

This file was downloaded from BI Brage,
the institutional repository (open access) at BI Norwegian Business School
<http://brage.bibsys.no/bi>

Incivility is (not) the very essence of love: passion for work and incivility
instigation

Ide Katrine Birkeland
BI Norwegian Business School

Christina G. L. Nerstad
BI Norwegian Business School

This is the accepted and refereed manuscript to the article published in

Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 21(2016)1:77-90

This article may not exactly replicate the final version published in the APA journal. It
is not the copy of record

Publisher's version available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0039389>

The publisher, American Psychological Association, allows the author to “post a
prepublication copy of the final manuscript, as accepted for publication as a word
processing file, on their personal website, their employer's server, in their institution's
repository, reference managers ...”

<http://www.apa.org/pubs/authors/posting.aspx>

Incivility Is (Not) the Very Essence of Love: Passion for Work and Incivility Instigation

Abstract

This study explored the relationship between obsessive passion for work and incivility instigations, as well as the moderating role of a mastery motivational climate. A longitudinal, three-wave study was conducted among 1,263 employees from a large Norwegian workers' union across a 10-month time span. The results show that obsessive passion for work relates positively to incivility instigations and that this relationship is stable over time. Building on the person–environment fit perspective, we find that the relationship between obsessive passion for work and incivility instigations is stronger for employees with both high levels of obsessive passion and high perceptions of a mastery climate. Our results underline the importance of considering not only the individual in his/her context, but also of considering the match between the individual's values and the contextual values.

Keywords: obsessive passion for work, perceived mastery climate, incivility instigation, longitudinal data

In the book *Pride and Prejudice*, one of Jane Austen's characters asks whether incivility is not the very essence of love. When "violently in love," Mr. Bingley (one of the main characters in the book) is expected to disregard and to offend his surroundings in favor of his love interest (Austen, 1846). Such an interpretation of love translates into showing one's love of work through disrespect and condescension toward those who are not directly related to the work. Research has suggested that this might be the case for certain individuals (e.g. Bureau, Vallerand, Ntoumanis, & Lafrenière, 2013).

In almost every organization, some individuals violate organizational norms and harm the well-being of the organization's members (Atwater & Elkins, 2009). One of the more common ways of instigating such violations is through incivility, defined as "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457). Uncivil behaviors are manifested through disrespect, condescension, and degradation (Burnfield, Clark, Devendorf, & Jex, 2004) and are different from aggression, which has a greater intensity and clearer intention (cf. Yang, Caughlin, Gazica, Truxillo, & Spector, 2014).

A few studies have shown that perpetrators' individual differences are antecedents to incivility (Liu, Chi, Friedman, & Tsai, 2009; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). However, the role of work internalization (e.g., passion) is not sufficiently clear. Passion for work is defined as a strong inclination toward an activity that people like, that they find important, that is self-defining, and in which they invest time and energy (Forest et al., 2012; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). Studies have found that the quality of this passion is of importance in relation to aggression, cheating, and poor interpersonal relationships (Bureau et al., 2013; Donahue, Rip, & Vallerand, 2009; Philippe, Vallerand, Houliort, Lavigne, & Donahue, 2010). By drawing on Austen's depiction of love as a source of incivility, we thus investigate the role of work internalization (i.e., love for work) as an antecedent of incivility. This is important, as the way

work is internalized within employees may have relevant ramifications for the employees' moral behavior (Bureau et al., 2013).

Second, we examine the interplay between the work motivational context and the individual, as incivility is not only a function of the social environment but is also a result of individual differences (cf. Liu et al., 2009; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). Finally, we conduct this research longitudinally, as theory suggests that incivility might escalate or decrease in response to certain antecedents and conditions (Leiter, Laschinger, Day, & Oore, 2011; Porath & Pearson, 2010).

Our study thereby makes two contributions to the incivility literature. First, we take into account the way individuals might internalize their work into their identity. The extent of such internalization may be central in understanding uncivil behaviors because self-defining activities, like work, are likely to impact individuals' behaviors (Forest, Mageau, Sarrazin, & Morin, 2011). This is specifically relevant if individuals feel that their identity is challenged (cf. Amiot, Vallerand, & Blanchard, 2006; Bureau et al., 2013). Furthermore, we address the underlying assumption of incivility as part of a process that might change over time in response to different relationships, such as passion for work (e.g. Leiter et al., 2011; Meier & Spector, 2013). We argue that certain passions might relate to an increase in instigations as identity-threatening situations take their toll and require increased efforts to restore feelings of social status and self-esteem.

Second, we consider that incivility is not only a function of individual differences but also a result of the social environment (cf. Liu et al., 2009; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). We thereby examine conditions under which employees may act more (or less) uncivilly (Liu et al., 2009). By drawing upon the perspective of person–environment fit, we argue that context has the opportunity to enhance or diminish behavior and well-being depending on the match with

the individuals' preferences (Amiot et al., 2006; Caplan, 1987; Pervin, 1968). A particularly relevant theoretical approach to this context is the achievement goal theory (AGT). AGT posits that the extant criteria of success and failure in the work context, also referred to as the perceived motivational climate, play a central role in the motivational process that affects achievement behavior (Ames, 1992b; Nicholls, 1989). Such a climate represents different social–moral value orientations that may influence behavior (Ommundsen, Roberts, Lemyre, & Treasure, 2003). If this value orientation does not match the value orientation of the individual there might be a lack of person–environment fit. This might subsequently enhance rather than diminish the reasons for behaving in a disrespectful and condescending way toward coworkers. This paper thus considers not only the individual in his/her context, but also the match between the individual's values and the contextual values (cf. Hirst, Van Knippenberg, & Zhou, 2009; Pervin, 1968). Moreover, in line with calls for addressing the long-term adjustment of passion in different types of contexts (Amiot et al., 2006), we consider the moderating role of the motivational climate in regulating the passion–incivility relationship over time (Meier & Spector, 2013; Pearson & Porath, 2005).

Passion for Work and Incivility

Practitioners, as well as researchers, have claimed that employee passion is particularly important to organizational performance (e.g. Allegretti, 2000; Boyatzis, McKee, & Goleman, 2002; Lucy, 2013; Perttula & Cardon, 2012; Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, & Dichl, 2011), although passion for work is still a “poorly understood (and cultivated) worker attribute” (Perrewé, Hochwarter, Ferris, McAllister, & Harris, 2014, p. 145).

With its basis in self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000), the dualistic passion for work model postulates that work can become so important to the employee that

he/she defines him/herself by it. This internalization follows two distinct processes. A self-determined internalization occurs when employees internalize their work because it is fun or developmental, while a controlled internalization occurs when employees internalize their work due to secondary gains, for example, when they believe it will foster the admiration of coworkers or when their self-esteem is contingent upon performance (Amiot et al., 2006; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ho, Wong, & Lee, 2011; Mageau, Carpentier, & Vallerand, 2011). Such self-esteem and social-status contingencies are likely to be of importance when investigating why individuals may be demeaning, degrading, or insulting toward others (Amiot et al., 2006). That is, if an individual depends upon his/her high social status to feel good, he/she is more likely to respond with incivility if that status is challenged (Porath, Overbeck, & Pearson, 2008). Based on SDT's distinction between the self-determined and controlled internalization of an activity, scholars generally adhere to a dualistic model of passion for work, consisting of obsessive passion and harmonious passion (Lavigne, Forest, & Crevier-Braud, 2012; Robertson & Barling, 2013). Obsessive passion follows a controlled internalization of work and refers to an internal pressure that forces an individual into working (Vallerand et al., 2003). This pressure is different from introjected regulation as defined by the SDT because with obsessive passion employees still love their work (Vallerand et al., 2003). Obsessive passion represents, in such cases, a disproportionate importance given to work in the context of one's identity and a strong drive to partake in work (Caudroit, Boiché, Stephan, Le Scanff, & Trouilloud, 2011; Forest et al., 2011; Lavigne et al., 2012). This form of passion is identity consuming, meaning that all of one's energies are focused on engaging in work such that less energy is available for being inclusive and courteous (Philippe et al., 2010).

In contrast, harmonious passion refers to a self-determined internalization of work where work is important, fun, and part of one's identity yet not completely consuming (Forest

et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2003). This internalization is different from identified regulation as defined by SDT because employees love their work, which is not the case with identified regulation (Vallerand et al., 2003). In this framework, obsessive passion represents a dysfunctional form of motivation, whereas harmonious passion is a more functional way of relating to work. Given the relevance of further clarifying the role of dysfunctional internalization of work in predicting uncivil behavior (e.g., Bureau et al., 2013; Donahue et al., 2009), this study focuses on obsessive passion and how it relates to incivility. In the following, we build theoretical arguments that pertain to the role of obsessive passion.

Although the conceptualization of passion for work resembles other organizational motivations and attitudes, research shows that passion for work indeed contributes to the nomological net of work motivation (Birkeland & Buch, 2014; Liu, Chen, & Yao, 2011; Vallerand et al., 2003). Most importantly, the passion model accounts for how an employee internalizes work as a part of one's self-concept and how this becomes a motivational impetus for behavior and emotions. Thus, this combination may be better apt to explain individual differences in incivility than perhaps less complex motivational constructs can (Marsh et al., 2013). Empirically, obsessive passion has convergent and incremental validity over and beyond workaholism and controlled motivation (Birkeland & Buch, 2014; Liu et al., 2011). Furthermore, harmonious passion has been theoretically and empirically distinguished from intrinsic and autonomous motivation, work engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, and identification (Amiot et al., 2006; Birkeland & Buch, 2014; Ho et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2003).

SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1995) distinguishes between contingent self-esteem and true self-esteem. Obsessive passion is based on contingent self-esteem, where feelings about oneself depend on matching some personal standard of excellence or living up to some interpersonal

expectation (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Lafrenière, Bélanger, Sedikides, & Vallerand, 2011). For example, people who have high obsessive passion experience self-esteem fluctuations, which vary with performance in their favorite activities (Mageau et al., 2011). A high level of contingent self-esteem can be associated with being ego-involved in certain types of outcomes and dutifully achieving them (Ryan, 1982). Often, contingent self-esteem involves social comparison because some people feel they have to live up to some external criteria in order to feel worthy. The individual's self-esteem is then evaluated by how one measures up relative to others (Deci & Ryan, 1995), as is the case with obsessive passion.

With contingent self-esteem, feelings of insecurity arise more easily, as one depends on rewards that involve others, such as awe or appraisal. People who have high obsessive passion might be seen as more aggressive and competitive (Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernet, & Guay, 2008), perhaps relating to their need to prove themselves. When one is obsessively passionate about work, this may be related to the status it provides (Amiot et al., 2006); thus, if this status is challenged, one might respond with incivility as a means to regain confidence (Porath et al., 2008). For example, if one pictures a medical doctor who loves her work because of the status that it provides her (at work), she may feel important because of her knowledge and merits. Perhaps unconsciously she may be very concerned with maintaining this position and thus reluctant to include nurses or other doctors in her assessments. This is because she might be afraid that other ideas, even better ones, could place coworkers who are equally knowledgeable on display. By not being inclusive or asking others' opinions, she might be considered condescending or disrespectful, but the doctor is inclined to think this is the price of being successful in her line of work. This reasoning is supported by studies that have shown obsessive passion as being related to hubristic pride (Bureau et al., 2013), to the poor quality of social relationships (Philippe et al., 2010), to responding more aggressively when experiencing

conditions of self-threat (Donahue et al., 2009), and to engaging in self-enhancing strategies in order to protect and enhance the self (Lafreniere, Vallerand, & Sedikides, in press). All of these are considered important factors when considering the likelihood of uncivil behaviors (Porath et al., 2008). We therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Obsessive passion relates positively to incivility instigation.

Theory suggests that incivility instigations can be perceived as a process that might escalate if unresolved or ignored (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). The process is also vulnerable to changes in social relationships at work and thus might change over time in response to different relationships (Leiter et al., 2011; Meier & Spector, 2013).

A person who has high obsessive passion is susceptible to interpreting situations or relationships as threats to either the job itself or to his/her social status or self-esteem (Bureau et al., 2013; Deci & Ryan, 1995; Rip, Vallerand, & Lafrenière, 2012). Over time, this might lead to an increase in instigations as the obsession takes its toll and requires increased efforts to restore feelings of social status and self-esteem. Consider the example of an individual who has high levels of obsessive passion but feels less competent and thus less valued due to his/her new colleague. He/she perceives this colleague to be better at some of the key tasks at the job and is consequently more abrupt or hostile toward that colleague. As obsessive passion is exhausting and may lead to lowered perceptions of personal accomplishment (Lavigne et al., 2012; Trépanier, Fernet, Austin, Forest, & Vallerand, 2013), more effort might be required for him/her to regain confidence at work by instilling feelings of superiority and the individual thus might instigate uncivil behaviors more often. We therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Obsessive passion relates to an increase in incivility instigation over time.

The Moderating Role of a Mastery Climate

The motivational climate at work, as AGT defines it (Ames, 1992c; Nicholls, 1989), describes which goals employees are to achieve, how employees are to be evaluated, and how employees are to relate to one another and to work-related tasks (Ames, 1984; Ames & Ames, 1984a, 1984b). Such a climate has been found to shape an individual's moral functioning, actions, and social-moral team norms by influencing a person's actions toward opponents and/or teammates in achievement settings (e.g., Ommundsen et al., 2003; Roberts, 2012). Different social-moral values generate different meanings that are attached to success and failure, various approaches to processing or attending to performance information, and diverse achievement strategies (e.g., working with versus working against coworkers; Ames & Ames, 1984a). Therefore, such a climate is likely to influence the obsessive passion-incivility relationship.

According to AGT, two basic types of motivational climate have been conceptualized: a mastery climate and a performance climate (Ames, 1992a, 1995). In a mastery climate, rewards tend to rely more on effort, self-improvement, progress, skill development, and cooperation rather than on social comparison (Ames, 1984; Ames & Ames, 1984a, 1984b). Thus, employees' work achievements are more independent of one another, and therefore the attainment of rewards is equal across employees (Dragoni, 2005). The work process is viewed more in light of a process of learning or achieving mastery compared with what the employee has accomplished in the past (Ames, 1984).

Studies have shown that a mastery climate typically is associated with adaptive outcomes such as more mature levels of social-moral reasoning, socially and morally acceptable behavior, positive ethical norms, better performance, and positive relationships with

significant others (Nerstad, Roberts, & Richardsen, 2013a; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Roberts, 2012).

A perceived mastery climate is also relevant beyond other motivational climates, such as, for example, an autonomy-supportive climate (e.g., Mageau et al., 2009), as it includes a focus on several other factors. For example, a mastery climate emphasizes the facilitation of developing abilities, rewarding effort, giving meaningful tasks, enhancing cooperation, giving time for each individual to develop his/her potential, and supporting autonomy. Thus, AGT explains how social environments influence the motivational process by promoting one conception of ability over another (i.e., mastery and performance; Butler, 1989; Ntoumanis, 2001).

In contrast, a performance climate promotes an egoistic motivation (Nicholls, 1979), as well as maladaptive behaviors, as social comparison information is highly salient (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Roberts, 2012). These climate structures are interdependent, which argues for an integrative approach to the study of such work environments. Thus, the importance of controlling for the simultaneous existence of a performance climate is salient, as the two climates are assumed to work in concert to a greater or lesser extent (Ames, 1992c).

Given their reliance on their contingent self-esteem, employees who have high obsessive passion are likely to be concerned with proving their competence and social status to others (Mageau et al., 2011; Stenseng & Dalskau, 2010). If the motivational climate does not support these notions, individuals are not able to show off their virtues and may therefore be less content and happy at work. Negative emotions have been found to be antecedents of counterproductive work behaviors (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). According to the person–environment fit perspective, the fit between an employee’s characteristics (e.g., passion) and the work context can have significant consequences for the employee (cf. Cable & Edwards,

2004; Pervin, 1968). Person–environment congruence is achieved when there is a match between employee values and the values of the environment. Thus, negative emotions that stem from a lack of person–environment fit might leave the highly obsessively passionate employee with less available energy for being inclusive and courteous toward coworkers. This argument aligns with the findings of Amiot et al. (2006), who found that obsessively passionate athletes showed greater psychological adjustment in highly competitive leagues while showing less psychological adjustment in less competitive leagues. In fact, value incongruence (i.e., between person and environment) has been found to result in dissatisfaction and cognitive dissonance (O’Reilly et al., 1991). Thus, working in a mastery climate, where a strong focus is placed on cooperation, positive relationships, equality, and social moral values, does not match with what the employee with strong obsessive passion finds important. Therefore, it may rather trigger the highly obsessively passionate employee to become more prone to instigate incivility given the lack of person–environment fit (cf. Edwards, Caplan, & Van Harrison, 1998). Because the employee with strong obsessive passion would normally respond with incivility when his/her normative status is challenged (Porath et al., 2008), the criteria of success in a mastery climate is likely to rather threaten that motive and encourage the employee to behave in uncivil manners. Thus, a greater insensitivity toward coworkers and an even lower priority for social moral motives may be the result of the proposed mismatch between obsessive passion and a perceived mastery climate. Due to such value incongruence, the employee’s temptation to instigate incivility may become enhanced. Accordingly, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3: A perceived mastery climate moderates the relationship between obsessive passion and incivility instigation; the higher the perceived mastery climate, the more positive the relationship.

To the extent that environmental influences remain stable over time, dispositional continuity may be expected (Caspi & Roberts, 1999). However, a change in environmental influences and in in-role expectations can influence change, either through punishing inappropriate behavior or rewarding appropriate behavior (Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006). For example, if employees with strong levels of obsessive passion perceive a mastery climate over time, they might become increasingly frustrated and thus more inclined to engage in incivility when coping with the mismatch between their contingent self-esteem and the expectations of the mastery climate. This is likely, as the obsessively passionate typically display rigid forms of involvement in work-related activities and may therefore find it hard to be flexible and adapt to environmental expectations (Amiot et al., 2006). Employees who need constant validation of their competence and social status might spend all their resources on getting the attention of others to make them feel good about themselves. Over time, when the mastery climate conditions do not reward this effort, these employees might experience a loss of resources and may become even less able to behave in a civil manner (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Hobfoll, Lilly, & Jackson, 1992; Wheeler, Halbesleben, & Shanine, 2013). In other words, the value incongruence takes its toll and ends in a resource depletion that, over time, increases the levels of incivility instigations. We therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: A perceived mastery climate moderates the relationship between obsessive passion and incivility instigation. The higher the perceived mastery climate is, the stronger the increase in the relationship between obsessive passion and incivility instigation over time.

Method

Participants

Participants included 1,263 members of a Norwegian workers' union from the technical sector. They were employed in both private and public sectors and were mostly men (private 69%, men 63%; please see Table 1 for additional demographic information).

Procedure

We collected data in three waves throughout 2011. The study was designed with equal time lags between the waves, as we had no prior expectations about rate of change (Singer & Willett, 2003). The Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) evaluated and approved information on the study designs, samples, procedures, and questionnaires. The first author designed the survey, and a representative from the organization gathered the data. A random sample of members from a large Norwegian workers' union was invited to participate (19,649 members). They received an e-mail with an electronic link to the survey, where it was also explained that by participating one agreed to also be invited to a second wave of the same survey. The e-mail further stressed that participation was voluntary and that personal information would be depersonalized following the study's completion. The response rate at Time 1 was 15%. Respondents who also responded to the second survey were invited to participate in the third survey; this resulted in complete three-wave data from 1,263 employees, with a response rate from Time 1 to Time 3 of 40%. The union representative, who was responsible for all surveys in the union, matched the data using membership numbers. Even though the overall response rate was low, some studies suggest that attrition is not necessarily a serious threat in longitudinal studies (Feng, Silverstein, Giarrusso, McArdle, & Bengtson, 2006). However, due to the low response rate, we tested for nonresponse bias by comparing early and late respondents, as Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggested. In line with Krishnan,

Martin, and Noorderhaven (2006) and with Buch, Kuvaas, and Dysvik (2010), an independent sample *t*-test was conducted to compare the scores for respondents who answered the first wave immediately and respondents who answered after one or two reminders. No significant differences existed in these responses. In order to test for nonresponse bias by attrition, we also conducted an independent sample *t*-test that compared respondents who only responded at Time 1 with respondents who also responded at Time 3. No significant differences between these groups existed either.

Measures

All items except for incivility were scored on a seven-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Incivility was scored on the same scale, from 1 = never to 7 = daily.

Passion for work. Passion for work was assessed using the passion scale (Vallerand et al., 2003). Six items measured harmonious passion (e.g., “My work is well integrated in my life”), and six items measured obsessive passion (e.g., “My work is the only thing that really turns me on”). As both harmoniously and obsessively passionate individuals share the characteristics of liking activities and viewing activities as important to them, they will also possibly share some variance related to the outcomes (Liu et al., 2011). Furthermore, studies suggest that the two forms of passion are relatively independent of each other, with weak or no correlation between them, and can coexist at any given time (Marsh et al., 2013). We therefore controlled for harmonious passion in this study.

Mastery climate. A measure developed by Nerstad, Roberts, and Richardsen (2013b) was applied for measuring perceptions of the motivational climate (i.e., mastery and performance climate) at work. Participants were asked to give indications of how they perceived success to be defined in their work situations. Six items measured employees’ perceptions of a

mastery climate (e.g., “Each individual’s learning and development is emphasized”), whereas eight questions measured employees’ perceptions of a performance climate (e.g., “Only the employees who achieve the best results/accomplishments are set up as examples”). The performance climate was included as a control variable.

Incivility. Incivility instigation was assessed using the five-item work incivility scale and included items such as, “paid little attention to another person’s statement or showed little interest in their opinion,” and “ignored or excluded another person from professional camaraderie” (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001).

Other control variables. Because age, gender, and tenure have been shown to relate to workplace aggression (Ng & Feldman, 2008), we controlled for this in our study. Furthermore, as obsessive passion for work might relate to working extensively (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003), we also controlled for hours worked per week.

Analyses

In the data, measurement occasions (time) were nested within participants. Therefore, all analyses were performed to account for the variation both between and within individuals. In order to examine the construct validity of the scales, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA; cf. Bollen, 1989; Muthén, 1989). We followed Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, and Haerem (2012) and estimated a multiple indicator multiple causes (MIMIC) model to control for sample heterogeneity when performing the CFA. Because “ordinal variables are not continuous and should not be treated as if they are” (Jöreskog, 2005, p. 10), we used the weighted least squares (WLSMV) estimator of the Mplus program (Muthén, du Toit, & Spisic, 1997), which can accommodate the ordinal data (e.g., Flora & Curran, 2004). In addition, because the observations in the dataset are nonindependent (i.e., time is clustered within each employee), we performed the MIMIC-CFA using cluster robust standard errors (at the

employee level). The MIMIC-CFA was performed on the full scales of a three-factor model that represented obsessive passion, incivility, and perceived mastery climate.

In order to test the hypotheses, we applied multilevel analysis with the use of SPSS 20 (Hox, 2010; Singer & Willett, 2003). This procedure was chosen to account for the nonindependence of the data and because it provided information on both within- and between-individual variation over time. This procedure was performed with a stacked format of the data, where time was coded so that 0, 1, and 2 represented Times 1, 2, and 3, respectively. As the dependent variable was not normally distributed, we applied a logit transformation and performed the following analyses on the transformed dependent variable (Hox, 2010).

Multilevel analysis allowed for the estimation of direct relationships between obsessive passion for work and incivility instigation as well as a trajectory of individual and between-individual changes. This means that we simultaneously tested two subsidiary models: a Level 1 submodel that described how each person changed over time and a Level 2 submodel that described how these changes differed across people (Singer & Willett, 2003). Within each of these two levels, the intercept and slope describe the mean growth. Further, between-individual differences (or Level 2 differences) in the parameters that described the growth curve were modeled as random effects for the intercept and slope of the time variable. We estimated both within- and between-individual changes in incivility. As the data suggested that there was little change within individuals over time ($ICC = .68$), our final model focused primarily on the between-individual changes in incivility and the role of the other variables in predicting these changes.

In this model, the Level 1 intercept coefficient represents concurrent levels of incivility instigation, and the Level 1 slope represents an estimate of linear change over time (i.e.,

decrease in instigations). All other study variables, including control variables, represent Level 2 variables in the model.

Results

The MIMIC-CFA model that we tested demonstrated a good fit with the data (χ^2 [153] = 1188.60, $p < 0.001$; RMSEA = 0.05; CFI = 0.96; TLI = 0.95; (Hu & Bentler, 1999) when controlling for sample heterogeneity (i.e., by regressing the factors on the control variables: hours worked, age, gender, and tenure). Table 1 shows the means, standard deviation, reliabilities, and correlations of all study variables. The reliability was consistent and relatively high with all study variables at all three time points (ranging from $\alpha = .80$ to $.87$). One exception is incivility, which showed somewhat lower reliability scores (ranging from $\alpha = .66$ to $.71$), but the numbers are still considered acceptable for internal consistency (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Peterson, 1994). The overall item-total correlations (a combined variable of T1, T2, and T3) range from $.44$ to $.69$ in obsessive passion, $.45$ to $.69$ in harmonious passion, $.57$ to $.75$ in mastery climate, $.44$ to $.68$ in performance climate, and $.34$ to $.51$ in incivility. Although some of the item-total correlations are lower in incivility, they are still within the range of acceptable correlations and do not merit being dropped from the scale (Field, 2005; Tay & Drasgow, 2012).

Insert Table 1 about here

In order to assess the direct and longitudinal relationships between passion and incivility instigation, a two-level hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted using SPSS 20. Table 2 depicts the results of the analyses with incivility instigation. The intraclass correlation

coefficient (ICC) was moderately high (.68), suggesting that 68% of the variance reflected consistent response patterns among respondents over time (Twisk, 2010).

Insert Table 2 about here

Test of the Hypothesized Direct Relationships

For H1 and H2, we examined four hierarchically nested models, as Hox (2010) suggested. Model 1 is the null model, with only the intercept (base level of the dependent variable) estimated. In Model 2, we added the slope (time) to level 1 (within-individual). When adding time in Model 2, the significant fixed effects of the slope indicated between-individual decreases in incivility instigations. The significant random effects of the slopes indicated within-individual increases in incivility instigation, but the effects were very low, reflecting the relative stability of the response patterns.

In Model 3, we added control variables, whereas Model 4 included the direct relationship between obsessive passion and incivility instigation. This improved the model fit above the control variables, as the deviance (Aikake's information criterion, or AIC) was reduced significantly. As with all absolute-fit indices, AIC is susceptible to sample size (la Du & Tanaka, 1989), and including more information in order to assess model fit is advised. We thus included the pseudo R^2 statistics (Snijders & Bosker, 1999) in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the added variables so as to explain the between-individual variance (Kwok et al., 2008; Singer & Willett, 2003).

Our first hypothesis, stating that obsessive passion should be positively related to incivility instigation, was supported, whereas obsessive passion was unrelated to increases in instigations over time, thus providing no support for our second hypothesis.

Test of the Hypothesized Moderating Relationship

In order to test the third hypothesis, we again examined four hierarchically nested models. We added the variable set of perceived mastery climate and the interaction term to Model 5, and we compared this to models 1–4. Interaction terms often create multicollinearity problems due to their correlations with main effects. We thus computed the interaction term by centering the variables before multiplying them with one another (Aiken & West, 1991). Adding the perceived climate variables improved the model fit above the direct effects, as the deviance was reduced significantly.

Our third hypothesis, which stated that higher perceived mastery climate should relate to a more positive relationship between obsessive passion and incivility instigations, was supported. Following the recommendations of Aiken and West (1991), we plotted low versus high scores on obsessive passion and perceived mastery climate (one standard deviation below and above the means using standardized scores). These plots are illustrated in Figure 1. The slopes in Figure 1 suggest that individuals with strong obsessive passion instigate more uncivil behavior when experiencing high levels of perceived mastery climate. With lower levels of obsessive passion, however, individuals who also perceive a high mastery climate instigate the lowest levels of incivility. Hence, a mastery climate may be able to reduce incivility, but only for those individuals who have low levels of obsessive passion. The *t*-tests of the simple slopes indicated that both slopes were significant (high mastery climate, $p = .001$; low mastery climate, $p = .01$) and that the two slopes were significantly different from each other ($p = .01$).

When inspecting the standard coefficient of the interaction term, the coefficients were relatively small. However, as both Aguinis, Beaty, Boik, and Pierce (2005) and Kath, Swody, Magley, Bunk, and Gallus (2009) explained, if they are of practical significance, even small effect sizes should be discussed.

Finally, our fourth hypothesis, which stated that a higher perceived mastery climate should heighten the increase in the relationship between obsessive passion and incivility instigation, was not supported.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Discussion

In this study, we drew upon the person–environment fit perspective and introduced a situational contingency that might enhance a negative outcome of obsessive passion. Although Miller, Roberts, and Ommundsen (2004) found that perceptions of a mastery climate predicted more mature moral reasoning of moral dilemmas, we showed that this may depend on the level of person–environment fit. More specifically, we tested whether individuals with strong levels of obsessive passion have a stronger motive for being disrespectful, condescending, and degrading when the work situation emphasizes empathy and striving with coworkers as opposed to striving against coworkers.

The results from our longitudinal study demonstrated that obsessive passion related positively to incivility instigation and that this relationship was stable over time. Further, we found that the relationship between obsessive passion and incivility was stronger for employees with high levels of perceived mastery climate when they simultaneously experienced high levels of obsessive passion.

Theoretical Contributions

Theory and recent research on incivility have emphasized the need to improve the quality of social relationships by reducing uncivil interactions in the workplace (Leiter et al., 2011). Incivility is not only a function of the social environment at work but also is a result of

individual differences (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). In terms of incivility instigation, this study underlines the importance of investigating the individual in his/her work context as opposed to studying the individual or the social environment separately. Furthermore, it shows the importance of considering whether the individual's values actually match the values of the context, as our results indicate that value incongruence might have detrimental outcomes (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

Our study makes two theoretical contributions to the incivility literature, although the results also have implications for the passion literature as well as the literature on AGT.

Firstly, and most importantly, we showed that although a perceived mastery climate might be a vital part of creating a positive social–moral work environment with little rudeness, such a climate may actually relate to increases in said rudeness for employees with strong obsessive passion for work. Thus, individuals seem to be triggered by the values that are inherent in a mastery climate and change their behaviors for the worse when a certain level of obsessive passion is present. From an incivility perspective, this is important as it signifies how individual and contextual value congruence may be relevant in predicting incivility instigation. These findings also have central implications for AGT because they indicate that a mastery climate is not necessarily adaptive to all employees. This is in line with our hypotheses, built within the person–environment fit perspective, where employees' attitudes should be less positive when value incongruence is present (Cable & Edwards, 2004). In person–environment fit terms, when an individual lacks the values that are indicative of a good fit, this individual might experience resource loss (Hobfoll, 1989). If this loss is left untouched, negative outcomes such as dissatisfaction and incivility might result (Wheeler et al., 2013).

An interesting finding, however, is that a perceived mastery climate alleviated the relationship between obsessive passion for work and incivility for those who were already low

in obsessive passion. This suggests that the relationship might be curvilinear such that when lower levels of passion are present the individual is still able to perceive the external cues communicated in the mastery climate as a support and not as a threat—and thus might change his/her behavior. When the obsessive passion reaches a certain point, however, employees' mental model of what work is and why it is important to them is so deeply ingrained in their identities that the mastery climate might be experienced as a threat to their contingent self-esteem and, instead of minimizing incivility, the climate could actually enhance it. This is in line with a recent study that found a curvilinear link between organizational identification and workaholism. Avanzi et al. (2012) showed that workaholism initially decreased with growing identification, but when identification became too strong workaholism increased. When work becomes an addiction, similar to gambling or substance abuse, external cues will become more difficult to absorb and might be seen as threats rather than aids (Pallesen, Mitsem, Kvale, Johnsen, & Molde, 2005). Individuals with strong obsessive passion for work might thus need different cues than those offered in the perceived mastery climate in order to change their behaviors.

Secondly, we contribute by introducing the role of obsessive passion as a precursor of incivility. Using longitudinal data, we found that obsessive passion represents a dysfunctional motivation that might lead to more disrespectfulness, arrogance, and humiliation. This finding underlines previous studies that suggest that individuals with strong obsessive passion are susceptible to aggressive behavior and are less able to engage in high-quality relationships (Donahue et al., 2009; Philippe et al., 2010). This relationship does not change over time but rather remains stable. This stability sheds light upon our third contribution: investigating the role of time in the hypothesized relationships.

The reported stability of the relationships might reflect the fact that obsessive passion stems from relatively subconscious psychological structures in the individual, such as ego-invested self-concepts (Hodgins & Knee, 2002; Vallerand et al., 2003). An ego-invested self-concept may render individuals less aware of their intrinsic motives and reduce individuals to passive bystanders of their own emotional and behavioral reactions. Similar responses have been indicated in previous studies that showed obsessive passion to be related to the suppression of alternative goals that the individual does not perceive as important for his/her favorite activity (e.g., work); furthermore, obsessive passion seems to undermine individuals' ability to self-regulate (Bélanger, Lafrenière, Vallerand, & Kruglanski, 2013; Lafrenière et al., 2011). The relationship with work might thus be characterized by a passive understanding of how someone responds to certain situations. Obsessive employees may therefore respond similarly in all situations that might cause incivility, so unless the number of situations increases or decreases the number of incivility instigations will not change either.

The relative consistency of response patterns among respondents also lends support for this argument. Incivility instigations did not increase during the 10 months included in the study; in fact, these instigations decreased slightly. The perceived mastery climate was negatively related to incivility instigations, and a post-hoc analysis showed that perceived mastery climate indeed contributed to a small decrease over time ($.01^*$). This aligns well with previous research which suggested that behavioral patterns sanctioned in the organizational context relate to the explicit behaviors of the employees (Leiter et al., 2011). A perceived mastery climate may thus accentuate a particular social–moral value orientation that generates a strong focus on empathy and consideration, which subsequently decreases incivility for employees who have not surpassed a certain level of obsessive passion (Ommundsen et al., 2003; Porath & Pearson, 2010). Therefore, even though mastery climate can relate to lower

levels of incivility, the value incongruence between the employee with strong obsessive passion and the mastery climate seems to be the issue.

Finally, we did not find support for the hypothesis, which stated that high perceived mastery climate would relate to a stronger increase in the relationship between obsessive passion and incivility instigation over time. This might also be related to the period of the study. Although role expectations and valued social–moral behavior at work serves as a guide for how employees should act appropriately, a time span of longer than 10 months may be required for a high mastery climate to display additional changes in the relationship between strong obsessive passion and incivility instigation. This suggests that, even though a mastery climate does have a heightening influence on the relationship between strong obsessive passion and incivility, additional increases might not be evident in the relatively short time span of this study.

Limitations and Research Directions

This research's contributions should be viewed in light of several limitations. First, these data are based on one large union, making it difficult to control for differences in type of job and workplace. Differences in organizations' human resources (HR) systems and their applications might lead to different climate perceptions among employees. On the other hand, this might also be considered a strength, as the employees thus represent a variety of jobs in both the private and public sectors. Nonetheless, the role of HR systems and other potential moderators should be investigated. A pay-for-individual-performance compensation system might, for example, induce an even stronger relationship between obsessive passion and incivility instigations, as such a system has been found to increase social comparison (Grienberger, Rutte, & van Knippenberg, 1997).

Second, as Orth, Robins, and Meier suggested (2009, p. 318), “Longitudinal analyses are useful because they can indicate whether the data are consistent with a causal model of the relation between the variables.” However, experimental designs are the most effective in establishing causal relationships (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002), and experiments that, for example, manipulate the perceived motivational climate could be an interesting way to investigate this more closely. Bélanger et al. (2013a; 2013b) have made important progress in conducting experiments that involve passion for an activity. A related suggestion for future research is the possibility of a reversed relationship between passion for work and perceived climate. Taylor and Kluemper (2012) investigated the role of personality as a moderator in the relationship between role stressors and enacted aggression through experienced incivility, arguing that the instigations of aggression are different for different personality types. A similar relationship might be argued in the present study, that the relationship between the perceived mastery climate and incivility instigations is experienced differently through the eyes of people who have strong harmonious passion or obsessive passion. As our findings also indicated curvilinear relationships, studies should look into the possibilities of nonlinear linkages between obsessive passion and various outcome variables.

Third, the exclusive reliance on self-reported questionnaire data might cause concerns related to possible mono-method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, because our data were collected more than three times over a period of 10 months, the possibility of percept-percept inflated measures is lowered and is in line with expert advice (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Furthermore, a principal component analysis conducted on all T1 variables generated eight factors with values of 1 or more and an explained variance of the first factor of more than 27%. The eighth factor represents Item 9 in the passion for work scale and shows no cross-loadings with the other seven factors. Although

this test (Harman's one-factor test, Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) is nothing more than a diagnostic technique used to assess whether common method variance may be a problem (Podsakoff et al., 2003), it seems to indicate that mono-method variance was not a serious problem in our study. In addition, to the extent that mono-method variance has inflated the results, this would probably only be the case for the direct hypotheses, as no reason exists to expect interactions owing to common-method variance, as it actually reduces the chances of finding interactions (Harrison, McLaughlin, & Coalter, 1996).

We also experienced a low overall response rate, which might possibly undermine the generalizability of the data (Cascio, 2012) and produce misleading conclusions (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). Nevertheless, various tests for nonresponse bias revealed a low possibility of such bias in our data.

Another limitation is the low effect sizes. However, in psychological, cross-level moderation and longitudinal research, low effect sizes are rather common (cf. Aguinis et al., 2005) and should be accounted for if they are theoretically or practically meaningful. Evans (1985) suggested that interaction effects are so difficult to detect that we should consider accounting for as little as 1% of the total variance as being important. We therefore consider the achieved increase of more than 3% in explained variance in the final model as important enough to discuss the practical implications of our results.

A final limitation of this study is that we were not able to account for the relevance of climate strength (i.e., the degree of within-unit agreement among unit members' climate perceptions) because our data were collected through a union with employees from several organizations. Thus, an interesting path for future research would be to clarify the impact of mastery climate strength (cf., Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009) and also the timeframe needed to

uncover a potential change (i.e., increase or decrease) in incivility instigations by employees with high or low obsessive passion for work.

In addition to the already suggested avenues for future research, there seem to be other interesting ways to continue the work on incivility and passion. In line with previous studies, our data also suggested that obsessive passion and harmonious passion are two independent constructs that are associated with similar commitment to an activity (Bélanger et al., 2013), yet they are differentially related to various outcomes. Given the fact that the correlation between the two constructs in our study was zero, it was indicated that the two forms of passion might be orthogonal (unrelated). Future research might thus investigate the role of passion profiles—meaning that an individual can be low in both obsessive and harmonious passion or he/she can be high in both or high in one and low in the other—in predicting work behaviors. Instead of referring to employees as strong in obsessive passion, one might look at their overall passion profiles to see if a difference exists in behaviors if the profile is high in both harmonious and obsessive passion rather than being high in obsessive passion and low in harmonious passion. Wang, Khoo, Liu, and Divaharan (2008) have already started this work by showing differences in behavioral, cognitive, and emotional outcomes with different passion profiles in digital gaming. Employees might also respond differently to situational cues, such as the motivational climate, if they score high on both harmonious and obsessive passion rather than scoring high only on obsessive passion.

Practical Implications

Despite this study's limitations, there might be important implications for practice. As our findings suggested that obsessive passion for work at some point might bear pathological resemblance, where the perceived mastery climate is actually seen as a threat to a person's self-esteem, there is a need to learn more about how to provide necessary help for treating obsessive

behavior (Pallesen et al., 2005). To our knowledge, very few studies have tested the effect of treatment programs for work addiction. Some studies have discussed practical implications and possible remedies for managers and organizations, which is similar to this paper's scope. For example, Graves, Ruderman, Ohlott, and Weber (2012) discussed some implications of their results that also seem fitting to our sample. In their study, they found low self-esteem to be important in understanding individuals who are strongly driven to work. This is similar to previous findings with respect to obsessive passion (e.g. Lafrenière et al., 2011). Graves et al. (2012, p. 1675) thus suggested that coaching may be appropriate in order to address esteem issues (e.g. Wood, Heimpel, Newby-Clark, & Ross, 2005). However, if strong obsessive passion is indeed pathological, its treatment should be based within a clinical framework. Discussion of such treatments is outside the scope of this article. There are, however, certain interventions that might be relevant for organizations to consider in addition to providing the obsessive individual with necessary clinical help (e.g. Fry, Vitucci, & Cedillo, 2005).

One perspective is to become aware of the values signaled through the organization, which might enforce an obsessive employee's perceptions of reality. Given that a mastery climate actually increases the relationship between strong obsessive passion and incivility, supervisors might have to take a different approach to employees with strong obsessive passion. Building the self-esteem of each employee and communicating each individual's specific contributions might be more relevant for these individuals. Such values can be found in the spiritual leadership perspective (Fry et al., 2005).

Given that employees with low obsessive passion were found to behave in a less disrespectful and degrading manner when they perceived a high mastery climate, and because a mastery climate was linked to a decrease in incivility over time, facilitating a mastery climate

at work might still be of importance. Our findings indicate that a mastery climate is likely to foster and enhance positive relationships and behavior at work for most employees.

All in all, organizations and practitioners should adopt a view of passion as a dualistic construct. Not all forms of passion seem to be beneficial, and an uncritical praise of passion as an antecedent of performance and well-being might be problematic. Despite the benefits of a perceived mastery climate, our results suggest that such a climate may have unintended consequences. For certain employees, creating an arena in which they are not allowed to shine in the way they need to in order to feel good about themselves may result in increased incivility.

Conclusion

This study shows the importance of considering the match between an employee's values and an organization's values when investigating the potential impact of the motivational climate. Although a perceived mastery climate is commonly seen as a vital part of creating a positive social-moral environment with little rudeness, such a climate might be perceived as a threat to employees who score high on obsessive passion for work. In fact, for these individuals such a climate actually seems to accentuate incivility instigations, through a lack of person-environment fit and, hence, a mismatch with the values that are internalized within the obsessive individual. In support of previous studies, our results also indicated that obsessive passion for work relates to poor adaptations for individuals. Contrary to Mr. Bingley's view on what love is, the "violent" form might not be the essence of a love of work, as such love (i.e., obsessive passion for work) seems to be associated with uncivil behaviors and a lack of compliance with the perceived mastery work climate.

References

- Aguinis, H., Beaty, J. C., Boik, R. J., & Pierce, C. A. (2005). Effect Size and Power in Assessing Moderating Effects of Categorical Variables Using Multiple Regression: A 30-Year Review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(1), 94-107.
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks, CA US: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Allegretti, J. G. (2000). *Loving your job, finding your passion: Work and the spiritual life*. Mahwah, NJ US: Paulist Press.
- Ames, C. (1984). Achievement Attributions And Self-Instructions Under Competitive And Individualistic Goal Structures. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*(3), 478-487.
- Ames, C. (1992a). Achievement goals and the classroom motivational climate. In D. H. Schunk & J. L. Meece (Eds.), *Student perceptions in the classroom*. (pp. 327-348). Hillsdale, NJ England: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Ames, C. (1992b). Achievement goals, motivational climate, and motivational processes. In G. C. Roberts (Ed.), *Motivation in sport and exercise* (pp. 161-176). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Ames, C. (1992c). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 84*(3), 261-271.
- Ames, C. (1995). Achievement goals, motivational climate, and motivational processes. In G. C. Roberts (Ed.), *Motivation in sport and exercise*. (pp. 161-176). Champaign, IL US: Human Kinetics Books.
- Ames, C., & Ames, R. (1984a). Goal Structures And Motivation. *Elementary School Journal, 85*(1), 39-52.
- Ames, C., & Ames, R. (1984b). Systems Of Student And Teacher Motivation - Toward A Qualitative Definition. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*(4), 535-556.
- Amiot, C. E., Vallerand, R. J., & Blanchard, C. M. (2006). Passion and Psychological Adjustment: A Test of the Person-Environment Fit Hypothesis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 32*(2), 220-229.
- Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for Tat? The Spiraling Effect of Incivility in the Workplace. *Academy of Management Review, 24*(3), 452-471.
- Armstrong, J. S., & Overton, T. S. (1977). Estimating nonresponse bias in mail surveys. *Journal of Marketing Research, 14*(3), 396-402.
- Atwater, L., & Elkins, T. (2009). Diagnosing, understanding, and dealing with counterproductive work behavior. In J. W. Smither & M. London (Eds.), *Performance management: Putting research into action*. (pp. 359-410). San Francisco, CA US: Jossey-Bass.
- Austen, J. (1846). *Pride and prejudice*. London.
- Avanzi, L., van Dick, R., Fraccaroli, F., & Sarchielli, G. (2012). The downside of organizational identification: Relations between identification, workaholism and well-being. *Work & Stress, 26*(3), 289-307.
- Bélanger, J. J., Lafrenière, M.-A. K., Vallerand, R. J., & Kruglanski, A. W. (2013). When passion makes the heart grow colder: The role of passion in alternative goal suppression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 104*(1), 126-147.
- Birkeland, I. K., & Buch, R. (2014). The dualistic model of passion for work: Discriminate and predictive validity with work engagement and workaholism. *Motivation and Emotion*.

- Blau, G., & Andersson, L. (2005). Testing a measure of instigated workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78(4), 595-614.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York: Wiley.
- Boyatzis, R., McKee, A., & Goleman, D. (2002). Reawakening Your Passion for Work. *Harvard Business Review*, 80(4), 86-94.
- Buch, R., Kuvaas, B., & Dysvik, A. (2010). Dual support in contract workers' triangular employment relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77(1), 93-103.
- Bureau, J. S., Vallerand, R. J., Ntoumanis, N., & Lafrenière, M.-A. K. (2013). On passion and moral behavior in achievement settings: The mediating role of pride. *Motivation and Emotion*, 37(1), 121-133.
- Burnfield, J. L., Clark, O. L., Devendorf, S. A., & Jex, S. M. (2004). *Understanding workplace incivility: Scale development and validation*. Paper presented at the 19th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Chicago.
- Butler, R. (1989). On the psychological meaning of information about competence: A reply to Ryan and Deci's comment on Butler (1987) *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81, 269-272.
- Cable, D. M., & Edwards, J. R. (2004). Complementary and Supplementary Fit: A Theoretical and Empirical Integration. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 822-834.
- Caplan, R. D. (1987). Person-environment fit theory and organizations: Commensurate dimensions, time perspectives, and mechanisms. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 31(3), 248-267.
- Carbonneau, N., Vallerand, R. J., Fernet, C., & Guay, F. (2008). The role of passion for teaching in intrapersonal and interpersonal outcomes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100(4), 977-987.
- Cascio, W. (2012). Methodological issues in international HR management research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(12), 2532-2545.
- Caspi, A., & Roberts, B. W. (1999). Personality continuity and change across the life course. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (2 ed., pp. 300-326). New York, NY: Guilford Publications Inc.
- Caudroit, J., Boiché, J., Stephan, Y., Le Scanff, C., & Trouilloud, D. (2011). Predictors of work/family interference and leisure-time physical activity among teachers: The role of passion towards work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 20(3), 326-344.
- Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6(1), 64-80.
- Crampton, S. M., & Wagner, J. A. (1994). Percept-percept inflation in microorganizational research: An investigation of prevalence and effect. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(1), 67-76.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1995). Human autonomy: The basis for true self-esteem. In M. H. Kernis (Ed.), *Efficacy, agency, and self-esteem*. (pp. 31-49). New York, NY US: Plenum Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The 'what' and 'why' of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227-268.

- Donahue, E. G., Rip, B., & Vallerand, R. J. (2009). When winning is everything: On passion, identity, and aggression in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 10*(5), 526-534.
- Dragoni, L. (2005). Understanding the Emergence of State Goal Orientation in Organizational Work Groups: The Role of Leadership and Multilevel Climate Perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(6), 1084-1095.
- Edwards, J. R., Caplan, R. D., & Van Harrison, R. (1998). Person-environment fit theory: Conceptual foundations, empirical evidence, and directions for future research. In C. Cooper (Ed.), *Theories of organizational stress* (pp. 28-67). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Evans, M. G. (1985). A Monte Carlo study of the effects of correlated method variance in moderated multiple regression analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 36*(3), 305-323.
- Feng, D., Silverstein, M., Giarrusso, R., McArdle, J. J., & Bengtson, V. L. (2006). Attrition of Older Adults in Longitudinal Surveys: Detection and Correction of Sample Selection Bias Using Multigenerational Data. *The Journals of Gerontology: Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences, 61B*(6), S323-S328.
- Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS: (and sex, drugs and rock 'n 'roll)*. London: Sage.
- Flora, D. B., & Curran, P. J. (2004). An empirical evaluation of alternative methods of estimation for confirmatory factor analysis with ordinal data. *Psychological Methods, 9*(4), 466-491.
- Forest, J., Mageau, G. A., Crevier-Braud, L., Bergeron, É., Dubreuil, P., & Lavigne, G. L. (2012). Harmonious passion as an explanation of the relation between signature strengths' use and well-being at work: Test of an intervention program. *Human Relations, 65*(9), 1233-1252.
- Forest, J., Mageau, G. A., Sarrazin, C., & Morin, E. M. (2011). 'Work is my passion': The different affective, behavioural, and cognitive consequences of harmonious and obsessive passion toward work. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences (John Wiley & Sons, Inc.), 28*(1), 17-30.
- Fry, L. W., Vitucci, S., & Cedillo, M. (2005). Spiritual leadership and army transformation: Theory, measurement, and establishing a baseline. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(5), 835-862.
- Gagne, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*(4), 331-362.
- Graves, L. M., Ruderman, M. N., Ohlott, P. J., & Weber, T. J. (2012). Driven to Work and Enjoyment of Work: Effects on Managers' Outcomes. *Journal of Management, 38*(5), 1655-1680.
- Grienberger, I. V., Rutte, C. G., & van Knippenberg, A. F. M. (1997). Influence of social comparisons of outcomes and procedures on fairness judgments. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(6), 913-919.
- Harrison, D. A., McLaughlin, M. E., & Coalter, T. M. (1996). Context, cognition, and common method variance: Psychometric and verbal protocol evidence. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 68*(3), 246-261.
- Hirst, G., Van Knippenberg, D., & Zhou, J. (2009). A cross-level perspective on employee creativity: Goal orientation, team learning behavior, and individual creativity. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(2), 280-293.

- Ho, V. T., Wong, S.-S., & Lee, C. H. (2011). A Tale of Passion: Linking Job Passion and Cognitive Engagement to Employee Work Performance. *Journal of Management Studies*, 48(1), 26-47.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44(3), 513-524.
- Hobfoll, S. E., Lilly, R. S., & Jackson, A. P. (1992). Conservation of social resources and the self. In H. O. F. Veiel & U. Baumann (Eds.), *The meaning and measurement of social support*. (pp. 125-141). Washington, DC US: Hemisphere Publishing Corp.
- Hodgins, H. S., & Knee, C. R. (2002). The integrating self and conscious experience. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research*. (pp. 87-100). Rochester, NY US: University of Rochester Press.
- Hox, J. J. (2010). *Multilevel analysis : techniques and applications*. New York: Routledge.
- Hu, L.-t., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1-55.
- Jöreskog, K. G. (2005). *Structural Equation Modeling with Ordinal Variables using LISREL. Technical documents*.
- Kath, L. M., Swody, C. A., Magley, V. J., Bunk, J. A., & Gallus, J. A. (2009). Cross-level, three-way interactions among work-group climate, gender, and frequency of harassment on morale and withdrawal outcomes of sexual harassment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 82(1), 159-182.
- Krishnan, R., Martin, X., & Noorderhaven, N. G. (2006). When Does Trust Matter To Alliance Performance? *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(5), 894-917.
- Kuvaas, B., Buch, R., Dysvik, A., & Haerem, T. (2012). Economic and social leader-member exchange relationships and follower performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(5), 756-765.
- Kwok, O.-M., Underhill, A. T., Berry, J. W., Luo, W., Elliott, T. R., & Yoon, M. (2008). Analyzing longitudinal data with multilevel models: An example with individuals living with lower extremity intra-articular fractures. *Rehabilitation Psychology*, 53(3), 370-386.
- la Du, T. J., & Tanaka, J. S. (1989). Influence of sample size, estimation method, and model specification on goodness-of-fit assessments in structural equation models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(4), 625-635.
- Lafreniere, M.-A., Vallerand, R. J., & Sedikides, C. (in press). On the relation between self-enhancement and life satisfaction: The moderating role of passion. *Self and Identity*.
- Lafrenière, M.-A. K., Bélanger, J. J., Sedikides, C., & Vallerand, R. J. (2011). Self-esteem and passion for activities. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51(4), 541-544.
- Lavigne, G. L., Forest, J., & Crevier-Braud, L. (2012). Passion at work and burnout: A two-study test of the mediating role of flow experiences. *European Journal of Work & Organizational Psychology*, 21(4), 518-546.
- Leiter, M. P., Laschinger, H. K. S., Day, A., & Oore, D. G. (2011). The impact of civility interventions on employee social behavior, distress, and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(6), 1258-1274.
- Liu, D., Chen, X.-P., & Yao, X. (2011). From autonomy to creativity: A multilevel investigation of the mediating role of harmonious passion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(2), 294-309.

- Liu, W., Chi, S.-C. S., Friedman, R., & Tsai, M.-H. (2009). Explaining incivility in the workplace: The effects of personality and culture. *Negotiation and Conflict Management Research*, 2(2), 164-184.
- Lucy, J. (2013). A Passion for Work. *Electrical Wholesaling*, 94(7), 4-4.
- Mageau, G. A., Carpentier, J., & Vallerand, R. J. (2011). The role of self-esteem contingencies in the distinction between obsessive and harmonious passion. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 41(6), 720-729.
- Mageau, G. A., Vallerand, R. J., Charest, J., Salvy, S.-J., Lacaille, N., Bouffard, T., & Koestner, R. (2009). On the development of harmonious and obsessive passion: The role of autonomy support, activity specialization, and identification with the activity. *Journal of Personality*, 77(3), 601-646.
- Marsh, H. W., Vallerand, R. J., Lafrenière, M.-A. K., Parker, P., Morin, A. J. S., Carbonneau, N., . . . Paquet, Y. (2013). Passion: Does one scale fit all? Construct validity of two-factor passion scale and psychometric invariance over different activities and languages. *Psychological Assessment*, 25(3), 796-809.
- Meier, L. L., & Spector, P. E. (2013). Reciprocal effects of work stressors and counterproductive work behavior: A five-wave longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(3), 529-539.
- Miller, B. W., Roberts, G. C., & Ommundsen, Yngvar. (2004). Effect of motivational climate on sportpersonship among competitive youth male and female football players. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports*, 14, 193-202.
- Muthén, B. (1989). Latent variable modeling in heterogenous populations. *Psychometrika*, 49(1), 115-132.
- Muthén, B., du Toit, S. H. C., & Spisic, D. (1997). Robust inference using weighted least squares and quadratic estimating equations in latent variable modeling with categorical and continuous outcomes. *Conditionally accepted for publication in Psychometrika*.
- Nerstad, C., Roberts, G. C., & Richardsen, A. M. (2013a). Person–Situation Dynamics and Well-Being at Work: An Achievement Goal Theory Perspective. In C. L. Cooper & R. J. Burke (Eds.), *The Fulfilling Workplace: The Organization's Role in Achieving Individual and Organizational Health* (pp. 121–138): Gower Publishing.
- Nerstad, C. G. L., Roberts, G. C., & Richardsen, A. M. (2013b). Achieving success at work: Development and validation of the Motivational Climate at Work Questionnaire (MCWQ). *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 43(11), 2231-2250.
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2008). The relationship of age to ten dimensions of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(2), 392-423.
- Nicholls, J. G. (1979). Quality and equality in intellectual development: The role of motivation in education. *American Psychologist*, 34, 1071-1084.
- Nicholls, J. G. (1989). *The competitive ethos and democratic education*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Ntoumanis, N. (2001). Empirical links between achievement goal theory and self-determination theory in sport. *Journal of Sport Sciences*, 19, 397-409.
- Ntoumanis, N., & Biddle, S. J. H. (1999). A review of motivational climate in physical activity. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 17, 643 - 665.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Ommundsen, Y., Roberts, G. C., Lemyre, P. N., & Treasure, D. C. (2003). Perceived motivational climate in male youth soccer: relations to social-moral functioning,

- sportspersonship and team norm perceptions. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 4(4), 397-413.
- Orth, U., Robins, R. W., & Meier, L. L. (2009). Disentangling the effects of low self-esteem and stressful events on depression: Findings from three longitudinal studies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 97(2), 307-321.
- Pallesen, S., Mitsem, M., Kvale, G., Johnsen, B.-H., & Molde, H. (2005). Outcome of psychological treatments of pathological gambling: A review and meta-analysis. *Addiction*, 100(10), 1412-1422.
- Pearson, C. M., & Porath, C. L. (2005). On the nature, consequences and remedies of workplace incivility: No time for "nice"? Think again. *Academy of Management Executive*, 19(1), 7-18.
- Perrewé, P. L., Hochwarter, W. A., Ferris, G. R., McAllister, C. P., & Harris, J. N. (2014). Developing a passion for work passion: Future directions on an emerging construct. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(1), 145-150.
- Perttula, K. H., & Cardon, M. S. (2012). Passion. In K. S. Cameron & G. M. Spreitzer (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of positive organizational scholarship*. (pp. 190-200). New York, NY US: Oxford University Press.
- Pervin, L. A. (1968). Performance and satisfaction as a function of individual-environment fit. *Psychological Bulletin*, 69(1), 56-68.
- Peterson, R. A. (1994). A meta-analysis of Cronbach's coefficient alpha. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21(2), 381-391.
- Philippe, F. L., Vallerand, R. J., Houliort, N., Lavigne, G. L., & Donahue, E. G. (2010). Passion for an activity and quality of interpersonal relationships: The mediating role of emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 98(6), 917-932.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879-903.
- Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-Reports in Organizational Research: Problems and Prospects. *Journal of Management*, 12(4), 531.
- Porath, C. L., Overbeck, J. R., & Pearson, C. M. (2008). Picking up the gauntlet: How individuals respond to status challenges. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 38(7), 1945-1980.
- Porath, C. L., & Pearson, C. M. (2010). The cost of bad behavior. *Organizational Dynamics*, 39(1), 64-71.
- Rip, B., Vallerand, R. J., & Lafrenière, M. A. K. (2012). Passion for a cause, passion for a creed: On ideological passion, identity threat, and extremism. *Journal of Personality*, 80(3), 573-602.
- Roberts, B. W., Walton, K. E., & Viechtbauer, W. (2006). Patterns of mean-level change in personality traits across the life course: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin*, 132(1), 1-25.
- Roberts, G. C. (2012). Motivation in sport and exercise from an achievement goal theory perspective: After 30 years, where are we? In G. C. Roberts & D. C. Treasure (Eds.), *Advances in motivation in sport and exercise* (Vol. 3, pp. 5-58). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Robertson, J. L., & Barling, J. (2013). Greening organizations through leaders' influence on employees' pro-environmental behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(2), 176-194.

- Rogelberg, S. G., & Stanton, J. M. (2007). Introduction: Understanding and dealing with organizational survey nonresponse. *Organizational Research Methods, 10*(2), 195-209.
- Ryan, R. M. (1982). Control and information in the intrapersonal sphere: An extension of cognitive evaluation theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 43*, 450-461.
- Sakurai, K., & Jex, S. M. (2012). Coworker incivility and incivility targets' work effort and counterproductive work behaviors: The moderating role of supervisor social support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17*(2), 150-161.
- Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Singer, J. D., & Willett, J. B. (2003). *Applied longitudinal data analysis: modeling change and event occurrence*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Snijders, T. A. B., & Bosker, R. J. (1999). *Multilevel analysis: an introduction to basic and advanced multilevel modeling*. London: Sage.
- Stenseng, F., & Dalskau, L. H. (2010). Passion, self-esteem, and the role of comparative performance evaluation. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 32*(6), 881-894.
- Tay, L., & Drasgow, F. (2012). Theoretical, statistical, and substantive issues in the assessment of construct dimensionality: Accounting for the item response process. *Organizational Research Methods, 15*(3), 363-384.
- Taylor, S. G., & Kluemper, D. H. (2012). Linking perceptions of role stress and incivility to workplace aggression: The moderating role of personality. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17*(3), 316-329.
- Trépanier, S.-G., Fernet, C., Austin, S., Forest, J., & Vallerand, R. J. (2013). Linking job demands and resources to burnout and work engagement: Does passion underlie these differential relationships? *Motivation and Emotion*.
- Twisk, J. W. R. (2010). *Applied multilevel analysis : a practical guide*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vallerand, R. J., & Houliort, N. (2003). Passion at Work: Toward a New Conceptualization. In S. W. S. Gilliland, Dirk D. E.; Skarlicki, Daniel P. (Ed.), *Emerging perspectives on values in organizations* (pp. 175 - 204). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Vallerand, R. J., Mageau, G. A., Ratelle, C., Léonard, M., Blanchard, C., Koestner, R., . . . Marsolais, J. (2003). Les Passions de l'Âme: On Obsessive and Harmonious Passion. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 85*, 756-767.
- Wang, C. K. J., Khoo, A., Liu, W. C., & Divaharan, S. (2008). Passion and intrinsic motivation in digital gaming. *CyberPsychology & Behavior, 11*(1), 39-45.
- Wheeler, A. R., Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Shanine, K. (2013). Exploring the middle range of person-environment fit theories through a conservation of resources perspective. In A. L. Kristof-Brown & J. Billsberry (Eds.), *Organizational fit: Key issues and new directions*. (pp. 170-194): Wiley-Blackwell, US.
- Wood, J. V., Heimpel, S. A., Newby-Clark, I. R., & Ross, M. (2005). Snatching Defeat From the Jaws of Victory: Self-Esteem Differences in the Experience and Anticipation of Success. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 89*(5), 764-780.
- Yang, L.-Q., Caughlin, D. E., Gazica, M. W., Truxillo, D. M., & Spector, P. E. (2014). Workplace mistreatment climate and potential employee and organizational outcomes: A meta-analytic review from the target's perspective. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 19*(3), 315-335.

Zigarmi, D., Nimon, K., Houson, D., Witt, D., & Dichl, J. (2011). A preliminary field test of an employee work passion model. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 22(2), 195-221.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviation, Correlation and Reliability of all Study Variables

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Gender	-	-	-									
2	Age	42.23	10.15	.18**	-								
3	Tenure	7.30	7.19	.12**	.54**	-							
4	Hours/week	40.05	6.63	.16**	-.01	-.07*	-						
5	Harmonious Passion_T1	4.78	.94	-.04	-.01	-.06*	.02	(.80)					
6	Harmonious Passion_T2	4.80	.93	-.01	.00	-.04	.04	.70**	(.82)				
7	Harmonious Passion_T3	4.80	.96	-.03	-.03	-.08**	.06*	.66**	.71**	(.84)			
8	Obsessive Passion_T1	2.39	1.06	.15**	.02	-.03	.24**	.03	-.00	.00	(.82)		
9	Obsessive Passion_T2	2.35	1.04	.10**	-.03	-.03	.21**	.01	.02	.00	.75**	(.82)	
10	Obsessive Passion_T3	2.44	1.04	.11**	-.05	-.04	.21**	.01	.01	.02	.73**	.77**	(.82)
11	Mastery Climate_T1	4.96	1.15	-.04	.03	-.00	.00	.38**	.35**	.32**	-.04	-.07*	-.08**
12	Mastery Climate_T2	4.98	1.12	-.03	.05	.02	.01	.36**	.42**	.36**	-.09**	-.09**	-.08**
13	Mastery Climate_T3	4.95	1.14	.01	.06*	.02	-.01	.32**	.36**	.41**	-.05	-.05	-.06*
14	Performance Climate_T1	2.64	1.06	.10**	.04	.00	.14**	-.07*	-.07*	-.08**	.24**	.23**	.24**

15	Performance Climate _T2	2.65	1.06	.04	.01	-.00	.15**	-.07**	-.10**	-.09**	.22**	.23**	.26**
16	Performance Climate _T3	2.73	1.09	.03	-.00	-.02	.12**	-.06*	-.10**	-.09**	.21**	.20**	.23**
17	Incivility_T1	2.21	.69	.14**	-.04	-.06*	.15**	-.04	-.06*	-.05	.25**	.23**	.23**
18	Incivility _T2	2.15	.67	.11**	-.05	-.03	.10**	-.11**	-.12**	-.08**	.25**	.25**	.25**
19	Incivility _T3	2.16	.68	.12**	-.06*	-.07*	.14**	-.10**	-.10**	-.11**	.25**	.23**	.26**

		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
11	Mastery Climate_T1	(.87)								
12	Mastery Climate _T2	.72**	(.86)							
13	Mastery Climate _T3	.66**	.75**	(.87)						
14	Performance Climate_T1	-.19**	-.18**	-.14**	(.83)					
15	Performance Climate _T2	-.21**	-.21**	-.19**	.73**	(.83)				
16	Performance Climate _T3	-.17**	-.16**	-.18**	.71**	.75**	(.85)			
17	Incivility_T1	-.12**	-.13**	-.10**	.24**	.21**	.21**	(.66)		
18	Incivility _T2	-.14**	-.16**	-.12**	.20**	.21**	.18**	.64**	(.68)	
19	Incivility_T3	-.13**	-.13**	-.13**	.21**	.21**	.19**	.62**	.67**	(.71)

Note: N = 1,263; female = 1, male = 2; the Cronbach's alphas are in parentheses along the diagonal; **p < .01; *p < .05

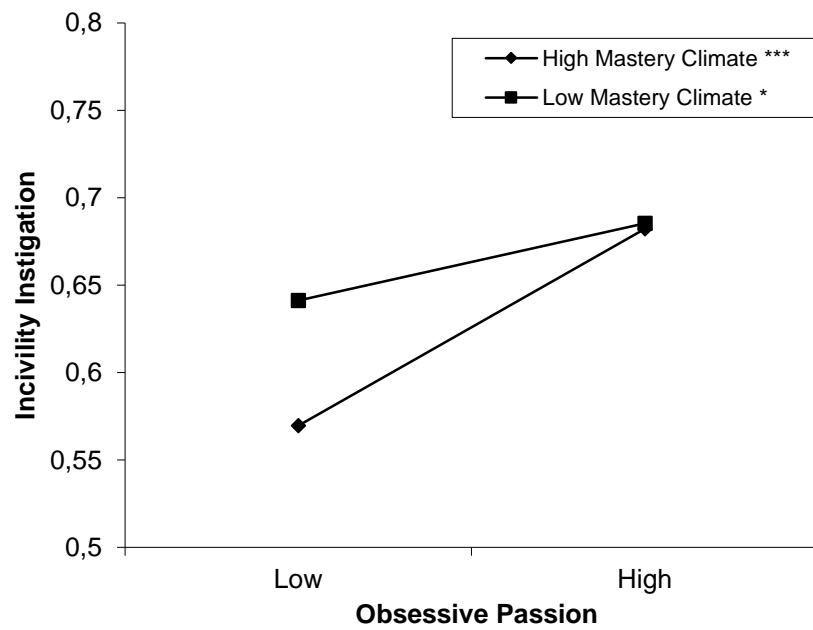
Table 2

The Role of Harmonious and Obsessive Passion and Perceived Performance Climate on Incivility Instigation

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Intercept	.73***	.01	.75***	.01	.60***	.05	.64***	.04	.64***	.04
Slope			-.01***	.00	-.01**	.00	-.02***	.00	-.02***	.00
Gender					.08***	.02	.07***	.02	.06***	.02
Age					-.00	.00	-.00	.00	-.00	.00
Tenure					-.00	.00	-.00	.00	-.00	.00
Hours/week					.00**	.00	.00*	.00	.00	.00
Harmonious Passion							-.01	.01	-.00	.01
Performance Climate							.03***	.01	.03***	.01
Obsessive Passion							.04***	.01	.04***	.01
Obsessive Passion*time							.00	.00	.01	.00
Mastery Climate									-.02**	.01
Obsessive Passion*Mastery Climate									.02**	.01
Obsessive Passion*Mastery Climate*time									-.00	.00
Intercept	.06***	.00	.06***	.00	.06***	.00	.06***	.00	.05***	.00
Slope				.00**	.00	.00***	.00	.00**	.00	.00**
AIC (npar)		93.50(3)		73.60(6)		41.54(10)		-69.42(14)		-85.82(17)
Δ AIC (df)				19.90***		32.09***		110.96***		16.40***

PseudoR ²		.25	.26	.29	.30
ICC	0.68				

Note. N = 1,263, female = 1, male = 2; ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10



***p < .001, *p < .05

Figure 1. The moderating role of a perceived mastery climate on the relationship between obsessive passion and incivility instigation.