DEVIANCE IN THE WORKPLACE AS A FUNCTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND PERSONALITY

Thesis Presented to

The Faculty of the Department

of Psychology

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In partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

By

Nikola Fedorowicz

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ABSTRACT

Interpersonal deviance poses a problem for organizations, as it inflates organizational costs and negatively impacts efficiency and employee well-being. In an attempt to understand this behavior, I explored the role of unfavorable discrimination climate as an antecedent of interpersonal deviance. To explore this relationship and its underlying psychological mechanisms, I proposed a model testing the direct and indirect relationships between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance. First, employing a behavioral perspective and drawing on social exchange and social learning theories, I proposed a positive relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance. Next, using a stressor-demand framework, I proposed an indirect relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance through engagement. Drawing on the job demands-resources model, I argued that discrimination climate is a stressor that reduces engagement, which in turn predicts increases in deviance. Lastly, I proposed that agreeableness moderates these relationships. Results supported both a direct and indirect effect of discrimination climate on interpersonal deviance through engagement. This suggested that deviance reflects three psychological processes: (1) retaliation, (2) learning and modeling behavior, and (3) a stress response. The results also provided support for the interaction between discrimination climate and agreeableness in predicting engagement. Surprisingly, the remaining two interactions were nonsignificant suggesting that employees who are low or high in agreeableness report equal rates of deviance. These findings contribute to current climate literature, reveal the impact of discrimination at the climate level, and inform practitioners on ways to prevent and reduce deviant behavior.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Deviance in the Workplace as a Function of Organizational Climate and Personality

Although overt acts of aggression occur in the workplace, passive and indirect attacks are more common (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Neuman & Baron, 1998). One such form of indirect aggression is workplace deviance – "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). Scholars have identified two types – organizational deviance that targets the organization (e.g., working slowly and damaging property) and interpersonal deviance that targets the individuals (e.g., verbal abuse and violence; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007).

Deviant behavior may be common. Ménard, Brunet, and Savoie (2011) found that 90% of employees reported engaging in deviant behavior over a six-month period. These behaviors accrue economic costs (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Neuman & Baron, 1998), increase turnover, and negatively influence job attitudes and productivity (i.e., efficiency, effectiveness, and withdrawal behavior) (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996). In addition, interpersonal deviance also harms employee well-being, as it increases psychological distress (Lim et al., 2008). These repercussions call for a better understanding of interpersonal deviance and its antecedents.

Robinson and Bennett (1997) suggested that the strongest predictors include organizational injustice and mistreatment, such as distributive injustice (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999) and unfair interpersonal treatment (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Despite these findings, scholars have yet to explore how an unjust organizational climate, such as an unfavorable discrimination climate, might affect interpersonal deviance (Arthur, 2011). In an attempt to address this research gap, I explored the possible mechanisms underlying this relationship.

Discrimination climate reflects the extent to which the work environment allows for or rewards prejudice and discriminatory behavior (Edun, 2015). The strongest predictors of deviance are injustice and mistreatment (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). There are multiple mechanisms that explain how perceptions of injustice that underlie discrimination climate yield deviance. First, employees might perceive the unjust treatment as a psychological contract breach, due to an imbalance in the employee-organization exchange relationship (Rousseau, 1989). Consistent with social exchange theory, such imbalance may result in retaliation and deviance (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Rousseau & Parks, 1993). Second, consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1997, 1998), deviance may also be a result of learning and modeling behavior. In an environment where employees and leaders mistreat others, individuals are likely to learn and emulate these behaviors to comply with the social norms (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Taken together, these two frameworks suggest that discrimination climate directly influences interpersonal deviance.

Third, a stressor-demand framework suggests a psychological process in which discrimination climate indirectly predicts deviance through disengagement. An unfavorable discrimination climate is a stressor that imposes emotional demands and reduces resources of social support (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005; Cortina & Magley, 2009). According to the job demands-resources model (JD-R; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), employees cope with such strain by disengaging to prevent further resource loss. In turn, disengaged employees are more likely to express interpersonal deviance (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001) because they associate the workplace with negative emotions (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Overall, this suggests a psychological process in which discrimination climate influences interpersonal deviance through engagement.

Furthermore, I propose that individual differences, namely agreeableness, might contribute to these relationships. Individuals high in agreeableness tend to be altruistic and

caring; they value positive relationships (Digman, 1990). Thus, they may be more situationally aware of an unfavorable discrimination climate than those who are low in agreeableness. Furthermore, agreeableness is likely to affect the tendency for employees to engage in deviance. Because individuals high in agreeableness have an altruistic nature, factors like the work climate or their engagement levels are unlikely to encourage hostility (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004). Therefore, I propose that agreeableness moderates the previously proposed relationships. I present in Figure 1 the overall conceptual model.

The purposes of this study were twofold. First, I tested the direct and indirect relationships between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance through engagement. Drawing on behavioral and stress theories, I explored the underlying psychological mechanisms that might be responsible for these relationships (i.e., cognitive and stressor-demand). Second, I sought to explain the role of agreeableness as a moderator of these relationships. Thus, I proposed that the strength of these relationships is not consistent across employees.

Interpersonal Deviance

Interpersonal deviance is a form of antisocial behavior that employees express through physical or psychological violence against others (Berry et al., 2007). Examples include incivility, violence, gossip, verbal abuse, and racial slurs (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The increasing prevalence of these offenses is a concern for organizations. A study of public sector employees indicated that 71% of them have experienced incivility over the last five years (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001). However, because interpersonal deviance is typically subtle and indirect (Neuman & Baron, 1998), leaders are often unaware of it. That is, employees might be either victims or

observers of these aggressions for a long time before the leaders intervene. As a result, interpersonal deviance poses a number of organizational and employee-level implications.

Workplace deviance yields large economic costs; in the U.S. alone, costs range between $6 and $200 billion (Murphy, 1993; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). This is mainly because deviance reduces the quality and quantity of work. When victims spend time worrying about the incident or avoiding their coworkers, they are unable to focus on their job tasks (Porath & Pearson, 2010). Deviance negatively influences both victims and observers of this mistreatment; it yields unfavorable levels of commitment, job satisfaction, turnover, and absenteeism (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Lim et al., 2008; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). These outcomes translate to a decline in organizational effectiveness and performance (Koys, 2001). Lastly, deviance also harms employee well-being. Victims report somatic complaints, mental health problems, and increased stress levels (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina et al., 2001; Lim et al., 2008). Such employee strain results in either withdrawal or retaliation (Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001), creating a cycle of adverse behavior and harming morale (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Altogether, these implications suggest the need for a better understanding of interpersonal deviance and its antecedents.

The strongest predictors of deviance reflect factors that elicit perceptions of injustice or mistreatment (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). These include abusive supervision (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), distributive and interactional injustice (Aquino et al., 1999; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998), and negative perceptions of the development environment (Colbert et al., 2004). These workplace characteristics evoke anger, frustration, and stress, which encourage retaliation (Spector, 1999). Spector and Fox (2005) supported this notion in suggesting that employees engage in counterproductive work behavior, a form of deviance, in response to stress. Thus, the strain and negative emotions that stem from mistreatment in an unjust work

setting, can serve as stimuli for deviant behavior. Consequently, an organizational climate that suggests approval of mistreatment and injustice likely predicts interpersonal deviance. Consistent with this, I examined the role of climate in predicting interpersonal deviance.

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate is the mutual employee perception of practices and behaviors that the organization expects and rewards (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). It comprises of characteristics that define the workplace and in turn affect employee attitudes, behaviors, and organizational commitment (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009). There are two ways of assessing organizational climate. Psychological climate reflects individual perceptions of the climate (James & James, 1989). Unit-level climate reflects the group-level shared understanding of climate (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009). Facets of climates include diversity (Kossek & Zonia, 1993), safety (Zohar, 1980), justice (Naumann & Bennett, 2000), and ethical (Victor & Cullen, 1988). To fully understand a specific type of climate, I first discuss how organizational climates emerge.

Scholars proposed various approaches to understanding the mechanisms of climate development (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). For example, the selection-retention-attrition approach explains the role of supervisors and coworkers in climate development. It suggests that coworker interactions along with supervisors' emphasis on certain behaviors, all shape organizational climate (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009). Therefore, when coworkers engage in hostile, discriminatory behavior, and the supervisor encourages these acts, a discriminatory climate might emerge. Alternately, the symbolic interactionist approach suggests that climate develops through interactions with new employees during the socialization timeframe (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). In other words, the environment shapes employee perceptions, and, in turn, employees shape the environment. For example, as new members experience

hostile interactions (e.g., name-calling), they will also engage in their own type of adverse behavior (e.g., bullying), thus further shaping the climate and its norms.

Scholars have used these approaches to explain the development of various types of climate (e.g., safety, diversity, and innovation; Ekvall, 1996; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Zohar, 1980); however, the development and impact of discrimination climate remain an opportunity. To address this, I explored discrimination climate and its relation to interpersonal deviance. Considering that injustice is a strong predictor of deviance, this particular climate creates conditions for the expression of such behavior. In the following sections, I define discrimination climate and propose a set of psychological processes that may inform theory.

Discrimination Climate

There are more women, minorities, and older employees occupying job positions than there have been throughout the last century. Due to this shift in workforce demographics, workplace discrimination is a bigger problem today than in the past. In 2015, the EEOC received 89,385 total charges of discrimination, 34.7% were due to race, 29.5% due to sex, 10.6% due to national origin, and 22.5% due to age (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [EEOC], 2015). Despite efforts by the EEOC to reduce discrimination, in the upcoming years as the workforce becomes more diverse, the prevalence of discrimination complaints will likely increase. Moreover, in some instances discrimination can become pervasive enough to shape the organizational climate (Gelfand, Nishii, Raver, & Schneider, 2007).

Discrimination climate specifies whether the organization rewards, punishes, or ignores prejudice-driven aggressive behavior; it refers to employee perceptions of aggressive behavior that is based in prejudice (Edun, 2015). In contrast, diversity climate encourages diversity and prevents leaders from making decisions based on race, sex, and age (Kossek &

Zonia, 1993). This study explores discrimination climate because the focus is not simply on the effects of low diversity but instead on the effects of an unfavorable environment that encourages hostility and discrimination. An unfavorable discrimination climate affects organizational norms and hiring practices by allowing prejudice and biases to shape decisions (Gelfand et al., 2007). This level of prejudice and marginalization, in turn, leads to injustice and a lack of employee integration and collaboration (Hebl, Madera, & King, 2008). Such climate may have large implications at the unit and individual levels, as it creates a hostile environment for victims and observers of this behavior. Namely, due to its influence over personnel decisions and organizational norms, I argue that this climate may provoke retaliation or encourage employees to model the hostile behavior, thus resulting in employee deviance.

Social Exchange and Equity Theories

The biases and prejudice that stem from an unfavorable discrimination climate might skew personnel decisions (i.e., promotions, performance appraisals, and distribution of benefits) and lead to perceptions of distributive injustice and mistreatment. As mentioned previously, such perceptions may result in a psychological contract breach and provoke retaliation. A psychological contract, which is implicit and not formal, refers to expectations regarding mutual obligations in an employee-organization exchange relationship (Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, & Solley, 1962; Rousseau, 1989). That is, employees expect to receive fair treatment, benefits, and opportunities in exchange for their contributions (Barnard, 1938; Rousseau, 1989). This follows social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which proposes that individuals seek to maintain a balance in their exchanges. Consequently, when one party fails to fulfill its obligations (e.g., distributive or interactional injustice; Bies, 1987), a psychological contract breach takes place (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995).

Discrimination climate might constitute a contract breach, as it may yield distributive injustice perceptions when biases influence personnel decisions and resource distribution. Furthermore, prejudice-driven hostile interactions are a form of mistreatment and can also contribute to a contract breach. Thus, I suggest that employees in this climate may perceive inequity in the exchange, encouraging them to find ways to restore the balance. They may choose to restore that balance by retaliating and engaging in deviant behavior.

A breach of the psychological contract limits employee benefits and outcomes, creating an imbalance in the social exchange relationship (Rousseau, 1998). Consistent with social exchange (Blau, 1964) and equity theories (Adams, 1963, 1965), when employees perceive an imbalance in exchanges, they seek to regain a sense of equity, often through retaliation (Blau, 1964; Chen, Tsui, & Zhong, 2008; Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010). Consequently, perceptions of breach yield reductions in organizational commitment and job performance, as well as increases in turnover intentions, theft, anti-citizenship behaviors, and aggressive behaviors (Bunderson, 2001; Conway & Briner, 2002; Shapiro, 2002; Greenberg, 1990; Kickul, Neuman, Parker, & Finkl, 2001; Fisher & Baron, 1982; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). This is especially true when the contract breach occurs due to an unjust and biased process (Hershcovis & Barling, 2007; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1998; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Chen et al., 2008). Based on this framework, the lack of balance in exchanges and perceptions of injustice, present in an unfavorable discrimination climate, triggers employee retaliation (i.e., interpersonal deviance).

Social Learning and Social Information Processing Theories

Although deviance may be a function of retaliation, it may also reflect learning. Norms that suggest approval of discrimination facilitate prejudice and incivility/harassment (Brief, Dietz, Cohen, Pugh, & Vaslow, 2000; Ziegert & Hanges, 2005). Thus, applying a

social learning perspective, I suggest that discrimination climate facilitates deviance because the environment shapes behavior (Atkinson, 1957). Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1998) suggests that individuals observe the environment for cues of acceptable behaviors, then they learn and model these behaviors under a similar context (Bandura, 1997, 1998; Clarke, 2006). Furthermore, social information processing theory purports that people examine the environment to understand the norms regarding appropriate behavior, then they adjust their behavior to comply with these norms (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Together, these theories suggest that organizational norms and the actions of others shape behavior. In support of this, Ziegert and Hanges (2005) reported that individuals are more likely to express discrimination in an environment in which norms promote such behavior. Similarly, an unfavorable discrimination climate composes of norms which suggest approval of prejudice and mistreatment; consequently, employees may model the hostile behaviors of others to comply with these norms. Therefore, I suggest that the norms of discrimination climate likely urge employees to alter their behavior and engage in interpersonal deviance after learning such behavior from others.

This suggests that even employees who usually do not mistreat others may be inclined to do so in an unfavorable climate. That is, the climate can skew employee moral norms, such that typically immoral behavior may be considered moral within that context (Ashforth & Anand, 2003). This occurs due to the normalization of deviant behavior. As organizational norms routinize unethical behavior, employees begin to view their immoral actions as legitimate, normal, and expected within that context (Ashforth & Anand, 2003). A study of nurse theft showed that workgroup norms foster and teach employees to justify and redefine unethical behavior (Dabney, 1995). This implies that employees adjust and legitimize their actions based on the demands of the climate and its norms. Thus, consistent with Ashforth and Anand (2003), in a discrimination climate, an ethical individual may disregard typical

moral norms to justify learning and modeling deviant behavior – a form of behavior that they would otherwise consider immoral.

Consistent with the proposed behavioral framework, I argue that employees working in a climate of discrimination engage in deviance either as a means of retaliation and/or as a result of learning and modeling behavior that the norms encourage. The integration of the proposed theories provides rationale for a positive relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance. Thus, I propose:

Hypothesis 1: Discrimination climate is positively related to interpersonal deviance.

Discrimination Climate as a Stressor

Alternately, based on a stressor-demand framework, I suggest that deviance may also be a response to stress. That is, discrimination climate may reduce engagement, which evokes interpersonal deviance, as employees attempt to cope with the strain and pressure of the work setting (Spector, 1999). Strain is a response to the organizational demands or characteristics that employees perceive as threatening (Spector & Fox, 2005). Organizational climate elicits strain and reduces engagement when it consists of unfavorable norms and practices that act as demands (Hemingway & Smith, 1999; Mawritz, Dust, & Resick, 2014). The job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) provides a framework that explains this psychological process.

Job Demands-Resources Model

The job demands-resources model (JD-R) states that demands are organizational characteristics that require consistent physical and/or psychological costs (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Examples include high workload, interpersonal conflict, and psychological demands (Demerouti et al., 2001). Resources mitigate the impact of demands as they consist of physical, social, psychological, or organizational aspects of the job that: (1) help

employees achieve goals, and (2) facilitate personal development and learning (e.g., job control, autonomy, and social support; Demerouti et al., 2001). Demands and resources predict two negatively related concepts, burnout and engagement (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Whereas engagement refers to high energy (vigor) and identification (dedication), burnout refers to low energy (exhaustion) and identification (cynicism) (Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli, Salanova, Roma, & Bakker, 2002). As demands increase, employees attempt to maintain high-performance levels, which evokes a strain process, leading to physiological and psychological costs (i.e. exhaustion and burnout; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Hockey, 1993, 1997; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Alternately, because resources foster the achievement of goals, they evoke a motivational process that results in engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Employees constantly evaluate the organizational climate because strain and disengagement occur once they perceive high demands and low resources (Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1998; Nasurdin, Ramayah, & Beng, 2006). That is, resources and demands interact, such that resources reduce the impact of high demands on burnout and exhaustion (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003). Therefore, a lack of resources leads to withdrawal and disengagement, as it hinders employee ability to cope with demands, preventing successful goal attainment (Bakker, Demerouti, Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). Disengagement allows employees to "withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). In other words, employees disengage to maximize resources and protect themselves from the strain of high demands when their resources are low (Demerouti et al., 2001; Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Consistent with this framework, I argue that discrimination climate is a stressor that results in disengagement because it affects employee demands and resources. That is, discrimination climate imposes emotional demands and reduces resources due to its influence over: (1) norms of employee behavior and (2) personnel decisions (Gelfand et al., 2007; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Sulea et al., 2012). First, because discrimination climate encourages prejudice-based aggressive acts, employees likely engage in hostile behaviors (i.e., incivility or bullying). This fosters antagonism, a lack of support, and negative interactions, which impose emotional demands and reduce resources of social support (Brief et al., 2000; Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012 ; Ziegert & Hanges, 2005). Second, because of unjust personnel decisions, employees may fear losing their position or receiving a poor performance evaluation due to their race, age, and/or religion, posing an additional threat to their resources. Third, the overall distress that accompanies this environment also reduces cognitive resources (Beal et al., 2005). Employees may cope with this by disengaging. Disengagement allows employees to preserve their limited resources by distancing themselves from the workplace and avoiding additional strain (Keaveney & Nelson, 1993). Thus, employees may disengage from the workplace in an attempt to conserve their remaining resources and prevent further resource loss. Consistent with the JD-R model, I argue that discrimination climate yields reductions in engagement as employees attempt to cope with the high demands and low resources of this climate.

Hypothesis 2: Discrimination climate is negatively related to engagement.

Engagement and Interpersonal Deviance

Engagement can influence employee performance and behavior. For example, it negatively relates to deviance (Sulea et al., 2012). This is likely because engagement is the emotional and intellectual commitment to the workplace (Baumruk, 2004; Shaw, 2005). It is "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication,

and absorption" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Vigor refers to high energy levels and the will to dedicate effort and persistence despite difficulties, whereas dedication is a high level of involvement, enthusiasm, and pride in one's work (Schaufeli et al., 2002). This suggests that highly engaged employees feel a sense of belonging and commitment to the workplace. As a result, they experience positive emotions and job satisfaction (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Such positive emotions increase motivation and discourage any deviant behavior that would harm the organization or its members (Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008; Saks, 2006). Engaged employees also cope with work-related strain more effectively, which prevents maladaptive coping mechanisms, such as deviance (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Shantz, Alfes, Truss, & Soane, 2013). Altogether, high engagement yields dedication and enthusiasm towards the workplace, both of which discourage deviance.

In contrast, disengagement reflects withdrawal (Kahn, 1990). Those with low engagement levels experience negative emotions and a lack of dedication towards the workplace (Kahn, 1990; Fox et al., 2001). Therefore, these employees are prone to express deviance due to negative affect (Fox et al., 2001; Sulea et al., 2012). This is consistent with previous findings that suggest a negative relationship between engagement and deviance (Fox et al., 2001; Shantz et al., 2013; Sulea et al., 2012). Additionally, based on the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), low engagement is a response to a stressful work setting. Therefore, the strain that accompanies low engagement might also elicit deviance. In particular, this might be true in a hostile climate where others are engaging in deviance and such behavior is acceptable. Altogether, this suggests that employees with low engagement likely express deviance due to their lack of dedication to the workplace in addition to negative emotions.

I propose an indirect relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance through engagement. First, consistent with the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), I argue that the strain of high demands and low resources in discrimination climate

encourages disengagement as a coping mechanism to maximize resources. Furthermore, employees who experience low engagement are likely to not feel a connection to the workplace and associate the organization with negative feelings (Fox et al., 2001). Such negative affect in the context of a hostile climate predisposes employees to engage in interpersonal deviance (Sulea et al., 2012). Figure 1 presents the conceptual model.

Hypothesis 3: Engagement is negatively related to interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 4: The effect of discrimination climate on interpersonal deviance is both direct and indirect through engagement.

Agreeableness

Despite the contextual factors that may evoke deviance, personality traits may serve as boundary conditions in these relationships (Colbert et al., 2004; Penney & Spector, 2002). Personality traits are enduring characteristics that influence behavior. As such, they also predict performance and other work-related outcomes (Barrick & Mount, 2005). The five-factor model of personality describes five personality factors, Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Emotional Stability (Digman, 1990; Goldman, 1992; Ozer & Martinez, 2006). Although scholars considered the role of personality in explaining some forms of deviant behavior (e.g., counterproductive work behavior; Colbert et al., 2004; Penney, Hunter, & Perry, 2011), a focus on interpersonal deviance and its relation to agreeableness presents an opportunity to inform theory. Thus, in the following sections, I explore this relationship.

Individuals high in agreeableness tend to be altruistic, caring, and forgiving; they seek to maintain positive relationships and harmony, which can serve many benefits in the workplace (Ahadi & Rothbart, 1994; Barrick & Ryan, 2004; Campbell & Graziano, 2001; Digman, 1990). For example, employees with these characteristics try to maintain positive relationships and avoid conflict, even in hostile work climates (Graziano, Campbell, & Hair,

1996). If conflict occurs, they tend to resolve it with compromise, as opposed to using other maladaptive approaches (Campbell & Graziano, 2001). Furthermore, they are collaborative team members and tend to perform well in positions that involve interactions with others (Mount, Barrick, & Stewart, 1998). This all suggests that these individuals place a high value on relationships. Thus, it is likely that employees who are high in agreeableness are less prone to engage in hostile behavior, such as deviance.

Employees are likely to express deviance as a result of situational factors (i.e., hostile climate), only if that behavior is consistent with their personality (Colbert et al., 2004). Therefore, because individuals high in agreeableness value relationships and care for others (Digman, 1990), they are not likely to engage in interpersonally deviant behavior, as that would violate their values. Therefore, agreeableness likely inhibits the strength of the positive relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance. In support of this, Colbert and colleagues (2004) reported that employees high in agreeableness are less likely to exhibit deviant behavior, even if the environment encourages it, because they seek to maintain harmony and positive relationships regardless of the environment (Campbell & Graziano, 2001). In contrast, individuals low in agreeableness tend to be argumentative and do not place as much value on relationships (Digman, 1990); therefore, they are more likely to express interpersonal deviance, especially in a hostile climate that encourages such behavior. Consistent with this, I propose that agreeableness buffers the relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance (path c' in Figure 1).

Hypothesis 5: Agreeableness moderates the positive relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance, such that the relationship is stronger (weaker) among individuals lower (higher) in agreeableness.

In addition to its effect on deviance, high agreeableness may also influence employee stress levels when working in an unfavorable climate. Discrimination climate might be

especially stressful for those high in agreeableness because of the value they place on relationships (Digman, 1990). Those who are low in agreeableness may not perceive the hostility of the climate as they tend to be argumentative and spiteful (Digman, 1990). However, because individuals high in agreeableness are nurturing and seek to maintain positive interactions, the hostility and lack of social support is likely more salient and stressful for these individuals.

Following the premises of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), I argue that the lack of social resources is a greater stressor for employees high in agreeableness, compared to those low in agreeableness. This is because given the value they place on relationships (Digman, 1990), they may attain greater benefits from resources of social support than from other resources (i.e., autonomy). Thus, the lack of social support is likely more salient to these individuals than to those who are low in agreeableness and do not place as much value on positive relationships. Similarly, the emotional demands resulting from negative interactions might also have a greater impact on these individuals. Furthermore, the strongest predictors of engagement (i.e., a sense of a community and social support) are likely even more important for those high in agreeableness (Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Mauno et al., 2007). Therefore, employees who are high in agreeableness are more likely to cope with the stressors of this climate by reducing engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001; Pearson et al., 2001). Because discrimination climate limits the resources of social support and evokes hostility, imposing emotional demands, I argue that it predicts greater reductions in engagement among employees who are high in agreeableness (path a in Figure 1).

Hypothesis 6: Agreeableness moderates the negative relationship between discrimination climate and engagement, such that the relationship is stronger (weaker) among individuals higher (lower) in agreeableness.

Agreeableness might also moderate the negative relationship between engagement and interpersonal deviance. As discussed previously, employees with low engagement may express deviance because they lack dedication to the workplace and they experience negative emotions at work (Fox et al., 2001). However, because those high in agreeableness often place the needs of others before their own, they seek to maintain positive relationships regardless of their emotions (Barrick & Ryan, 2004; Graziano et al., 1996). That is, engaging in hostile behavior would conflict with their personal values (Digman, 1990). Therefore, when individuals high in agreeableness disengage from work, they likely do not display their negative emotions in the form of deviant behavior. Their desire to maintain harmony with others likely exceeds their negative feelings that would otherwise lead to deviant behavior. In support of this, a meta-analysis by Berry and colleagues (2007) showed that interpersonal deviance has one of the strongest negative relationships with agreeableness. Thus, I suggest that due to their altruistic nature, employees who are high in agreeableness are less likely to express interpersonal deviance, even if they experience low engagement levels (path b in Figure 1). I present in Figure 2 the proposed structural model.

Hypothesis 7: Agreeableness moderates the negative relationship between engagement and interpersonal deviance, such that the relationship is stronger (weaker) among individuals lower (higher) in agreeableness.

Method

Participants and Procedures

The sample consisted of 227 uniformed Department of Defense personnel on active duty stationed in the U.S.A. The participants voluntarily filled out questionnaires during their hours on duty. The majority of participants were male (93%). Of all the participants, 33% self-identified with the minority status. The majority of participants were under 25 years old; 28.6% were under 20 years old; 55.1% were between 20 and 25 years old; 12.8% were

between 26 and 30 years old; and 3.5% were between 31 and 40 years old. The participants varied in the rankings of their job positions, however, the largest portion of the sample occupied mid-level enlisted positions (50.2%); followed by junior enlisted (36.6%); senior enlisted (4.8%); junior officer (4.4%); senior officer (3.1%); and command-level enlisted (.9%).

Measures

Discrimination Climate. I assessed discrimination climate using an 8-item Equal Opportunity Climate scale from Walsh, Matthews, Tuller, Parks, and McDonald (2010). The items had a Cronbach's alpha of (α = .88). I evaluated the items 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*). The scale included three discrimination categories of race, gender, and religious discrimination. The subscales consisted of four race discrimination items (e.g., "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"), two gender discrimination items (e.g., "A supervisor referred to subordinates of one gender by their first names in public while using titles for subordinates of the other gender"), and two religious discrimination items (e.g., "A well-qualified person was denied a job because the supervisor did not like the religious beliefs of the person").

Agreeableness. I measured Agreeableness using three Big Five factor markers (e.g., "In general I feel others' emotions") from the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg, 1999). I used this scale because it is more contextualized and specific to behaviors that map onto the Big Five. The scale included 3 items (α = .70) of which two targeted the understanding facet and one targeted the warmth facet. The remaining two items were reverse scored. Participants recorded their answers using a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

Engagement. I assessed engagement using the job engagement items from Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2010). The scale consists of 6 items (α = .85) assessing both emotional and cognitive engagement over the past 6 months. Participants reported their answers using a 5-point Likert scale, which indicated the frequency of each incident at work in the past six months (1 = *not at all during the past 6 months*; 2 = *once or twice during the past 6 months*; 3 = *one or two times a month*; 4 = *one or two times a wee*k; 5 = *at least once a day*). Sample items include "Over the past 6 months I have paid a lot of attention to my job" and "Over the past 6 months I have felt energetic at my job."

Interpersonal Deviance. I assessed interpersonal deviance using three items (e.g., "During the past 6 months I verbally abused another member of the unit") comprising the abuse dimension subscale from the counterproductive work behaviors checklist (Spector et al., 2005). The items had a Cronbach's alpha of (α = .89). I adapted the items to assess the participant's engagement in each behavior over the past six months. Participants reported their answers using the same 5-point Likert scale as for the engagement questionnaire.

Control Variables. Minority members may be more likely to report perceptions of discrimination climate because they are more likely to be victims of discrimination and they more readily pick up on hostile interactions (Broman, Mavaddat, & Hsu, 2000; Hirsh & Kornrich, 2008; Kluegel & Bobo, 1993; Sigelman & Welch, 1991). Minority employees may also experience the negative effects of discrimination climate to a larger extent than nonminority employees (Riordan, Schaffer, & Stewart, 2005). Thus, I controlled for the effects of minority status to examine the relationships between the variables of interest. Participants self-reported their minority status.

Results

First, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to examine the reliability and consistency of the scales. Table 1 displays the factor loadings for each scale. Next, I obtained

the descriptive statistics and inter-correlations of all the variables (Table 2). The correlations provided initial support for the hypotheses. Discrimination climate was positively related to interpersonal deviance (r = .29, p < .001) and negatively related to engagement (r = -.31, p < .001). Engagement was also negatively related to interpersonal deviance (r = -.32, p < .001).

I then used Hayes' (2012) PROCESS macro to test the direct and indirect effects (Table 3). The macro's bootstrapping option produces confidence intervals for the conditional and indirect effects even when the data is not normally distributed, which cannot be obtained using the Sobel test (Hayes, 2013). Using model 4 and the bootstrapping option, I first tested the simple mediation analysis (Table 3). In support of Hypothesis 1, discrimination climate was positively related to interpersonal deviance (B = .58, t = 4.47, p < .001). Consistent with Hypothesis 2, discrimination climate was negatively related to engagement (B = -.43, t = -4.87, p < .001). Consistent with Hypothesis 3, engagement was negatively related to interpersonal deviance (B = -.37, t = -3.87, p = .001). Hypothesis 4 tested the direct and indirect relationships between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance through engagement. Confidence intervals for the indirect 95% CI [.07, .28] and direct 95% CI [.16, .69] effects provided support for Hypothesis 4. Given that both the indirect and direct paths were significant, these results suggest the presence of partial mediation.

Next, I used the PROCESS macro model 59 (Hayes, 2012) to test the moderated mediation model. Tables 4 and 5 list the results for these tests. The results did not provide support for Hypothesis 5; agreeableness did not moderate the direct relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance (B = -.09, t = -.57, p = *ns*). Hypothesis 6 tested the discrimination climate x agreeableness interaction in predicting engagement, the results yielded support for this hypothesis (B = -.28, t = -2.75, p < .01). Figure 4 presents a graphical display of this interaction. Lastly, the results did not provide support for Hypothesis

7. Agreeableness did not moderate the relationship between engagement and interpersonal deviance (B = .04, t = .36, p = *ns*). Figure 3 displays results of the proposed conceptual model.

Discussion

Organizational climate is a work characteristic that influences employee attitudes and behaviors. Scholars revealed the positive effects of certain types of climate (i.e., innovation, safety, and diversity). However, I emphasize that climate can also evoke negative behaviors. Specifically, I examined the psychological mechanisms through which an adverse discrimination climate may predict interpersonally deviant behavior. To this end, I tested both the direct and indirect effects of discrimination climate on interpersonal deviance through engagement. I further expanded this model by exploring the impact of individual differences and testing the role of agreeableness as a moderator. As a whole, this study potentially expands current literature on employee deviance by simultaneously examining the effects of organizational climate and individual differences. In addition, the results of this study may shed light on possible negative effects of organizational climate, thus informing both theory and practice.

Initial bivariate correlation and regression results provided support for the direct effect of discrimination climate on interpersonal deviance (Hypothesis 1). Consistent with equity theory (Adams, 1963; 1965), employees may express deviance as a means of retaliation. As discrimination climate creates a psychological contract breach, employees reciprocate with deviance. Social learning theory (Bandura, 1998) provides another explanation for this effect. Employees express deviance as a result of learning and modeling behavior in a hostile climate. In short, both psychological processes explain why an unfavorable discrimination climate encourages deviant employee behaviors.

Hypothesis 2 predicted a negative relationship between discrimination climate and engagement. Consistent with the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), the results provided support for this hypothesis. An unfavorable discrimination climate functions as a stressor that imposes emotional demands and reduces resources of social support. In turn, employees seek to protect themselves from the strain of high demands and prevent further loss of resources by disengaging (Demerouti et al., 2001). This highlights the role of disengagement as a coping mechanism in a hostile, discriminatory work environment.

The results also provided support for a negative relationship between engagement and interpersonal deviance (Hypothesis 3). These findings are in line with extant research suggesting that disengaged employees are less dedicated to the workplace and experience negative emotions (e.g., stress) at work, which facilitate deviance (Fox et al., 2001; Shantz et al., 2013; Sulea et al., 2012).

Hypothesis 4 tested the direct and indirect effect of discrimination climate on interpersonal deviance. Results provide support for both the direct and indirect effect through engagement, which together suggests partial mediation. This indicates that all three proposed psychological mechanisms explain why employees engage in deviance. First, the direct effect implies that employees engage in deviance as a result of learning and modeling hostile behavior and/or as a means of retaliation against the perpetrators. The indirect effect suggests that employees engage in deviance as a way to cope with the stressful demands and limited resources of the discriminatory environment. As proposed by stress theories, employees may disengage in an attempt to cope and maximize resources, which then leads to deviant behavior. These results provided full support for Hypothesis 4 and shed light on the mechanisms explaining these phenomena.

The results did not provide support for Hypothesis 5; agreeableness did not moderate the positive relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance. One

possible explanation may lie in the concept of neutralization. According to Sykes and Matza (1957), neutralization techniques consist of cognitive processes that individuals use to justify their immoral behavior and redefine it as appropriate. One of these techniques includes appeal to higher loyalties, which occurs when individuals engage in unethical behavior to comply with the needs and expectations of supervisors or the majority (Sykes & Matza, 1957). Discrimination climate may be especially conducive to neutralization effects. Employees high in agreeableness may justify their deviant behavior as they sense the pressure to comply with expectations of the majority to engage in such behavior. Those who are high and low in agreeableness may thus engage in deviant behavior at the same rate, providing an explanation for the nonsignificant results.

Consistent with predictions, the negative relationship between discrimination climate and engagement was stronger among those who are high in agreeableness (Hypothesis 6). The results indicated that in favorable (low discrimination) climates, employees high in agreeableness tend to have higher levels of engagement than in unfavorable (high discrimination) climates. Employees low in agreeableness did not report this trend, and surprisingly, they reported low engagement in both low and high discrimination climates. Essentially, discrimination climate reduced engagement levels among those high in agreeableness but not among those low in agreeableness. The results are consistent with the proposed framework which suggests that employees high in agreeableness experience more strain due to the lack of social resources in a discriminatory climate. As a result, these employees are more likely to disengage in an attempt to cope and maximize their resources, which is consistent with my application of the proposed JD-R model framework (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Surprisingly, the results suggested that agreeableness does not moderate the negative relationship between engagement and interpersonal deviance (Hypothesis 7). Notably, these

findings are inconsistent with previous research and meta-analyses that suggest a negative relationship between agreeableness and interpersonal deviance (Berry et al., 2007; Colbert et al., 2004; Mount et al., 1998). One explanation for this may lie in the negative affect and resource depletion associated with low engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001; Fox et al., 2001). Depleted and disengaged employees may express deviance regardless of their agreeableness levels. Self-regulation theory supports this notion; it states that individuals use psychological resources to control their actions and comply with moral norms (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998). In the case of resource depletion, individuals do not have enough psychological resources to self-regulate (Baumeister et al. 1998; DeWall, Baumeister, Stillman, & Gailliot, 2007). Because disengaged employees are already coping with low resources, they do not have the necessary resources to self-regulate deviant behavior (DeWall et al., 2007). Consequently, despite their need for harmony, employees high in agreeableness express interpersonal deviance when they cannot effectively regulate their behavior due to limited resources.

Implications

Findings of this study expand on the field's current understanding of climate and interpersonal deviance as well as provide both theoretical and practical contributions. First, this study expands the current literature on organizational climate by examining a maladaptive form of climate. Although many previous studies have explored diversity climate, this is one of the first studies examining the construct of discrimination climate (Edun, 2015). In doing so, the present study also sheds light on the negative effects of discrimination at a broader organizational level. Despite a vast amount of research on discrimination in the workplace, studies often focus on individual instances of discrimination (Deitch et al., 2003). That is, studies typically do not examine discrimination at a broad and pervasive organizational level that affects the overall climate. The limited literature involving

organizational-level discrimination includes age discrimination climate (Kunze, Boehm, & Bruch, 2011) and a climate for bias (Ziegert & Hanges, 2005). However, general discrimination climate remains an unexplored area that this study sought to address. Thus, through its focus on discrimination climate, this study not only expands the current literature on climate but it also introduces a broader perspective of studying discrimination in the workplace.

The proposed conceptual model also contributes to theory by incorporating social learning, equity, and stress theories to explain the direct and indirect effects of discrimination climate on deviance. The study expands on these theories by applying them in the context of organizational climate. The proposed direct effect expands on psychological contract and equity theories by showing how a hostile climate may constitute a psychological contract breach and lead to retaliation. It also expands on social learning theory by showing how climate encourages employees to model hostile behaviors. The proposed model also expands on theories relating to stress by illustrating the way in which organizational climate may serve as a stressor that reduces engagement and consequently evokes deviant behavior.

Although previous studies have implemented these three theories in the context of climate research (James, Hater, Gent, & Bruni, 1978; Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010), I am unaware of any that have integrated the theories to explain one phenomenon. Thus, this study provides a contribution by showing how three separate theoretical frameworks explain a single relationship between discrimination climate and interpersonal deviance. Because the direct and indirect effects were significant, the study reveals that all three psychological mechanisms are responsible for this relationship. This provides an opportunity for researchers to explore the circumstances under which employees engage in each psychological process. For example, emotional stability may influence whether an employee engages in deviance due to strain or due to learning and modeling.

Thus, I urge researchers to further examine how these psychological mechanisms manifest among individuals with different characteristics. In all, this study expands our understanding and application of these three theories by integrating them to explain the effects of climate on deviance.

The current study also provides a list of practical implications. Organizations dealing with high rates of discrimination may especially benefit from these findings. However, leaders and supervisors may often be unaware of discrimination climate. This is because discrimination today is a lot more subtle and more difficult to pinpoint (Cortina, 2008). Furthermore, victims of ambiguous acts of discrimination are hesitant to report the incident (Basford, Offerman, & Behrend, 2014), resulting in the leaders' lack of knowledge about the problem. The results of this study emphasize that it is crucial for leaders to become aware of discrimination incidents. One way to ensure that leaders are aware of discrimination problems is to create a confidential outlet for employees and encourage them to report all incidents. Additionally, selecting the right type of leader and training them to identify discrimination may also be beneficial. Thus, this study's results emphasize the need for organizations to ensure that leaders can identify discrimination in their organizations.

Once leaders are aware of an unfavorable discrimination climate, it is important that they inform employees of the problem and take steps to shift the organizational climate. An effective way of shifting away from the discrimination climate is to make changes to the procedures, practices, and policies (Schneider, Brief, & Guzzo, 1996). First, implementing fair procedures can convey the message that fair treatment is essential to the organization (Greenberg, 1987). For example, leaders can ensure that their selection and performance appraisal procedures are bias-free and are not discriminatory. They can accomplish this by using a job analysis to develop selection and performance evaluation tools that are job-related and do not create adverse impact. Second, leaders can adjust their practices regarding reward

systems, which can encourage employees to engage in appropriate behavior and should reflect the climate change (Schneider et al., 1996). Rewarding the expected behavior (i.e., nondiscriminatory and fair treatment) can encourage employees to value and support their coworkers, thus shifting the climate. For example, employees can get rewards for engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., helping coworkers), which would discourage deviant and hostile treatment.

Third, leaders can facilitate the climate shift by implementing changes to their policies and requiring diversity and leadership training. Diversity training can inform employees of their discriminatory behavior and encourage them to change the way they treat one another, as well as to report discrimination when they see it (Pendry, Driscoll, & Field, 2007). They may also benefit from leadership development training. The leader's behavior communicates organizational values and expectations (Grojean, Resick, Dickson, & Smith, 2004). Thus, it is important that the supervisors and managers share goals that align with the organization's climate shift and that they lead by example. That is, they should demonstrate unbiased support for their subordinates and show fair treatment when providing feedback or distributing rewards.

However, even when leaders become aware of discrimination climate and they implement these changes, shifting the organizational climate can be a difficult and time-consuming task. Therefore, this process can take a long time and organizations may consider additional steps to mitigate the negative outcomes of this climate in the short-term. The results of this paper suggest that a lack of resources and high strain contribute to the reduction of engagement in an unfavorable discrimination climate. Thus, organizations can provide employees with additional resources to alleviate their strain levels and increase engagement. They may provide autonomy, access to information, and opportunities for growth and development (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010). Leaders can also provide

emotional support to victims of discrimination. By providing additional resources, organizations can increase employee engagement levels and mitigate the negative effects of discrimination climate on engagement. Furthermore, the results suggest that employees engage in deviance because they model the behavior of those around them. Even if discrimination climate is present in the workplace, leaders can lead by example and encourage employees to model their behavior, as opposed to the unfavorable behavior of their coworkers. This is because leaders communicate the ethical standards of the organization and serve as role models to the employees (Grojean et al. 2004). Thus, even if changing the organizational climate takes time, organizations and their leaders can take steps to sooner mitigate the negative effects of discrimination climate.

It is also important to keep in mind that personality affects employee attitudes and shifting the organizational climate may not yield positive effects for all employees. The interaction results regarding engagement revealed that those who are low in agreeableness report low engagement levels regardless of the climate. This suggests the need for organizations to be cautious of selecting applicants who are low in agreeableness, especially if the organization seeks to increase employee engagement. Given the results, organizations with either low or high discrimination climates may benefit from this. Otherwise, organizations may also consider providing additional resources that specifically benefit those low in agreeableness and allow them to increase their engagement. Therefore, the results of this study also inform practitioners to focus on personality traits when selecting employees and deciding on interventions.

Limitations and Future Suggestions

The first limitation of this study involves the self-report method of data collection. This may have influenced employee reporting of interpersonal deviance. Despite the statement of confidentiality, it is possible that participants were not honest in reporting their

own acts of deviance. Future studies can address this by gathering multi-source data on employee deviance. Another limitation is that I measured discrimination climate at the individual level as opposed to an aggregate. Given the focus on individual behaviors, the present study focused on perceptions of discrimination climate at the individual level. However, future studies may benefit from examining organizational-level discrimination climate and its effects on employee behavior.

The sample for this study is another limitation. The sample consisted of Department of Defense personnel, which likely limits the generalizability of these results. In addition, interpersonal deviance may not be highly common among this sample. Furthermore, the sample consisted of 93% males, which further limits the generalizability of the study's findings. Thus, I encourage researchers to replicate this study using more generalizable samples that also include a larger percentage of female participants. Another limitation involves the design of the scales. To limit the survey length, we used shortened versions of scales, which might have implications for construct validity. The last limitation is the cross-sectional nature of the study. Because we conducted the study at one time the results do not imply causality. To address this, researchers may choose to replicate this study using longitudinal data, which can better explain the effect of discrimination climate on deviance over time.

Conclusion

Employees may choose to engage in deviant behaviors as a result of many organizational and individual-level factors. Thus, the present study sought to simultaneously examine the role of organizational climate and personality in predicting deviance. The tested conceptual model examined the conditional direct and indirect effects of discrimination climate on interpersonal deviance with agreeableness serving as a moderator. Results of the proposed conceptual model suggested that employees may engage in deviance in the

presence of discrimination climate reflecting as many as three psychological processes: (1) as a means of retaliation, (2) as a result of learning and modeling hostile behavior, or (3) in response to stress. The findings also suggested that discrimination climate may have a greater impact on those who are high in agreeableness, as those employees reported the lowest levels of engagement in unfavorable discrimination climates. Together, these results shed light on the maladaptive effects of climate on employee attitudes and behaviors.

The findings of the current study encourage both practitioners and researchers to place more emphasis on discrimination climate, as this type of climate has received little attention in the past. Further research expanding on this topic may provide more insight into organizational concerns surrounding incivility and other forms of discriminatory-based behavior. The findings also encourage practitioners to focus on identifying discrimination climate because it may be more effective to target organizational-level discrimination as opposed to addressing individual cases. Considering the study's outcome of interpersonal deviance, the findings also encourage researchers and practitioners to focus on organizational-level factors as antecedents of unfavorable employee behavior. Although discrimination is still a problem in the workplace, studies and interventions that target this issue may help organizations reduce its occurrence. In all, the study's emphasis on discrimination climate and agreeableness potentially contributes to current literature and illustrates the way in which an organizational-level factor may interact with personality to influence employee behavior.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1.
Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

	Factor			
Item	1	2	3	4
A supervisor did not select for promotion a qualified subordinate of a different race or ethnicity	**.61**			
Members of a particular race or ethnicity were assigned less desirable office space than members of a different race or ethnicity	**.75**			
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	**.82**			
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	**.83**			
When a person complained of sexual harassment, the supervisor said, "You're being too sensitive"	**.61**			
A supervisor referred to subordinates of one gender by their first names in public while using titles for subordinates of the other gender	**.65**			
A well-qualified person was denied a job because the supervisor did not like the religious beliefs of the person	**.70**			
A supervisor favored a worker who had the same religious beliefs as the supervisor	**.68**			
A supervisor did not select for promotion a qualified subordinate of a different race or ethnicity	**.61**			
During the past 6 months, I verbally abused another member of the unit		**.89**		
During the past 6 months, I insulted or made fun of another member of the unit		**.83**		
During the past 6 months, I played a mean prank to embarrass another member of the unit		**.85**		
Over the past 6 months my mind has been focused on my job			**.58**	
Over the past 6 months I have paid a lot of attention to my job			**.71**	
Over the past 6 months I have put a great deal of mental effort into my job			**.68**	
Over the past 6 months I have felt enthusiastic in my job			**.67**	
Over the past 6 months I have felt energetic at my job			**.70**	
Over the past 6 months I have been interested in my job			**.81**	
In general I feel little concern for others [a]				**.64**
In general I am not interested in other people's problems [a]				**.77**
In general I feel others' emotions				**.60**

Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix.

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Minority Status	1.33	.47	-			
2. Discrimination Climate	1.46	.59	.10	-		
3. Agreeableness	3.38	.79	-.15*	-.19**	-	
4. Engagement	3.37	.84	.02	-.31**	.26**	-
5. Interpersonal Deviance	1.97	1.21	.03	.29**	-.22**	-.32**

Note. $N = 227$
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 3.

Regression Results of Direct and Indirect Effects.

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Total and direct effects				
Total effect of discrimination climate on interpersonal deviance	.58	.13	4.47	.00
Engagement regressed on discrimination climate	-.43	.09	-4.87	.00
Interpersonal deviance regressed on engagement, controlling for discrimination climate	-.37	.09	-3.87	.001
Interpersonal deviance regressed on discrimination climate, controlling for engagement	.42	.13	3.19	.002
Bootstrapping results for direct and indirect effect	*M*	*SE*	Lower Level 95% CI	Upper Level 95% CI
Direct Effect	.42	.13	.16	.69
Indirect Effect	.16	.05	.07	.28

Note: Process Model 4.

Table 4.

Regression Results of Conditional Indirect Effect.

Independent Variables	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Engagement				
Intercept	-.19	.15	-1.23	.22
Discrimination Climate	-.43	.09	-4.80	.00
Agreeableness	.24	.07	3.58	.004
Discrimination Climate x Agreeableness	-.28	.11	-2.75	.006
Minority Status	.12	.11	1.13	.26
Interpersonal Deviance				
Intercept	1.97	.23	8.62	.00
Discrimination Climate	.38	.14	2.74	.007
Engagement	-.34	.10	-3.43	.007
Agreeableness	-.19	.10	-1.92	.06
Minority Status	-.01	.16	-.06	.95
Discrimination Climate x Agreeableness	-.09	.16	-.57	.57
Engagement x Agreeableness	.04	.11	.36	.72

Note: Process Model 59.

Table 5.

Bootstrapping Results for Conditional Direct and Indirect Effects of Discrimination Climate.

Agreeableness	Direct effect	Lower Limit 95% CI	Upper Limit 95% CI	Indirect effect	Lower Limit 95% CI	Upper Limit 95% CI
-.79 (-1 SD)	.45 (.17)*	.12	.78	.08 (.05)	.00	.22
M (0)	.38 (.14)*	.11	.65	.15 (.06)	.05	.28
.79 (+1 SD)	.30 (.21)	-.11	.72	.20 (.10)	.03	.43

Note. Standard errors are shown in parentheses. All two-tailed tests.
$N = 227$
* $p < .05$

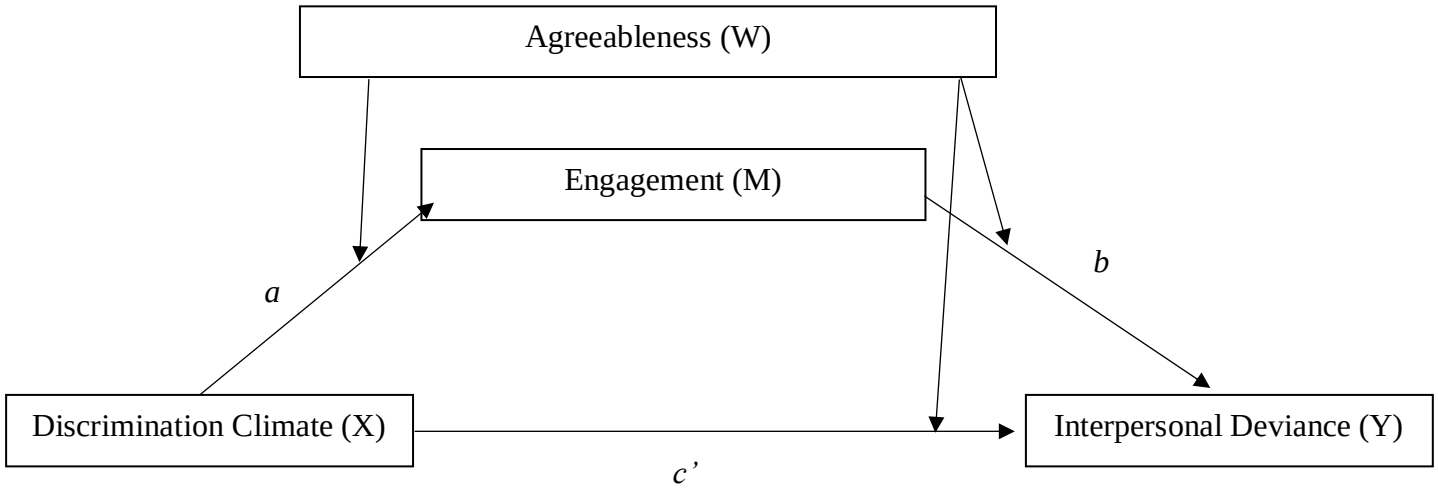

Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model.

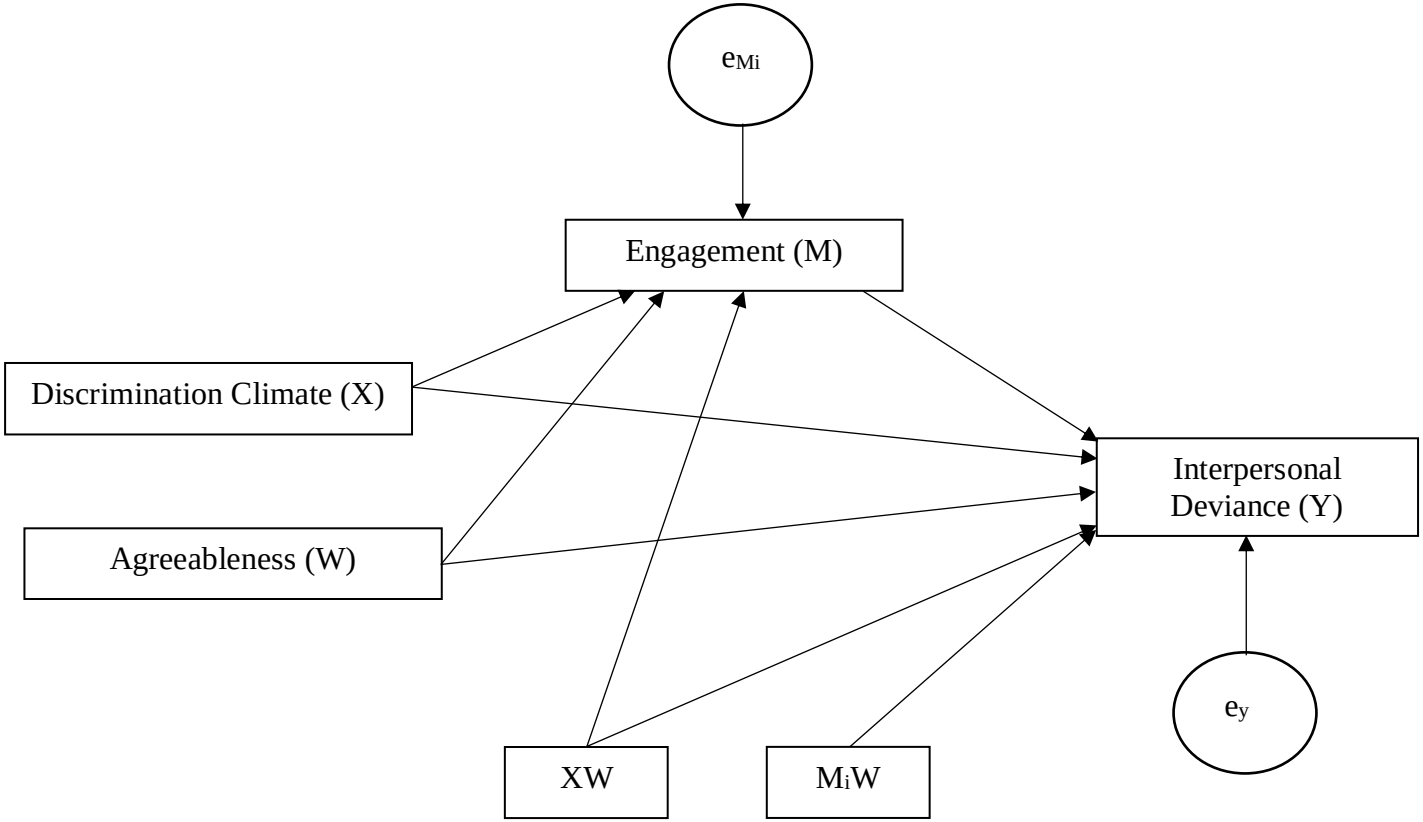

Figure 2. Proposed Structural Model.

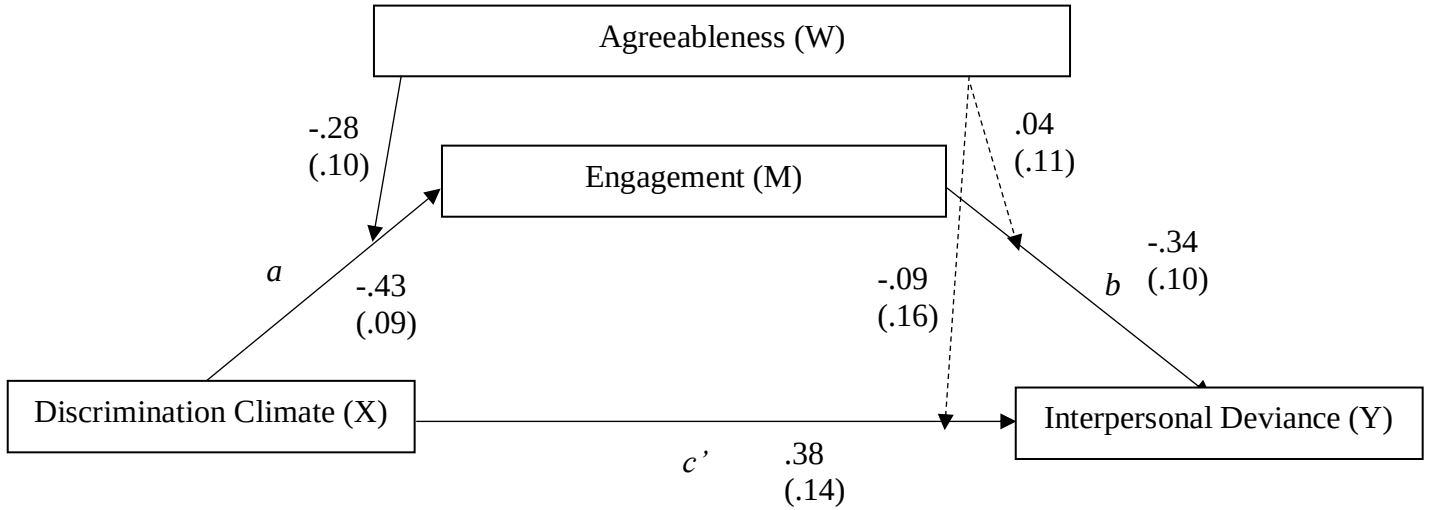

Figure 3. Results of the Proposed Conceptual Model.

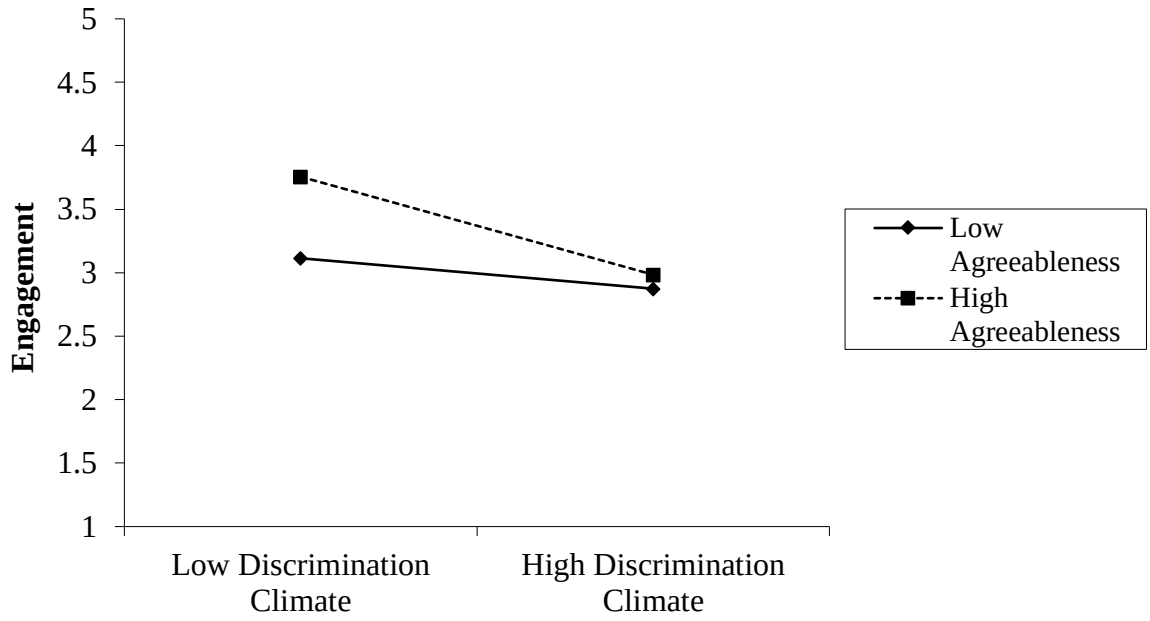

Figure 4. Interaction of Discrimination Climate and Agreeableness in Predicting Engagement (path a).