots were due to an inaccurate perception of the environment around them (i.e., Level 1 error).

The second level involves comprehension of the environment along with the interpretation, storing, and retention of the information (Endsley, 1995a). This refers to integrating the disjointed information from Level 1 and understanding the importance of aspects of the environment and the nature of the environment in relation to one's goals (Endsley, 1995a; Green et al., 2017). Comprehension of the information results in a general picture of the situation and an understanding of the importance of the objects. This would allow the person to take appropriate actions to proceed (Green et al., 2017; Schulz, Endsley, Kochs, Gelb, & Wagner, 2013). For example, a pilot may understand how much longer he/she can fly with the fuel they have, and military troops may understand that their enemy's location may indicate that they are in a position to attack (Endsley, 1995b).

The third level of situational awareness involves predicting the future state of the system and predicting the impact that one's actions will have on the system (Stanton et al., 2001). In other words, this stage represents one's projection of the future elements in the given context. The effectiveness of this level is also dependent on the accuracy of situational awareness at the two previous levels (Hauland, 2008). This kind of projection allows a pilot to take appropriate actions to prevent a future problem. For example, knowing the speed and location of one's aircraft can inform one's understanding of how they need to move the

aircraft to land correctly. Level 3 is important because it enables individuals to anticipate future events and allows for quick and accurate decision making (Endsley, 2000).

Situational Awareness Outcomes

Situational awareness is related to important organizational outcomes. For example, studies suggest that it has incremental validity above and beyond other strong predictors of performance, such as cognitive and personality measures (Durso, Bleckley, & Dattel, 2006). Situational awareness also affects employee safety and accident rates (Klein, 2000). Employees who exhibit high situational awareness may thus reduce workplace incidents and create a safer work environment (Christian, Wallace, Bradley, & Burke, 2009). Indeed, Hartel, Smith, and Prince (1991) reviewed close to 200 aircraft accidents and found that inadequate Level 1 situational awareness was the main cause for most of the accidents. Other findings imply that employees who are aware of their environment and stimuli are less likely to be in an accident (Chaparro et al., 1999). Reviews of errors in other industries like air traffic control or nuclear power plants also demonstrate similar trends (Endsley, Bolstad, Jones, & Riley, 2003). Considering how important situational awareness is to safety, it is important to understand how situational awareness can apply in the context of the military as any lapse in situational awareness may result in significant negative outcomes (Endsley, 1995b).

Situational awareness is especially important in the complex, dynamic, and potentially life-threatening military environment because it helps military personnel understand the information around them as it relates to their safety, tasks, and mission readiness (Price, Tenan, Head, Maslin, & LaFiandra, 2016; Soria, 2020). Military personnel constantly scan their environment to create a visual representation of the locations of their allies and their enemies in relation to their own location (Endsley & Garland, 2000). It is important that they are aware of these locations so they can accurately anticipate their enemy

and their actions and to correctly position themselves in the case of an attack (Matthews, Strater, & Endsley, 2004). Bryant and Smith (2013) showed that training soldiers in situational awareness aids them in tracking and differentiating their targets. That is, the training improved their correct identification of targets as their situational awareness increased. Findings of this study also showed situational awareness training helped them to operate and make quick decisions in the dynamic, fast-paced setting (Bryant & Smith, 2013). Similarly, situational awareness has been tied to better performance among military commanders (Riley, Endsley, Bolstad, & Cuevas, 2006) and surgeons (Graafland, Schraagen, Boormeester, Bemelman, & Schijven, 2015). Considering the consequences of low situational awareness in this setting, maintaining high situational awareness is crucial for military personnel. For this reason, I propose to test the hypotheses with a dataset comprised of active-duty Department of Defense personnel; however, I focused on situational awareness self-efficacy because self-efficacy beliefs influence one's effectiveness in using a given skill and their confidence in applying it. Thus, I suggested that one's self-efficacy beliefs regarding situational awareness are just as important as situational awareness itself.

Self-Efficacy

Social cognitive theory is an extension of Bandura's (1977a) social learning theory, and it emphasizes the psychological mechanisms of human functioning and defines personality as a cognitive and affective system (Bandura, 1999, 2001). In short, social cognitive theory focuses on self-regulation, intentional behavior, and self-reflection (Bandura, 2001). Self-efficacy is the central aspect of this theory, and it describes individuals' perceptions regarding their capability to perform tasks. Bandura's (1986, 1997) seminal paper discussed social cognitive theory and introduced the construct of self-efficacy which he defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). That

is, self-efficacy refers to the judgments people have around their ability to succeed in a situation or domain given their skills (Bandura, 1986, 1997). According to his theory, self-efficacy is not one stable trait, rather it is context and domain specific (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Individuals may have high self-efficacy for some tasks or domains and low for others (Heslin & Klehe, 2006). For example, an individual may perceive high self-efficacy around writing technical reports but low self-efficacy around managing subordinates effectively.

A basic tenet of this theory poses that efficacy beliefs are the foundation for human agency which in turn, affects the motivation to exhibit certain behaviors that are related to performance (Bandura, 1986). In other words, self-efficacy affects one's thoughts, motivations, and actions (Bandura, 1997). This notion implies that self-efficacy beliefs influence individuals' perception of control over their environment, their choices of behavior, the amount of effort they put into their activities, and how deeply they are involved and continue to persist despite challenges (Alessandri et al., 2015; Bandura, 1986).

Scholars have suggested that self-efficacy beliefs influence cognition, emotion, choice, action, and motivation regarding work (e.g., career development; Bandura, 1997). Indeed, self-efficacy beliefs affect the way that employees view and experience events at work and the stress response they exhibit (Consiglio, Borgogni, Alessandri, & Schaufeli, 2013). In other words, these beliefs influence adaptation, motivation, and one's actions (Alessandri et al., 2015). Those with higher self-efficacy are better at handling daily difficulties and challenges, they are better at coping with job stressors, they also tend to experience less stress and burnout, and are more satisfied with their jobs (Fida, Laschinger, & Leiter, 2018). These individuals also tend to be persistent and work hard despite challenges (Heslin & Klehe, 2006). They seek to try to improve their strategies when learning something new and complex, instead of giving up on a task, especially when working in complex and dynamic environments (Heslin & Klehe, 2006).

Self-efficacy is not a global trait, and it typically refers to a specific object of interest as it is situation-specific (Bandura, 2006; Bandura & Cervone, 1986). Indeed, many scholars have measured self-efficacy in relation to a specific domain, these include managing emotions self-efficacy (Alessandri et al., 2015), test-taking self-efficacy (Truxillo, Bauer, Campion, & Paronto, 2002), job search self-efficacy (Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy, & Shalhoop, 2006), and workplace social self-efficacy (Fan et al., 2013). These situation-specific self-efficacy constructs have helped researchers and practitioners to better understand employee behavior and performance across organizations (Fan et al., 2013). For example, individuals who report higher self-efficacy beliefs regarding managing negative emotions show less anxiety, repression, and negative affect (Alessandri et al., 2015). Thus, I aimed to build on this literature and introduce the construct of situational awareness self-efficacy, which served as a mediator in this propose study. I defined situational awareness self-efficacy as an individual's judgment around his/her ability to effectively maintain situational awareness. These judgments are a result of the processes involved in reflecting on one's situational awareness and the skill level and ability to succeed in this domain (Alessandri et al., 2015; Caprara, Alessandri, Barbaranelli, & Vecchione, 2013).

Hostile Work Climate and Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Dynamics surrounding the organizational climate may influence employee self-efficacy beliefs. This is in part because work environment determines the constraints and opportunities that are available for employees to attain high self-efficacy beliefs (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Given that hostile work climate may provide fewer opportunities and create more constraints, it is likely to affect one's self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1988). For example, employees who work in a hostile work climate may experience low self-efficacy beliefs because they perceive that the organization will not recognize, appreciate, or value their efforts and performance (Ozyilmaz, Erdogan, & Karaeminogullari, 2017). Thus, in the

following section, I argue that hostile work climate is an organizational factor that may influence employee situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs. Namely, drawing on social cognitive theory (Wood & Bandura, 1989), I propose that hostile work climate creates conditions that are unfavorable to the maintenance of high self-efficacy beliefs.

Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory proposes that individuals have the ability to regulate their behavior, thoughts, and motivation (Bandura, 1991; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Furthermore, the theory suggests that individuals are goal-driven and take part in shaping the environment around them, as opposed to allowing the environment to fully dictate their performance, effort, behaviors, and attitudes (Bandura, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989). This view provided the theoretical foundation for self-efficacy and defined it as one's beliefs regarding the capabilities to accomplish certain tasks and their ability to control actions or events around them (Bandura, 1991). The framework also implies that individuals' behavior and performance is largely a function of their self-efficacy beliefs as those influence the goals that individuals set for themselves and those in turn influence performance (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

The framework outlined four factors that influence self-efficacy, namely enactive self-mastery, role-modeling, verbal persuasion, and psychological states (Bandura, 1997; Heslin & Klehe, 2006; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Enactive self-mastery occurs when an individual experiences success when performing a certain task or parts of a task (Heslin & Klehe, 2006). Success when performing a task allows an individual to feel confident about doing it again or performing a similar task. It implies that the individual can succeed at more difficult tasks. Role-modeling takes place when an individual observes others performing a specific task (Heslin & Klehe, 2006). This provides a visualization of how they can perform the task in the future, creates more confidence, and thus enhances self-efficacy beliefs.

Verbal persuasion influences self-efficacy beliefs when leaders give praise to an individual for their abilities and their capacity to improve (Heslin & Klehe, 2006). For example, a leader may ask an employee to complete a challenging task and then provide positive feedback about their performance. This emphasizes that their efforts have resulted in a success. Last, psychological states may also influence self-efficacy because a person who does not feel like they can accomplish something may feel anxiety and high stress levels, which can result in poorer performance and thus lower self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977b).

Drawing on this framework, I propose that hostile work climate diminishes employee situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs through its effect on role modeling, verbal persuasion, and psychological states (Wood & Bandura, 1989). I suggested that hostile work climate prevents role modeling because an organizational climate where discrimination, mistreatment, and hostility is pervasive may result in poor coworker as well as supervisor-subordinate relationships (Dovidio & Gaertner, 1998). Employees who work in such climates are likely to experience fewer positive relationships, fewer mentorship opportunities, and are likely to report a lower sense of trust toward other employees (Dovidio & Gaertner, 1998). Thus, they are less likely to seek out help and ask their coworker or supervisor to show them how they exhibit situational awareness when performing certain tasks. In other words, employees in this type of unfavorable climate are not likely to receive a lot of guidance or demonstration of the way that others maintain situational awareness and they are also less likely to ask for help, especially if they are a target of discrimination and mistreatment from others. This may result in few role modeling experiences, which also is tied to lower self-efficacy beliefs (Wood & Bandura, 1989). In addition, employees in this climate are not likely to receive a lot of verbal persuasion or praise for their situational awareness skills. Because hostility and mistreatment are common in this climate, employees may have poor relationships with their supervisors and coworkers (Dovidio & Gaertner, 1998). This may

translate into employees receiving more ridicule than praise and thus further reduce their self-efficacy beliefs as supervisors' harsh comments lead them to feel less capable due to their demographics (e.g., race, religion, national origin). Last, employees working in a stressful, hostile work climate are likely to experience negative emotional states as a result of the mistreatment that they receive or witness others experiencing (Riordan et al., 2008).

Employees in this climate may be more likely to exhibit negative affect, stress, and anxiety. Such consistent negative emotional states may also reduce employee self-efficacy beliefs as employees who are coping with negative emotions are also less likely to feel equipped and able to effectively maintain an awareness of their surroundings. Together, these factors suggest that hostile work climate creates an environment with conditions that are unfavorable to the maintenance of high situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs.

Effects of Hostile Work Climate on Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy via Stress

Because self-efficacy beliefs refer to judgment regarding one's abilities to succeed at certain tasks, those who do not feel like they can succeed at something will perceive low self-efficacy. Thus, I argue that hostile work climate may result in low situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs because this climate may directly hinder one's situational awareness, thus causing employees to feel less capable in this domain.

Specifically, hostile work climate may elicit high stress levels which hinder situational awareness (Endsley, 1995a; Sexton, Thomes, & Helmreich, 2000; Tucker et al., 2010). High stress levels may affect situational awareness because stressors narrow one's attention, reduce the amount of information they can take in, and reduce working memory capacity (Endsley, 1999; Hockey, 1986). Indeed, Sneddon, Mearns, and Flin (2013) studied employees in a high-risk drilling environment and found that stress reduces attention and decreases situational awareness. Individuals who experience high stress may also overlook pieces of information because stress decreases attention for peripheral information as it

depletes cognitive resources (Broadbent, 1971; Endsley, 1999; Sneddon et al., 2013; Weltman, Smith, & Egstrom, 1971). In other words, stress may cause one's attention to narrow (Price et al., 2016; Sneddon et al., 2013), creating a 'cognitive tunnel vision' and leading to an inaccurate understanding of the environment (Price et al., 2016; Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). This phenomenon would reduce one's situational awareness and thus result in lower self-efficacy beliefs.

Moreover, stress stemming from a hostile work climate may also cause individuals to make quick decisions instead of focusing on the entire situation (Price et al., 2016). Indeed, Sandhaland, Olstedal, Hystad, and Eid (2017) found that high psychological job demands (i.e., work overload) inhibit situational awareness by increasing risk taking behavior. The stress resulting from the uncertainty of a hostile work climate may lead to risky and quick decisions, which in turn may reduce one's situational awareness self-efficacy. Furthermore, employees who are under significant stress experience a lack of resources, thus they have less of an ability to self-regulate both cognitively and emotionally (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998), which is key in situational awareness (Endsley, 1995a). Indeed, all self-regulation comes from a certain pool of resources, thus, employees who lack resources due to stress cannot self-regulate effectively and report low situational awareness. In the context of this study, stress resulting from a negative interaction with a coworker coupled with a time-sensitive task may result in an employee not having enough self-regulatory resources to anticipate a future incident, which in turn may reduce their situational awareness self-efficacy once the incident happens. Thus, stress stemming from a hostile work climate may narrow one's attention and reduce self-regulatory resources, all of which inhibit situational awareness and reduce one's self-efficacy beliefs.

Hypothesis 3: Hostile work climate is negatively related to situational awareness self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy Beliefs and Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Scholars have suggested that personal resources, such as self-efficacy, influence how individuals perceive the environment and how they choose to respond to it (Judge et al., 1997). Because self-efficacy beliefs refer to the judgment of one's capabilities in a certain domain, they influence individuals' goals, actions, effort, and persistence level (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Meta-analyses have shown that self-efficacy is strongly related to performance (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Individuals who report high self-efficacy tend to set higher goals and thus they achieve higher performance levels and enjoy higher recognition and awards (Bandura, 1986; Locke & Latham, 1990). Conversely, those with lower self-efficacy typically set lower goals, achieve lower performance levels, and receive fewer rewards (Barling & Beattie, 1983; Locke & Latham, 1990). Studies have also reported that self-efficacy predicts motivation (Chen, Gully, Whiteman, & Kilcullem, 2000; Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001), commitment (Luthans, Zhu, & Avolio, 2006), intentions to quit (Luthans et al., 2006), job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Schyns, 2004; Schyns & von Collani, 2002). Much of the literature explores the ways in which self-efficacy predicts employee outcomes; however, scholars have not yet explored the effects of situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs. Thus, I expanded on previous studies by particularly focusing on situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs and their effects on counterproductive work behavior.

Conservation of Resources Theory

As previously stated, COR theory proposes that individuals aim to protect, retain, and build their resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Resources involve any conditions, objects, personal characteristics, or energies (Hobfoll, 1989). Personal resources refer to aspects of the self that reflect one's perception of the ability to control and affect the environment in a successful way and thus such resources are related to resiliency (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson,

2003). Self-efficacy serves as one personal resource that individuals possess (Bandura, 1989; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). Self-efficacy is a personal resource because it affects individuals' sense of control over their abilities and challenges, and it allows individuals to identify new and effective ways to find solutions to their challenges (i.e., hostile and negative conditions of their workplace; Bandura, 1997; De Clercq, Haq, & Azeem, 2019; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). Considering this, I propose that employees who experience low self-efficacy beliefs as a result of their work climate will exhibit higher CWB (i.e., withdrawal and withholding of effort).

Those with low self-efficacy are more likely to withdraw, show up late, or reduce their efforts on tasks instead of dealing with the stress or frustration stemming from their work environment (Bandura, 1988, 1997). This is consistent with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which states that individuals seek to protect and retain their resources and any resource loss is a threat which encourages the conservation of remaining resources. Because hostile work climate depletes employees' situational awareness self-efficacy, which is a valued personal resource, employees may be motivated to withdraw and withhold their effort as a means of protecting their remaining resources. By withdrawing from the workplace, employees can reduce their exposure to an environment that lowers their self-efficacy beliefs and hence prevent further resource loss. Employees may also avoid spending additional cognitive and physical resources by withholding their effort and not working as hard which may mitigate the stress from losing their other resources (Krischer et al., 2010). In other words, employees who are facing low self-efficacy due to an unfavorable climate may withhold their effort and withdraw from the organization as a way to obtain more resources, prevent resource loss, and mitigate their psychological strain (Penney et al., 2011). This notion is consistent with previous findings reporting a negative relationship between self-efficacy and CWB and suggesting that individuals with high self-efficacy have a higher

capacity to deal with work stress and are thus less likely to engage in CWB (Bandura, 1988, 1997). Next, I propose that social cognitive theory offers additional support.

Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory focuses on employee choices of behavior and suggests that self-efficacy influences one's behavior, performance, and persistence when facing challenges (Bandura, 1988). The framework posits that low self-efficacy can result in a feeling of helplessness regarding one's ability to succeed at a certain task and the ability to cope effectively with the challenges of a hostile work climate (Heslin & Klehe, 2006). Individuals with low self-efficacy are not as motivated to overcome challenges at work and they are more passive about their approach to challenges (De Clercq et al., 2019; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Lee & Akhtar, 2007). Stated differently, they are less confident about overcoming challenges and environments that are difficult and are more willing to withdraw instead of facing additional challenges (Bandura, 1993; Ozyilmaz et al., 2018; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Indeed, findings suggest that those low in self-efficacy are less persistent and may give up more easily in the face of challenges (Heslin & Klehe, 2006). Thus, I propose that those with low situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to withdraw from tasks and environments that exceed their coping limits as a way to mitigate distress (Bandura, 1988). This is consistent with previous findings suggesting that self-efficacy is negatively related to various CWB (Brender-Ilan & Sheaffer, 2019). Thus, I proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Situational awareness self-efficacy is negatively related to withholding of effort.

Hypothesis 5: Situational awareness self-efficacy is negatively related to withdrawal.

I propose that the effects of hostile work climate on withdrawal and withholding of effort are both direct and indirect via situational awareness self-efficacy. The role of

situational awareness self-efficacy as a mediator is consistent with scholars suggesting that personal resources, such as self-efficacy, may serve as mediators in the relationships between external organizational factors and employee outcomes and they may influence the way that individuals understand the environment and respond to it (Judge et al., 1997). Drawing on stress (i.e., COR theory, stressor-emotion model of CWB) and social exchange theories, I propose that hostile work climate yields withdrawal and withholding of effort directly because it: (1) depletes psychological resources and facilitates conservation of resources via withdrawal behavior and reduction of effort; (2) serves as a stressor and yields negative emotions that result in CWB; and (3) creates an imbalance in the employee-organization exchange relationship which encourages retaliation to restore a sense of justice. I also propose that the effects of hostile work climate on withdrawal and withholding of effort are indirect through situational awareness self-efficacy as an unfavorable and hostile climate creates an environment that reduces employee self-efficacy beliefs, which in turn encourages employees to engage in CWB as a means to restore their personal resources when they do not feel equipped to cope with a stressful workplace. Thus, I proposed:

Hypothesis 6: Hostile work climate has a positive direct and indirect effect on withholding of effort.

Hypothesis 7: Hostile work climate has a positive direct and indirect effect on withdrawal.

Emotional Stability as a Moderator

Scholars have largely accepted the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality as a robust, unifying framework for describing personality dimensions (Costa & McCrae, 1988; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990). Indeed, studies have shown that the FFM of personality generalizes across cultures, measures, and various sources of ratings (McCrae & John, 1992). The framework proposes five distinct, higher order personality factors, which include

extraversion, agreeableness, emotional stability, conscientiousness, and openness to experience (Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1992). Extraversion relates to the extent to which individuals are social and assertive (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Emotional stability refers to emotional adjustment and the extent to which individuals experience negative affect (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Agreeableness describes whether individuals are trusting, good-natured, and compliant (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Conscientiousness refers to the extent to which individuals are achievement-oriented, dependable, and hardworking (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Last, openness to experience refers to the degree to which individuals are curious, imaginative, unconventional, and open to trying new things (Costa & McCrae, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1985).

Scholars first introduced the Five-Factor Model of personality into organizational studies in the 1940's when they found that the five factors are better predictors of relevant organizational outcomes than other more specific factors (Cattell, 1943). Today, scholars largely accept it as a leading taxonomy for understanding the role of personality in organizations. For example, according to meta-analyses, conscientiousness and emotional stability are the strongest and most consistent predictors of job performance among both civilian and military jobs (Barrick et al., 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001; Salgado, 1997). In addition to exploring its effects on performance, scholars have also examined the effects of personality on deviant behavior (Hough, 1992; Mount, Johnson, Ilies, & Barrick, 2002; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993), including CWB (Berry et al., 2007). Indeed, studies have examined the interaction effects of personality in the relationship between job stressors and CWB (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Fox et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005). In an attempt to expand on these studies, I propose to test whether the effects of hostile work climate on withdrawal and withholding of effort (i.e., aspects of CWB) are conditional on emotional stability. Moreover, I propose to test the effects of emotional stability as a

moderator of the relationship between hostile work climate and situational awareness self-efficacy.

Hostile Work Climate, Emotional Stability, and Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Emotional stability refers to emotional control. Those who are low in emotional stability tend to be anxious, fearful, self-conscious, and display strong emotional responses to events around them (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004). These individuals tend to view the environment as stressful and they have a harder time coping with stress (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Indeed, those low in emotional stability are more likely to report high levels of stress as compared to those high in emotional stability (Tellegen, 1985) because they tend to appraise events in a way that elicits negative affect (Brief, Butcher, & Roberson, 1995). In other words, they are predisposed to perceive more stressors in their environment (Sliter, Withrow, & Jex, 2014). This is likely because they have more difficulty with regulating their emotions and cognitions. Conversely, those with high emotional stability are confident, calm, and don't show a high level of negative affect (Johnson & Ostendorf, 1993; Mount, Barrick, & Strauss, 1994). Considering this, I propose that emotional stability moderates the effects of hostile work climate on situational awareness self-efficacy. First, I suggested that low emotional stability may hinder an individual's situational awareness, which results in lower confidence in their abilities and thus, lowers situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs. Second, I argue that emotional stability serves as a personal resource that protects individuals against the stressors of mistreatment in a hostile work climate. Employees who are low in emotional stability are not able to cope as effectively and may internalize the mistreatment and negative comments they receive, which further diminishes their self-efficacy beliefs.

Personality influences one's appraisal of the environment (Spector & Fox, 2002). For example, Gallagher (1990) reported that low emotional stability is related to the appraisal of threat. This is in line with studies suggesting that individuals with low emotional stability are

predisposed to perceive their environment in a negative lens and identify more stressors (Brief et al., 1995). These perceptions of the environment are likely to influence one's situational awareness. Indeed, studies have found that personality may influence situational awareness (Flin, 2001; Saus et al., 2012).

A study of Norwegian maritime naval cadets showed that high levels of emotional stability, extraversion, and conscientiousness were strong predictors of situational awareness (Saus et al., 2012). Emotional stability explained 37% of variability in situational awareness. Thus, because emotional stability influences one's perception of the environment, it may influence their appraisal of the environment as either a threat or a challenge and lead to skewed situational awareness (Saus et al., 2012). Employees who are low in emotional stability may realize that they make mistakes due to frequent misrepresentations of the context around them as a threat and may thus realize that their situational awareness levels are lacking. This realization is likely to result in lower confidence in their situational awareness skills and reduce their situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs.

Employees who are low in emotional stability also lack a personal resource that may help them cope with the mistreatment they experience or witness in the presence of hostile work climate. Drawing on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), emotional stability is a resource that may reduce employee psychological strain in a hostile work climate (Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009; Penney et al., 2011; Perry, Penney, & Witt, 2007). Indeed, scholars have shown that emotional stability serves as a personal resource by allowing employees to cope, reduce their strain level, and meet the demands of their jobs (Penney et al., 2011; Perry et al., 2007; Perry, Pitt, Penney, & Atwater, 2010). This is because those who are high in emotional stability are psychologically adjusted and do not report a lot of negative affect, thus, they spend less energy managing their emotions and more energy on their tasks (Barrick & Mount, 2005). However, those who are low in emotional stability tend to be depressed, anxious, and

insecure (McCrae & Costa, 1987), which means the mistreatment they receive from a supervisor or a coworker may have a larger, long-lasting effect on them. For example, if their supervisor makes a negative comment about their work product or situational awareness skills and attributes it to their gender, they are more likely to internalize that comment, ruminate on it, and allow it to influence their own self-efficacy beliefs. Indeed, scholars have found that the relationship between leader mistreatment and employee negative affect is stronger among those with low emotional stability (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). Thus, I propose that a hostile work climate, and the mistreatment embedded in it, is likely to reduce self-efficacy beliefs, especially for those low in emotional stability who tend to ruminate and have more difficulty coping with such negative interactions.

Hypothesis 8: The negative effect of hostile work climate on situational awareness self-efficacy is moderated by emotional stability, such that the relationship is stronger (weaker) among individuals low (high) in emotional stability.

Hostile Work Climate, Emotional Stability, and CWB

Studies have suggested that CWB may be a result of the interaction between personality and environmental factors (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Colbert et al., 2004; Penney & Spector, 2002; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999). This may be because an individual's appraisal and response to the environment partly relies on their personality (Spector & Fox, 2002). That is, certain individual characteristics (e.g., personality traits) interact with the environment and may predispose employees to engage in CWB (Berry et al., 2007; Bies & Tripp, 2005; Kelloway et al., 2010; Salgado, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2002). Indeed, meta-analytic results revealed that personal characteristics are stronger predictors of CWB than perceptions of injustice alone (Berry et al., 2007; Dalal, 2005; Salgado, 2002). Specifically, meta-analyses have indicated that

conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability are three personality traits that are most strongly related to CWB (Berry et al., 2007; Salgado, 2002). Along these lines, Bowling and Eschleman (2010) found that personality may serve as a buffer in the relationship between negative work environments and CWB. Their study suggested that those high in emotional stability were less likely to exhibit CWB when working in a stressful work environment. Considering these findings, I propose to test the role of emotional stability as a moderator of the relationships between hostile work climate, withdrawal, and withholding of effort.

Prior findings have provided some support for the role of emotional stability as a buffer in the relationship between a workplace stressor (i.e., hostile work climate) and employee behavior (i.e., withdrawal and withholding of effort). For example, Penney and Spector (2005) showed that negative affectivity, a trait that is related to emotional stability, moderates the positive relationships between interpersonal conflict, constraints, and CWB, such that the relationships are stronger among those with high negative affect (i.e., low emotional stability). Likewise, Colbert and colleagues (2004) showed that conscientiousness and emotional stability moderate the positive relationship between unfavorable perceptions of the work environment and CWB, such that the relationship is stronger among those low in emotional stability or conscientiousness. Building on these studies, I applied COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) to propose that the relationships between hostile work climate and dimensions of CWB (i.e., withdrawal and withholding of effort) will vary depending on employee emotional stability levels.

COR theory explains the role of resources in dealing with work demands and reducing or preventing employee strain (Hobfoll, 1989). Resources can include organizational factors (e.g., pay, social support) and individual differences (e.g., emotional stability; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2000). Those who are high in emotional stability tend to be calm

and do not experience a lot of negative affect, thus, they spend less energy on managing their emotions and have more resources to spare on their tasks (Barrick & Mount, 2005). They are able to leverage their emotional stability to face daily work challenges.

Conversely, those low in emotional stability are more likely to be depressed, anxious, and insecure (McCrae & Costa, 1987), which means they spend more of their resources (i.e., time and energy) on regulating their emotions and preventing failure (Penney et al., 2011). Moreover, individuals who are low in emotional stability tend to experience intense negative emotions which use up their attention and sap their resources (Lord & Harvey, 2002). This may especially be the case in a workplace where hostile work climate is present. Low emotional stability employees may be especially likely to report high levels of distress in this environment as they have more difficulty in coping with stressful work conditions. Thus, employees with low emotional stability may be particularly predisposed to experience a depletion of their emotional resources when working in a hostile work climate, which may evoke withdrawal and withholding of effort behaviors as a way to restore their resources and prevent future resource loss.

Those who experience a depletion of resources tend to conserve their remaining resources and avoid using their energy for tasks that may further deplete them (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Penney et al., 2011). These individuals may engage in behaviors that reduce their psychological distress and restore their resources (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Penney et al., 2011). One way to achieve this may be through withdrawal and withholding of effort (Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007; Penney et al., 2011). CWB may serve as an instrumental method that employees utilize to reduce the stressor or obtain additional resources to complete their work tasks (Krischer et al., 2010). In essence, by withdrawing (e.g., coming to work late), employees reduce their exposure to the stressful environment and prevent further emotional resource loss, whereas by withholding their effort employees are not spending as

much energy on their work tasks and thus, they are also conserving their cognitive resources. This is consistent with previous findings suggesting that employees may engage in CWB to reduce their resource loss-related strain (Krischer et al., 2010). Indeed, CWB is often a reaction to stressful organizational factors (Spector & Fox, 2005), and it has been shown to relate to personality factors such as emotional stability (Berry et al., 2007).

Bowling and Eschleman (2010) examined conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability as moderators of the relationship between an organizational stressor and CWB. They propose that employees with different levels of personality traits may implement different strategies when facing a stressor. Given that those who are low in emotional stability are likely to experience more distress and resource loss when working in a hostile work climate, I propose that they are also more likely to withdraw and withhold their effort to reduce their negative affect and preserve remaining resources. Indeed, previous findings suggest that individuals who are low in emotional stability are more likely to withhold effort at work, especially if they perceive that the organization is not providing adequate support and feedback for their development (Spector & Fox, 2005). This may in part be because those low in emotional stability tend to express more dysfunctional coping mechanisms (e.g., withdrawal), as opposed to problem-focused coping methods (Grant & Langan-Fox, 2006). Colbert and colleagues (2004) also suggested that those low in emotional stability may withhold effort because they engage in more dysfunctional thought processes and ruminate on their negative experiences, thus moving energy away from the task (Colbert et al., 2004). In contrast, those with high emotional stability report less distress and are better able to cope with stressors (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Rodell & Judge, 2009), suggesting they are less likely to experience a level of distress that encourages them to withdraw or withhold their effort. Thus, negative affect and resource loss – functions of low emotional stability and hostile work climate – encourage individuals low in emotional stability to withdraw from the

environment that is causing distress and withhold their effort in order to recover emotionally and restore and preserve their resources (Keller & Nesse, 2005). Figure 1 provides the propose conceptual model.

Hypothesis 9: The positive effect of hostile work climate on withholding of effort is moderated by emotional stability, such that the relationship is stronger (weaker) among individuals low (high) in emotional stability.

Hypothesis 10: The positive effect of hostile work climate on withdrawal is moderated by emotional stability, such that the relationship is stronger (weaker) among individuals low (high) in emotional stability.

CHAPTER II

Method

Participants and Procedure

The Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI) collected participant data online using the Defense Equal Opportunity Climate Survey in 2012. The sample consisted of 1,325 United States military personnel who voluntarily filled out the survey during their hours on duty. The sample was mostly male (87.5%). Of the sample, 12.4% were Hispanic or Latino, 3% Native American, 4.3% Asian, 12.5% Black, 2% Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and 73.7% White. In addition, 31.5% of the sample represented minority members. Of the sample, majority of participants were under 30 years old (69.8%).

Measures

Hostile Work Climate. I assessed hostile work climate using an 18-item scale (Appendix A). DEOMI developed this scale for the purpose of assessing discrimination and harassment within the military setting and previous DEOCS and MEOCS work provides support for the internal consistency and validity of the scale (Estrada, et al., 2007; Landis, Fisher, & Dansby, 1988; Truhon, 2003). The items assess employee perceptions regarding

the probability that a certain hostile or discriminatory event may have happened over the last 30 days. Example items read “A supervisor did not select for promotion a qualified subordinate of a different race or ethnicity” and “A person of one race or ethnicity told several jokes about a different race or ethnicity”. Participants responded using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *There is a very high chance that the action occurred* to 5 = *There is almost no chance that the action occurred*).

However, considering that this is not a widely used scale, I assessed the quality of each item by employing item response theory (Samejima, 1997). Drawing on recommendations from item response theory, I removed items that were similar in content and may result in local dependence as well as items that were not clear and may not represent the latent construct accurately (Embretson & Reise, 2013). I first removed four items that were related to coworkers having lunch or socializing because these may not be a clear reflection of a hostile work climate. These items include “Supervisors of different racial or ethnic backgrounds were seen having lunch together”, “Personnel of different racial or ethnic backgrounds were seen having lunch together”, “Members from different racial or ethnic groups were seen socializing together”, “Members joined friends of a different racial or ethnic group at the same table in the cafeteria or designated eating area.” In addition, I removed an item that was not clear and may have confused the participants. This item reads “The person in charge of the organization changed the duty assignments when it was discovered that two people of the same race or ethnicity were assigned to the same sensitive area on the same shift.” Last, I removed an item (“Racial or ethnic jokes were frequently heard”) that was similar in content to another item that I retained (“A person of one race or ethnicity told several jokes about a different race or ethnicity”). After removal of these items, I retained 12 of the hostile work climate items ($\alpha = 0.93$).

Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy. I assessed situational awareness self-efficacy using a 7-item scale developed for this study ($\alpha = 0.91$). Example items include “Over the past 6 months I have been effective at assessing risks before taking action” and “Over the past 6 months I have been effective at accounting for the overall environment before taking action.” Participants responded using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*). See Appendix B for a list of the items.

Emotional Stability. Following Zheng et al. (2015), I employed a shortened version of Goldberg’s (1999) Big Five factor markers in the International Personality Item Pool to measure emotional stability (Appendix C). The four items (e.g., “In general, I get upset easily”) were similar to the 4-item mini-IPIP scale but were selected to be most relevant to this study context (Baldasaro, Shanahan, & Bauer, 2013). Participants responded using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*). After conducting factor analyses I retained 3 of the items ($\alpha = 0.75$) because one item did not meet the .40 factor loading threshold (Ford, MacCallum, & Taite, 1986).

Withdrawal. I measured withdrawal using 3 items ($\alpha = 0.85$) from the counterproductive work behavior scale (Spector et al., 2006). Participants responded to the items using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Never* to 5 = *Very Often*). An example item reads “During the past 6 months I came to work late without permission.” See Appendix D for a list of the items.

Withholding of Effort. I assessed withholding of effort using 6 items ($\alpha = 0.94$) from the counterproductive work behavior scale (Spector et al., 2006). An example item reads “Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to conserve energy.” Participants reported their answers using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Never* to 5 = *Very Often*). See Appendix E for a list of the items.

Control Variables. Individuals who identify with a minority group membership are more prone to experience and perceive instances of discrimination and harassment at work (Landis et al., 1993; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2009). Because minority employees, women, and older employees tend to be at a higher risk of experiencing discrimination at work, they are also more cognizant of discrimination incidents or mistreatment in the workplace (Inman & Baron, 1996). Given that discrimination typically impacts these employees the most, as they are the direct targets of it, they are also likely to show stronger reactions when they perceive a hostile work climate (Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008). To address this, I controlled for minority status, sex, and age. I used race data and grouped participants as belonging to a nonminority group if they identify as white. See Appendix F for a list of demographic questions.

Analyses.

I utilized IBM Corp.’s SPSS (2013), Version 22 along with *Mplus*, Version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998) to conduct all statistical analyses. I employed SPSS to assess correlations and descriptive statistics. I also used *Mplus* 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998) to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis, determine model fit, and test my hypotheses. I employed structural equations modeling (SEM). Specifically, I first tested for mediation effects. Mediation states that a certain variable explains the effects of a predictor on the outcome. The variable can either transmit the effect of a predictor partially or fully (Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; MacKinnon, 2008). I estimated a partial mediation effect using the bootstrapping option to obtain the bias corrected confidence intervals (Cheung, Cooper-Thomas, Lau, & Wang, 2021; Cheung & Lau, 2008; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). In other words, I tested the direct and indirect effects of hostile work climate on withdrawal and withholding of effort through situational awareness self-efficacy.

In addition to the mediation analyses, Hypotheses 8 through 10 predicted interaction effects. Interaction effects contribute value to a model because they show a more accurate prediction and explain conditions under which a relationship may be weaker, stronger, or change direction (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991; Andersson, Cuervo-Cazurra, & Nielsen, 2014; Baron & Kenny, 1986). I considered the role of emotional stability in mitigating the effects of hostile work climate on situational awareness self-efficacy, withdrawal, and withholding of effort. Thus, I also estimated a moderated mediation model using the latent moderated structural equations (LMS) method that is a part of the *Mplus* software (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). Measurement error can bias regression coefficients when estimating moderated mediation models (Aguinis, Edwards, & Bradley, 2017; Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, I mitigated this problem by using the LMS approach to estimate latent variables and interaction effects, which can reduce the bias resulting from measurement error (Aguinis et al., 2017; Bollen, 1989; DeShon, 1998; Maslowsky, Jager, & Hemken, 2015).

Analyzing interaction effects using LMS is more robust compared to other approaches because it estimates a latent interaction effect and accounts for measurement error (Cheung & Lau, 2017; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). Measurement error reduces power, yields biased estimates, and underestimates or overestimates effect sizes in a mediation model, especially in the presence of interactions (Cheung & Lau, 2017; Ledgerwood & Shrout, 2011; Moosbrugger, Schermelleh-Engel, Kelava, & Klein, 2009). In addressing these concerns, studies show that the LMS approach reduces bias in estimates and increases statistical power (Busemeyer & Jones, 1983; Cheung & Lau 2017; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000; Maslowsky et al., 2015; Schermelleh-Engel, Klein, & Moosbrugger, 1998). Thus, to account for measurement error, I employed the LMS approach using the XWITH command and the MLR estimator (Maslowsky et al., 2015; Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017). Notably, the LMS method does not provide traditional fit indices and standardized estimates (Busemeyer &

Jones, 1983; Maslowsky et al., 2015). Thus, consistent with recommendations (Ayturk, Cham, Jennings, & Brown, 2020; Cheung et al., 2021; Maslowsky et al., 2015), I first estimated an unconditional model and then a conditional model. This allowed me to assess model fit of the unconditional model and compare the conditional model's fit against it using loglikelihood values (Cheung et al., 2021; Maslowsky et al., 2015).

CHAPTER III

Results

I present means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliability estimates of the constructs in Table 1. I present item-level correlations in Table 2.

Reliability analyses indicated that the reliability of the emotional stability scale ($\alpha = .61$) was below the conventional .70 cutoff. Thus, I examined the items of emotional stability further. The fourth emotional stability item, "I seldom feel depressed," showed lower inter-item correlations compared to the other items (see Table 2). I also conducted a confirmatory factor analysis of the emotional stability items and found that the fourth item had a relatively low loading (.18). Researchers recommend that only items with factor loadings above .40 define a latent factor (Ford et al., 1986). Consistent with this, I removed the item, "I seldom feel depressed," from the emotional stability scale. Upon removal of the item, the reliability of the scale improved to ($\alpha = .75$). Hence, I used three emotional stability items for all subsequent analyses. Figure 2 shows the final proposed conceptual model.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

I first used *Mplus* Version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2003) to assess the fit of the factor structure in this model (Table 3) and subsequently to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (Table 4). I employed the weighted least squares with mean and variance adjusted (WLSMV; Muthén, 1993) method to assess model fit. The WLSMV method is robust to nonnormal distributions and provides less biased estimates compared to the ML estimator (DiStefano,

2002; Flora & Curran, 2004; Yang & Green, 2010). Scholars suggest using the WLSMV estimator as it is often unclear whether variables can be treated as continuous or categorical in organizational research and this estimator accounts for this (Beauducel & Herzberg, 2006). The WLSMV estimator output also provides various model fit estimates in addition to the χ^2 statistic (Beauducel & Herzberg, 2006). Thus, I evaluated model fit using all fit statistics because χ^2 is sensitive to a large sample size, such as this one (DiStefano & Morgan, 2014; Sharma, Mukherjee, Kumar, & Dillon, 2005). Namely, I used the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) to compare the models. Statisticians recommend the following conventional cut-off values for each fit statistic: CFI > .95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), TLI > .90 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), RMSEA < .05 for close fit and < .08 for reasonable fit (McDonald & Marsh, 1990), and SRMR < .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

I tested five versions of the model. I first tested a one factor model with all variables loading onto one latent construct (χ^2 (434) = 14280.59, RMSEA = .16, CFI = .80, TLI = .79, SRMR = .19). This model did not show good fit as the RMSEA was above .08 and the remaining fit statistics also did not approximate the conventional cutoff values. Next, I tested a four-factor model that loaded withholding of effort and withdrawal onto one latent factor (i.e., CWB) and defined hostile work climate, emotional stability, and situational awareness self-efficacy as distinct factors (χ^2 (428) = 3128.44, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .96, TLI = .96, SRMR = .05). Considering all fit indices together, this model indicated a reasonable fit to the data. I then tested a five-factor model where I separated the two CWB dimensions and defined five latent constructs (i.e., hostile work climate, emotional stability, situational awareness self-efficacy, withholding of effort, and withdrawal). This model also indicated reasonable model fit as all the fit statistics were within the recommended ranges (χ^2 (424) = 3130.27, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .96, TLI = .96, SRMR = .05).

Next, I tested a 6-factor model that separated hostile work climate into three factors (race/ethnicity, gender, and religion) and combined the two CWB factors into one latent construct. The race/ethnicity factor had 5 items, the gender factor had 4 items, and the religion factor had 3 items. This model's fit did not differ from the previous (χ^2 (424) = 3130.27, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .96, TLI = .96, SRMR = .05).

Last, I tested a 7-factor model where I separated the three hostile work climate dimensions into three factors and separated the two CWB dimensions into two factors (withdrawal and withholding of effort). This model's fit also did not differ from the 5-factor model fit.

Given that the 4-, 5-, 6-, and 7-factor models showed reasonable fit to the data (i.e., RMSEA, CFI, TLI, SRMR) and did not differ, I retained the 5-factor model for all subsequent analyses. This is because the model was more parsimonious than the 6- and 7-factor models, it also aligned with theory, my proposed model, and existing literature that recommends focusing on specific dimensions of CWB (e.g., Spector & Fox, 2005). Moreover, the 5-factor model allowed me to test for the differential effects of climate and self-efficacy on separate CWB dimensions.

Next, considering that the data collection occurred at one time point, I conducted a common method bias analysis, which allowed me to test the extent to which the self-report data collection accounted for variability. The method I employed specified a latent common method factor, which accounted for common method variance that may have stemmed from different sources (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Results indicated that the common method factor was responsible for 4.54% of the variance. Scholars have suggested that common method bias does not have a significant impact on the model if less than 25% of the variance is attributed to the common method factor (Cote & Buckley, 1987; Podsakoff et

al., 2003; Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989). Thus, the results indicate that common method variance is not likely to influence the findings.

Hypothesis Testing.

I employed *Mplus*, Version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998) to test my hypotheses. I first tested the direct and indirect effects by fitting a partial mediation model. The model's χ^2 value was significant (Table 5), however, large sample sizes tend to inflate χ^2 values (Beauducel & Herzberg, 2006; Maslowsky et al., 2015). Thus, I also focused on additional fit statistics to assess goodness of fit (Maslowsky et al., 2015). The model's remaining fit statistics approximated the suggested ranges and indicated close model fit ($\chi^2(419) = 3836.27$, RMSEA = .08 (95% CI = .08, .08), CFI = .88, TLI = .87, SRMR = .05). I provided coefficients for all path estimates in Table 6. Findings provided support for Hypothesis 1, hostile work climate was positively related to withholding of effort ($B = .25$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$). The findings also supported Hypothesis 2, hostile work climate was positively related to withdrawal ($B = .21$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$). In support of Hypothesis 3, results indicated that hostile work climate was negatively related to situational awareness self-efficacy ($B = -.27$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$). Supporting Hypotheses 4 and 5, situational awareness self-efficacy was negatively related to withholding of effort ($B = -.39$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$) and negatively related to withdrawal ($B = -.35$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$).

Next, consistent with Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007), I evaluated indirect effects by assessing the statistical significance of the bootstrapped products of the path coefficients comprising the indirect effects. Table 7 provides estimates of the indirect and total effects. The results provided support for Hypothesis 6 (see Tables 6 and 7). Hostile work climate had a positive direct ($B = .25$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$) and indirect effect on withholding of effort ($B = .11$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$). Consistent with Hypothesis 7, hostile work climate had a positive

direct ($B = .21$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$) and indirect effect on withdrawal ($B = .10$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$).

Last, I estimated the partial mediation effect of hostile work climate on the two outcomes (i.e., withdrawal and withholding of effort) at different levels of emotional stability. Consistent with recommendations from Preacher, Zhang and Zyphur (2016), I employed the LMS (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000) approach to test for moderated mediation. This approach utilizes structural equations modeling to estimate latent interaction terms and account for measurement error (Cheung et al., 2021; Cheung & Lau, 2017; Maslowsky et al., 2015). In employing the LMS method, I used the MLR estimation to account for the multivariate nonnormal nature of interaction effects (Ayturk et al., 2020; Klein & Muthen, 2007).

The LMS method does not provide conventional fit indices and standardized regression coefficients (Busemeyer & Jones, 1983; Maslowsky et al., 2015). Thus, consistent with recommendations (e.g., Cheung et al., 2021; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000; Muthen, 2012), I estimated two models. I first estimated an unconditional model that included the moderator but excluded the latent interaction term ($\chi^2(508) = 2937.91$, $RMSEA = .06$, $CFI = .87$, $TLI = .86$, $SRMR = .06$). Model fit indices indicated appropriate fit as the $RMSEA$ and $SRMR$ fell within recommended ranges (Table 5). This provided initial support for including the moderator in the analyses (Cheung et al., 2021). Next, I used the LMS method to estimate a conditional model that assessed the latent interaction terms using the *XWITH* command in *Mplus* (Cheung et al., 2021; Maslowsky et al., 2015). This model tested the significance of the interaction terms in predicting the outcomes. Because this method does not provide conventional fit indices, I conducted a loglikelihood ratio test (i.e., Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-square Difference Test) to compare this model's fit against the unconditional model (Cheung et al., 2021; Maslowsky et al., 2015; Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017; Satorra,

2000; Satorra & Bentler, 2010). The log-likelihood values difference test (D -statistic) was significant ($D = 18.70, p < .001$). This suggested that the unconditional model showed poorer fit compared to the conditional model and thus, I retained the conditional model and further interpreted the interaction effects.

Table 6 provides coefficients for the interaction effects and Table 8 presents estimates of the effects at different levels of emotional stability. Results indicated that emotional stability moderated the negative effect of hostile work climate on situational awareness self-efficacy (Table 6; $B = -.12, SE = .05, p < .01$). To better understand the nature of the interaction, I implemented the Johnson-Neyman technique (Johnson & Neyman, 1936). This technique is an alternative to the simple slopes test (Aiken et al., 1991). Whereas the simple slopes procedure assesses the significance of a relationship at arbitrary points of the moderator (e.g., $+1, -1$ SD), the Johnson-Neyman technique identifies the values of the moderator at which the relationship between the predictor and outcome becomes significant (Carden, Holtzman, & Strube, 2017). Contrary to my predictions (Hypothesis 8), the relationship between hostile work climate and situational awareness self-efficacy was stronger at higher levels of emotional stability. Figure 4 presents the Johnson-Neyman figure. The graph suggests that the relationship between hostile work climate and situational awareness self-efficacy became significant at around $-1SD$ of emotional stability and the relationship grew stronger as emotional stability increased. See Figure 5 for a plot of the interaction.

Consistent with Hypothesis 9, the positive effect of hostile work climate on withholding of effort was significant and stronger among individuals low on emotional stability ($B = .17, SE = .05, p < .01$). The Johnson-Neyman figure indicates that the relationship was significant at $.5SD$ of emotional stability and became stronger as emotional stability decreased (Figure 6). Figure 7 presents a graphical representation of the interaction.

In support of Hypothesis 10, the positive effect of hostile work climate on withdrawal was also stronger among individuals low in emotional stability ($B = .09$, $SE = .04$, $p < .01$). The Johnson-Neyman figure suggests that the relationship was significant at approximately 1SD of emotional stability and grew stronger as emotional stability decreased (Figure 8). See Figure 9 for a visual representation of the interaction effect.

To gain a better understanding of the moderated mediation effects, I employed the bootstrapping option and used 2,000 bootstraps to obtain the bias corrected confidence intervals (i.e., BCCIs) for the moderated mediation effects (Cheung & Lau, 2017). Table 8 provides estimates of the conditional indirect effects at low and high levels of emotional stability. Results indicate that the indirect effects of hostile work climate on withholding of effort and withdrawal were significant at high, mean, and low levels of emotional stability (Table 3). Figure 3 provides results of the entire conceptual model.

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

Topics around diversity and inclusion are especially important across organizations today as leaders seek to diversify their workplaces and maintain an inclusive environment for the benefit of the organization and its members (Prieto et al., 2016). In an attempt to build on existing literature and inform best practices, I tested a psychological process in which hostile work climate predicted withholding of effort and withdrawal directly and indirectly via self-efficacy beliefs. To this end, I proposed and examined a novel construct, situational awareness self-efficacy and explored its role within a military setting. Situational awareness self-efficacy and counterproductive work behaviors are especially important within a military setting because they may influence mission readiness and safety (Endsley, 1995b). Thus, I sought to explore the psychological mechanisms that explain how discrimination may influence these constructs. Last, I tested the role of individual differences in moderating the

direct and indirect effects. Namely, I proposed that the relationships between hostile work climate and situational awareness self-efficacy, withholding of effort, and withdrawal are conditional on emotional stability.

I first examined the direct relationships between hostile work climate, withholding of effort, and withdrawal. Consistent with theory and prior empirical research (e.g., Spector & Fox, 2005), hostile work climate was positively related to both withholding of effort (Hypothesis 1) and withdrawal (Hypothesis 2). Conservation of resources theory may explain these relationships. The results suggest that employees may engage in CWB to conserve their cognitive and emotional resources upon experiencing resource loss when working in an emotionally demanding workplace. Namely, withholding of effort may allow employees to reduce the number of cognitive resources they spend by limiting the energy they use on tasks. Similarly, withdrawal (e.g., absenteeism) may reduce their exposure to the organizational stressor and prevent further emotional resource loss.

Conservation of resources theory is the primary mechanism I draw on to explain these direct relationships. However, I also draw attention to two additional mechanisms that may explain these relationships (i.e., stress and social exchange). In line with the stressor-emotion model of CWB, employees may engage in withholding of effort and withdrawal to cope with the negative emotions stemming from working in a hostile and discriminatory workplace (Spector & Fox, 2005). The significant direct effect reinforces the notion that that withdrawal and withholding of effort may serve an instrumental function by helping employees cope with stressors and negative emotions. Alternatively, the findings imply that employees perhaps engage in withdrawal and withholding of effort to restore a balance in their exchanges with the organization when the organization is not holding up their part of the exchange (Blau, 1964). This is consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960).

In addition to tests of the direct effects, I also sought to explain the psychological mechanisms underlying the indirect effects of hostile work climate on withholding of effort and withdrawal via situational awareness self-efficacy. Consistent with my predictions, hostile work climate was negatively related to situational awareness self-efficacy (Hypothesis 3). These findings suggest that hostile work climate creates an environment that is not conducive to the formation of positive self-efficacy beliefs. This is likely because a hostile work climate deprives employees of high-quality relationships and role modeling experiences that are crucial to the formation of positive self-efficacy beliefs (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Moreover, due to the toxic nature of this environment, employees are not likely to receive a lot of praise and encouragement from others, thereby reducing their self-efficacy beliefs.

The results of this study also provided support for a negative relationship between situational awareness self-efficacy and withholding of effort (Hypothesis 4) and withdrawal (Hypothesis 5). These findings reinforce the notion that situational awareness self-efficacy is a valued personal resource. When employees perceive low levels of this resource, they are tempted to withdraw and withhold their effort to preserve remaining resources. This is consistent with the premises of conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989). Moreover, these findings imply that perhaps individuals with low self-efficacy are more likely to engage in CWB because they are less confident about overcoming challenges at work.

Taken together, the findings provided support for the positive direct and indirect effects of hostile work climate on withholding of effort (Hypothesis 6) and withdrawal (Hypothesis 7). This implies that hostile work climate encourages withdrawal and withholding of effort directly as it reduces employee emotional and cognitive resources. Alternative explanation suggest that it may also evoke negative emotions that promote CWB or reduce balance in the employee-organization exchange relationship and thereby encourage retaliation (i.e., CWB). In addition, the findings of the indirect path suggest that hostile work

climate creates an environment that reduces employees' self-efficacy beliefs (i.e., a personal resource), which in turn facilitates withdrawal and withholding of effort as employees seek to protect their remaining resources.

I predicted that the negative relationship between hostile work climate and situational awareness self-efficacy would be stronger at low levels of emotional stability (Hypothesis 8). Contrary to my predictions, the negative relationship was stronger at higher levels of emotional stability. Perhaps one explanation for this lies in the notion that those low in emotional stability tend to have lower self-efficacy levels on average, regardless of the climate of their workplace. This may be because they tend to be less confident and experience more negative affect across contexts (Johnson & Ostendorf, 1993; Mount et al., 1994). This may prevent them from feeling confident about their situational awareness abilities. Thus, their self-efficacy levels tend to be on the lower side across various levels of climate, resulting in a nonsignificant interaction at low emotional stability levels. In contrast, those high in emotional stability are likely to experience high situational awareness self-efficacy in a positive climate that facilitates self-efficacy beliefs. However, their self-efficacy levels are likely to be much lower in hostile work climates that diminish self-efficacy beliefs. Perhaps emotional stability is not a strong enough resource to buffer against the negative effects of climate on self-efficacy beliefs. This may suggest that other factors (e.g., praise or coworker support) could be more effective at buffering this relationship.

The positive effect of hostile work climate on withholding of effort was conditional on emotional stability, such that the relationship was stronger among those low in emotional stability (Hypothesis 9). Similarly, the positive relationship between hostile work climate and withdrawal was stronger among those low in emotional stability (Hypothesis 10). Perhaps this indicates that emotional stability serves as a resource that helps employees cope with work stressors and buffers against the negative effects of hostile work climate. For this

reason, employees who are high in emotional stability are less likely to engage in counterproductive work behaviors in the presence of hostile work climate. That is, emotional stability positions employees to better cope with stressors. In contrast, those low in emotional stability cannot rely on their emotional stability as a resource, instead they are more likely to feel stressed out and anxious when working in a hostile work climate. Thus, the results suggest that because individuals who are low in emotional stability have a harder time coping with stressful events (Penney et al., 2011), they are more likely to experience a depletion of resources and engage in counterproductive behaviors.

Theoretical Implications

This study's findings offer several theoretical implications. Although previous studies have established the effects of discrimination and unfavorable climates on CWB (Berry et al., 2007; Colquitt et al., 2001; Kelloway et al., 2010), this study expanded on these studies by focusing on two specific forms of CWB, withdrawal and withholding of effort. I am unaware of any studies that specifically focused on these two dimensions of CWB in exploring the effects of discrimination or hostile work climate. Moreover, in exploring these direct effects, I extended the current understanding of these relationships by employing conservation of resources theory and providing two alternative possible explanations based in the stressor emotion model and social exchange theory. In doing so, the findings suggested that multiple mechanisms may be responsible for these relationships and scholars may further explore these three mechanisms. These findings shed light on the idea that psychological processes based in these theories can function simultaneously to explain a certain set of behaviors. Namely, this extended our understanding of CWB by illustrating that employees may engage in CWB as a result of resource depletion, coping mechanisms, or due to an imbalance in the exchange relationship.

In addition to the theoretical contributions of the direct effects, I also explored the indirect effects of climate on CWB through self-efficacy beliefs. In testing these effects, I introduced a novel construct, situational awareness self-efficacy. Although scholars have explored various forms of self-efficacy (e.g., test-taking self-efficacy; Truxillo et al., 2002), I am unaware of any studies that focused on situational awareness self-efficacy. Thus, in introducing this construct, I extended social cognitive theory and the current understanding of self-efficacy beliefs. I also expanded situational awareness research by capturing it from a psychological framework in measuring it using self-efficacy beliefs. Indeed, research in situational awareness has predominantly been present in the human factors field (e.g., Endsley, 1995a). I extended the literature on this construct by applying it within an organizational psychology framework. Moreover, I shed light on the importance of studying this construct within organizations and the military as it is related to constructs that are important to leaders (e.g., CWB). Last, although previous studies have explored the effects of climate on employee behavior, I am unaware of any study that focused on the role of situational awareness self-efficacy as a mediator.

The study also sheds light on the role of personality in the effects of climate on employee behavior. Although previous studies have explored the role of personality and emotional stability as a moderator of various relationships (e.g., Colbert et al., 2004; Penney & Spector, 2002), this study expands on this research by exploring the effects of emotional stability as a resource that buffers against the demands of a hostile work climate. Thus, the study draws on conservation of resources theory and applies it in the context of hostile work climate and personality to explain CWB. In doing so, the study builds on the current understanding of how individual differences influence one's response to discrimination or an unfavorable climate.

Last, my statistical analysis procedures (i.e., LMS; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000) offer another contribution. Although Klein and Moosbrugger introduced the LMS technique over 20 years ago, statisticians have been calling for researchers to employ this procedure more frequently because it is more robust in assessing moderated mediation using latent variables (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). A recent meta-analysis by Cortina and colleagues (2021) showed that only 6% of analyses in their review used LMS, whereas majority studies used other approaches that have been shown to bias results. Thus, this study expands the current literature involving this statistical procedure.

Practical Implications

The findings may inform several best practices that leaders may consider employing within their organizations. Specifically, the findings revealed that the norms and practices present in a hostile work climate result in perceptions of injustice, which affect employee behavior (i.e., CWB) and self-efficacy beliefs. This is valuable for organizations because CWB are costly and affect not only employee performance but also the performance of the entire organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Spector & Zhou, 2014). Indeed, CWB is one type of performance and reducing this kind of behavior can increase the organization's productivity (Spector et al., 2006). The results suggested that one way to prevent CWB is by cultivating a positive and inclusive work climate, as opposed to a hostile one. Although this study is not the first to suggest this, the results point to two specific forms of CWB (i.e., withdrawal and withholding of effort). Thus, leaders who face high levels of withdrawal or withholding of effort among their employees may particularly benefit from reexamining their policies, practices, and procedures to determine if these create perceptions of a hostile work climate. In addition to the effects on CWB, the findings also revealed that hostile work climate reduces one's self-efficacy beliefs, which may reduce one's motivation to engage in tasks that require situational awareness.

Changing the climate of an organization can be a daunting task. Thus, I outline several changes that organizations may consider. If hostile work climate and discrimination are present, organizations may benefit from making changes to the current practices and procedures. They may do this by creating systems that allow employees to file grievances if they have witnessed discrimination. It is important that employees know where to go when they witness such behavior and that they feel safe reporting it. This can increase employees' sense of voice and increase their perception of justice. Another step may involve making changes to the current HR practices (e.g., selection and performance appraisals) to ensure that those do not introduce bias or create adverse impact. This would signal to the employees that the organization does not tolerate discrimination. Organizations may also place diversity and inclusion at the core of their organization by ensuring that diversity and equal treatment span all functions of the organization (e.g., when recruiting new and diverse applicants or when serving diverse clients). Last, organizations may implement a diversity and inclusion training program to ensure that all members of the organizations are aware of the changes happening and that they also treat one another with respect. Together, these changes are likely to signal to the employees that that organization does not tolerate discrimination or mistreatment and is working toward shifting the overall culture. This may reduce employees' CWB as they perceive that the organization is taking steps to treat everyone equally. It may also increase employee self-efficacy beliefs as they no longer receive criticism, but instead receive more praise and more role-modeling experiences.

Leaders also play a significant role in employing an organizational climate shift. Thus, it is important that organizations train leaders, so they know how to identify subtle cases of discrimination or mistreatment and so that they know how to handle such instances. They may also benefit from training that helps them to manage diverse teams and helps them identify their own biases so that these do not influence their decision-making. Leaders are

role-models for their subordinates and their behavior trickles down to influence the employees (Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012). Thus, as leaders engage in equal treatment of all employees, they also set an example for those around them.

It is important to point out that changing an organizational climate may take a longer amount of time. Thus, in addition to changing the climate, organizations may want to take additional steps that would have a quicker impact on employees' self-efficacy beliefs and CWB. Considering that self-efficacy beliefs influenced CWB, leaders may benefit from increasing subordinates' self-efficacy beliefs. For example, leaders may increase employee self-efficacy beliefs by giving their subordinates time to practice a certain skill or task and providing them with praise when they complete correctly (Wood & Bandura, 1989). In addition, they may spend more time showing their subordinates how they successfully complete certain tasks, which could further increase their self-efficacy beliefs. As the results suggest, these steps may not only increase employee self-efficacy beliefs but also in turn reduce CWB. Likewise, leaders may reduce their subordinates' CWB in the short-term by focusing on employee resources. For example, leaders may provide their subordinates with more social support, treat them with respect, or provide employees with other resources they value (e.g., autonomy, more time to complete tasks). These steps may help employees mitigate the negative effects of hostile work climate in the short-term.

Last, the findings regarding the interaction effects suggest that leaders may want to pay closer attention to those who are low in emotional stability because a toxic climate, such as hostile work climate, may have a greater effect on them. Thus, leaders may buffer the impacts of this climate on these employees by providing them with more emotional support or with additional support and resources that help them to cope with this climate. They may also hire those who are high in emotional stability as they are likely to have less of a challenge working in this environment until a larger organizational climate shift takes place.

Limitations and Future Suggestions

In interpreting the results of this study, I also draw attention to the limitations. The sample of this study offers some limitations. The sample consisted of military personnel, which informs the understanding around how these phenomena manifest in the military setting. However, the results may not generalize to all workplace settings (e.g., private sector). Thus, future studies may build upon these findings by exploring these relationships using different samples (e.g., private sector employees). Furthermore, the sample was largely male (87.5%) and under the age of 30 (69.8%). The sample also did not consist of a large percentage of racial or ethnic minorities (31.5%). These sample demographics may have influenced the results. Researchers may replicate this study using more diverse samples to assess whether these effects generalize when examining samples with a different demographic makeup.

Another set of limitations involves the data collection method. Participants responded to a self-report survey, which may have created some common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Moreover, I collected responses on the outcomes (i.e., withdrawal and withholding of effort) using self-report questionnaires. Given the nature of these outcomes, participants may not have responded truthfully. That is, participants may have felt discomfort when admitting that they have engaged in behavior that harms the organization. Future studies may build on these findings by using multiple sources of data. For example, scholars may assess outcomes, such as CWB, by asking employees to rate their coworkers (e.g., 360-degree studies) or using HR performance data. This study also only focused on dimensions of CWB. Future studies may build on this framework by examining other forms of performance (e.g., task performance or citizenship behaviors). Such studies may especially benefit from obtaining performance data from supervisors or HR. Another limitation stemming from the data collection design involves the cross-sectional nature of the

data. I collected data at one time point. As such, the findings cannot imply causation.

Scholars may replicate these findings by collecting data at different time points to help establish causation among the variables.

The scales and analyses of the study comprise another set of limitations. Namely, I assessed and analyzed hostile work climate using a psychological climate scale as opposed to a unit-level organizational climate scale. Future studies may benefit from exploring these effects by measuring climate at the unit or organizational level. This may yield different results as it does not reflect individual employee perceptions. The study also assessed emotional stability using a shortened version of the scale to prevent survey fatigue. Although this was in line with the methods employed in a previous study (Zheng et al., 2015), it may have contributed to the scale's lower reliability coefficient. Future studies may expand on this study by assessing emotional stability using the full scale and determining which facets of emotional stability drive the conditional effects. In addition, the hostile work climate scale items ask participants to rate each item using events from the past month, whereas the self-efficacy scale asks participants to rate each item by thinking about the past six months. This is a limitation because it suggests that climate-related events in the past month influence self-efficacy measured based on the past six months. Future studies may replicate this study by asking participants to focus on the same period of time when answering all survey questions or by using a longitudinal design and collecting data at two points in time.

Last, in addition to conservation of resources theory, there are two additional theories that may explain the relationships between hostile work climate, withdrawal, and withholding of effort (i.e., stressor-emotion model and social exchange theory). Although I described these alternative explanations, I did not assess whether these theories offer a better explanation for the direct effects than conservation of resources theory. Thus, future research may expand on these findings by exploring additional models and mediators that may explain

which of the three theories best explain these direct effects. In addition, I did not assess the factors predicting hostile work climate perceptions. Future studies may build on these findings by exploring the mechanisms underlying the antecedents of hostile work climate. This may inform practice by informing practitioners and leaders on how to best prevent the negative outcomes of this climate. This may also expand this theoretical framework by providing the conditions under which this type of unfavorable climate emerges.

Conclusion

Employees engage in counterproductive behavior for a variety of reasons ranging from leadership and organizational characteristics to individual differences. In this study, I tested a conditional partial mediation model where I explored the effects of hostile work climate on withdrawal and withholding of effort through situational awareness self-efficacy. Findings suggested that employees may engage in withdrawal and withholding of effort as a result of a hostile work climate that reduces employee resources. The findings also suggest that this climate may create an imbalance in the exchange relationship or elicit stress that employees cope with using CWB. Future research may further explore these psychological mechanisms to determine which one best explains this relationship. However, the findings of these direct effects serve to explain the repercussions of a hostile work climate and may inform best practices when trying to reduce CWB.

Moreover, situational awareness self-efficacy beliefs may also play a part in explaining the relationship between hostile work climate and CWB. Indeed, the findings suggested that hostile climate is a toxic work environment that may reduce employees' self-efficacy beliefs, which in turn encourages employees to engage in CWB as they feel a sense of helplessness and seek to conserve their remaining resources. This further provides an explanation of the psychological mechanisms surrounding CWB. Last, the study revealed the role of personality in influencing the relationships between hostile work climate, self-efficacy

beliefs, and CWB. Contrary to predictions hostile work climate is likely to reduce self-efficacy beliefs among those who are high in emotional stability. Thus, emotional stability may not serve as a buffer for the impact of stressors on all outcomes. Future research may explore this further by testing the outcomes or conditions under which emotional stability may no longer serve as a sufficient resource. However, results showed that high emotional stability buffered the impact of hostile work climate on CWB. Therefore, those high in emotional stability are less likely to engage in CWB in a hostile work climate compared to those low in emotional stability. Leaders and practitioners may use this information to best manage their subordinates if they work within a toxic environment. Together, the study underscores the notion that organizations which seek to remain competitive in today's markets are likely to benefit from cultivating a diverse and inclusive workplace as this is likely to reduce CWB and improve employee self-efficacy beliefs.

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HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 1.

Latent Variable Descriptive Statistics and Inter-Item Correlations Matrix.

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Hostile Work Climate	1.82	.81	(.93)							
2. Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy	3.75	.75	-.34**	(.91)						
3. Emotional Stability	3.52	.93	-.29**	.41**	(.75)					
4. Withdrawal	1.53	.86	.33**	-.39**	-.28**	(.85)				
5. Withholding of Effort	1.50	.87	.35**	-.38**	-.31**	.82**	(.94)			
6. Minority Status	1.32	.47	.10**	-.13**	-.09**	.10**	.14**	-		
7. Sex	1.12	.33	.01	-.01	-.05	.01	-.02	.15**	-	
8. Age	2.21	.88	-.07**	.11**	.04	-.09**	-.13**	-.01	-.05	-

Note. $N = 1,325$. All reliability estimates (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) are presented in parentheses along the diagonal.

** $p < .001$

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics and Inter-Item Correlations Matrix.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. HWC1	-																	
2. HWC4	.39**	-																
3. HWC5	0.38**	.71**	-															
4. HWC7	.36**	.59**	.66**	-														
5. HWC10	.45**	.50**	.51**	.54**	-													
6. HWC11	.69**	.47**	.46**	.46**	.56**	-												
7. HWC13	.40**	.53**	.56**	.59**	.58**	.51**	-											
8. HWC14	.67**	.39**	.39**	.39**	.52**	.74**	.48**	-										
9. HWC15	.62**	.45**	.45**	.46**	.56**	.72**	.55**	.79**	-									
10. HWC16	.35**	.56**	.62**	.59**	.59**	.48**	.60**	.43**	.50**	-								
11. HWC17	.57**	.39**	.42**	.44**	.50**	.65**	.46**	.68**	.66**	.54**	-							
12. HWC18	.40**	.54**	.56**	.58**	.58**	.49**	.59**	.46**	.51**	.73**	.56**	-						
13. ES1	-.19**	-.17**	-.17**	-.20**	-.18**	-.22**	-.13**	-.18**	-.19**	-.17**	-.15**	-.15**	-					
14. ES2	-.25**	-.21**	-.20**	-.21**	-.24**	-.26**	-.19**	-.23**	-.24**	-.23**	-.23**	-.22**	.43**	-				
15. ES3	-.17**	-.12**	-.14**	-.13**	-.15**	-.15**	-.11**	-.14**	-.14**	-.14**	-.10**	-.13**	.65**	.41**	-			
16. ES4	-.08**	-.11**	-.09**	-.07*	-.10**	-.09**	-.06*	-.03	-.06*	-.12**	-.04	-.09**	.09**	.18**	.10**	-		
17. SA1	-.20**	-.20**	-.20**	-.22**	-.22**	-.23**	-.24**	-.20**	-.22**	-.25**	-.20**	-.20**	.21**	.37**	.21**	.18**	-	
18. SA2	-.15**	-.22**	-.22**	-.24**	-.22**	-.18**	-.22**	-.14**	-.17**	-.26**	-.16**	-.24**	.22**	.40**	.22**	.19**	.74**	-

Note. N = 1,325. HWC = Hostile Work Climate, ES = Emotional Stability, SA = Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy, WE = Withholding of Effort, WITH = Withdrawal, Minority = Minority Status. ** p < .001

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 2.
Descriptive Statistics and Inter-Item Correlations Matrix. (Continued)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
19. SA3	-.17**	-.20**	-.20**	-.21**	-.19**	-.19**	-.17**	-.15**	-.17**	-.25**	-.16**	-.19**	.18**	.39**	.19*	.25**	.55**
20. SA4	-.16**	-.19**	-.17**	-.21**	-.21**	-.22**	-.22**	-.14**	-.17**	-.25**	-.18**	-.21**	.19**	.35**	.20**	.19**	.60**
21. SA5	-.19**	-.20**	-.21**	-.23**	-.24**	-.23**	-.24**	-.18**	-.20**	-.28**	-.17**	-.23**	.18**	.36**	.19**	.18**	.60**
22. SA6	-.18**	-.22**	-.21**	-.21**	-.23**	-.21**	-.23**	-.16**	-.18**	-.25**	-.17**	-.20**	.26**	.34**	.22**	.33**	.46**
23. SA7	-.20**	-.25**	-.27**	-.24**	-.24**	-.25**	-.24**	-.19**	-.23**	-.28**	-.23**	-.25**	.25**	.45**	.25**	.20**	.59**
24. WE1	.16**	.21**	.23**	.24**	.25**	.21**	.25**	.14**	.18**	.29**	.19**	.26**	-.22**	-.20**	-.21**	-.10**	-.29**
25. WE2	.18**	.21**	.25**	.27**	.26**	.25**	.28**	.18**	.21**	.30**	.21**	.28**	-.23**	-.20**	-.20**	-.08**	-.29**
26. WE3	.16**	.23**	.26**	.29**	.25**	.22**	.30**	.14**	.20**	.32**	.18**	.29**	-.21**	-.18**	-.18**	-.09**	-.29**
27. WE4	.21**	.19**	.20**	.22**	.23**	.24**	.25**	.19**	.22**	.29**	.23**	.28**	-.23**	-.20**	-.21**	-.09**	-.28**
28. WE5	.19**	.20**	.24**	.24**	.24**	.23**	.27**	.19**	.22**	.29**	.25**	.29**	-.25**	-.21**	-.22**	-.10**	-.26**
29. WE6	.22**	.21**	.22**	.25**	.26**	.24**	.28**	.22**	.23**	.26**	.24**	.27**	-.27**	-.26**	-.25**	-.10**	-.25**
30. WITH1	.16**	.19**	.20**	.21**	.24**	.19**	.24**	.16**	.19**	.26**	.17**	.21**	-.20**	-.16**	-.16**	-.06*	-.27**
31. WITH2	.21**	.18**	.20**	.23**	.24**	.25**	.25**	.22**	.24**	.25**	.25**	.24**	-.24**	-.22**	-.21**	-.10**	-.33**
32. WITH3	.17**	.21**	.25**	.27**	.24**	.23**	.27**	.17**	.23**	.29**	.23**	.27**	-.23**	-.20**	-.20**	-.10**	-.28**
33. Minority	.06*	.16**	.17**	.11**	.09**	.08**	.07**	.01	.01	.11**	.04	.09**	-.09**	-.05	-.09**	-.16**	-.06*
34. Gender	-.02	0.06*	.03	-.03	.04	.00	.05	.00	.02	.00	-.06*	-.02	-.06*	-.03	-.04	.00	-.02
35. Age	-.09**	-0.03	.00	-.02	-.08**	-.10**	-.02	-.06*	-.06*	-.06*	-.03	-.06*	.06*	-.02	.05	.13**	.11**

Note. N = 1,325. HWC = Hostile Work Climate, ES = Emotional Stability, SA = Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy, WE = Withholding of Effort, WITH = Withdrawal, Minority = Minority Status. ** p < .001

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 2.
Descriptive Statistics and Inter-Item Correlations Matrix. (Continued)

	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
19. SA3	.58**	-															
20. SA4	.62**	.67**	-														
21. SA5	.60**	.67**	.80**	-													
22. SA6	.47**	.50**	.48**	.47**	-												
23. SA7	.56**	.59**	.60**	.63**	.51**	-											
24. WE1	-.33**	-.27**	-.31**	-.30**	-.26**	-.27**	-										
25. WE2	-.32**	-.26**	-.30**	-.30**	-.25**	-.28**	.82**	-									
26. WE3	-.32**	-.26**	-.30**	-.30**	-.24**	-.26**	.81**	.81**	-								
27. WE4	-.27**	-.23**	-.28**	-.25**	-.25**	-.25**	.72**	.72**	.71**	-							
28. WE5	-.28**	-.21**	-.26**	-.25**	-.24**	-.24**	.71**	.72**	.71**	.77**	-						
29. WE6	-.25**	-.22**	-.24**	-.22**	-.25**	-.25**	.64**	.67**	.64**	.71**	.72**	-					
30. WITH1	-.28**	-.24**	-.26**	-.25**	-.23**	-.22**	.63**	.61**	.61**	.54**	.53**	.47**	-				
31. WITH2	-.31**	-.27**	-.31**	-.30**	-.26**	-.27**	.66**	.66**	.64**	.64**	.63**	.57**	.61**	-			
32. WITH3	-.33**	-.26**	-.30**	-.31**	-.23**	-.25**	.77**	.74**	.74**	.65**	.69**	.58**	.68**	.67**	-		
33. Minority	-.11**	-.11**	-.12**	-.08**	-.12**	-.12**	.12**	.12**	.15**	.13**	.14**	.09**	.08**	.08**	.11**	-	
34. Gender	.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.02	.01	.00	.01	.03	-.02	.00	.15**	-
35. Age	.10**	.06*	.08**	.07*	.10**	.10**	-.11**	-.11**	-.10**	-.11**	-.11**	-.12**	-.07**	-.07**	-.08**	-.01	-.05

Note. N = 1,325. HWC = Hostile Work Climate, ES = Emotional Stability, SA = Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy, WE = Withholding of Effort, WITH = Withdrawal, Minority = Minority Status. ** $p < .001$ * $p < .05$.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 3.
Measurement Models Comparison.

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
1-Factor Model	434	14280.59**	.16	.80	.79	.19
4-Factor Model	428	3128.44**	.07	.96	.96	.05
5-Factor Model	424	3130.27**	.07	.96	.96	.05
6-Factor Model	419	3058.98**	.07	.96	.96	.05
7- Factor Model	413	3057.97**	.07	.96	.96	.05

Note. $N = 1,325$. Models estimated using WLSMV estimator. RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, TLI = Tucker Lewis Index, SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

** $p < .001$.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 4.
Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Item	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
A person of one race or ethnicity told several jokes about a different race or ethnicity.	.75				
A supervisor did not select for promotion a qualified subordinate of a different race or ethnicity.	.81				
Members of a particular race or ethnicity were assigned less desirable office space than members of a different race or ethnicity.	.86				
While speaking to a group, the person in charge of the organization took more time to answer questions from one race or ethnic group than from another group.	.82				
When a person complained of sexual harassment, the supervisor said, "You're being too sensitive".	.80				
Offensive racial or ethnic names were frequently heard.	.86				
A supervisor referred to subordinates of one gender by their first names in public while using titles for subordinates of the other gender.	.81				
Jokes about a particular gender were frequently heard.	.86				
A person made sexually suggestive remarks about the opposite gender.	.88				
A well-qualified person was denied a job because the supervisor did not like the religious beliefs of the person.	.89				
A demeaning comment was made about a certain religious group.	.81				
A supervisor favored a worker who had the same religious beliefs as the supervisor.	.85				
Over the past 6 months I have been effective at accounting for the overall environment before taking action.	.84				
Over the past 6 months I have been effective at recognizing my own limitations before taking action'	.84				
Over the past 6 months I have been effective at recognizing the limitations of other personnel in the unit before taking.	.80				
Over the past 6 months I have been effective at assessing risks before taking action.	.89				
Over the past 6 months I have been effective at taking precautions before taking action.	.89				
Over the past 6 months I have been effective considering the needs of my leaders before taking action.	.70				
Over the past 6 months I have been effective considering the needs of my unit members before taking action.	.81				
Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to even the score.			.95		
Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to retaliate for being mistreated.			.94		
Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to get the treatment or rewards I deserve.			.95		
Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to conserve energy.			.91		
Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to be able to devote effort towards other things.			.91		
Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to avoid a stressful or draining situation.			.87		

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 4.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis. (Continued)

Item	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
During the past 6 months I came to work late without permission.				.81	
During the past 6 months I took a longer break than allowed.				.88	
During the past 6 months I left work early without permission.				.95	
I have frequent mood swings.					.75
I am relaxed most of the time.					.83
I get upset easily.					.71
I seldom feel depressed.					.36

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 5.
Structural Models Comparison.

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR	H0 log-likelihood	H0 Scaling Correction Factor for MLR	Free Parameters	Loglikelihood values difference test
Partial Mediation Model	419	3836.27**	.08	.88	.87	.05	-40422.41	-	99	-
Unconditional Model	508	2937.91**	.06	.87	.86	.06	-45955.47	1.87	112	-
Conditional Model	-	-	-	-	-	-	-45931.27	1.89	115	18.70**

Note. $N = 1,325$. RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, TLI = Tucker Lewis Index, SRMR = standardized root mean square residual. Standard fit statistics estimate the model using MLR and involves interaction effects which does not provide standard fit indices.

Loglikelihood presented for conditional model. Loglikelihood difference test values obtained using the Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-square Difference Test.

** $p < .001$.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 6.

Unstandardized and Standardized Estimates of the Direct and Indirect Effects.

	Partial Mediation Model			Unconditional Model			Conditional Model		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
DV: Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy									
Hostile Work Climate	-.27***	.03	-.34***	-.20***	.03	-.25***	-.23***	.04	-.29***
Emotional Stability	-	-	-	.22***	.04	.30***	.21***	.04	.29***
Minority Status	-.13**	.04	.09**	-.11**	.04	-.08**	-.11**	.04	-.07**
Gender	.02	.06	.01	.04	.05	.02	.06	.06	.03
Age	.06**	.02	.08**	.06**	.02	.08**	.06**	.02	.07**
Hostile Work Climate x Emotional Stability	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.12**	.05	-.14**
R^2			.13***			.21***			.25***
ΔR^2						.08			.01
DV: Withholding of Effort									
Hostile Work Climate	.25***	.04	.24***	.22***	.04	.21***	.18***	.03	.17***
Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy	-.39***	.05	-.30***	-.32***	.05	-.25***	-.35***	.05	-.28***
Emotional Stability	-	-	-	-.15***	.03	-.16***	-.16***	.04	-.17***
Minority Status	.17**	.06	.09**	.16**	.05	.08**	.16**	.05	.08**
Gender	-.07	.07	-.03	-.09	.07	-.04	-.07	.07	-.03
Age	-.08***	.02	-.08***	-.08***	.02	-.08***	-.08***	.02	.07**
Hostile Work Climate x Emotional Stability	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.17**	.05	-.16***
R^2			.22***			.24***			.26***
ΔR^2						.02			.02
DV: Withdrawal									
Hostile Work Climate	.21***	.03	.25***	.19***	.03	-.22***	.16***	.03	.19***
Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy	-.35***	.05	-.33***	-.30***	.05	-.29***	-.32***	.05	-.31***
Emotional Stability	-	-	-	-.12***	.03	-.15***	-.12***	.03	-.15***
Minority Status	.08	.05	.05	.07	.04	.05	.07	.04	.04
Gender	-.03	.06	-.01	-.04	.06	-.02	-.03	.06	-.01
Age	-.04	.02	-.04	-.04	.02	-.04	-.04	.02	0.04
Hostile Work Climate x Emotional Stability	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.09*	.04	-.10*
R^2			.24***			.26***			.26***
ΔR^2						.04			-

Note. $N = 1,325$. Standardized and unstandardized coefficients presented. DV = Dependent Variable. SE = Standard Error. Minority status coded as 0 = nonminority, 1 = minority. Gender coded as 0 = male, 1 = female. Age coded 1 = 18 – 21, 2 = 22 – 30, 3 = 31 – 40, 4 = 41 – 50, 5 = 51 or over. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 7.

Total and Indirect Effects.

	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Effects of Hostile Work Climate on Withholding of Effort through Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy	.11**	.02	.08	.13
Total Effect of Hostile Work Climate on Withholding of Effort	.36**	.04	.29	.43
Effects of Hostile Work Climate on Withdrawal through Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy	.10**	.02	.07	.12
Total Effect of Hostile Work Climate on Withdrawal	.30**	.04	.25	.36

Note. $N = 1,325$. Unstandardized effects provided. SE = Standard Error, LLCI = Lower-Level Confidence Interval, ULCI = Upper- Level Confidence Interval. ** $p < .001$

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

Table 8.

Conditional Direct and Indirect Effects at Low, Average, and High Levels of Emotional Stability.

Moderator	Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy				Withholding of Effort				Withdrawal			
	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Direct Effects												
-1 SD Emotional Stability	-.12*	.04	-.20	-.04	.34**	.06	.22	.46	.25**	.05	.16	.35
0 Emotional Stability	-.23**	.04	-.30	-.17	.18**	.04	.11	.25	.16**	.03	.11	.23
+1 SD Emotional Stability	-.34**	.07	-.48	-.23	.02	.06	-.09	.13	.08	.05	-.01	.10
Indirect Effects												
-1 SD Emotional Stability	-	-	-	-	.04*	.02	.02	.07	.04*	.01	.01	.07
0 Emotional Stability	-	-	-	-	.08**	.02	.05	.12	.07**	.02	.05	.11
+1 SD Emotional Stability	-	-	-	-	.12**	.03	.07	.18	.11**	.03	.07	.17

Note. $N = 1,325$. SE = Standard Error, LLCI = Lower-Level Confidence Interval, ULCI = Upper-Level Confidence Interval. 95% Confidence intervals estimated using 1,000 bootstraps. * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

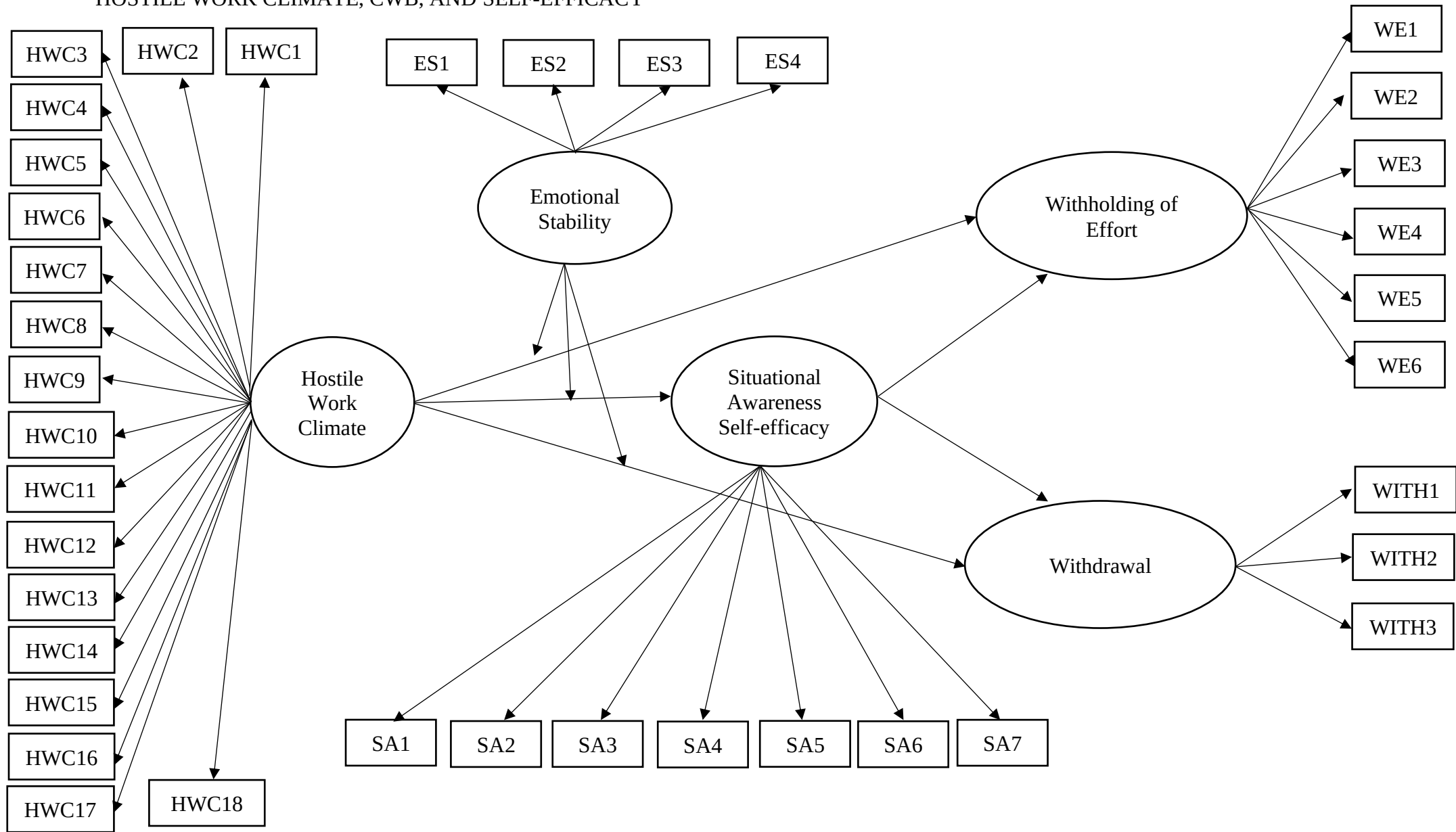


Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model. Control for age, sex, and minority status.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

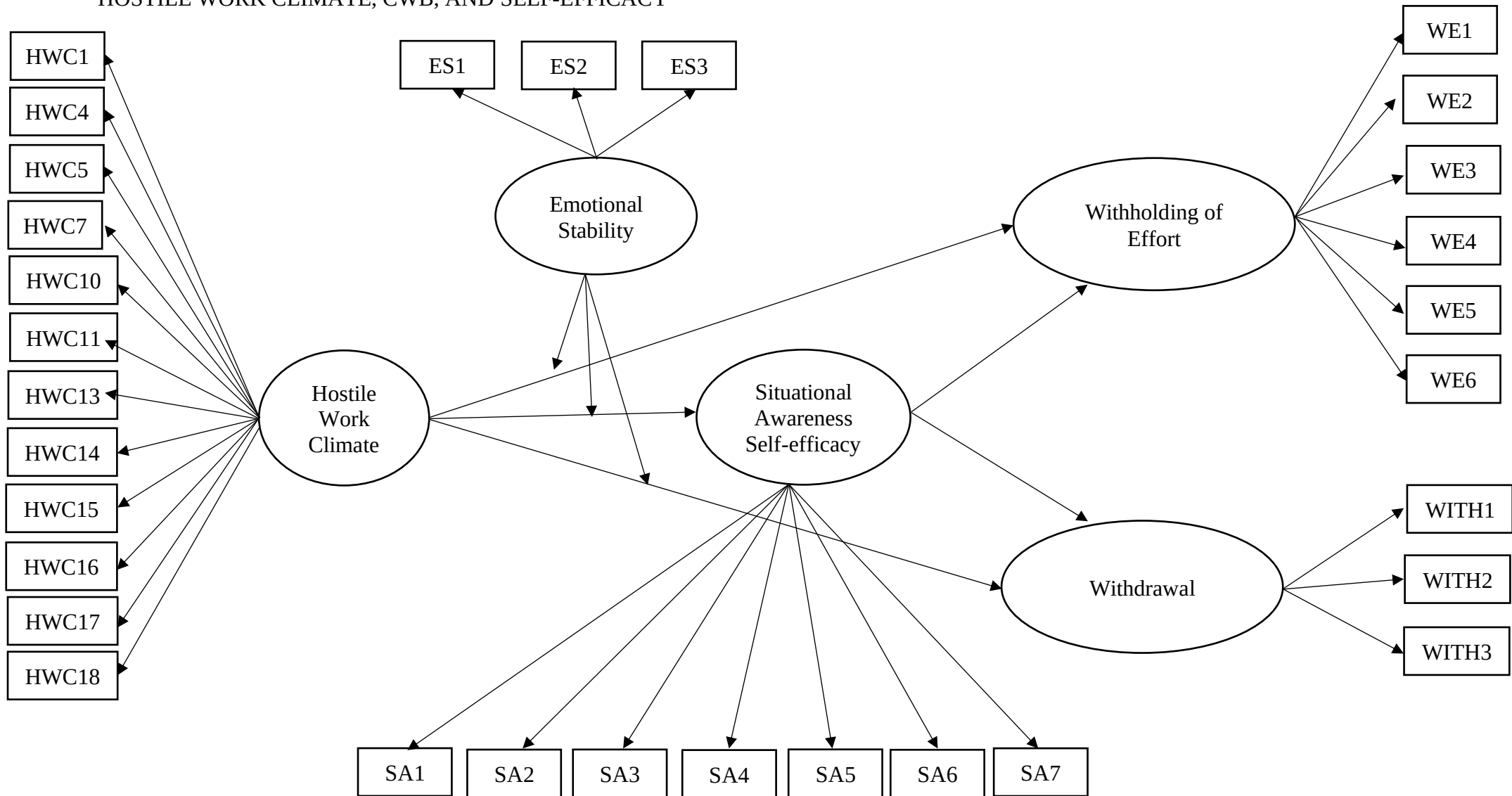


Figure 2. Final Conceptual Model. Control for age, sex, and minority status.

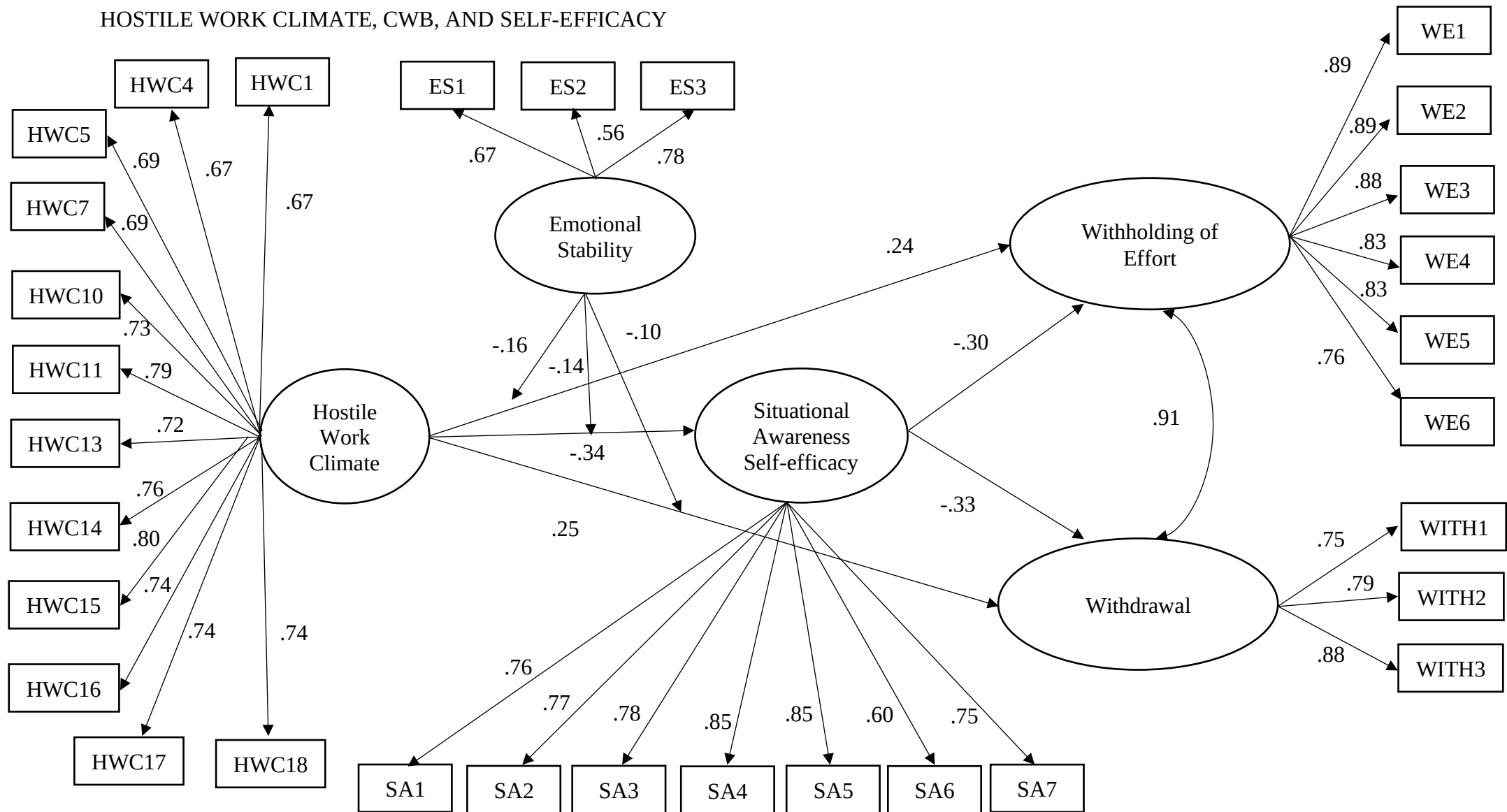


Figure 3. Standardized regression coefficients presented for the hypothesized model. Control for age, sex, and minority status.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

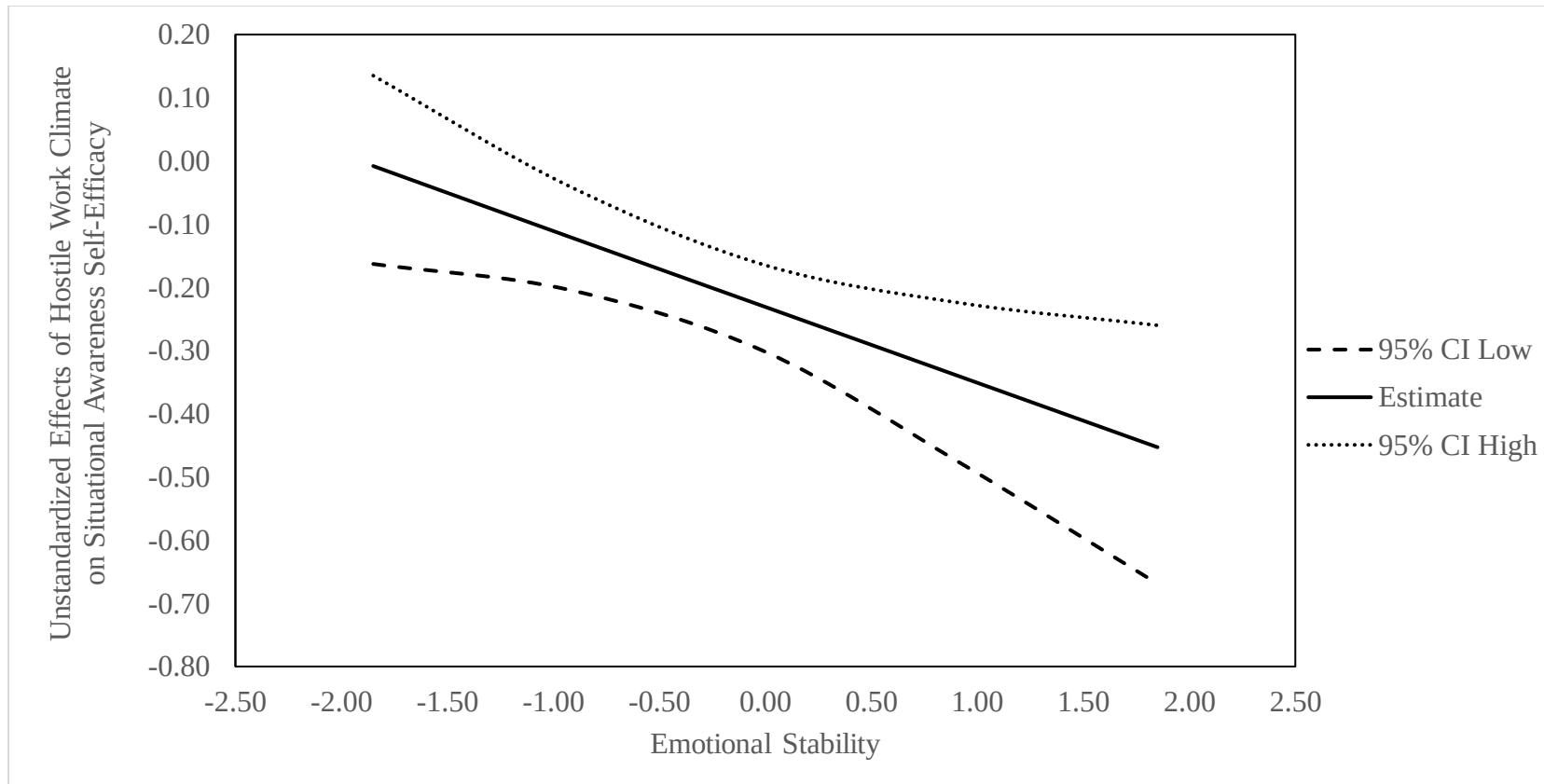


Figure 4. Johnson-Neyman Confidence Limits for the Relationship Between Hostile Work Climate and Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

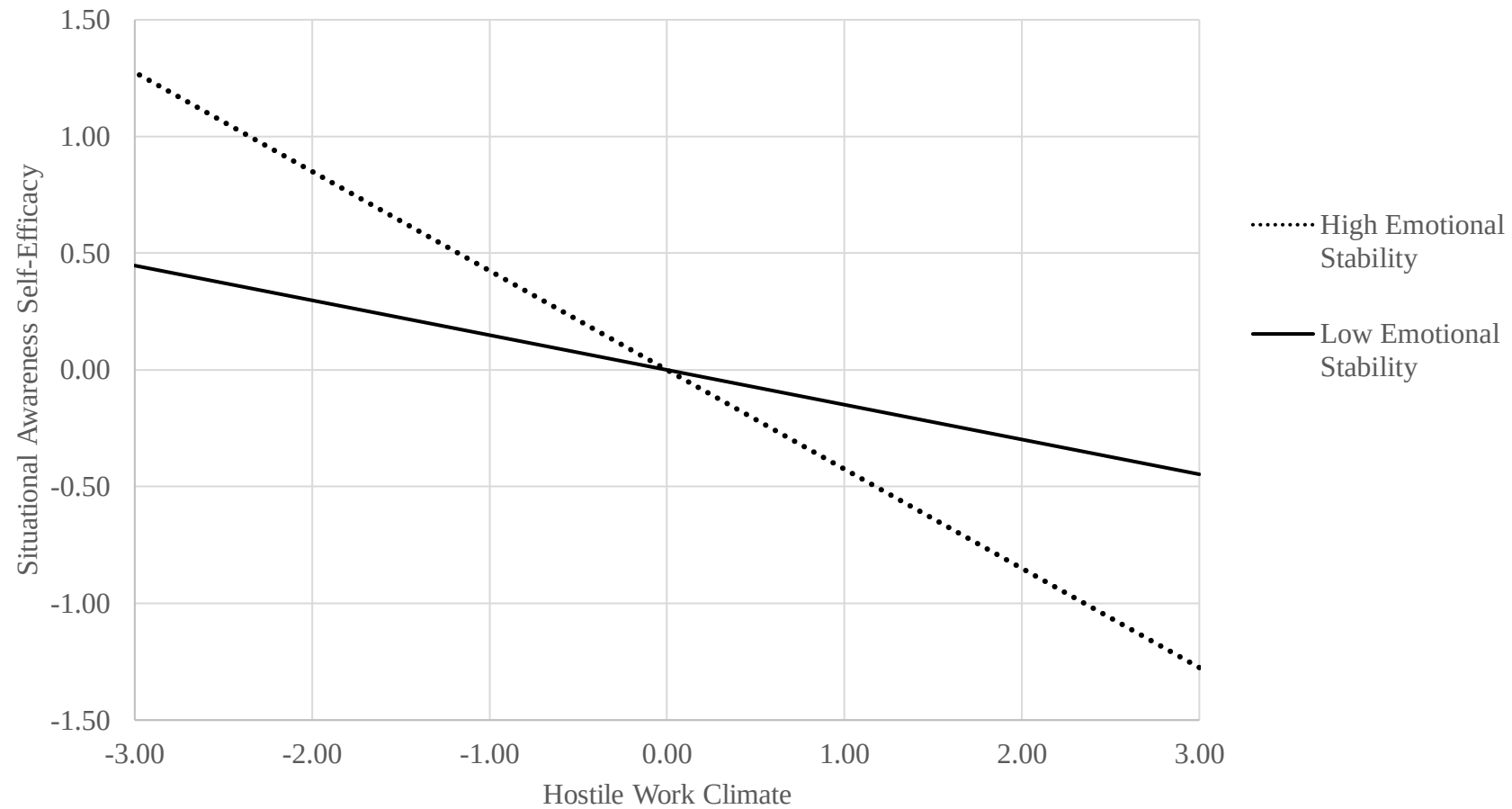


Figure 5. Standardized Effects of Hostile Work Climate on Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy at High and Low Levels of Emotional Stability.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

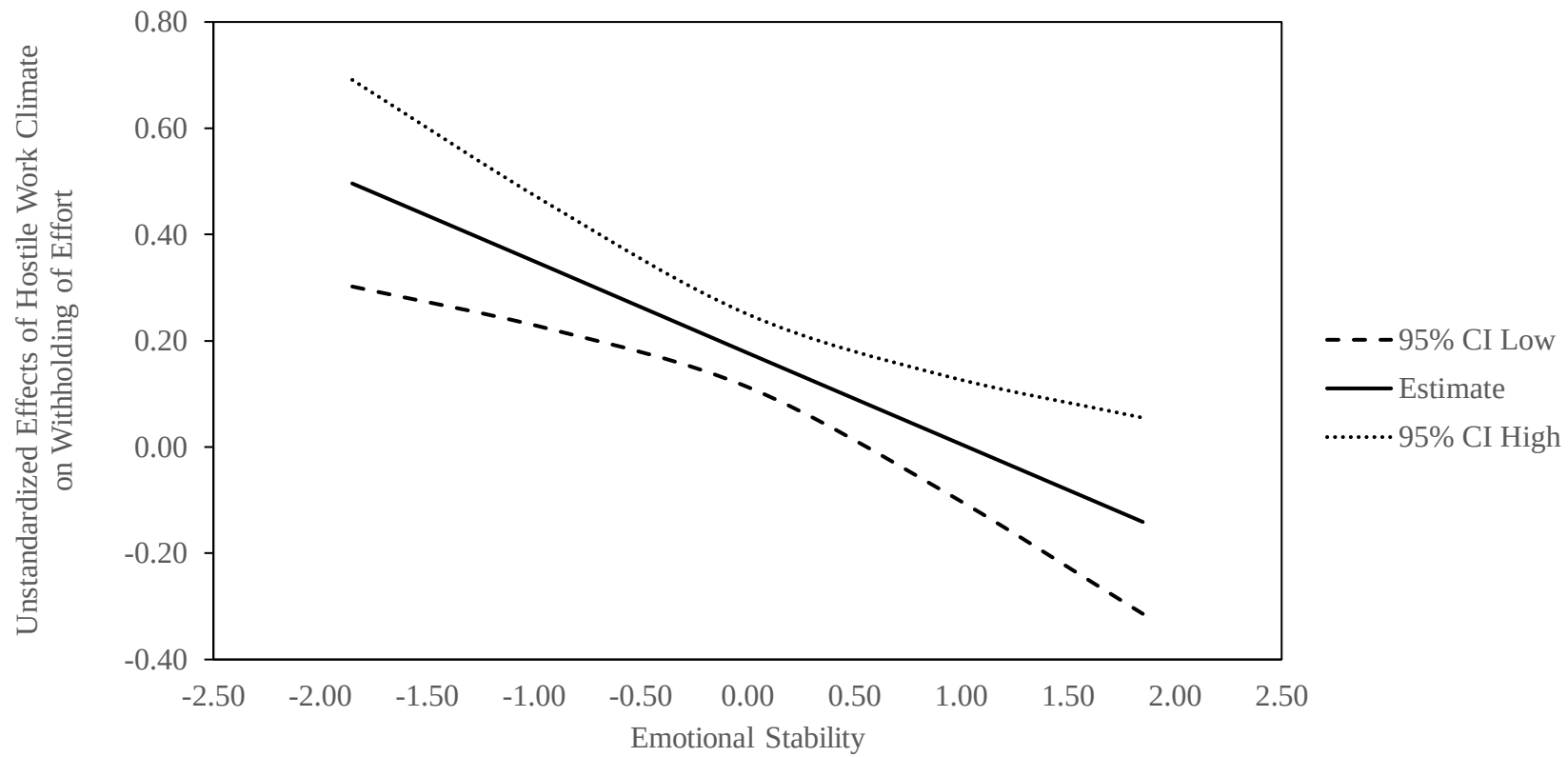


Figure 6. Johnson-Neyman Confidence Limits for the Relationship between Hostile Work Climate and Withholding of Effort.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

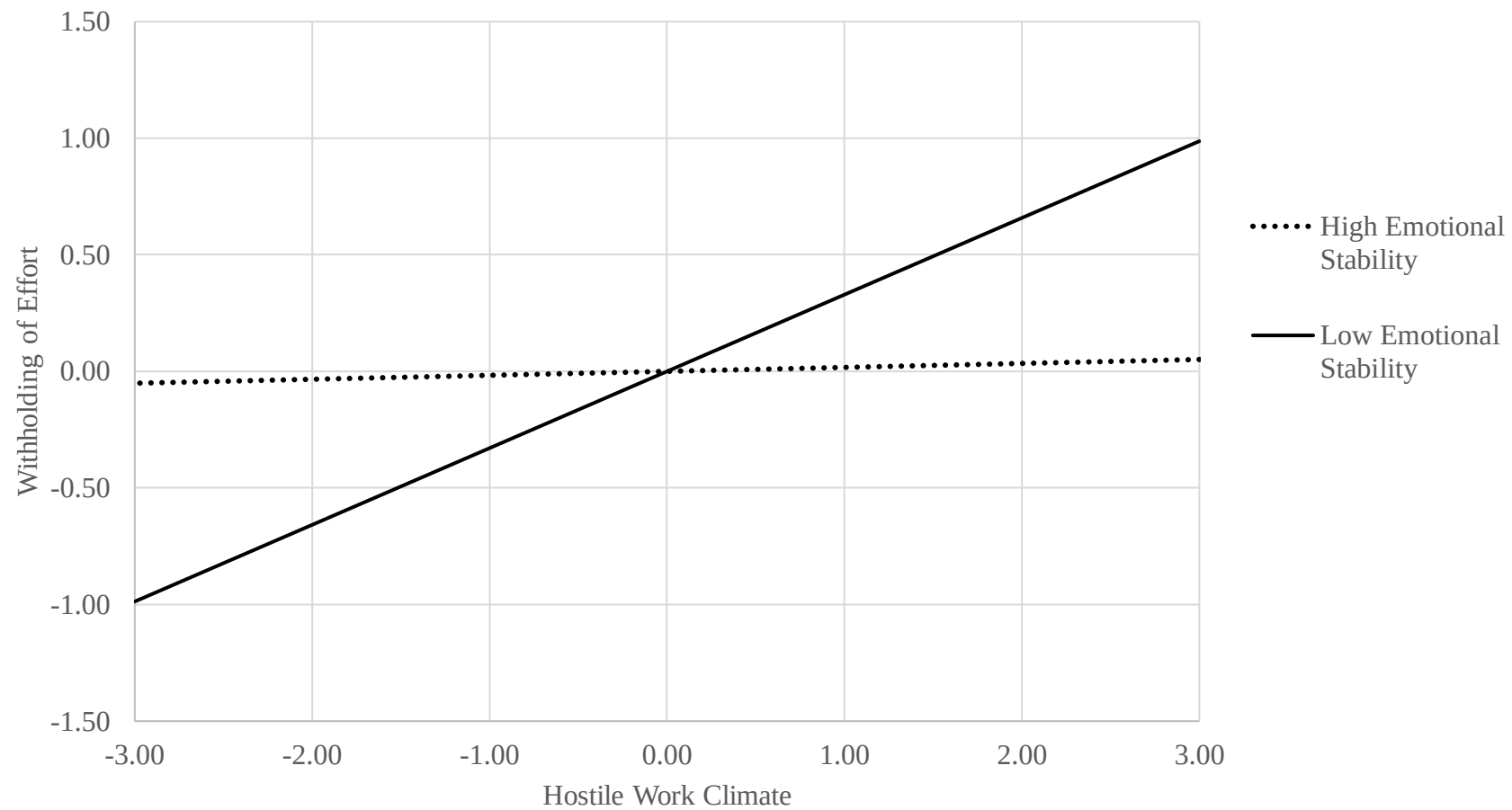


Figure 7. Standardized Effects of Hostile Work Climate on Withholding of Effort at High and Low Levels of Emotional Stability.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

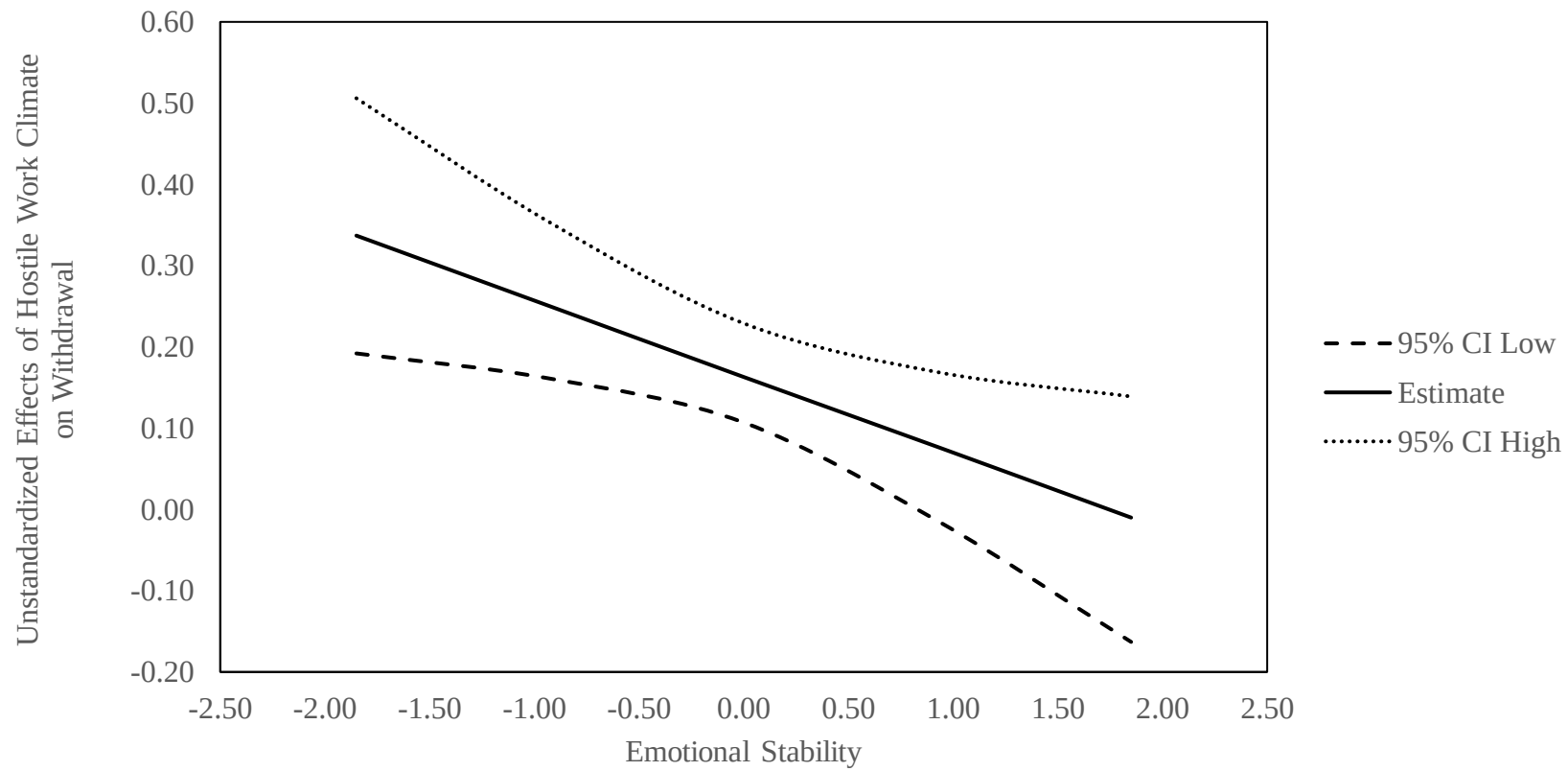


Figure 8. Johnson-Neyman Confidence Limits for the Relationship between Hostile Work Climate and Withdrawal.

HOSTILE WORK CLIMATE, CWB, AND SELF-EFFICACY

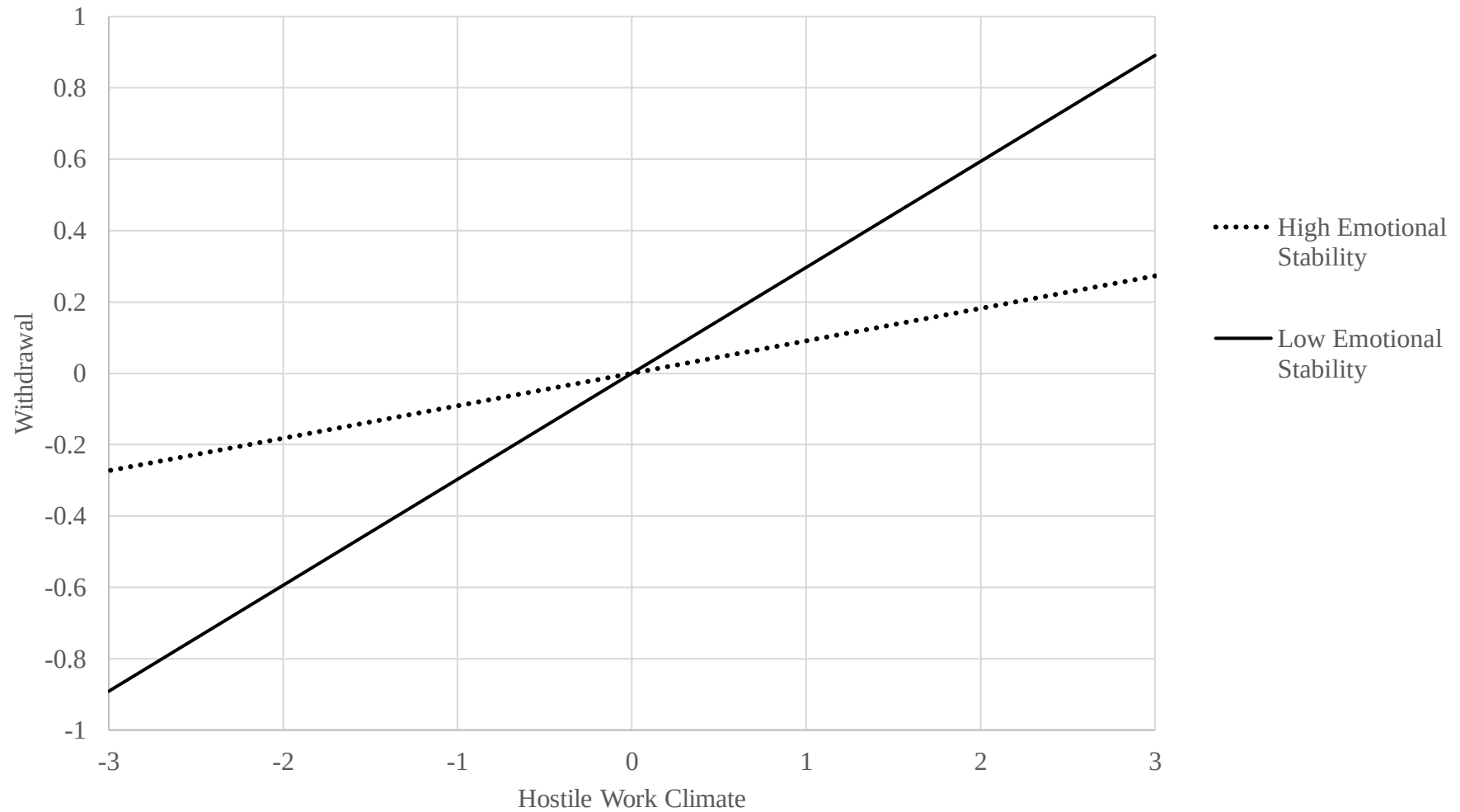


Figure 9. Standardized Effects of Hostile Work Climate on Withdrawal at Low and High Levels of Emotional Stability.

Appendix A

Hostile Work Climate Scale

These items were developed by the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI) for the DEOCS (i.e., DEOMI Organizational Climate Survey; e.g., Estrada, et al., 2007; Landis, Fisher, & Dansby, 1988; Truhon, 2003).

You need not have personally seen or experienced the actions below.

Use the following scale to rate the *LIKELIHOOD* that the actions listed below *COULD* have happened, even if you have not personally observed or experienced it.

During your last 30 workdays at your duty location:

1	2	3	4	5
There is a <i>very high chance</i> that the action occurred.	There is a <i>reasonably high chance</i> that the action occurred.	There is a <i>moderate chance</i> that the action occurred.	There is a <i>small chance</i> that the action occurred.	There is <i>almost no chance</i> that the action occurred.

1. A person of one race or ethnicity told several jokes about a different race or ethnicity
2. Supervisors of different racial or ethnic backgrounds were seen having lunch together
3. Personnel of different racial or ethnic backgrounds were seen having lunch together
4. A supervisor did not select for promotion a qualified subordinate of a different race or ethnicity
5. Members of a particular race or ethnicity were assigned less desirable office space than members of a different race or ethnicity
6. The person in charge of the organization changed the duty assignments when it was discovered that two people of the same race or ethnicity were assigned to the same sensitive area on the same shift
7. While speaking to a group, the person in charge of the organization took more time to answer questions from one race or ethnic group than from another group
8. Members from different racial or ethnic groups were seen socializing together
9. Members joined friends of a different racial or ethnic group at the same table in the cafeteria or designated eating area
10. When a person complained of sexual harassment, the supervisor said, "You're being too sensitive"
11. Offensive racial or ethnic names were frequently heard
12. Racial or ethnic jokes were frequently heard
13. A supervisor referred to subordinates of one gender by their first names in public while using titles for subordinates of the other gender
14. Jokes about a particular gender were frequently heard
15. A person made sexually suggestive remarks about the opposite gender
16. A well-qualified person was denied a job because the supervisor did not like the religious beliefs of the person
17. A demeaning comment was made about a certain religious group
18. A supervisor favored a worker who had the same religious beliefs as the supervisor

Appendix B
Situational Awareness Self-Efficacy Scale

Items developed for the purpose of this study.

Indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements:

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neither Agree nor Disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>

1. Over the past 6 months I have been effective at accounting for the overall environment before taking action.
2. Over the past 6 months I have been effective at recognizing my own limitations before taking action.
3. Over the past 6 months I have been effective at recognizing the limitations of other personnel in the unit before taking action.
4. Over the past 6 months I have been effective at assessing risks before taking action.
5. Over the past 6 months I have been effective at taking precautions before taking action.
6. Over the past 6 months I have been effective at considering the needs of my leaders before taking action.
7. Over the past 6 months I have been effective at considering the needs of my unit members before taking action.

Appendix C

Emotional Stability Scale

Items selected from the Big Five factor markers from the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg, 1999).

Indicate how often you have done each of the following things on your present job:

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Never</i>	<i>Almost Never</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Fairly Often</i>	<i>Very Often</i>

1. In general, I have frequent mood swings.
2. In general, I am relaxed most of the time.
3. In general, I get upset easily.
4. In general, I seldom feel depressed.

Appendix D

Withdrawal Scale

Items selected from Spector et al. (2006).

Indicate how often you have done each of the following things on your present job:

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Never</i>	<i>Almost Never</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Fairly Often</i>	<i>Very Often</i>

1. During the past 6 months I came to work late without permission.
2. During the past 6 months I took a longer break than allowed.
3. During the past 6 months I left work early without permission.

Appendix E

Withholding of Effort Scale

Items selected from Spector et al. (2006).

Indicate how often you have done each of the following things on your present job:

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Never</i>	<i>Almost Never</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Fairly Often</i>	<i>Very Often</i>

1. Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to even the score.
2. Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to retaliate for being mistreated.
3. Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to get the treatment or rewards I deserve.
4. Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to conserve energy.
5. Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to be able to devote effort towards other things.
6. Over the past 6 months I have withheld effort on my job to avoid a stressful or draining situation.

Appendix F

Demographic Questions

The information provided below will not be used to identify you. It is used by a computer to identify groups of people (e.g., Male, Female, etc.). If fewer than five responses are given for a particular group, those responses are not reported for that group. Your accuracy is important in getting an honest assessment of your organization.

1. I am:

1	2
Male	Female

2. Are you Spanish/Hispanic/Latino?

1	2
No	Yes

3. What is your race?

1	2	3	4	5	6
American Indian or Alaska Native	Asian (e.g., Asian Indian, Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese)	Black or African American	Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander (e.g., Samoan, Guamanian, or Chamorro)	White	N/A

4. My age is

1	2	3	4	5
18-21	22-30	31-40	41-50	51 or over