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**EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER AND WELL-BEING:
THE ROLES OF DIVERSITY CLIMATE, GENDER IDENTITY, AND FAMILY
IDENTITY SALIENCE**

By

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A thesis submitted to the

Graduate School-New Brunswick

Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

For the degree of

Master of Science

Graduate Program in Industrial Relations and Human Resources

Written under the direction of

Patrick Fitzgerald McKay

And approved by

New Brunswick, New Jersey

January, 2017

ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

Examining the Relationship between Gender and Well-being: The Roles of Diversity

Climate, Gender Identity, and Family Identity Salience

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In this paper, I examine individual and contextual factors that may mitigate the relationship between gender and well-being. Specifically, I examine the roles of diversity climate, gender identity, and family identity salience as potentially mitigating factors against the incivility that women often face in the workplace. I test the hypothesized relationships using data collected from Amazon Mechanical Turk, and conclude with a discussion of the results and theoretical implications.

INTRODUCTION

Decades of research have shown that there are substantial gender disparities in work experiences. Workplaces are often informally segregated by gender, even when men and women hold similar functional positions to one another (e.g., Brass, 1985; Kanter, 1977; Martell, Emrich, & Robison-Cox, 2012). In concert with societal status differences between men and women (Ridgeway, 1997; Tajfel & Turner, 1986), the latter tend to experience more mistreatment in work settings than the former (Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008; Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013; Cortina, 2008; Gutek, Cohen, & Tsui, 1996). Given the taboo of outright discrimination, this mistreatment often takes the form of incivility, or subtle forms of mistreatment (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina et al., 2013), instead of overtly sexist behavior. These experiences of incivility, in turn, have negative consequences for physical and mental well-being (Cortina, 2008; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Lim & Cortina, 2005).

The experiences of mistreatment are especially pronounced for women in predominantly male workplaces (Maranto & Griffin, 2011), which often represent occupations that are higher in status and prestige (Reskin & Roos, 1990). Additionally, women's competence is perceived differently than men's competence (Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004; Heilman, 2012), even amongst colleagues who are not sexist. The emotional demands of enduring incivility in such contexts have negative implications for work attendance (Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009), job performance (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004), and physical and mental well-being (Jiang et al., 2014; Pascoe & Richman, 2009). Furthermore, women in predominantly male work contexts report greater sex

discrimination (Avery et al., 2008), and exhibit higher turnover (Elvira & Cohen, 2001) and lower performance (Joshi, Liao, & Jackson, 2006) than women who work in gender balanced settings.

Despite these well-documented differences, there is uncertainty about what factors mitigate the relationship between gender and well-being in predominantly male work. Recent studies have begun to investigate factors that may alleviate gender differences in the experience of work. For example, Nishii (2012) found that an inclusive workplace climate eliminated the relationship between relationship conflict (e.g., discrimination) and negative outcomes. Similarly, King, Hebl, George, and Matusik (2010) found that a climate for gender inequality was associated with negative consequences such as lower affective commitment, higher turnover intentions, and fewer helping behaviors. The current study combines extant research on gender differences with research on incivility by drawing on social identity theory (SIT; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel, 1982). Specifically, I investigate individual factors that may mitigate the relationship between gender-based incivility and well-being at work, and how these individual factors might relate to previously studied contextual factors such as organizational climate and demographic workplace representation.

A key individual difference this study focuses on is gender identity, or the importance that people attach to being a man or a woman (Ely, 1995; Ridgeway, 2011). The extent that one's gender identity is important to the self-concept should have strong bearing on reactions to discrimination faced in the workplace, as people are more likely to be affected by discrimination that is directed toward a central part of their identity (McConnell, Shoda, & Skulborstad, 2012; McConnell, 2011). Moreover, a second

individual characteristic of interest to my study is family identity commitment. It is plausible to expect that a focus on a fulfilling family identity (such as being a spouse or parent) could serve as a buffer against negative experiences on the job. Finally, I assess the roles of gender composition and psychological diversity climate, or the individual-level perceptions that an organization is fair and inclusive to all of its personnel (McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2008). Although work contexts that are predominantly male often result in the dissatisfaction of female workers (e.g., Elvira & Cohen, 2001; Kanter, 1977), work settings that are strongly supportive of diversity are apt to mitigate differential treatment of personnel on the basis of gender, thereby minimizing differences in well-being.

The current study stands to make two theoretical contributions. First, it contributes to a growing literature on incivility in the workplace (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina et al., 2013; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Cortina, 2008; Lim et al., 2008; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Montgomery, Kane, & Vance, 2004) by examining potential mitigating factors in the relationship between incivility and well-being. While the literature has examined the main effects of incivility on its targets, attention has not been given to individual and contextual factors that may ameliorate the consequences of incivility. This is especially pertinent, as incivility is becoming an increasingly common form of “modern discrimination” (Cortina et al., 2013; Cortina, 2008) in the workplace.

Additionally, this project contributes to the literature on family-to-work enrichment by investigating whether high family role identity can compensate for negative experiences at work (e.g., Powell & Greenhaus, 2010; van Steenbergen,

Ellemers, & Mooijart, 2007). While previous research has found that high family identity may buffer against the effects of perceived family to work conflict (e.g., Bagger, Li, & Gutek, 2008) and other work stressors (van Steenbergen et al., 2007), it has not examined how contextual factors in the workplace influence these dynamics. Therefore, this study contributes to extant research by considering how family-to-work enrichment may mitigate the relationship between gender-based incivility and well-being, as well as how the contextual factors of unit gender composition and diversity climate may impact this relationship.

The remainder of the paper will briefly review the SIT literature and its relevance to previous research on the relationship between gender, discrimination, and well-being. Following that review, I present literature on diversity climate, family identity, and gender identity, and their relevance to gender and well-being. Subsequently, I discuss the research methods, and present results of the analyses. Finally, theoretical implications of the findings are discussed, as well as suggestions for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Social Identity Theory (SIT)

SIT holds that individual identity is determined by identification with multiple social groups, and that this social identification has implications for how individuals interact with those around them (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Tajfel, 1982). According to SIT, social identification occurs when any person derives part of their self-concept from their affiliation with a particular social group. Examples of categories with which people identify include nationalities (e.g., identifying as an American), gender groups (e.g., identifying as a woman), organizations, professional

groups, and relational roles (e.g., identifying as a mother; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; McConnell et al., 2012; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). While each person has multiple identifications, SIT holds that the salience of each identity is dynamic and determined by the individual's immediate context (Onorato & Turner, 2004). In each context, people seek to make a favorable comparison between their relevant social category, or "in-group", and the referent out-group with which they do not identify (Turner, Brown, & Tajfel, 1979). A primary way in which a particular identity is made salient is through demographic representation (Chatman & Spataro, 2005; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). For example, gender identity would be much more salient in a predominantly male workplace, as women would immediately be recognized as an anomaly. This is especially true when women are severely underrepresented, thus causing the woman to have a "token" status where she is seen as symbolic of femininity in general instead of being considered as a unique individual (Kanter, 1977).

Another key tenet of SIT, alluded to above, is that social identifications have a positive or negative value. In other words, SIT recognizes that there is a broad social hierarchy, and that it is more prestigious to be identified as a member of some groups than others. When an individual identifies with a group that has a lower social position relative to a comparison group, the focal identity is not in a position to contribute to the individual's positive self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This process is called "identity threat", and it characterizes a situation in which the negative evaluation of a person's social category has the potential to cause a more negative evaluation of the self (Petriglieri, 2011). This threat can result in a variety of consequences, including diminished well-being, mistreatment of the referent out-group in an effort to maintain

perception of an in-group's superiority, focusing on a more positive social category to which the individual also belongs, and leaving the group (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Tajfel, 1982). In the case of gender dynamics at work, individuals are not likely to stop identifying as a member of their gender simply because of societal values, and thus the latter response to identity threat is not theoretically relevant to this case (Ethier & Deaux, 1994). However, the other responses to identity threat combine to form a scenario in which women in male-gendered industries face a complex process of identity threat and defense. These responses are caused by both threats to their own identity, as well as the responses of identity threat by their male colleagues. The remainder of the review will explain how these dynamics manifest in the workplace through a review of relevant literature through the lens of SIT.

Gender and Well-Being

Of all types of social identities, gender is one of the most powerful dimensions by which people form opinions of others (Ridgeway, 2011). In many societies and contexts, men are seen as more competent than women (Cuddy et al., 2009; Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). The professional realm is no exception, and men are generally viewed more positively with regard to work across most industries (Reskin & Roos, 1990; C. L. Williams, 1992). This is especially true in male-gendered contexts, where the dissonance between women's actions and their socially expected roles is particularly salient (Rudman & Phelan, 2008), despite the fact that many women prefer working in such contexts (Britton, 1999). Although perceivers may not be cognizant of this bias or sexism per se, the dissonance between women's actions and society's expectations causes individual women to be viewed less favorably (Heilman et

al., 2004; Heilman, 2001, 2012). This unfavorable perception can have a number of effects on the woman's well-being. Anticipation of potential discrimination or mistreatment can cause negative health outcomes, including stress-induced cardiovascular and immunological problems (Brosschot, Gerin, & Thayer, 2006). In addition to the stress caused by anticipating discrimination, women may suffer ill health effects from the behaviors they enact to preserve their positive self-concept.

In predominantly male contexts, one such behavior is for women to hide their authentic selves and change their behavior to downplay their femininity (Hewlin, 2003, 2009). While this can be effective in fostering a more positive evaluation of the woman's competence by her coworkers, it can also lead to her being socially penalized, as she is seen as being less likeable for failing to conform to the social expectations of enacting femininity (Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan, & Nauts, 2012; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). Over time, the effect of passing by withholding information from coworkers can use up women's cognitive (DeJordy, 2008) and emotional (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Erickson & Ritter, 2001) resources, which can lead to burnout (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Burnout is formally defined as a syndrome that includes elements of emotional exhaustion, reduced self-efficacy, and cynicism (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). This burnout, potentially caused in part by women's behavioral attempts to respond to identity threat, can have a number of tangible consequences for well-being. For example, women may cope with social identity devaluation and its attendant burnout through maladaptive consumption behaviors (e.g., the use of alcohol or drugs), which can be seen as attempts to self-medicate their negative feelings (Kline & Sussman, 2000). Additionally, the

combination of women's emotional exhaustion, which women feel from constantly working to fit in (Grandey, 2003) and accommodation, which women may perform in an attempt to be liked (Kanter, 1977) has been shown to relate negatively to general physical health (Pienaar & Willemse, 2008). The emotional exhaustion component of burnout is also strongly related to depression (Bakker, Schaufeli, Sixma, & Bosveld, 2001), thus highlighting how the burnout caused by women's response to identity threat has negative implications for both her mental and physical well-being. In line with these previous research findings, I propose that:

Hypothesis 1: Gender composition will moderate gender differences in well-being, such that women will report significantly (a) lower physical well-being than men and (b) higher emotional exhaustion than men in predominantly male settings.

Incivility

In addition to women's identity threat in male-gendered jobs, the presence of women may cause an identity threat for men. Women who perform the same, or higher-level, jobs as men may cause the men to feel as though their professional masculine identity is devalued (Brescoll, Uhlmann, Moss-Racusin, & Sarnell, 2012; Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Reskin & Roos, 1990). Given the primacy of vocation in the masculine social identity (e.g., the man as breadwinner; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005), a likely response is that the men will denigrate women as a way of maintaining the favorable comparison of their in-group. Although this may take the form of blatant sexual harassment (Kanter, 1977; Maina & Caine, 2013; Vojdik, 2002), the social prohibitions against overt discrimination make it more likely that men will disparage their

female coworkers in subtle ways through repeated acts of incivility (Cortina, 2008; Roos & Gatta, 2009). This study will follow Andersson and Pearson's (1999) definition of workplace incivility, which considers it, “low-intensity deviant behavior ...[that is] rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others” (p. 457). In this case, I focus on incivility that is selectively directed at members of certain minorities as a form of modern racism or sexism (Cortina et al., 2013; Cortina, 2008). Examples of workplace incivility include showing little interest in a person's statements or opinion, or excluding them from professional camaraderie (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001).

In keeping with research on SIT, the presence of a women in a predominantly male workplace makes gender identity more salient, thus causing gender to be the source of social categorization and intergroup conflict (Kanter, 1977; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Tajfel, 1982). However, because women are perceived as having less social status in such circumstances, as described above, they are not likely to respond to the intergroup conflict with outward hostility. Thus, the tangible result of this gender salience is likely to be restricted to incivility from men towards women. This is consistent with the general findings of research on women in organizations. For example, in her foundational research on women in organizations, Kanter (1977) found that in workplaces with a dramatically high percentage of men (over 85%), the men enacted gendered behaviors in ways that were greater than in gender-balanced contexts (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). These behaviors included excessive displays of authority, objectification of women, and excluding women from professional camaraderie, all of which are manifestations of selective incivility (Cortina, 2008).

Incivility, in turn, has many negative consequences for the target's mental and physical well-being (Cortina, 2008; Lim et al., 2008; Lim & Cortina, 2005). The mistreatment that women suffer has a negative effect on their self-concept, thus leading to diminished psychological well-being. As noted above, women may engage in a variety of behaviors in order to minimize the prevalence of incivility, such as increased enactment of the male-gendered norms that characterize their workplaces (Hewlin, 2003, 2009). While women have a choice between whether to bear the incivility or actively attempt to prevent it, both options are likely to diminish a woman's well-being by making her acutely aware of her gender identity's devalued status. This effect is exemplified in research by Miner-Rubino and Cortina (2004), who found that for women who worked in predominantly male workplaces, there was a strong negative relationship between well-being and gender-based mistreatment. Furthermore, these negative effects of incivility are consistent with research on the link between discrimination and well-being more generally, which overwhelmingly finds a negative relationship between being the target of discrimination and mental and physical health (for a meta-analytic review of these findings, see Pascoe & Richman, 2009). To further compound the relevance of incivility to women, it has been found that, *ceteris parabus*, women are more sensitive to incidents of incivility in their workplace (Montgomery et al., 2004). Therefore, I propose that:

Hypothesis 2: Gender composition will moderate gender differences in incivility such that women will report significantly greater incivility than men in predominantly male work settings.

Psychological Diversity Climate

Because SIT proposes that identity-based comparisons are made in contexts where the identity is salient (Chattopadhyay, Tluchowska, & George, 2004; Tajfel & Turner, 1986), it is also necessary to consider contextual variables that might be relevant to the salience of gender identity. In this study it is most relevant to study individual perceptions of the context (King et al., 2010), because the subjective comparison and self-evaluation processes underlying SIT are inherently intraindividual. In other words, it is perceptions of the workplace, and not objective characteristics, that are the most proximal influences on the relationship between identity threat and well-being outcomes (Glick, 1985). To that end, the construct of psychological climate, or the “unaggregated individual perceptions of their environments” (Rousseau, 1988, p. 144), is a highly relevant factor in determining whether gender is a salient identity in the organizational context.

Climate can be described in terms of many foci, such as a climate for innovation (G. Chen, Farh, Campbell-Bush, Wu, & Wu, 2013; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2011), climate for service (Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998), or a climate for cooperation (Collins & Smith, 2006). In the case of demographic differences it is most relevant to consider the construct of diversity climate which is defined as, “perceptions that an employer utilizes fair personnel practices and socially integrates underrepresented employees into the work environment” (McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2008, p. 350). In other words, managers can decrease the focus on gender and other demographic differences through behaviors such as promoting a focus on collective organizational identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Besharov, 2014; Mael & Ashforth, 1992), even if the

gender proportions remain unbalanced (Avery et al., 2008). Thus, positive diversity climate can buffer against the negative effects of gender on incivility in predominantly male contexts through two mechanisms. First, when organizations decrease the salience of gender identity, men are less likely to perceive identity threat, and are thus less likely to display incivility to their female colleagues (Chatman & Spataro, 2005; Dasgupta, 2004). This is consistent with previous research, which found that positive diversity climates are associated with desirable attitudinal outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (see Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2003, for a review).

Additionally, because organizations with supportive diversity climates de-emphasize the role of gender identity, women are less likely to feel identity threat that leads to psychological distress (Jiang et al., 2014) and its attendant physical consequences (Pascoe & Richman, 2009). Interestingly, even when discrimination against women is not eliminated by positive diversity climates, the mere perception that an organization is inclusive of both men and women eliminates the negative relationship between gender discrimination and well-being (Nishii, 2012). Positive diversity climate has similarly been found to moderate the negative relationship between gender-based social divisions and women's organizational loyalty (Chung et al., 2015) and increase the attraction of job applicants with high minority-identity salience to an organization in order to affirm their valued identity (Avery et al., 2013). Conversely, in contexts that are perceived as having a climate that is hostile to women, female employees face diminished well-being (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004), as well as lower affective commitment, higher turnover intentions, and fewer helping behaviors (King et al., 2010). Given these findings, I propose that:

Hypothesis 3: Psychological diversity climate perceptions will moderate the interactive effects of gender and gender composition on incivility. Specifically, women will report significantly higher incivility than men in predominately male contexts only when the diversity climate is perceived as unsupportive.

Gender Identity

Although SIT holds that identity is influenced by contextual group salience, individuals can still have a high level of commitment to certain identities, such as gender, across multiple contexts (Santee & Jackson, 1979; Stryker, 1968). Such high commitment leads to gender-based psychological centrality, a related concept that describes the prominence of one identity in an individual's self-conception that directly affects the individual's behavior (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). This is especially true in the case of gender identity, which is developed very early in childhood (Sherman & Zurbriggen, 2014; Wilbourn & Kee, 2010; Zosuls, Miller, Ruble, Martin, & Fabes, 2011) and is powerful in the enactment of behaviors in many spheres of life (Fredrickson, Roberts, Noll, Quinn, & Twenge, 1998; Lester, 2008). In male-gendered contexts, women with highly central gender identity are more likely to suffer the consequences of feminine gender devaluation, as the identity threats are directed towards a core dimension on which they define themselves (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Thus, it would be significantly harder for women to disassociate from a feminine identity in response to identity threat, and they may be less likely to avoid the negative effects of unfavorable social comparison between the social categories of men and women (McConnell et al., 2012; McConnell, 2011). Conversely, women who do not consider their gender in self-

concept would be more likely to dissociate the negative evaluation of their social category from their core sense of self.

While increased identity threat to women's core self-conception may make the incivility more damaging to certain women, their corresponding enactment of gender identity may further worsen the relationship between gender and well-being. As mentioned above, psychological centrality has an effect on behavior, and thus women with highly central gender identity may be more likely to perform feminine behaviors at work (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). These behaviors are likely to result in more negative reactions from male coworkers, who may perceive that highly-feminine women lack the necessary qualities to succeed at male-gendered jobs (Heilman et al., 2004; Kanter, 1977; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). This reaction may result in men enacting more uncivil treatment of women, thereby producing more identity threats for women and greater negative effects for the women's well-being. Thus, gender-based psychological centrality not only affects the relationship between gender and well-being through increased sensitivity to identity threat, but potentially also through the unintentional increase in incivility that its associated behaviors produce. Therefore, I propose that:

Hypothesis 4a: Gender identity will moderate the negative incivility - physical well-being relationship, such that the relationship will be significantly more positive when gender identity is stronger versus weaker.

Hypothesis 4b: –Gender identity will moderate the positive incivility – emotional exhaustion relationship, such that the relationship will be significantly more positive when gender identity is stronger versus weaker.

Family Identity Salience

As noted above, women may maintain a positive identity through one of two options: either changing the dimensions by which they compare their in-group to men, or to psychologically disassociating themselves from that group (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). In the context of work, an example of the first tactic might be for a female worker to think of the comparison between her and her male coworkers, not in terms of strength or prestige, but rather in terms of the ability to juggle both work and family responsibilities. Similarly, she may subconsciously compare men and women on the basis of perceived parental quality. Given that women often perform more family and domestic responsibilities than men (Cejka & Eagly, 1999) and that maternal attributes are intertwined with the social construction of femininity (Kelly, Ammons, Chermack, & Moen, 2010), it is likely that a subconscious comparison between men and women based on family role performance would be more favorable for a woman than a subconscious comparison based on gendered professional dimensions.

In keeping with the current example, a female worker might avoid focusing on her gender in the context of work all together, preferring to spend more time focusing on a positive social identity, such as her family or non-work identities (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This is consistent with the complementary logic of identity theory (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995; Stets & Burke, 2000) which holds that individuals can be more committed to certain role identities than others regardless of momentary context (Hogg et al., 1995; Jackson, 1981; Santee & Jackson, 1979; Stryker, 1968). Such commitment leads to the increased salience of the referent identity in a person's self-evaluation. In other words, a woman who is constantly disparaged in her male-gendered job might not consider her

professional identity to be a significant part of her self-concept at all, but rather might focus primarily on her positive family identity regardless of context. Borrowing further from identity theory, commitment is thought to be highest for identities that involve important relationships with others. Thus, it is possible that women who are marginalized in predominantly male workplaces would have a fairly low commitment to their professional identity and a much higher commitment to their family identity, assuming the family identity is positive. Indeed, previous research by Deaux, Reid, Mizrahi, and Ethier (1995) found that relational identities (e.g., ties with family members) are more central to a sense of self than vocational identities. Extending this logic in the framework of SIT, it is possible that negative professional identification may not impact an individual's self-concept if they are highly committed to a positive family identity, which allows for consistent positive self-evaluation.

This logic is consistent with an emerging body of work on family-to-work enrichment, which specifically investigates ways in which family life can positively impact a person's professional experience (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010a). In their research on family-to-work facilitation, van Steenbergen et al. (2007) found that family-to-work enrichment was associated with higher job performance and satisfaction, which indicates that a positive family experience is associated with positive work outcomes. Although their study did not test identity-related variables directly, it does indicate that positive family roles are meaningful for work experiences. Of additional relevance to the current research is the fact that this facilitation differs by gender (van Steenbergen et al., 2007), such that women show more integration between their work and family lives (Rothbard, 2001) and a stronger

relationship between work/family conflict and job-life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Given the potentially buffering effect of positive family role identities against negative work experiences, I propose that:

Hypothesis 5a: Family identity will moderate the negative incivility – physical well-being relationship, such that the relationship will be significantly more negative when family identity is higher versus lower.

Hypothesis 5b: Family identity will moderate the positive incivility – emotional exhaustion relationship, such that the relationship will be significantly more negative when family identity is higher versus lower.

As the aforementioned review demonstrates, the experience of women in predominantly male workplaces differs substantially from both male employees in such settings, and from employees who work in gender-balanced contexts (Kanter, 1977). However, these differences are dependent on several factors. On one hand, contextual attributes of the workplace such as gender proportion (Ely, 1994, 1995) and diversity climate (King et al., 2010) can impact whether women face incivility from their colleagues. *Ceteris paribus*, such incivility has a negative effect on a woman's well-being (Cortina, 2008; Lim & Cortina, 2005). However, individual differences in identity, such as gender identity and family identity salience, determine the extent to which such threat impacts women's well-being. When the part of a woman's identity that is being threatened is central to her self-concept, the incivility will be more impactful to her well-being, while focus on identities that are not being threatened may buffer against negative impacts of incivility. Given the complex relationships between individual and contextual

phenomena, I propose a model of mediated moderation based on the following hypotheses:

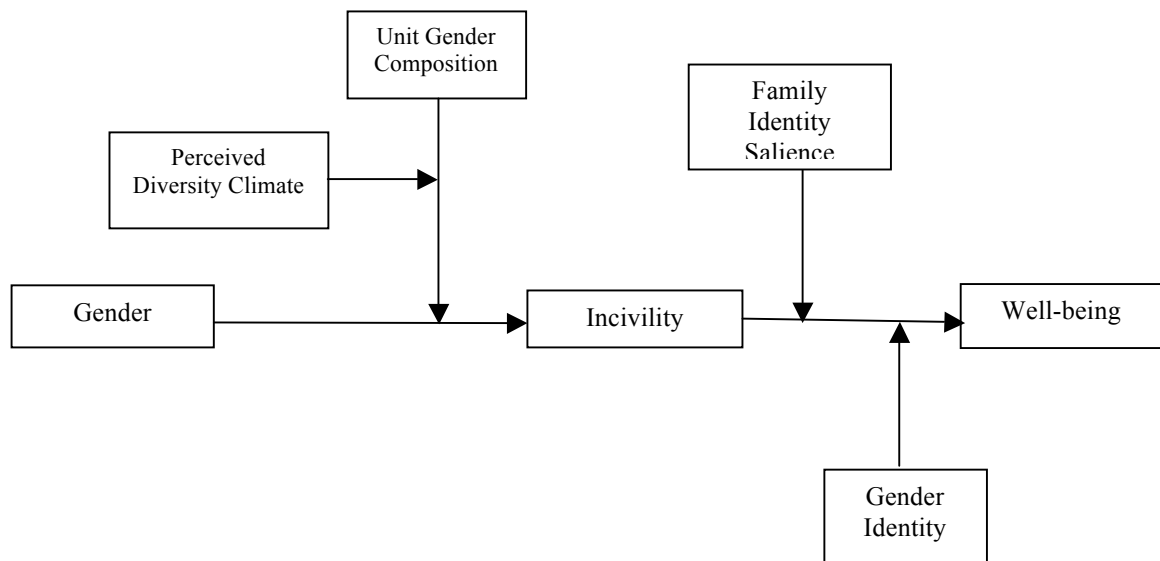
Hypothesis 6a: The mediated effects of gender on well-being through incivility will be moderated by gender composition.

Hypothesis 6b: The mediated effects of gender on well-being through incivility will be moderated by psychological diversity climate.

Hypothesis 6c: The mediated effects of gender on well-being through incivility will be moderated by gender identity.

Hypothesis 6d: The mediated effects of gender on well-being through incivility will be moderated by family identity salience.

Theoretical Model



METHOD

Sample. Approximately 400 individuals were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) platform. This platform is a website where individuals go to

perform a variety of tasks in exchange for monetary compensation. Such tasks include providing feedback on advertising material to marketing professionals, taking surveys, or performing clerical work (e.g., transcription of audio or video files). The amount of compensation provided varies greatly, and is relatively dependent on the type of task being performed and the anticipated time of task completion. In order to perform work on MTurk, individuals must reside in the United States or India, must be at least 18 years old, and must have a valid Amazon account (all correspondence and payment is conducted through Amazon).

Given the growing popularity of MTurk, significant research has been done to investigate the nature of participants who perform surveys on MTurk. Such research indicates that samples recruited through MTurk are more demographically heterogeneous than more traditional methods such as convenience sampling (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011), which makes it a good source of participants for diversity-related research. Additionally, results from MTurk studies have been found to be valid across a wide variety of disciplines (Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz, 2012; Buhrmester et al., 2011; Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013; Mason & Suri, 2012). Although there are some minor systematic differences between MTurk workers and the general population (see Goodman, et al., 2013 for a thorough review of these differences), most of them are not relevant to the present study. In fact, some differences, such as the fact that MTurk workers pay more attention to instructions than samples from the general public (Berinsky et al., 2012), enhances the suitability of these participants for my study compared to more traditional samples.

The sample for this survey was restricted to participants who were over 18 years of age, employed, and residents of the United States. The criteria of age and employment restrictions are necessary to ensure that participants have sufficient experience in a professional context, and the criteria of residency restriction is necessary to ensure that no systematic cultural variables confound the results. Specifically, there is a sizable minority of MTurk workers who reside in India (Goodman et al., 2013; Mason & Suri, 2012), where norms surrounding community, family, and work are significantly different than cultural norms about those topics in the United States (Hofstede, 2001). MTurk determines residency-related qualifications through examination of the participants' IP address. In this case, participants with IP addresses outside the United States were not eligible to take the survey, and ineligible participants did not see the survey advertised in their searches of available tasks on MTurk.

Procedure. There are two variations of the survey procedure used in this project. In the first version, the survey was given in two waves to a sample of MTurk workers who volunteered to complete the task and met the aforementioned eligibility criteria. This two-wave format was chosen to reduce the possibility of common method bias, in which respondents' answers may reflect a bias caused by measurement procedure (e.g., responding to all questions at a single time; Creswell, 2003). In exchange for their participation, individuals in the first procedure were compensated 40 cents for their completion of the first survey, with the understanding that they would be asked to complete a second survey after one month for which they would be compensated an additional 60 cents.

In the two-wave procedure, 381 individuals responded to the first part of the survey. After one month, participants who successfully completed the Time 1 survey received a follow-up message through the MTurk platform with a link to complete the Time 2 survey. Of the participants who were invited to take the second part of the survey, 52% of the individuals ($n=197$) completed the second wave survey. The Time 1 survey asked questions about demographic characteristics (including gender, the independent variable), as well as all moderating variables (gender identity, family identity salience, and psychological diversity climate) and the mediating variable (incivility). In contrast, the second wave survey measured dependent variables, as well as verification of the demographic information provided in the first half of the survey.

In addition to the two-wave procedure described above, additional data were collected using a single-wave cross-sectional design in which participants ($n=141$) completed the entire survey through the MTurk platform in a single time period. In exchange for their participation, participants were compensated \$1.00, which is equal to the amount that previous participants earned for completing both waves of the survey. The single-wave survey contained the same questions as the two-wave version of the survey, and the eligibility requirements were identical for both versions.

Using the two-wave and one-wave procedures, a total of 338 individuals completed the entire survey. However, some respondents were removed for failing attention check questions. Specifically, 14 participants were removed because they failed questions such as, “to demonstrate that you are paying attention, please select Strongly Disagree”. Two cases were deleted because they provided unusable data, and five additional cases were deleted because their responses were outliers on one of the focal

variables ($z = \pm 3.30$). After removal of the aforementioned cases, the final sample size was 317 participants. Respondents in the final sample had an average age of 36, and consisted of 53% men and 47% women. They were predominantly Caucasian (81%), with smaller numbers of African American (6%), Hispanic (4%), and Asian (9%) participants. Compared to the general U.S. population, the present sample over-represents Whites and Asians, as the U.S. population is 62% White, 13% African American, 17% Hispanic, and 5% Asian (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

Measures

Gender and unit gender composition. Gender was measured using a single-item self-report measure. Participants were asked, “How do you identify your gender?”, and were given the options of man, woman, or other. If participants chose “other”, they were asked to fill in the blank to describe their gender identity. Because none of the participants indicated a non-conforming gender identity (e.g., not a man or woman), gender was subsequently coded as a dichotomous variable, with men coded as 0 and women coded as 1. Given the large number of worksites in which participants are employed, unit gender composition was measured by adapting the perceived demographic similarity measure used by Avery et al. (2008). The measure asks participants to estimate the gender proportion of “the people in your work group or unit” by selecting one of five multiple choice responses. Responses for this measure include “all male”, “mostly male”, “balanced”, “mostly female”, and “all female”. Using the data from this measure, I computed three dummy variables. The first dummy variable represents a mostly (or all) male workplace, in which “all male” or “mostly male” are coded as 1, and other unit gender compositions are coded as 0. The second dummy

variable represents a gender-balanced workplace, in which “balanced” is coded as 1 and other unit gender compositions are coded as 0. The third dummy variable represents a mostly (or all) female workplace, in which “mostly female” and “all female” are coded as 1, and other unit gender compositions are coded as 0. The mostly female and balanced dummy codes were included in the regression analyses, and the mostly male dummy variable was excluded, thus serving as the reference condition for unit gender composition.

Psychological diversity climate perceptions. Psychological diversity climate was measured using an adapted version of the six-item measure by McKay and colleagues (2007). Four of the six items were administered, and respondents answered using a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The wording of the measure was changed slightly to accommodate the potentially varied literacy level of participants. Sample questions include, “The company makes it easy for people from diverse backgrounds to fit in and be accepted” and “Managers demonstrate through their actions that they want to hire and keep a diverse workforce”. In the present sample, the reliability for this measure was .86, thereby demonstrating adequate reliability of the adapted scale based on the commonly accepted minimum alpha score of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Gender identity. Gender identity was measured using items from an adapted version of the identity subscale in Luhtanen and Crocker's (1992) collective self-esteem scale. Two items from the four-item subscale were used to prevent survey fatigue, and respondents answered using a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. An example item is, “My gender (for example, being a man or woman)

has very little to do with how I think about myself”. In the present study, the Cronbach’s α for this measure was .84, thereby demonstrating adequate reliability of the adapted scale based on the commonly accepted minimum alpha score of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Incivility. Incivility was measured using an adapted version of Cortina and colleagues’ (2001) measure of incivility. As with the measure of perceived diversity climate, the incivility measure has been adapted slightly to reflect potential variety in participants’ literacy level. Responses are given using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “never” to “always” to assess the frequency of incivility experienced in their workplaces. Example items asked how often a coworker or supervisor “made demeaning remarks about you” and “paid little attention to your opinion”. In the present study, the Cronbach’s α for this measure was .94, thereby demonstrating adequate reliability of the adapted scale based on the commonly accepted minimum alpha score of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Family identity salience. Family identity salience was measured using an adapted version of Lobel and St. Clair's (1992) five-item measure. In this measure, the first item asks respondents to choose one of five multiple choice answers to indicate the proportion of work and family that reflects their priorities, and the remaining four items ask respondents to rate statements on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. An example item is, “the major satisfactions in my life come from my family”. As with the aforementioned measures, the wording of the first item in this measure was changed slightly to reflect the participants’ overall literacy level. Despite adequate initial reliability of this measure ($\alpha=.77$), a confirmatory factor analysis

demonstrated that two of the five items did not load well on their intended factor. Therefore, only the first three family identity salience items were used in the final measure of family identity salience, resulting in a final Cronbach's α of .84 for the present sample. This score indicates adequate reliability based on the commonly accepted minimum alpha score of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Physical well-being and emotional exhaustion. Physical well-being was measured using the general health subscale from the Medical Outcomes Study (MOS) 36-Item Short-Form Health Survey (Ware & Sherbourne, 1992). The general well-being subscale contains four items and uses a five-point Likert response format with scale anchors ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Example items include, “My health is excellent” and “I am as healthy as anybody I know”. In addition, respondents indicated their degree of emotional exhaustion, which is one of the major components of burnout (Maslach et al., 1996; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) and an indicator of emotional well-being. I measured emotional exhaustion using its corresponding subscale on the JD-R Questionnaire (Bakker, 2014), which contains four items with five-point Likert responses ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Example items include the statements, “After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary”, and “During my work, I often feel emotionally drained”. In the present sample, the Cronbach's α for physical well-being was .84, while the Cronbach's α for emotional exhaustion was .86. These reliability scores indicate that both the physical well-being and emotional exhaustion measures have adequate inter-item reliability based on the commonly accepted minimum alpha score of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Control variables. Five variables served as controls in my analyses to account for systematic differences in response due to demographic factors. Specifically, the proposed analyses controlled for age, race/ethnicity, relationship status, parental status, and annual income. *Age* was measured as a continuous variable in which participants reported their age in years. It was controlled to ensure that the hypothesis testing does not capture any overall effects of older age on negative health outcomes, given that younger people are generally healthier than those who are older (Jenkinson, Coulter, & Wright, 1993). Race/ethnicity and annual income were controlled because previous research has shown that members of traditionally disadvantaged racial groups, as well as individuals of lower socioeconomic status, may have lower physical and mental well-being than their more advantaged counterparts (e.g., Williams, Yu, J. Jackson, & Anderson, 1997). *Race/ethnicity* was measured with a single-item measure that asked, “What is your race/ethnicity”, from which participants could choose the race appropriate to their identification. I subsequently created four dummy coded variables to represent racial/ethnic affiliation: White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian. For each of these variables, participants were coded “1” if they identified as a member of the given race/ethnicity, and “0” if they did not. In regression analyses, the White group was omitted to serve as a reference variable. *Income* was operationalized as an ordinal variable as described in Appendix. Finally, relationship status and parental status were controlled to isolate the correlation between family role performance and family identity (Rothbard & Edwards, 2003). *Relationship status* was measured with a single-item measure that asked, “What is your relationship status”, from which participants could choose the answer that best described their personal circumstance. I subsequently dichotomized the variable by

coding those who were married (including those who were separated) as 1 and coding those who were not married as 0. Finally, *parental status* was measured as a dichotomous variable, with “0” indicating no children and “1” indicating that the participant has at least one child. A full list of items used in the survey measures is presented in the Appendix.

Analyses

Hierarchical regression analyses were used to test moderation-based hypotheses (Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5). In each case, the control variables (age, race/ethnicity, relationship status, parental status, and annual income) were entered in the first step of the regression, the relevant moderator(s) and independent variables were entered in the second step of the regression, and the interaction terms were entered in the third step. In the case of Hypothesis 3, which involves a three-way interaction, each two variable interaction term was entered into the third step, and the final three-way interaction term was entered into the fourth step of the regression. To prevent multicollinearity of the interaction terms, each continuous variable was centered prior to computing the relevant interaction terms (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Moderated mediation analyses (Hypotheses 6a-6-d) were tested using the SPSS PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2015). In addition to these primary analyses, I calculated the correlations between each variable, and performed one-way ANOVA tests to investigate mean gender differences in the mediating and dependent variables.

I performed basic data screening analyses, including calculations of means, standard deviations, scale reliabilities, and correlations between variables. I also conducted one-way ANOVA calculations to determine whether there were mean

differences between men and women in my focal outcome variables (incivility, physical well-being, and emotional exhaustion). Afterwards, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to ensure the construct validity of the survey measures. Following the performance of the CFA, two items were removed from the family identity scale, as they did not load appropriately on their intended factor. After the CFA, reliabilities and correlations were re-calculated, and final scale scores were computed for each variable.

RESULTS

To ensure that participants correctly distinguished between the constructs of interests, a CFA was performed. Because of the high ratio of indicators to observations, an item parceling strategy (Hall, Snell, & Foust, 1999) was used to condense some of the indicators in each measure that had more than two items. Model 1 was the hypothesized six-factor model, in which each factor corresponded to each multi-item measure in the model: family identity, gender identity, incivility, diversity climate, physical well-being, and emotional exhaustion. Good factorial model fit is defined as a non-significant χ^2 , a comparative fit index (CFI) .90 or above, and root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) .08 or less (Kline, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The initial fit of this model was extremely poor, so an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to determine the underlying factor structure of the items. The EFA revealed that two items on the family identity scale (items 4 and 5) loaded strongly onto a seventh factor, and therefore they were dropped from the subsequent analyses. After removing the two family identity items, the six factor model showed a good fit. Although the chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2(50) = 91.62, p < .001, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .051$), this is likely an artifact of the relatively large sample size as opposed to an indicator of poor fit. Given

my standards of good model fit, the hypothesized six-factor model demonstrated adequate fit with the data. Following the suggestions of Anderson and Gerbing (1988), I tested other theoretically possible models to determine how they fit in comparison to Model 1, thereby ensuring that the six-factor model was the best fit with the data. The χ^2 difference was calculated using the following equation, and the difference between models was considered significant if the result of this equation exceeded the critical χ^2 value associated with the degrees of freedom represented by ($df_{Model\ x} - df_{Model\ 1}$):

$$\frac{\chi^2_{Model\ 2} - \chi^2_{Model\ 1}}{df_{Model\ 2} - df_{Model\ 1}}$$

The first comparison model, Model 2, was a five-factor model in which physical well-being and emotional exhaustion were collapsed into a single well-being factor. The fit statistics for this model ($\chi^2(55)=219.22$, RMSEA=.097, CFI= 0.93) indicated that it fit the data less well than Model 1 at a significance level of $p<.001$ ($\Delta\chi^2 = 25.52$, critical $\chi^2 = 20.52$). The second comparison model, Model 3, was a five-factor model in which the measures of family identity and gender identity were collapsed into a single factor. The fit statistics for this model ($\chi^2(55) = 756.59$, RMSEA=.20, CFI= .71) indicated that it fit the data less well than Model 1 at a significance level of $p<.001$ ($\Delta\chi^2 = 132.99$, critical $\chi^2 = 20.52$). The third comparison model, Model 4, was a one-factor model, in which all items were tested on a single factor. This was done following the recommendation of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003), who suggest using this technique to determine whether an underlying common method bias drove respondents' answers. As with Models 2 and 3, Model 4 fit the data less well than Model 1 at a significance level of $p<.001$ ($\chi^2(65) = 1587.34$, RMSEA=.27, CFI= 0.36; $\Delta\chi^2 = 99.71$, critical $\chi^2 = 37.70$).

Given the superiority of the six-factor model to alternative models, the factor structure of

Model 1 was examined, and all items loaded on their anticipated factor at .63 or higher ($p < .01$). Given these findings, I concluded that participants correctly differentiated between the relevant constructs.

Means, standard deviations, and correlations are presented in Table 1, and mean gender differences in focal outcomes can be found in Table 2.

Insert Table 1 About Here

Insert Table 2 About Here

Insert Tables 3–5 About Here

Tables 3–5 presents the results of hierarchical regressions to test Hypotheses 1-5. As shown in the regression tables, support for the hypotheses was not found, although some interesting patterns emerged. Neither Hypothesis 1a (Model 3; $R^2 = .033$, $F = .867$, $p = .582$), which states that unit gender composition will moderate gender differences in physical well-being, such that women will report significantly lower physical well-being than men in predominantly male settings ($\beta_{\text{Balanced}} = -.06$, $p_{\text{Balanced}} = .49$, $\beta_{\text{Mostly female}} = -.23$, $p_{\text{Mostly female}} = .07$), nor Hypothesis 1b (Model 3; $R^2 = .044$, $F = 1.177$, $p = .299$), which states that unit gender composition will moderate gender differences in emotional exhaustion, such that women will report significantly higher emotional exhaustion than men in

predominantly male settings ($\beta_{\text{Balanced}} = -.01$, $p_{\text{Balanced}} = .95$, $\beta_{\text{Mostly female}} = .16$, $p_{\text{Mostly female}} = .20$), was supported. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is not supported. In addition, neither Models 1 nor 2 were significant for either physical well-being or emotional exhaustion, indicating that neither the control variables, nor gender, nor unit gender composition were associated with physical well-being and emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 2, which states that unit gender composition will moderate gender differences in incivility such that women will report significantly greater incivility than men in predominantly male work settings, was also not supported. Model 1, with only the control variables ($R^2 = .044$, $F = 2.04$, $p = .05$), and Model 2, with both the control variables and main effects ($R^2 = .299$, $F = 11.81$, $p < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .255$, $p < .001$), were significant. Additionally, although not hypothesized, results for Model 1 indicated a significant main effect of age on incivility ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .01$), such that lower age was associated with higher rates of experiencing incivility. Furthermore, Model 2 indicated a significant effect of diversity climate on incivility ($\beta = -.49$, $p < .01$), such that individuals who perceived a more positive diversity climate reported less incivility than did those who worked in a less positive diversity climate. For Model 3, while the set of relationships in the model was significant ($R^2 = .305$, $F = 8.25$, $p < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .007$, $p = .58$), the interaction of gender and unit gender composition was not a significant predictor of incivility for either gender balanced units ($\beta = .02$, $p = .87$) or predominantly female units ($\beta = .03$, $p = .82$).

Hypothesis 3 states that psychological diversity climate perceptions moderates the interactive effects of gender and gender composition on incivility, such that women would report significantly higher incivility than men in predominately male contexts only

when the diversity climate was perceived as unsupportive. As was the case in Hypothesis 2, although the full model was significant (Model 4; $R^2=.308$, $F=7.35$, $p<.001$; $\Delta R^2=.002$, $p=.64$), the three-way interaction between gender, unit gender representation, and diversity climate was not a significant predictor of incivility for either gender balanced units ($\beta=-.05$, $p=.63$) or mostly female units ($\beta=-.16$, $p=.35$).

Hypotheses 4a and 4b, which state that gender identity will moderate the incivility-physical well-being (emotional exhaustion) relationships, such that the relationships would be significantly more negative (positive) when gender identity was stronger versus weaker, were also not supported. Model 1, which included only the control variables, was not significant for either physical well-being ($R^2=.018$, $F=.824$, $p=.568$) or emotional exhaustion ($R^2=.033$, $F=1.49$, $p=.170$), indicating no significant effects of the control variables on either physical well-being or emotional exhaustion. However, Model 2, which tests main effects of incivility, gender identity, and family identity on physical well-being ($R^2=.102$, $F=3.61$, $p<.001$; $\Delta R^2=.087$, $p<.001$), and emotional exhaustion ($R^2=.244$, $F=9.86$, $p<.001$; $\Delta R^2=.211$, $p<.001$) were both significant and showed additional significant relationships between the focal variables and both forms of well-being. Specifically, the models show a significant main effect of incivility on both physical well-being ($\beta=-.253$, $p<.001$) and emotional exhaustion ($\beta=.439$, $p<.001$), such that reporting greater incivility is associated with diminished physical well-being and increased emotional exhaustion. Additionally, a significant main effect of family identity was found for both physical well-being ($\beta=.157$, $p=.012$) and emotional exhaustion ($\beta=-.125$, $p=.029$), indicating that having high family identity was associated with increased physical well-being and decreased emotional exhaustion.

Turning to Hypotheses 4a and 4b, while Model 3 significantly predicted physical well-being ($R^2=.106$, $F=3.02$, $p=.001$; $\Delta R^2=.001$, $p=.86$) and emotional exhaustion ($R^2=.265$, $F=9.12$; $p<.001$; $\Delta R^2=.021$, $p=.014$), the interaction of incivility and gender identity was not significant for either physical well-being ($\beta=-.002$, $p=.98$) or emotional exhaustion ($\beta=-.065$, $p=.22$).

Hypothesis 5 stated that family identity salience will moderate the (a) negative incivility–physical well-being and (b) negative incivility–emotional exhaustion relationships, such that high family identity salience will weaken the relationships, respectively. Results observed were significant yet unexpected. As stated above, the model predicting physical well-being was significant (Model 3; $R^2=.106$, $F=3.02$, $p=.001$; $\Delta R^2=.001$, $p=.86$) however, a significant family identity x incivility interaction did not emerge ($\beta=-.029$, $p=.61$). Moreover, I observed a significant family identity x incivility interaction on emotional exhaustion ($\beta=.151$, $p=.004$). To discern the nature of this relationship, I conducted a simple slope analysis using SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2013). The results of this analysis showed that family identity moderated the incivility–emotional exhaustion relationship in an unexpected way, such that the positive relationship between incivility and emotional exhaustion was significantly stronger for respondents with higher family identities ($B=.46$, $p<.01$) rather than lower family identities ($B=.24$, $p<.01$). The results of the simple slope analysis are depicted graphically in Figure 1. Given these results, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

 Insert Figure 1 About Here

To investigate Hypotheses 6a-6d, I used SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) to conduct conditional process modeling on the full hypothesized model. The conditional effects of the moderators on the mediated relationship, predicting both forms of well-being, are presented in Tables 4-7. It is a commonly accepted practice to run SPSS PROCESS twice for each of two dependent variables, as this produces substantively similar results to structural equation modeling, but can tolerate a significantly smaller sample size (Hayes, 2013). As illustrated in Tables 4-7, Hypothesis 6a, which states that the mediated effects of gender on well-being through incivility will be moderated by gender composition, Hypothesis 6b, which states that the mediated effects of gender on well-being through incivility will be moderated by psychological diversity climate, Hypothesis 6c, which states that the mediated effects of gender on well-being through incivility will be moderated by gender identity, nor Hypothesis 6d, which states that the mediated effects of gender on well-being through incivility will be moderated by family identity salience, were supported for the physical well-being outcome. Furthermore, none of the four elements of Hypotheses 6a-6d were supported for the emotional exhaustion outcome, although there was a significant moderating effect of family identity on the mediated relationship between gender and exhaustion ($B=.05$, $p=.01$). However, as depicted in Figure 1, simple slope analysis confirms that this relationship is in the opposite direction as hypothesized, and having high family identity actually strengthens the relationship between incivility and emotional exhaustion.

 Insert Tables 6-9 About Here

DISCUSSION

Although none of the hypotheses were empirically supported, findings of this study raise interesting theoretical and empirical questions. Theoretically, the results of this study demonstrate the extraordinary complexity of dynamics involving gender, unit gender composition, incivility, and well-being. Contrary to previous research (e.g., Avery et al., 2008; Cortina et al., 2013), women did not report suffering significantly more instances of incivility than men. Another interesting facet of the results is the unexpected role of diversity climate in predicting incivility. Although diversity climate was hypothesized to affect incivility through a three-way interaction with gender and gender composition, it was found to have a significant main effect on incivility in the model. In other words, participants who worked in a positive diversity climate suffered substantially fewer instances of incivility than those who worked in a less positive diversity climate. This was true for both men and women, and it was true regardless of the gender composition of one's work unit.

A third notable finding of the study was the counterintuitive moderating effect of family identity salience on the relationship between incivility and emotional exhaustion. A potential explanation for this is that people who have high family identities invest more time in family-related activities (Rothbard & Edwards, 2003). To the extent that this is the case, individuals with higher family identity salience may already have high levels of stress from attempting to balance work and family (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Thus, incivility at work may make them reevaluate their priorities or exacerbate an already heightened underlying level of stress. This proposition is congruent with Innstrand, Langballe, Espnes, Falkum, and Aasland's (2008) findings of an association between

work-family conflict and burnout. However, this theory contradicts Powell and Greenhaus' (2010b) finding that individuals with high family identity salience actually experienced lower levels of work-family conflict.

Research Implications

There are several theoretical implications of my findings. First, the non-significant gender x unit gender composition interaction as a predictor of incivility may indicate that gender salience was lower in the sample studied, compared to samples from previous studies. Perhaps gender identity salience is decreasing in modern workplaces, while salient intergroup differences on other demographic attributes may be rising in importance. The speculation about decreasing gender importance is consistent with findings of the present study, which show that age is a significant predictor of incivility, with younger employees reporting more incivility. The present study's findings about age are also consistent with recent research by Smith, McPherson, and Smith-Lovin (2014), who found that gender-based homophily, or the tendency to form ties with same-gender others, has decreased over the past 20 years, while age-based homophily has remained constant. Taken together, these findings about age could mean that comparatively, demographics such as age are becoming a more salient dimension on which to create intergroup comparisons, as women's participation in the workplace continues to become more accepted.

Additionally, the observed negative relationship between perceived positive diversity climate and reported acts of incivility has important implications for the growing body of literature on diversity climate. Although organizational diversity climate has been associated with a number of important work outcomes, such as turnover

intention (McKay et al., 2007; Stewart, Volpone, Avery, & McKay, 2010), sales performance (X. P. Chen, Liu, & Portnoy, 2012; McKay et al., 2008; McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2009), customer satisfaction (McKay, Avery, Liao, & Morris, 2011), job pursuit intentions (Avery et al., 2013), and organizational loyalty (Chung et al., 2015), substantially less research has examined the mediating mechanisms through which incivility affects these outcomes (Guillaume, Dawson, Woods, Sacramento, & West, 2013). The results of this study suggest that the reduction of incivility may be an important mechanism through which diversity climate creates positive workplace outcomes, which should be tested directly in future research.

Given the aforementioned conflicting results of previous research and the present study on the role of family, more research is clearly needed to understand when family identity buffers against negative work experiences, and when high family identity creates conflict between family and work roles. Another potential explanation for this study's counterintuitive finding is that people with high family identity salience identify strongly with their role because their family interactions are positive, identity-affirming experiences. To the extent that people with high family identity salience are treated well by their families, they may face more extreme shock when mistreated at work, and the large disparity between negative experiences at work and positive experiences in their non-work lives may cause them to suffer more emotional exhaustion from experiencing incivility.

Finally, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis highlight a potentially interesting empirical question. Specifically, the family identity salience measure that was adapted from Lobel and St. Clair (1992) treats family identity salience and work identity

salience as if they are two ends of a single spectrum. However, SIT predicts that social identities are in fact orthogonal (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), and thus measuring family identity as an alternative to work identity may need to be reconsidered. This is consistent with the results of the confirmatory factor analysis, which found that the items relating directly to family (items 1-3 in the appendix) loaded well on a single factor, but the two items relating to work (instead of family; items 4 and 5) did not load well on their intended factor. A subsequent exploratory factor analysis confirmed that the latter two items loaded strongly (above .90) on another factor, which may indicate that family identity should be measured independently of its relationship with other types of identity.

Practical Implications

The findings of the present study have several practical implications. Most importantly, the significant negative relationship between diversity climate and incivility indicates that managers may improve relationships at the interpersonal level by improving diversity climate perceptions more broadly across the organization. For employers, investing in diversity climate improvement may be an effective alternative to dealing with instances of interpersonal discord on an individual basis. Furthermore, the significant relationship between incivility and well-being underscores the potentially severe consequences of being mistreated at work. Finally, the negative association between age and incivility indicates a need for employers to ensure that certain demographic groups, such as younger employees, are not being systematically mistreated by their coworkers. While mistreatment against members of certain genders and races are well-known problems for employers (e.g., Cortina, 2008), the present study indicates

that employers may also need to be vigilant against age-based mistreatment in the workplace.

Limitations and Future Research

As with any study, there are limitations that must be discussed. One such limitation is the fact that participants came from a wide variety of work contexts, and thus it is possible that unmeasured differences in their industries and workplaces accounted for more variance than did my focal variables. Although findings under these conditions might have indicated some generalizability, the nature of the sample may have also contributed to the lack of findings. Future research should refine this model and replicate it in a single organization, so that contextual variables can be better controlled.

Additionally, the data collected in this study were all self-reported, which increases the risk of common method bias, or systematic bias that results from the type of measurement used instead of the actual relationship between variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). While this concern was partially mitigated by the poor fit of the single factor model in the confirmatory factor analysis, future research should investigate the focal dynamics using multiple sources of data. Such data could include biometric data for indicators of physical health, which may also be more reliable than self-report health information. A final limitation of the data was the relatively modest sample size, which prohibited the performance of more advanced analysis techniques such as path analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Given the complex dynamics that exist between the focal variables, path analysis may have provided a clearer picture of the nature of relationships between the relevant constructs. However, the ratio of indicators to cases was too high to

satisfy the conditions for performing such analyses, and thus conditional processing had to be used instead.

As mentioned above, the lack of support for hypothesized gender relationships may indicate that other demographic differences should be considered in the causes of group-based incivility. As these results suggest, age may be a particularly salient demographic difference, and future research should explore whether this difference and others influence the degree to which individuals experience incivility at work. Finally, the counterintuitive moderating effect of family identity highlights the tremendous need for future research in this area. Although a significant body of research has investigated the effects of work-family conflict (e.g., Eby et al., 2005; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010b), the results of this study suggest that there may be undiscovered implications of work-family conflict on individual's reactions to work stress. Future research on such dynamics would be particularly interesting.

CONCLUSION

The present study has a few important implications. First, it suggests that research needs to consider factors beyond gender and gender representation as antecedents of incivility in the workplace. The results of this study show that contextual factors such as diversity climate may be more important than previously realized in the degree to which employees are treated well by their coworkers, while individual demographic differences may be somewhat less important in this regard. To the extent that demographic differences may be important, the present study also suggests that differences such as age may play an important role in determining intergroup relationships. Finally, the present study suggests interesting implications of having a

strong family identity, and proposes that future research should investigate how these implications affect individuals' experiences in the workplace.

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APPENDIX: SURVEY INSTRUMENT ITEMS

Family Identity (adapted from Lobel & St. Clair, 1992)

1. Select the response that best describes you and your day to day priorities:
 - a. My family is the most important thing to me
 - b. My family and career are both important, but family comes first
 - c. My family and career are equally important
 - d. My family and career are both important, but work comes first
 - e. My career is the most important thing to me.

Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements (strongly disagree/disagree/neither agree nor disagree/agree/strongly agree). Please mark one answer for each of the statements:

2. The major satisfactions in my life come from my family
3. The most important things that happen to me involve my family
4. The major satisfactions in my life come from my job
5. The most important things that happen to me involve my job

Gender Identity (adapted from Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992)

Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements (strongly disagree/disagree/neither agree nor disagree/agree/strongly agree). Please mark one answer for each of the statements:

6. Overall, my gender (for example, being a man or woman) has very little to do with how I think about myself
7. In general, my gender is an important part of my self-image

Incivility (adapted from Cortina et al., 2001)

In the past year, how often have you been in a position where any of your supervisors or coworkers (never/almost never/rarely/sometimes/often/very often/always):

8. Put you down or criticized you
9. Paid little attention to your opinion
10. Made demeaning remarks about you
11. Addressed you in terms you didn't like, either publicly or privately
12. Made you feel like you were excluded from your group of coworkers
13. Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you had responsibility
14. Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters

Diversity Climate (adapted from McKay et al., 2007)

Please indicate the degree to which you believe the following statements to be true about the company you currently work for. (strongly disagree/disagree/neither agree nor disagree/agree/strongly agree)

15. The company makes it easy for people from diverse backgrounds to fit in and be accepted
16. Where I work, employees are helped and trained without regard to the gender or the racial, religious, or cultural background of the individual
17. Managers demonstrate through their actions that they want to hire and keep a diverse workforce
18. I think that managers at my company do a good job of managing people with diverse backgrounds (in terms of age, sex, race, religion, or culture)

Physical Well-being (Ware & Sherbourne, 1992)

In general, how true or false is each of the following statements for you (definitely false/mostly false/don't know/mostly true/definitely true):

19. I am as healthy as anybody I know
20. I seem to get sick a little easier than other people
21. I expect my health to get worse
22. My health is excellent

Emotional Exhaustion (Bakker, 2014)

The following statements concern the way you experience your work and how you think about it. Please choose for each statement the answer that is most representative for you (strongly disagree/disagree/neither agree nor disagree/agree/strongly agree):

23. There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work
24. After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better
25. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained
26. After my work, I usually feel work out and weary

Unit Gender Composition (Avery et al., 2008)

27. In your current job, how would you describe the people in your work group or unit?
 - a. All male
 - b. Mostly male (only a few women)
 - c. Balanced

- d. Mostly female (only a few men)
- e. All female

Demographic Control Measures

- 28. How do you identify your gender?
 - a. Man
 - b. Woman
 - c. Other _____
- 29. What is your age?
- 30. What is your race/ethnicity?
 - a. Caucasian/white
 - b. African-American/Black
 - c. Hispanic
 - d. Asian
 - e. Native American
 - f. Pacific Islander
 - g. Other _____
- 31. What is your relationship status?
 - a. Single
 - b. Serious relationship, living separately
 - c. Serious relationship, living together
 - d. Married
 - e. Separated
 - f. Divorced
 - g. Widowed
- 32. Do you have children?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 33. What is your annual household income?
 - a. Less than \$15,000
 - b. \$15,000 - \$25,999
 - c. \$26,000 - \$50,999
 - d. \$51,000 - \$75,999
 - e. \$76,000 - \$100,000
 - f. Over \$100,000

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Age	36.12	11.30	--																	
2. White	.81	.39	.07	--																
3. Black	.06	.23	.07	-	--															
				.50																
4. Hispanic	.03	.18	-.06	-	-	--														
				.39	.05															
5. Asian	.09	.28	-.08	-	-	-	--													
				.64	.08	.06														
6. Relationship	.40	.49	.20	.08	-	.02	-	--												
				.09	.03															
7. Parental	.44	.50	.39	.09	.14	-	-	.45	--											
					.06	.19														
8. Income	3.48	1.35	.06	-	-	-	.18	.35	.08	--										
				.08	.03	.06														
9. Gender	.47	.50	.07	.06	-	-	-	.08	.27	-.06	--									
				.01	.04	.07														
10. Male Unit	.29	.46	-.09	-	.08	.03	-	-	-.12	.04	-.23	--								
				.02		.03	.06													
11. Balanced Unit	.50	.50	.06	.02	-	.02	.01	.06	.04	-.06	-.08	-.64	--							
				.11																
12. Female Unit	.21	.41	.03	-	.04	-	.03	-	.09	.03	.35	-.33	-.51	--						
				.01	.06	.01														
13. DC	3.88	.72	.06	-	.01	.07	.06	.08	.06	.02	.04	-.16	.14	.01	--					
				.08																
14. Incivility	2.34	1.28	-.17	.04	.05	.01	-	-	-.07	-.05	-.07	.16	-.14	-.01	-.51	--				
							.09	.08												
15. Family ID	3.98	.85	.17	.06	-	-	-	.37	.39	.16	.09	-.03	.03	-.01	.22	-.13	--			
				.03	.09	.02														
16. Gender ID	3.22	1.10	.12	-	.11	.13	-	.09	.14	.01	.04	-.06	.04	.02	.12	-.04	.17	--		
				.05		.09														
17. Phys. w/b	3.70	.90	-.07	-	-	.10	.03	.01	-.02	.01	-.03	.02	.01	-.04	.10	-.25	.14	.01	--	
				.04	.05															
18. Exhaustion	3.08	1.00	-.02	.05	.02	-	.01	-	-.04	-.09	.06	.01	-.06	.07	-.31	.44	-.17	-.10	-.40	--
					.13			.11												

Notes.

n=317

Bold values are significant at $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

Gender is coded as men = 0, women = 1

Family ID = family identity

DC= diversity climate

Balanced unit = gender balanced work context

Female unit = predominantly female (or all female) work context

Male unit = predominantly male (or all male) work context

Gender ID = gender identity

Table 2
Mean Differences in Incivility and Well-being by Gender

Variable	Mean		s.d.		<i>p</i>
	Men	Women	Men	Women	
Incivility	2.43	2.25	1.32	1.23	.219
Physical Well-being	3.72	3.67	.88	.92	.635
Emotional Exhaustion	3.03	3.14	.95	1.06	.315

Note.

$p < .05$ indicates significant mean differences.

Table 3
Effects of Gender and Unit Gender Representation on Physical Well-being and Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	<u>Physical Well-being</u>			<u>Emotional Exhaustion</u>		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Age	-.074	-.075	-.084	-.008	-.004	.001
Black	-.042	-.043	-.046	.001	-.001	.001
Hispanic	.100	.098	.104	-.134*	-.131*	-.135*
Asian	.025	.027	.033	.006	.006	.002
Marital Status	.002	.001	-.004	-.073	-.067	-.065
Parental Status	.024	.032	.032	-.001	-.017	-.017
Income	.015	.015	.026	-.077	-.078	-.085
Gender (A)		-.014	-.171		.044	.140
Balanced Unit (B)		-.006	-.057		-.035	-.005
Mostly Female Unit (C)		-.030	-.226		.031	.158
A x B			.143			-.086
A x C			.301			.193
ΔR^2	.018	.001	.014	.033	.006	.006
R^2	.018	.020	.033	.033	.039	.044

Notes.

All coefficients are standardized; n=317; Gender is coded as men = 0, women = 1; Balanced unit = gender balanced work context; Female unit = predominantly female (or all female) work context; Whites and predominantly male units serve as hold-out comparisons.

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

Table 4
Effects of Gender, Gender Representation, and Perceived Diversity Climate on Incivility

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Age	-.174**	-.149**	-.149**	-.148**
Black	.049	.047	.048	.051
Hispanic	-.007	.029	.031	.037
Asian	-.097	-.054	-.051	-.051
Relationship Status	-.031	.006	.003	.005
Parental Status	-.009	.024	.022	.022
Income	-.014	-.032	-.028	-.031
Gender (A)		-.048	-.064	-.049
Balanced Unit (B)		-.075	-.068	-.063
Mostly Female Unit (C)		-.019	-.027	-.037
Diversity Climate (D)		-.492**	-.580**	-.616**
A x B			.017	.005
A x C			.028	.030
D x B			.101	.129
D x C			.108	.235
A x D			-.047	.023
A x B x D				-.048
A x C x D				-.161
ΔR^2	.044*	.255**	.007	.002
R^2	.044*	.299**	.305**	.308**

Notes

Standardized beta coefficients are reported; n=317; Gender is coded as men = 0, women = 1; Balanced unit = gender balanced work context; Female unit = predominantly female (or all female) work context; Whites and predominantly male units serve as hold-out comparisons.

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

Table 5
Effects of Incivility, Family Identity Salience, and Gender Identity Salience on
Physical Well-being and Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	<u>Physical Well-being</u>			<u>Emotional Exhaustion</u>		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Age	-.074	-.119*	-.116	-.008	.074	.056
Black	-.042	-.020	-.020	.001	-.021	-.024
Hispanic	.100	.112*	.112*	-.134*	-.133*	-.134**
Asian	.025	-.005	-.003	.006	.050	.046
Relationship Status	.002	-.038	-.037	-.073	-.030	-.042
Parental Status	.024	-.022	-.026	-.001	.043	.061
Income	.015	.003	.002	-.077	-.064	-.057
Incivility (A)		-.253**	-.255**		.439**	.443**
Family Identity (B)		.157*	.156*		-.125	-.115*
Gender Identity (C)		-.018	-.017		-.050	-.067
A x B			-.029			.151**
A x C			-.002			-.065
ΔR^2	.018	.087**	.001	.033	.211**	.021*
R^2	.018	.105**	.106**	.033	.244**	.265**

Notes.

Standardized beta coefficients are reported; n=317; Gender is coded as men = 0, women = 1; Balanced unit = gender balanced work context; Female unit = predominantly female (or all female) work context; Whites serve as hold-out racial comparisons.

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

Figure 1
Moderating Effect of Family Identity on the Incivility-Emotional Exhaustion Relationship

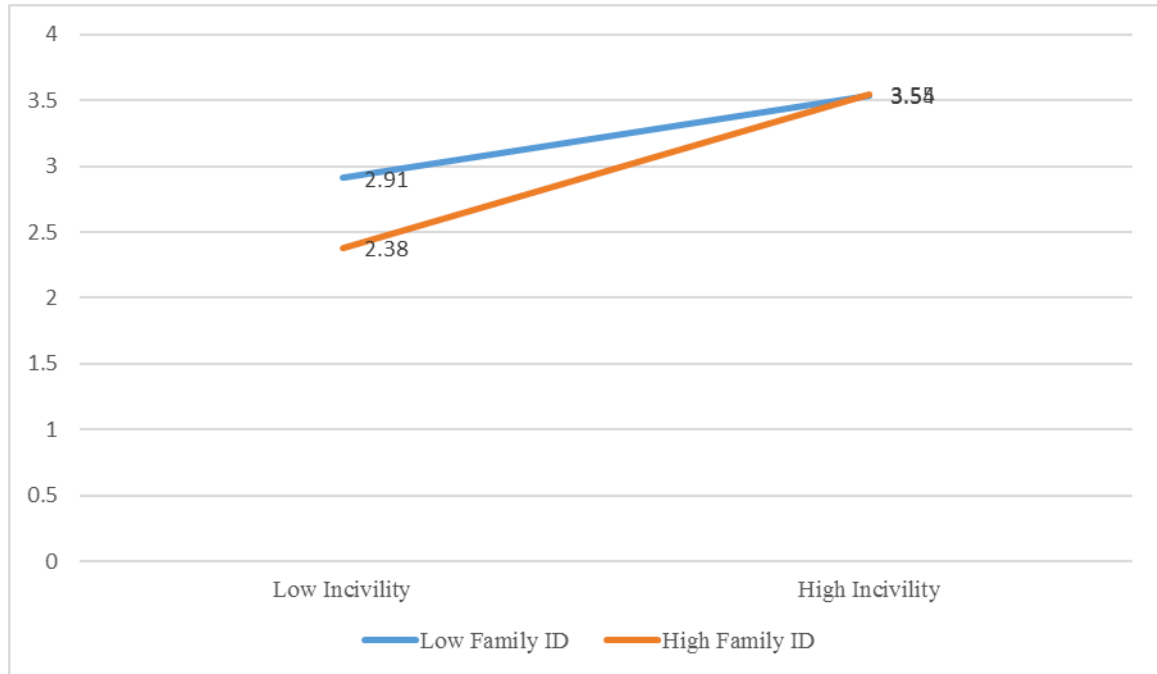


Table 6
Mediating Effect of Incivility on the Gender x Unit Gender Composition – Well-being Relationship

Dependent Variable: Physical Well-being				
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Direct Effect ¹	-.07		(-.28, .13)	
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Indirect Effect ²	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit
	.03	.02	(-.03, .11)	(-.12, .16)
Total Effect ³	-.04			

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion				
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Direct Effect ¹	.18		(-.03, .39)	
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Indirect Effect ²	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit
	-.04	-.03	(-.14, .05)	(-.24, .19)
Total Effect ³	.14			

Notes.

n=317

¹Direct effect = Main effect of gender on well-being, not considering unit gender composition or incivility

²Indirect effect = Indirect effect of gender on well-being, simultaneously considering the mediating effect of incivility and the moderating effect of unit gender composition (e.g., mostly male unit, mostly female unit)

³Total effect = Sum of direct effect and indirect effect

⁴Confidence intervals that contain 0 indicate effect size are non-significant at $p < .05$

Table 7
Moderating Effect of Diversity Climate on the Gender x Unit Gender Composition – Well-being Relationship

Dependent Variable: Physical Well-being				
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Direct Effect ¹	-.08		(-.28, .13)	
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Indirect Effect ²	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit
High Diversity Climate	.03	.08	(-.04, .11)	(-.06, .34)
Low Diversity Climate	.01	-.07	(-.07, .10)	(-.32, .15)
Total Effect ³				
High Diversity Climate	-.05	.00		
Low Diversity Climate	-.07	-.15		

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion				
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Direct Effect ¹	.18		(-.03, .38)	
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Indirect Effect ²	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit
High Diversity Climate	-.06	-.15	(-.30, .08)	(-.58, .12)
Low Diversity Climate	-.02	.13	(-.17, .14)	(-.28, .59)
Total Effect ³				
High Diversity Climate	.12	.03		
Low Diversity Climate	.16	.31		

Notes.

n=317

¹Direct effect = Main effect of gender on well-being, accounting for variance of moderating and mediating variables

²Indirect effect = Indirect effect of gender on well-being, simultaneously considering the mediating effect of incivility and the moderating effect of unit gender composition (e.g., mostly male unit, mostly female unit), and diversity climate (high/low = +/- one standard deviation)

³Total effect = Sum of direct effect and indirect effect

⁴Confidence intervals that contain 0 indicate effect size is non- significant at $p < .05$

Table 8
Moderating Effect of Gender Identity on the Gender x Unit Gender Composition – Well-being Relationship

Dependent Variable: Physical Well-being				
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Direct Effect ¹	-.07		(-.28, .13)	
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Indirect Effect ²	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit
High Gender Identity	.03	.02	(-.03, .11)	(-.13, .17)
Low Gender Identity	.03	.02	(-.02, .11)	(-.11, .17)
Total Effect ³				
High Gender Identity	-.04	-.05		
Low Gender Identity	-.04	-.05		

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion				
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Direct Effect ¹	.18		(-.03, .39)	
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Indirect Effect ²	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit
High Gender Identity	-.04	-.03	(-.14, .05)	(-.22, .17)
Low Gender Identity	-.04	-.03	(-.16, .05)	(-.25, .20)
Total Effect ³				
High Gender Identity	.14	.15		
Low Gender Identity	.14	.15		

Notes.

n=317

¹Direct effect = Main effect of gender on well-being, accounting for variance of moderating and mediating variables

²Indirect effect = Indirect effect of gender on well-being, simultaneously considering the mediating effect of incivility and the moderating effect of unit gender composition (e.g., mostly male unit, mostly female unit), and gender identity (high/low = +/- one standard deviation)

³Total effect = Sum of direct effect and indirect effect

⁴Confidence intervals that contain 0 indicate effect size is non-significant at $p < .05$

Table 9
Moderating Effect of Family Identity on the Gender x Unit Gender Composition – Well-being Relationship

Dependent Variable: Physical Well-being				
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Direct Effect ¹	-.07		(-.28, .13)	
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Indirect Effect ²	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit
High Family Identity	.03	.03	(-.03, .12)	(-.13, .18)
Low Family Identity	.02	.02	(-.02, .11)	(-.11, .16)
Total Effect ³				
High Family Identity	-.04	-.04		
Low Family Identity	-.05	-.05		

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion				
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Direct Effect ¹	.18		(-.03, .38)	
	Effect Size		Confidence Interval⁴	
Indirect Effect ²	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit	Mostly Male Unit	Mostly Female Unit
High Family Identity	-.05	-.05	(-.20, .07)	(-.30, .25)
Low Family Identity	-.03	-.02	(-.11, .03)	(-.18, .14)
Total Effect ³				
High Family Identity	.13	.13		
Low Family Identity	.15	.16		

Notes.

n=317

¹Direct effect = Main effect of gender on well-being, accounting for variance of moderating and mediating variables

²Indirect effect = Indirect effect of gender on well-being, simultaneously considering the mediating effect of incivility and the moderating effect of unit gender composition (e.g., mostly male unit, mostly female unit), and family identity (high/low = +/- one standard deviation)

³Total effect = Sum of direct effect and indirect effect

⁴Confidence intervals that contain 0 indicate effect size is non-significant at $p < .05$