

**An investigation into the joint effects of a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors  
& symbolic aggression on workplace engagement behaviors**

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**Dedication**

This work is dedicated to my late grandfather, Ralph Joseph (Joe) Lybarger. Words cannot begin to express the sincere and humbling gratitude and appreciation I have for you and everything you have given me in life. So many times, it was your kindness and endless love that kept me going – even when I wanted to quit. You believed in me when no one else did... and it is because of you that any of my success in life was, is, or ever will be, possible. It is because of you, that I am the man that I am today.

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**Abstract**

The current project was completed in two parts; the first part of the project sought to design and validate a measurement instrument concerning a set of participatory behaviors that, to date, do not possess a validated way of measurement. The results of this first part was the success of creating and validating a scale that measures participants information seeking behaviors, information provision behaviors, and assertive expressions (i.e., workplace participatory behaviors). The second part of the project sought to explore the direct and indirect effects of a leader's use of verbally aggressive messages and nonverbal immediacy behaviors on various employee affective and behavioral outcomes. Additionally, the current project sought to investigate the mediating effects of organizational commitment on the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and on-the-job behaviors & workplace participatory behaviors.

*Keywords: Organizational Communication, Leadership, Symbolic Aggression, Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors, Communication Patterns, Social Support, Job Satisfaction, Affective Organizational Commitment, On-the-job Behaviors, Participatory Behaviors, Structuration Theory, Leader-Member Exchange*

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## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a universal phenomenon; a phenomenon so universal that it can be observed within the social structures of both humans and many animal species. For example, within the animal kingdom, leadership can be observed in the matriarchy of elephant herds as well as in the patriarchy found in troops of gorillas. All vertebrates found living in groups exhibit some form of social organization and leadership (Allee, 1951). This universal phenomenon has been a topic of great interest to scholars for thousands of years. One of the earliest references to leadership can be found in the Egyptian scroll titled the “Instruction of Ptahhotep” written in 2300 B.C.E. while the Chinese wrote on leadership as early as the sixth century B.C.E., offering advice on the responsibility leaders have to their followers (Bass & Bass, 2008); today, the topic of leadership remains widely discussed in professional writing as well as maintains a central focus of study by scholars in a number of academic fields (Gigliotti, et. al., 2017). The outcomes of these discussions and studies have resulted in a diversity of theories, approaches, models, as well as guidance for better understanding leadership, both professionally and academically (Gigliotti, et. a., 2017).

The essence of leadership lies in a leader’s ability to exercise influence over those whom they lead and a leader’s influence over followers relies heavily on communicative action (Johnson & Hackman, 2018). Furthermore, the principle of reciprocity states that, when engaging in interpersonal interactions, we have a natural tendency to reciprocate both the positive behaviors as well as the negative behaviors we observe in the individual(s) we interact with (Gouldner, 1960). If an organization’s leadership would heavily influence the communicative behaviors of organizational members whom they lead through everyday social interactions, then a leader’s communicative behaviors directly influence the way organizational members not only interact with the leader, but also interact with other organizational members.

These interactions ultimately influence various affective and behavioral outcomes in organizational members themselves.

Leadership holds a sustained interest for professionals and academic scholars. Among these discussions is a general positive bias toward leadership (Kellerman, 2004); an issue referred to as “Hitler’s Ghost” (Kellerman, 1999). Kellerman (2004) warns that denying the notion that leadership can be, and at times is, used in deleterious and destructive ways, is the equivalent of a medical school that teaches students about medicine while completely ignoring the topic of disease. Kellerman emphasizes the importance of acknowledging that bad leadership is inevitably related to good leadership and disregarding one without the other “will in the end distort the enterprise” (2004, p.11). Thus, the current dissertation seeks to build a model that explores *both* the negative and relationally deleterious effects of a leader’s use of symbolic aggression as well as the positive and relationally prosocial effects of a leader’s nonverbal immediacy behaviors on organizational members’ affective and behavioral outcomes.

## **Theoretical Framework**

In addition to providing a theoretical framework that further explicates the relationship shared between the independent variables (i.e., symbolic aggression, and nonverbal immediacy behaviors) and the dependent variables (communication patterns, job satisfaction, affective commitment, on-the-job behaviors, and participatory workplace behaviors), the current dissertation seeks to serve as a vehicle to extend family communication patterns theory, leader-member exchange theory, and structuration theory.

### ***Leader-Member Exchange Theory***

What began as Vertical Dyad Linkage, a theory that investigated a leader’s relationship with followers as a whole and viewed those relationships as a series of vertical dyads (Dansereau, et al., 1975), or the general communication that occurred between leaders and

followers, has progressed into a prescription-based theory (leader-member exchange) for generating more effective leadership by developing and maintaining the relationships that leaders form with their followers (i.e., employees) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). Leader-member exchange (LMX) is a relationship-based theory of leadership that details the communicative relationship shared between an employee and an individual holding a leadership position, such as a direct supervisor (Dansereau, et al., 1975). At its core, LMX suggests that leaders develop differential interpersonal relationships, which can range from low-quality/negative relationships characterized by economic and transactional associations to high-quality/positive relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect, and openness, with each follower (Graen, et al., 1982). It is difficult to overstate just how important a positive working Leader-Member relationship is to workplace outcomes. Over the years, academic research investigating the workplace setting has shown the relationships organizational leaders develop with followers have a significant impact on important employee attitudes and behavioral outcomes (For a multi-analytic review/multi-level multi-domain perspective see: Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Humphrey, et al., 2007; Ilies, et al., 2007). This research has found that positive relationships between organizational members relate to outcomes such as: lower work-related stress, lower turnover intentions, increased job satisfaction, increased performance, and positive citizenship behaviors (Major, et al., 1995; Martin, et al., 1995; Muldoon, et al., 2018). Thus, the differential quality of LMX relationships results in different work attitudes and behaviors.

The experiences organizational members have likely oscillate based on the nature of the interpersonal relationship they share with their leader; these relationships emerge through a series of social-communicative interactions. Therefore, leader-member relationships are produced by, and are a product of, communicative acts (Omillion-Hodges & Baker, 2017). The communicative acts shared within an organization can produce differing qualities of experiences and should be regarded as affective events with the ability to induce a wide range of emotional

responses among organizational members due to the frequent social interactions they have with their leader (Tse & Ashkanasy, 2008). These emotional responses, in turn, determine members' work attitudes and, subsequently, behaviors toward the development of future exchanges with the leader. That is, employees see their leaders as creating workplace opportunities (e.g., positive feedback, praise, or inspiration) and challenges or barriers (e.g., unfounded criticism, being overlooked for a development opportunity) (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Tse & Ashkanasy, 2008). These opportunities and barriers are thought to be cumulative; their frequency, as opposed to their intensity, leads to employee positive or negative emotional reactions (Fisher, 2000).

To illustrate this idea further, consider the example of employee A, who believes the supervisor appreciates A's talent, as the leader uses positive nonverbal immediacy cues and does not use symbolic aggression while communicating. This subscription to an interpersonal-oriented, employee-centered leadership style has become known as Theory Y (McGregor, 1960). Leaders who subscribe to Theory Y believe that humans, by their very nature, have an inherent drive to be productive parts of a society; they believe that the working members of an organization view work/productivity as a source of satisfaction (Gannon & Boguszak, 2013). As a result, Employee A is also given supervisor support when facing work-related challenges, through positive communication cues, such as nonverbal immediacy. Consequently, Employee A likely experiences positive emotional reactions (e.g., pleasure, pride, and joy) from the LMX relationship with the respective leader.

By contrast, Employee B believes the supervisor has very little appreciation for any one employee's talent, as Employee B's supervisor is characterized as someone who regularly uses symbolic aggression while communicating. Such a leader may subscribe to Theory X, a task-oriented communicator style towards leadership by focusing on production (McGregor, 1960). Leaders who subscribe to Theory X believe humans, by their very nature, have an inherent

dislike of work and avoid any form of productive activity whenever possible. These leaders believe they must coerce, control, direct, and use such symbolic aggression as threats and character attacks to ensure employee performance (Gannon & Boguszak, 2013). As a result, Employee B experiences more negative emotional reactions (e.g., resentment, frustration, and anger) about the LMX relationship with the supervisor.

Employee A is experiencing a higher quality leader-member relationship than Employee B, which leads to more positive emotional experiences that are likely to impact work attitudes and behaviors favorably. Thus, communication is at the heart of all workplace relationships (Fairhurst, 2016; Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012; Uhl-Bien, 2006).

### ***Structuration Theory***

Based on LMX, the relationships developed between leaders and members of an organization through social exchanges may influence the overall climate of an organization. Structuration Theory provides a theoretical explanation regarding such a relationship by arguing that organizational rules, resources, cultural values, and norms shape the social interactions occurring within social systems (Giddens, 1984). These social interactions are also the processes by which organizational structure is both created and recreated over time. In other words, these social systems provide individuals existing structures that serve as rules and resources towards creating and reproducing the social system itself (Poole, et. al., 1985). “Reproduction” does not mean replication—when these social systems are reproduced, they, in many cases, closely resemble and match the prior system (Poole, et al., 1995).

The essence of leadership lies in exercising influence—an objective of a leader should be to shape the attitudes and behaviors of followers, to help a group reach their goals (Johnson & Hackman, 2018). Leadership relies heavily on communicative action to create reality through language, stories, and rituals (Johnson & Hackman, 2018). An organization’s leadership would heavily influence the creation and recreation of a given social structure, through the leaders’

everyday social practices. Therefore, a leader's use of positive communicative behaviors, such as nonverbal immediacy behaviors, positively influences the overall social climate, and subsequently positively influences the way organizational structure and followers' social action are understood, created, and recreated. In contrast, leaders' use of negative and deleterious communicative behaviors, such as symbolic aggression, negatively influences the overall climate of an organization, thus having a negative influence on the way organizational structure and followers' social action are understood, created, and recreated.

Although positive behaviors, such as nonverbal immediacy behaviors, and negative/deleterious behaviors, such as symbolic aggression, may shape an organization's climate and thus the interactions observed between/among leaders and employees, the purpose of the current dissertation is to investigate employees' behavioral and affective responses rather than the organization's climate. Although Leader-Member Exchange and Structuration theories provides a basis for understanding the influence observed between leaders' behaviors and the organizational environment, the goal is to build a model that explains how a leader's use of symbolic aggression and nonverbal immediacy behaviors influences employee affective and behavioral responses.

## **Hypotheses**

Defined as behaviors that communicate positive involvement and, as a group of behaviors, communicate interest and liking (Mehrabian, 1966), research investigating Immediacy behaviors has been rich, and prolific within the field of communication studies. Richmond and McCroskey (2000a; 2000b) advanced the "principle of immediate communication": the more an individual uses the behavioral cues associated with the affective response labeled "immediacy" (i.e., nonverbal immediacy behaviors/cues), the more others like, evaluate highly, and prefer them; the less an individual communicates with the behavioral cues associated with immediacy, the more others dislike, and negatively evaluate, the person.

Symbolic aggression, which are behaviors that are used to attack another person through the use of threats, teasing, profanity, ridicule, and other, similar, offensive messages intended to dominate or damage another is destructive and deleterious to interpersonal relationships in a variety of contexts (Avtgis & Rancer, 2010; Rancer & Avtgis, 2006); including within the workplace setting (Chory, et al., 2020; Gorden et al., 1988; Gorden et al., 1988; Infante & Gorden, 1985, 1987, 1989, 1991; Sollitto & Crammer, 2019). According to the principle of reciprocity, during interpersonal interactions, people tend to reciprocate positive, as well as negative, behaviors directed towards them by a communicative partner (Gouldner, 1960). Because the essence of leadership is one's ability to exercise influence over followers (Johnson & Hackman, 2018), a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors should have a positive influence and use of symbolic aggression should have a negative influence on the overall social structure experienced by employees. They should also have a positive/negative influence, respectively, over the quality of leader-member exchanges that occur within an organization. This positive/negative structure/social exchange created through a leader's behaviors either positively, in the case of a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors, or negatively, in the case of a leader's use of symbolic aggression, influences employees' communication patterns. Specifically, employees who report having a leader who engages in nonverbal immediacy behaviors and does not use messages that contain symbolic aggression should report a conversation-oriented communication pattern; employees who report having a leader who utilizes symbolic aggression and does not engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors should report a conformity communication pattern (Fitzpatrick, 2004). Based upon these assertions, the following hypotheses are posited:

- H1a: A negative relationship exists between a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors and employee conformity orientation.

H1b: A positive relationship exists between a leader's use of verbal aggression and employee conformity orientation.

H2a: A positive relationship exists between a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors and employee conversation orientation.

H2b: A negative relationship exists between a leader's use of verbal aggression and employee conversation orientation.

According to Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2006) a social system can either be oriented towards compliance and submission (conformity oriented) or openness and acceptance (conversation oriented). Empirical evidence demonstrates that those who are socialized into a conformity oriented social system are expected to adhere to strict norms, rigid rules, and a culture that is homogeneous in nature; unlike social systems defined as being high in conversation orientation, conformity-oriented social systems have been found to limit the expression of personal needs (Avtgis, 1999). A conformity-oriented communication pattern contributes toward deleterious effects, such as a higher likelihood of being self-oriented rather than other-oriented during interpersonal conversations, regarding behavioral outcomes within interpersonal relationships (Koerner & Cvancara, 2002).

It is hypothesized within the current study that a social systems communication orientation (conversation vs. conformity) can influence an individual's social support seeking behaviors; or an individual's seeking of respect and appreciation and becoming a part of a social network defined by mutual assistance and understanding (Wills, 1991). Previous research has indicated social systems reported as being high in conversation orientation have also been reported as being conducive to open interactions where there is minimal limitation regarding topics for conversation (High & Scharp, 2015); including sensitive topics (Booth-Bufferfield & Sidelinger, 1998) and personal matters (Huang, 1999). High conversation orientations also predict personal outcomes, such as a group's sociability and the amount of support seeking an

individual engages in (Huang, 1999; Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 1997; Koesten, 2004; Ledbetter, 2009) as well as the amount of self-disclosure and other behaviors that maintain healthy relationships (Koesten, 2004; Ledbetter, 2009). Conversely, individuals who have been socialized into a social system that was reported as being low in conversation orientation reported engaging in apprehensive and avoidance behaviors (Schrodt, et. al., 2007). In sum, for workplace settings, conversation and conformity orientations likely operate on independent continuums from low to high with symbolic aggression having a stronger effect on conformity and nonverbal immediacy behaviors have a stronger effect on conversation orientations. Thus, it is hypothesized that conversationally oriented organizations should produce a climate that cultivates an environment with positive emotional social support; an organization that is conformity oriented should produce a climate with negative emotional social support.

H3: A negative relationship exists between conformity orientation and social support

H4: A positive relationship exists between conversation orientation and social support.

The social support organizational members receive plays an important role in their overall job satisfaction (Chou & Robert, 2008); more specifically defined, an individual's overall affect/emotion towards their place of employment (Vroom, 1964) – simply put, job satisfaction is a person's liking or disliking of a job (Spector, 1997). Employees who lacked access to emotional support within their respective organizations experienced less overall job satisfaction (Blau, 1981); other studies have observed positive relationships between co-worker social support and an individual's overall job satisfaction (Cummins, 1989; Gangster, et. al., 1986; LaRocco & Jones, 1978). Thus, it is predicted that employees who report perceiving an availability of emotional support within their organization also report being satisfied with their job.

H5: A positive relationship exists between social support and overall job satisfaction.

Examining the relationship between job satisfaction and employees' workplace engagement and performance in a variety of ways has led to mixed results (for a qualitative/quantitative review see: Judge, et. al., 2001). In a narrative review regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and an employee's active engagement in work assignments indicated "minimal or no relationship" (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955, p. 405). However, a failure to identify a reliable relationship between job satisfaction and an employee's active engagement at work may be contingent upon individual and/or situational moderators, such as an employee's level of affective commitment (Schwab & Cummings, 1970).

Although organizational affective commitment has been defined in a variety of ways over the years, each of these definitions share a common theme; that organizational commitment involves a bond that an individual forms with their specific organization (Klein & Park, 2015; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Organizational affective commitment predicts organizational outcomes, such as employee physical/psychological withdrawal behaviors (i.e., absenteeism, turnover, & turnover intention) in addition to, various engagement behaviors (Angle & Perry, 1981; Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Bluedorn, 1982; Colarelli et al. 1987; DeCotiss & Summers, 1987; Dougherty, et. al., 1985; Clegg, 1983; Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Gupta, Agarwal, & Khatri, 2016; Hom Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Klein & Park, 2015; Kock & Steers, 1978; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; O' Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter et al. 1976; Porter et al. 1974; Steers, 1977; Webel & Gould, 1984; Williams & Hazer, 1986). According to Meyer and Allen (1991), an employee's willingness to actively engage in positive work behavior depends upon the nature of the commitment itself. Individuals who "want" to remain with an organization (i.e., affective commitment) are more likely to exert effort towards contributing to an organization's goals and objectives than those who "need" to remain (i.e., continuous commitment) or those who feel "obligated" to remain (i.e., normative commitment).

Additionally, affective commitment shared a positive relationship with an employee's overall job satisfaction and a negative relationship between all three of Meyer and Allen's (1991) dimensions of commitment (i.e., affective, continuous, and normative) and an employee's intention to quit, with affective commitment showing the strongest relationship (Hackett et al., 1994).

Attitudes, such as commitment, lead to behavior (Judge et al., 2001); within the context of the current study, on-the-job behaviors, defined as positive engagement as well as negative disengagement behaviors that hold implications for an organization's productivity, and workplace participatory behaviors; defined as, active communicative behaviors and includes such behaviors as: information seeking, information provision, assertive utterances, and the expressing of concern.

In line with Approach-Avoidance theory, "in general, people who evaluate an attitude object favorably tend to engage in behaviors that foster or support it, and people who evaluate an attitude object unfavorably tend to engage in behaviors that hinder or oppose it" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 12). Additionally, employee job satisfaction has been found to be a key determinant in an employee's decision to either stay or leave an organization (Daly & Dee, 2006; Gardner, 2012; Xu, 2008). Although factors such as personal characteristics as well as organizational structures contribute to an employee's decision to remain with an organization or leave, the current body of literature suggests that the desire to remain committed to an organization is largely the result of positive work experiences (Berberoglu, 2019; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Qing, et al., 2020; Yao, et al., 2019), and these positive experiences, ultimately, lead to a positive affective response (i.e., job satisfaction); as opposed to negative interactions. Thus, it is hypothesized that an employee's level of affective organizational commitment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and the dimensions of on-the-job behaviors and participatory behaviors.

- H6a: A positive relationship exists between overall job satisfaction and positive work behaviors.
- H6b: Affective commitment mediates the positive relationship between overall job satisfaction and positive work behaviors.
- H7a: A negative relationship exists between overall job satisfaction and psychological withdrawal behaviors.
- H7b: Affective commitment mediates the negative relationship between overall job satisfaction and psychological withdrawal behaviors.
- H8a: A negative relationship exists between overall job satisfaction and physical withdrawal behaviors.
- H8b: Affective commitment mediates the negative relationship between overall job satisfaction and physical withdrawal behaviors.
- H9a: A negative relationship exists between overall job satisfaction and antagonistic behaviors.
- H9b: Affective commitment mediates the negative relationship between overall job satisfaction and antagonistic behaviors.
- H10a: A positive relationship exists between overall job satisfaction and information seeking behaviors.
- H10b: Affective commitment mediates the positive relationship between overall job satisfaction and information seeking behaviors.
- H11a: A positive relationship exists between overall job satisfaction and information provision behaviors.
- H11b: Affective commitment mediates the positive relationship between overall job satisfaction and information provision behaviors.

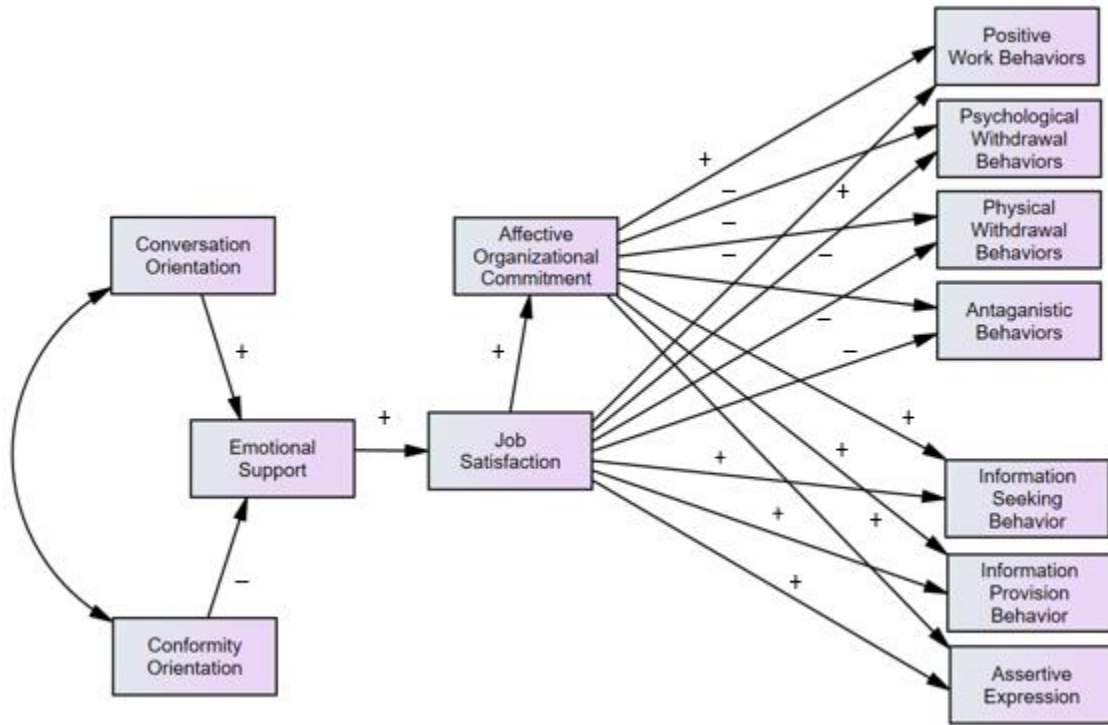
H12a: A positive relationship exists between overall job satisfaction and assertive expressions.

H12b: Affective commitment mediates the positive relationship between overall job satisfaction and assertive expressions.

### ***Hypothesized Model***

By investigating the above-mentioned behaviors within an organizational context, the current dissertation seeks to present a better understanding for how the communicative behaviors of leadership influence employee behavioral outcomes. The following research question and subsequent model are forwarded.

RQ1: To what extent does the model (see Figure 1) explain the relationships among leader behaviors, employee attitudes, and employee behaviors?



**Figure 1: Proposed Model**

## CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

### Symbolic Aggression

During early human history, few scholars doubt that aggression played an important role in human life. Specifically, aggression was an adaptive behavior used as a survival tool by early humans; as humans began to develop more and more prosocial norms, these aggressive behaviors became less and less accepted (Bushman & Huesmann, 2010). As humans moved away from being creatures of survival to being more socially driven, contemporary societies have labeled aggressive and hostile behavior negatively; as a result, those who utilize behaviors that are aggressive or hostile experience relational deterioration with those whom they communicate (Infante & Wigley, 1986; Roper, et al., 2017). Since the mid-1990s, interest has flourished among organizational researchers to study the *Dark side* (Raver, 2004, p. 8) of workplace communication, including the investigation of symbolic aggression (Fisher-Blando, 2008).

One of the earliest definitions of aggression suggests that it is a sequence of behaviors used to injure a target person, for whom it is directed towards (Dollard et al. (1939). Lorenz (1966) studied the behavioral patterns of various animals within their natural environment and defined aggression as a fighting instinct that can be observed within both humans and animals alike. Lorenz (1966) goes on to discuss how this “fighting instinct” is expressed, in some form, as a behavior, or series of behaviors, directed towards members of the same species. Since this time, the field of social psychology has provided generalized definitions for aggression, largely defining the term as an observable social behavior involving behaviors used with the intent to harm another person who does not want to be harmed (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Bushman & Huesmann, 2010).

### ***Physical Aggression & Symbolic Aggression***

Although the study of aggression has a rich and productive history within the social sciences, the study of aggression within the field of communication studies has been hindered by a lack of a comprehensive and unifying definition for what constitutes aggression within an interpersonal communication context (Infante, 1987). Infante's definition of any interpersonal behavior that applies force, physically and/or symbolically, to minimally dominate or damage or maximally defeat or destroy a locus of attack is still accepted by contemporary scholars. Within this definition, the locus (or the place where the attack is directed) can be directed towards a person's physical body, various material possessions, their personal self-concept, a position(s) on topics of discussion, and/or the targets behavior. Physical aggression involves the use of one's body to apply force, such as forcefully pushing or hitting another person; while symbolic aggression, is defined as the use of words and/or nonverbal gestures.

Symbolic aggression involves the use of threats, directly attacking another persons character or their competence, as well as the use of teasing behaviors, profanity, ridicule, verbally threatening the individual, and the use of offensive nonverbal gestures. For example, an organizational leader wants to pressure an employee into complying with a given request and the employee is, for whatever reason, reluctant to do so. The leader might use physical aggression (e.g., grabbing and/or shaking the employee) or use the threat of physical aggression to soften the employee into complying with the request (e.g., "either comply with my request or I will physically throw you out of my office"). The leader might use symbolic aggression and attack the employee's self-esteem by using profanity or calling the employee hurtful names. The leader may also attempt to get the employee to comply with the request by presenting a threat in some form (e.g., "either comply with my request or your fired !"). Based upon these examples, one might conclude all forms of aggression, both physical and symbolic alike, are antagonistic and destructive in nature; however, this is not the case.

In 1987, Dominic Infante proposed a model that provides a framework for better understanding aggressive communication. This framework classifies the various forms of symbolic aggression an individual may be observed using, and includes aggressive behavior that is defined as being both destructive and constructive in nature. Two forms of symbolic aggression considered constructive are assertiveness and argumentativeness (Infante & Rancer, 1996). Assertiveness is a person's tendency to be interpersonally dominant and forceful; this form of symbolic aggression uses verbal and/or nonverbal cues to exert control over others, obtain justified rewards, while avoiding the violation of others' rights as communicative partners (Rancer, & Avtgis, 2006). Argumentativeness is a person's tendency to openly advocate a position on a given topic/issue and take a stand on that position by openly attacking or contradicting positions others may hold (Rancer & Avtgis, 2006).

### ***Operationalizing Symbolic Aggression***

The two forms of symbolic aggression considered to be destructive are hostility and verbal aggressiveness (Infante & Rancer, 1996; Infante & Wigley, 1986). Hostility is a person's tendency to openly communicate in a way that expresses feelings of irritability, negativity, resentment, and suspicion (Buss & Durkee, 1957; Infante & Rancer, 1996). Hostility is a person's attitude or general dislike of a particular target. The target of hostility can be, a person, object, or issue/topic. This attitude/general dislike is followed by a desire to see the target (i.e., person, object, issue/topic) injured or destroyed (Berkowitz, 1998). The second form of symbolic aggression considered to be destructive in nature is verbal aggressiveness. Verbal aggressiveness is a person's tendency to attack a person's self-concept (i.e., behaviors, abilities, or unique personal characteristics) instead of, or in addition to, the person's position(s) on topics of conversation (Infante & Wigley, 1986). Verbally aggressive messages have been identified as attacking an individual's self-concept, whether that be targeted at an individual's group membership, personal failings, or relational failings. They include: messages that attack

an individual(s) competence, character, the use of threats, maledictions (curses or jinxes), the use of teasing behavior that is intended to be mentally/emotionally hurt a target, the use of profanity, and displaying of certain offensive nonverbal emblems (Infante & Rancer, 1996) (see table 1 for Operationalizations and Examples of the various types of verbally aggressive messages).

Current research investigates verbal messages and nonverbal behaviors within a vacuum; with both traditional as well as contemporary researchers have studied one variable or the other exclusively, while ignoring that the communication process involves the sum total of verbal messages as well as nonverbal behaviors (Berlo, 1960). Investigating verbal messages and nonverbal behaviors provides a partial understanding of how a given message is received, filtered, and understood. Thus, the current dissertation seeks to begin resolving this pitfall by investigating not only the main effects of verbal messages and nonverbal behaviors, but also the joint effects of verbal messages (i.e., symbolic aggression) and nonverbal behaviors (i.e., nonverbal immediacy behaviors) when used concomitantly by a leader.

Contemporary research investigating Verbal Aggression has investigated the way verbally aggressive messages have been used in cyberbullying attacks (Pereira, et al., 2022; Pontiki, et al., 2022; Sharif & Hoque, 2022), within a family context with concern for the influence of, as well as the implications experienced, from aggressive parenting styles on later aggression in children (Chong, et al., 2022; Mehlhausen-Hassoen, 2022), within an organizational context, research has sought to better understand how aggression escalates in severity, as well as various organizational outcomes including, organizational assimilation, motivation, and commitment (Chory, et al., 2020; Potegal, et al., 2022; Sollitto & Cranmer, 2019), the influence of monitoring, evaluating, and managing a person's own emotions through emotional regulation/mindfulness on the likelihood that a person engages in verbally aggressive behavior (Garofalo, et al., 2021; Kim, et al., 2021), as well as research investigating perceptions

**Table 1: Types of Verbally Aggressive Messages**

<b>Term</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Examples</b>
<b>Character Attacks</b>	Attacks on the qualities that make a person distinct from others (Rancer & Avgtis, 2006)	" <i>You're completely useless</i> " or " <i>Unlike everyone else, you're trying to cheat your way out of having to do work</i> "
<b>Competence attacks</b>	Attacks on an individual's cognitive ability to do something (Rancer & Avgtis, 2006)	" <i>You can't do anything right</i> " or " <i>Your incompetence is astounding</i> ".
<b>Threats</b>	Messages of an individual's intention to inflict some form of pain (psychical or psychological in nature), personal injury, or other types of harm on another person (Rancer & Avgtis, 2006)	" <i>If you don't finish the work by my deadline, I'm going to fire you</i> " or " <i>Shut your mouth or I'll shut it for you</i> ".
<b>Use of Profanity</b>	Includes the use of obscene words, epithets (a descriptive term or nickname that becomes part of common usage), and vulgarities (Rancer & Avgtis, 2006)	" <i>Get the hell out of my office</i> ", calling someone a " <i>Son-of-a-bitch</i> ", or use an epithet to refer to someone with a cruel nickname aimed at attacking the person's appearance (e.g., referring to someone who is hairier than an average person as " <i>Hairy Larry</i> " or " <i>Sasquatch</i> "; see Jay, 1992 for a comprehensive list of profane or obscene words and phrases)
<b>Maledictions</b>	Messages intended to wish someone harm (Rancer & Avgtis, 2006)	" <i>Drop dead</i> " or " <i>I hope you cut your finger off while doing that</i> " or " <i>I hope you get an injury that's not covered by Workers Compensation!</i> "
<b>Teasing</b>	Two forms: <i>Affectionate Teasing</i> (i.e., messages reflecting the positive nature/affinity/strength of a relationship) and <i>Aggressive Teasing</i> , messages intended to cause psychological pain and emotional hurt. Often used as a way of expressing discontent/anger regarding a specific relational issue, with an individual or the relationship in general (DiCioccio, 201)	An example of the destructive nature of teasing would be seeing someone say to a person who has poor reading skills: " <i>If you need help reading the memo, maybe you can have a co-worker help you</i> "; this comment would be given with the intention of mocking the individual's poor reading skills in a degrading manner
<b>Emblems (or speech-independent gestures)</b>	Nonverbal behaviors used in place of spoken words (i.e., insulting gestures displayed with the hands and/or body) (Rancer & Avgtis, 2006)	Displaying " <i>The bird</i> " (the middle finger), or making a fist, and shaking it towards someone in an aggressive manner while gritting one's teeth to display anger/aggression

of a communicator who engages in verbal aggression (Richards, et al., 2022), how verbal aggression affects victims/witnesses of verbal aggression (Lin, et al., 2017; Poling & Smith, 2022; Roper, et al., 2017), and how personal characteristics (i.e., personality traits) moderate the likelihood of a person engaging in verbal aggression (Jurado, et al., 2018)

### **Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors**

Our understanding of what immediacy is, as well as the behavioral cues found to share a positive relationship with the affective response (labeled *Immediacy*) has evolved from the work of psychologist Albert Mehrabian (1966). Mehrabian (1966) defines immediacy behaviors (or sometimes referred to as immediacy cues) as behaviors that communicate positive involvement and, as a group of behaviors, communicate interest and liking. These behaviors (or cues) have been shown to communicate perceived involvement, and as a result, decrease both physical and psychological distance. These behaviors have also been shown to increase sensory stimulation in receivers of communications that include immediacy behaviors. Within this definition, involvement is viewed as behavioral participation indicating an individual's engagement in a given interaction. Thus, these interpersonal interactions can be defined in terms of both the degree of interpersonal involvement as well as the amount of positive versus negative affect that is displayed by the communicator(s); immediacy behaviors display high involvement and positive affect (Guerrero, 2017). Although originally conceived by Mehrabian, much of the research and theory-building has largely come from the desks of communication scholars such as Peter Andersen, Janis Andersen, Virginia Richmond, and James McCroskey (Infante, et al., 2009).

According to Andersen et al. (1979), the behavioral cues associated with feelings of immediacy and psychological closeness include: eye contact and gazing behaviors, positive facial expressions, increase in gestures, relaxed body position, purposeful body movements, the

orientation of the body and head toward the interactant(s), vocal expressiveness, the use of touch, and the reduction of proxemic distances.

### ***Operationalizing Kinesic Codes***

Kinesic codes include body, eye, and face behavior. (Guerrero & Hecht, 2008); nonverbal immediacy behaviors related to the kinesic-code cluster involve: eye contact and gazing behaviors, positive facial expressions, increases in gestures, relaxed body position, purposeful body movements, and orientating one's body and head towards interactant(s) (see Table 2 for Operationalizations and Examples of each Kinesic Code).

Eye contact (or interocular contact) represents the first step in the interpersonal interaction's engagement. This step initiates a series of actions that develop and define the relationship between the communicative partners (Grumet, 2008). Eye contact or gazing behaviors (Argyle & Dean, 1965; Beier & Sternberg, 1977; Exline, 1963; Goldberg, et al., 1969) involve making eye contact with the person(s) involved in the communicative interaction, as well as directing your gaze towards a physical object that is of focal interest regarding the communicative interaction (Richmond et al., 2003).

Another form of kinesic code, includes positive facial expressions, primarily smiling behaviors (Beier & Sternberg, 1977; Rosenfeld, 1966a), and are some of the most common nonverbal behaviors used within day-to-day communication among humans (Kraut & Johnston, 2008). As a result, facial expressions can provide more information about emotions than any other nonverbal behavioral cue. Positive facial expressions, including smiling, serve to display approval as well as induce approving responses from those with whom one is communicating (Rosenfeld, 1966a).

**Table 2: Operationalization and Examples of Kinesic Codes**

<b>Kinesic Code</b>	<b>Operationalization (example scale items)</b>	<b>Examples</b>
<b>Eye Contact (Interocular Contact)</b>	<p>“This person engages in more eye contact with me than most other people” (Andersen, et al., 1979, p. 174)</p> <p>“This person looks directly at people while talking to them” (Richmond, et al., 2003, p. 509)</p>	Maintaining eye contact with someone to show interest. If someone were showing a person (a listener) something pertaining to the conversation (i.e., a document, or an object) the listener may divert their gaze to the object to show further interest and involvement.
<b>Positive facial expression (primarily: smiling behaviors)</b>	<p>“This person smiles more than most other people” (Andersen, et al., 1979, pp. 174 &amp; 175)</p> <p>“This person smiles when he/she talks to people” (Richmond, et al., 2003, p. 509)</p>	Smiling at a person while talking to them to express feelings of reassurance or appeasement in order to maintain a friendly relationship
<b>Increases in gestures</b>	<p>“This person gestures more than most other people” (Andersen, et al., 1979, p. 174 &amp; 175)</p> <p>“This person uses their hands and arms to gesture while talking to people” (Richmond, et al., 2003, p. 509)</p>	Holding up a number of fingers to add nonverbal information to accompany a message expressing a numerical value
<b>Relaxed body position</b>	<p>“This person has a more relaxed body position than most other people” (Andersen, et al., 1979, p. 174)</p> <p>“This person has a relaxed body position when he/she talks to people” (Richmond, et al., 2003, p. 509)</p>	Using a relaxed body position while sitting behind a desk or maintaining relaxed hand/arm position at their side (warm/open body position) rather than crossed in front of the chest (closed/cold body position)

*Table 2 Continued*

Kinesic Code	Operationalization (example scale items)	Examples
<b>Purposeful body movements</b>	<p>“This person engages in more movement than most other people” (Andersen, et al., 1979, p. 174 &amp; 175)</p> <p>Richmond, et al. (2003) did not add a purposeful body movement dimension into their contemporary immediacy scale</p>	<p>Making eye contact, raising eyebrows, smiling and using hand gestures to indicate interest in initiating a conversation when seeing someone.</p>
<b>Orientation of the body and head</b>	<p>The way Andersen, et al. (1979) operationalize body/head orientation is as: “this person directs his/her body position more toward me than most other people usually do” (Andersen, et al., 1979, p. 174)</p> <p>Richmond, et al. (2003) did not include items concerning the orientation of the body and head into their contemporary immediacy scale</p>	<p>Orienting the head and body (typically by turning the shoulders and legs) toward someone to indicate an openness to communicate</p>

Increases in gestures (Ekman, 1965a; Mehrabian & Williams, 1969; Rosenfeld, 1966a, 1966b), represent those behaviors that include animating the hands and arms to better communicate how a given message should be received, filtered, and interpreted (Richmond et al., 2003) in addition to indicating the intensity of affect being communicated (Ekman, 1965a).

Relaxed body position (Mehrabian, 1968, 1970) is characterized as an individual who displays a comfortable body position and avoids displaying a stiff/rigid body position while communicating (Richmond et al., 2003).

Purposeful body movements (Ekman, 1965a) involves the use of the body to communicate affect, changes in the quality of the interpersonal relationship (Ekman, 1965b), changes in the conversation (Ekman, 1964), and whether the communicative partner understand the message being communicated (Mahl et al., 1959). They include purposefully using various body gestures to better communicate how a given message should be received, filtered, and interpreted.

Orienting one's body and head toward the interactant(s) (Beier & Sternberg, 1977; Mehrabian, 1968, 1969) involves "the degree to which a communicator's shoulders and legs are turned in the direction of, rather than away from, [a target for interaction]" (Mehrabian, 1969, p. 366).

### ***Operationalizing Vocalics***

The second cluster, vocalics, includes both sound and silence. Vocalics involve vocal change or variety, such as pitch, speech rate, pausing, and volume (Guerrero & Hecht, 2008) and involve not what is said within a given message, but how that message is said/delivered vocally (see Table 3 for Operationalizations and Examples for Vocalics).

**Table 3: Operationalization and Examples for Vocalics**

<b>Vocalics (Paralanguage)</b>	<b>Operationalization (example scale items)</b>	<b>Contextual Example</b>
	<p>“This person is more vocally expressive than most other people” (Andersen, et al., 1979, p. 174 &amp; 175)</p> <p>“This person uses a variety of vocal expressions when he/she talks to people” (Richmond, et al., 2003, p. 509)</p>	<p>Using an expressive combination of pitch, speech rate, and volume to communicate a message that is both appropriate to the contextual elements present as well as communicates the way a given message is to be received, filtered, and understood by the recipient(s)</p>

### ***Operationalizing Contact Codes***

The third, and final cluster of immediacy behaviors are referred to as “contact codes”—the use of touch and the reduction of proxemic distances (Guerrero & Hecht, 2008) (see Table 4 for Operationalizations and Examples of each Contact Code). The use of touch (Andersen & Leibowitz, 1978; Beier & Sternberg, 1977; Jourard & Friedman, 1970) is also referred to as haptics (the study of touching behaviors) or tactile communication (Guerrero & Hecht, 2008). Considered a basic and fundamental form of human interaction (Andersen & Leibowitz, 1978; Guerrero & Hecht, 2008), touching behaviors involve the use of physical contact with an interactant(s); typically, on the shoulder or arm while talking (Richmond, et al., 2003). Touch has been found to serve as a powerful channel of communicating because touch is commonly associated with sexual interest, emotional intimacy, and aggression (Guerrero & Hecht, 2008).

In recent years the positive nature of touching behaviors has been curtailed because of concerns about sexual harassment in the workplace; especially for male leaders with female employees. The deleterious effects of touching behaviors as sexual harassment can be seen when these behaviors are interpreted, not as sincere behaviors intended to induce feelings of immediacy, but as behaviors that interfere with an individual’s work performance, or creates an intimidating, offensive, or even hostile work environment (Silito Walker & Bonner, 2022; Willness, Steel & Lee, 2007).

The second “contact code” is the reduction of proxemic distances (Argyle & Dean, 1965; Beier & Sternberg, 1977; Sommer, 1967). Proxemic distance is concerned with how individuals perceive and use physical space. The study of proxemic distance includes the organization of physical space, the use and defense of territory, and the maintenance/altering of distance between and among people (Guerrero & Hecht, 2008).

**Table 4: Operationalization and Examples for each Contact Code**

<b>Contact Codes</b>	<b>Operationalization (example scale items)</b>	<b>Contextual Example</b>
<b>Use of touch (Haptics)</b>	<p>“This person touches me more than most other people” (Andersen, et al., 1979, p. 174)</p> <p>“This person touches others on the shoulder or arm while talking to them” (Richmond, et al., 2003, p. 509).</p>	Patting someone on the upper shoulder as a means of communicating admiration/respect
<b>Reduction of proxemic distance</b>	<p>“This person seemed less distant from me than most other people” (Andersen, et al., 1979, p. 174 &amp; 175)</p> <p>“This person moves closer to people when they are talking to them” (Richmond, et al., 2003, p. 509)</p>	Leaning closer or farther away from someone to create a proxemic distance that is comfortable for both people

Mehrabian (1971) forwarded the principle of immediacy, concluding that feelings of immediacy (the emotional response) are the manifestation of internal feelings of warmth, closeness, liking and positive regard. As a complement to Mehrabian's (1971) principle, Richmond and McCroskey (2000a; 2000b) advanced the "principle of immediate communication," forwarding that the more an individual communicates using the behavioral cues associated with immediacy, the more others like, evaluate highly, and prefer them; the less an individual communicates with the behavioral cues associated with immediacy, the more others dislike, and negatively evaluate, the person.

Traditionally, the study of nonverbal immediacy has largely been dominated with research investigating the effects of immediacy behaviors within the classroom setting. This theme continues today with contemporary research predominantly investigating how an instructor/teacher's use of immediacy behaviors influence various classroom outcomes. These outcomes include overall teaching effectiveness (Babad, et al., 2021; Meiners, 2018; Paul, et al., 2019), student cognitive learning (Paul et al., 2019; Violanti et al., 2018), student engagement within an online academic setting (Dixson, et al., 2017), student perceptions of classroom goal structure (i.e., mastery goal vs. avoidance goal, vs extrinsic goal structures) (Lacsonelli & Anderman, 2021), student evaluation of teaching success (Neyernia, et al., 2020), perceived instructor credibility (Zhu & Anagondahalli, 2018), perceived instructor clarity (Violanti et al., 2018), student affective outcomes (Paul et al., 2019), and students willingness to communicate (Sheybani, 2019). Other research conducted within the classroom setting concerning immediacy behaviors, has examined how participant demographic and teaching responsibilities varied their use of immediacy behaviors (Roseth, 2020), and exploring how and why nonverbal immediacy has consistently been positively associated with learning outcomes (Frymier, et al., 2019).

Although research investigating immediacy behaviors has been far more prevalent within the classroom setting, there have been recent studies investigating these behaviors in other contexts. Within the context of the workplace, immediacy behaviors have been investigated to better understand how these behaviors influence such outcomes as employee emotional experiences and employee motivation to communicate with a supervisor (Jia, et al., 2017) and how a leader's use of specific hand gestures (i.e., positive hand gestures) influences the affective response labeled "immediacy" is experienced by follower (Talley & Temple, 2018). Other research, outside of the classroom setting, has investigated how gender influences participants' decisions to engage in specific verbal/nonverbal immediacy behaviors, as well as how gender norms influence how receivers perceive communicators who engage in verbal/nonverbal immediacy behaviors (Cummings, & Terrion, 2021; Romaniuk, & Teran, 2022). Within the health care setting, scholarship has investigated how a physician's use of immediacy behaviors positively influence physician liking, motivation to follow through with medical advice provided by the physician, and patient information recall (Hildenbrand, 2022).

### **Family Communication Patterns**

The study of family communication patterns is perhaps the most influential approach to understanding the interaction between an individual in a position of authority (a parent) and an individual in a far more junior or subordinate position (a child) (see Caughlin, et al., 2011). Study of family communication patterns has helped scholars investigate how communicatively driven interactions within a given system influence the development of a an individual who is in a junior/subordinate position (a child's) perceive experienced reality and how this reality subsequently contributes towards how the individual is socialized (McLeod and Chaffee, 1972). Originally proposed as a way to understand how families process mass media content (McLeod & Chaffee, 1972), the study of family communication patterns has focused on how the communication between members of a family system influences a shared social reality and was

not specifically concerned with the communicative behaviors engaged in by family members themselves (Koerner & Schodt, 2014). Mcleod and Chaffee (1972) suggested that this communicative environment can take the form of one of two dimensions, either an environment oriented towards maintaining a harmonious relationship with the parents (socio-orientation) or an environment orientated in a way that cultivates openness towards the expression of ideas and active engagement in debate (concept-orientation). From this initial understanding, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2006) further developed these dimensions into similar communication orientations known as: conversation orientation and conformity orientation.

### ***Conceptualizations & Operationalizations***

Mcleod and Chaffee's (1972) understanding of the two communicative dimensions that members of a given social system can find themselves oriented towards, are similar to that of Koerner and Fitzpatrick's (2006) dimensions of communication orientation; in that, a social system can either be oriented towards compliance and submission or openness and acceptance. According to Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2006), a family system characterized by the *conversation orientation*, encourages and allows members in a position of subordination, to share thoughts, feelings, and opinions in an attempt to understand different views concerning a topic of conversation (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002, 2006; Ritchie, 1991).

Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2006) conceptualize conversation orientation as the degree to which members of a defined system interact in a climate where all members of the system are encouraged to participate in unrestrained discussions regarding a wide range in topics. In further understanding family communication patterns, family systems can range from high to low on both orientations. In a family system characterized by a high-conversation orientation, authority figures within the social system see frequent communication with the individuals within subordinate positions as the main means to socialize them. Conversely, in low-conversation-

oriented systems, there is much less communication regarding topics pertaining to private thoughts, feelings, and individual/group activities (Jones, et al., 2017).

Family systems characterized by the *conformity orientation*, reflect an emphasis on the influence individuals holding a position of authority (i.e., parents or leaders of an organization) have toward an environment defined as homogenous concerning attitudes, beliefs, and values (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002, 2006; Ritchie, 1991). Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) conceptualize conformity orientation as the degree to which members of a defined system foster a climate of attitudes, values, and beliefs homogeneity. Within their scale, Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) operationalize conformity orientation as: “my parents often say something like ‘my ideas are right and you should not question them,’” “my parents sometimes become irritated with my views if they are different from theirs,” and “in our home, my parents usually have the last word” (see Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990 p. 526 for all items) Just as with conversation orientation, family systems can range from high to low on the conformity orientation dimension. High -conformity-oriented social systems are characterized by interactions that emphasize uniformity towards beliefs and attitudes. Within these social systems, authority figures are expected by the collective to make decisions on behalf of the whole system, and the individuals who are in subordinate positions are expected to act according to their authority figures’ wishes. Within these systems described as high-conformity-orientation, interactions between members typically focus on obedience, coherence, conflict avoidance, and family members’ interdependence. Social systems described as being low-conformity-oriented are typically characterized by heterogeneous attitudes and beliefs, as well as the individuality and independence of members (Jones, et al., 2017).

### ***Contemporary Investigation***

Contemporary scholarship investigating family communication patterns has, to no surprise, exclusively investigated family communication patterns within a variety of family

contexts, including family identity, relational satisfaction and family strength/resilience (Dorrance Hall & McNallie, 2016; Leustek & Theiss, 2020; Miczo, et al., 2021; Pflieger, et al., 2020; Romadhana, et al., 2021; Schrodt & Scruggs, 2021; Szkody & McKinney, 2021; Thompson & Schrodt, 2015), students transitioning to college (Dorrance Hall, 2020; Dorrance Hall, 2021; Dorrance Hall & Scharp, 2018; Dorrance Hall & Scharp, 2021; Ledbetter, 2019), family communication as it relates to issues/topics related to health (nutritional/physical/mental wellbeing) (Aubel, et al., 2021; Bevan et al., 2021; Chen, et al., 2020; Crowley & Miller, 2020; Dorrance Hall, et al., 2021; Dwyer & Hesse-Biber, 2020; Fisher, et al., 2016; Haverfield, 2016; Hays, et al., 2017; Hovick, et al., 2021; Rauscher, et al., 2015; Rauscher, et al., 2020; Schrodt, 2020; Schrodt, 2021; Thomas & Hovick, 2021), family conflict and verbal aggression/argumentativeness (Erdoğan, 2021; Hesse, et al., 2016; Johnson, et al., 2021; Ledbetter, 2019; Meter, et al., 2021; Neuhaus, et al., 2021; Paskewitz & Beck, 2017), family adoptions/foster care (Hostman, et al., 2016; Nelson & Colaner, 2020), intergenerational family communication (i.e., grandparent/grandchild communication) (Gettings & McNallie, 2021; Rauscher, et al., 2020), as well as family political communication (Graham, 2020; Scruggs & Schrodt, 2021).

### ***Family Communication Patterns within an Organizational Context***

Although the introduction of studying the communication patterns of families was created to guide family system studies, organizational systems share similar characteristics. According to Solomon and Theiss (2013) a family can be defined as, “a network of people who... share a collective identity, experience a common history, and envision a similar future” (p. 296). Much like a family, an organization can be generally defined in a very similar way—an organization is a network of people who share a collective identity and history, and who envision similar futures for both themselves as well as the organization as a whole. Additionally, both family and organization members participate in a socialization process that teaches members appropriate,

and expected, behaviors and social practices (see: Solomon & Theiss 2013; Lundberg & Young, 1997). A final area of comparison is the way authority is dispersed. Within both families and organizations, there is an established hierarchy. Within a family context, parents are the authority figures over children (subordinate to parents); within an organization context, leaders/supervisors hold a higher degree of authority over employees (subordinate to leaders/supervisors).

### **Social Support**

Widely studied across the social sciences, social support has been recognized as playing an important role in promoting both the wellbeing of interpersonal relationships as-well-as, psychological and physical health (Burlison, et al., 1994; Kim, 2014). Simply stated, social support consists of resources given with the intent to help someone (Hobfoll, 2002; Schwarzer & Knoll, 2010). A general, but more detailed, definition states that social support is the perceived or realized experience of being loved or cared for by others, the act of being respected, and appreciated, and as being a part of a social network, defined by mutual assistance and obligation (Wills, 1991). Social support involves understanding that the perceived resources associated with the support sought hold a realized availability to the individual seeking the support, should they be needed; these resources must be beneficial to the individual who seeks them (Taylor, 2010). Thus, social support involves *both*, the potential resources available from an individual (perceived support) as well as, the actual support one receives (received support) (Uchino, 2009).

### ***Conceptualizations & Operationalizations***

The earliest work on “social support” started to appear near the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, when English and French demographers started to find statistical evidence suggesting that marriage was a health-promoting institution (Farr, 1885, as cited in Farr, 1975). Since this time,

communication quickly came to the forefront of academic investigation of social support and the role of communication started playing a much more central role in understanding social support overall (MacGeorge, et al., 2011). To this, MacGeorge, et al. (2011) defined social support as an individual's use of verbal and nonverbal behaviors with the intention to use said behaviors to aid another who is perceived as needing aid. Another similar definition of social support, provided by Albrecht and Adelman (1987) states that social support as an individual's use of verbal and nonverbal behaviors with the intention of aiding a recipient with reducing their uncertainty concerning a situation, the self, others individuals, or a relationship (either with the communicator or another individual). Albrecht and Adelman (1987) go on to state that this communicated aid functions in a way that enhances the individual in need of the verbal and nonverbal support to obtain more control over an experience or situation. Verbal and nonverbal social support behaviors come from a variety of sources and in a variety of forms (Mongeau, et al., 2019). These sources can take the form of family, friends, or in the case of the current dissertation, co-workers (Allen, 2003). Thus, scholarship investigating social support as a communication phenomenon involves the study of the dynamic and communicative interactions through which individuals both provide and receive social support messages.

Social support is typically measured within academic research as either structural social support or functional social support (Thoits, 1995). *Structural support* relates to the various social networks and relationships one can hold, and its measurement involves the number of social relationships a person has as well as their interconnectedness, which is referred to as social integration, or the measurement of how socially integrated an individual is. *Functional support* relates to the resources available from various social networks and relationships one can hold, and its measurement involves the specific functions social support can serve (Taylor, 2010). Functional support may include *informational support*, *instrumental support* (sometimes referred to as tangible support), *network support*, and *emotional support* (see: Cutrona, 1996;

Cutrona & Russel, 1990; Cutrona & Suhr, 1992; Gist-Mackey & Guy, 2019; Gielen, et al., 2001; Parsons, 2019; Xu & Burleson, 2001).

Emotional support involves expressing warmth or nurturance toward another person and reassuring the person who is a valuable individual for whom others care (Taylor, 2010).

Expressing emotional support may take the form of: physical affection, which may be as simple as patting a co-worker on the back or shoulder, or an embraced hug; encouragement, which may involve communicating support, confidence, or hope; prayer, which may include the act of supplication or intercession directed towards a figure or object defined as a deity (a god or even a deified ancestor) and/or empathy, which may involve the act of communicating felt understanding or compassion. (Parsons, 2019).

### ***Contemporary Investigations***

Contemporary research investigating the various forms emotional support can take, has investigated the way social support messages affect the relationship between variables related to the health outcomes of individuals; as it relates to both physical/mental health outcomes (Ashwal-Malka, et al., 2022; Atwood, et al., 2018; Chang et al., 2022; Magsamen-Conrad, et al., 2019; Parsons, 2019; Robinson, et al., 2019; Ure, Galpin, et al., 2019; Yang & D'Arcy, 2022; Yu, et al., 2022), mental health outcomes of care givers (del-Pino-Casado, et al., 2022; Wang, et al., 2022), and how social support is communicated as well as its outcomes within online support groups (Larranaga, et al., 2018; Lee, & Cho, 2019; McAninch, et al., 2018; Youngvorst, & High, 2018), with other studies investigating the role of social support messages in the context of intercultural adjustment (Cheng, et al., 2018; Ki, & Jang, 2018) as well as better understanding person-centeredness (Cannava, et al., 2018; Jones, et al., 2018).

Much like the study of family communication patterns, this exclusivity towards investigating social support within such a limited context has hindered scholarship development investigating the value and possible positive outcomes social support holds for various contexts

and communicative situations. Thus, one intention of the current dissertation is to expand upon the social support construct by investigating it within a context outside the pre-existing literature by exploring the impact of emotional social support within the organizational context.

## **Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction has been among one of the most frequently studied topics within organizational behavioral research for the last 100 years (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Judge, et al., 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990; Spector, 1997; Rafferty & Griffin, 2009). Interest in job satisfaction stemmed from a series of studies performed by Elton Mayo and his research team at the Hawthorne branch of the Western Electric Company during the 1920s. A professor at Harvard Business School, Mayo and his team conducted a series of six studies investigating how work conditions affected productivity and employee behavior; these studies are now affectionately referred to as the Hawthorne Studies (Bolman & Deal, 2017; Judge, et al., 2001). The Hawthorne studies served as a catalyst toward refocusing managerial strategy to incorporate more socio-psychological aspects of human behavior into an organization's approach towards employee management. Since this time, interest in job satisfaction has only grown for both researchers and practitioners. Almost 45 years ago, Edwin Locke (1976) estimated that more than 3,350 articles and dissertations had been published on job satisfaction; in 1998, Arthur Brief estimated that, by the early 1990s, that number had jumped to more than 12,400 published research articles and dissertations.

This interest is not necessarily altruistic in nature; both survey and experimental studies have shown that more satisfied employees are more productive and engaged (e.g., Bockerman & Ilmakunnas, 2012; Oswald, et al., 2015; Imran, et al., 2015; Wen, et al., 2019). Because work is a fundamental part of many people's lives, the interest in better understanding the impact of one's job satisfaction goes beyond that of researchers and employers. From a public policy

standpoint, job satisfaction is seen as an integral part of better understanding the overall life satisfaction and well-being of a community (Tait, et al., 1989; Judge & Watanabe, 1993).

### ***Conceptualizations & Operationalizations***

Often synonymously used along-side discussions regarding morale and job attitudes, job satisfaction has been defined in a variety of ways; but is generally considered to be an individual's perceptual and emotional reaction to various facets of the workplace (Vroom, 1964); meaning that, job satisfaction is generally considered an affective response to organizational stimuli. For example, Smith, et al. (1969) defined job satisfaction as an emotional response or a feeling one experiences from facets of a given workplace situation; Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as a pleasing/positive emotional state experienced from a positive appraisal of a job or job experience; Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as simply the liking or disliking of a job. Consistent with these definitions, this study seeks to better understand job satisfaction as a general attitude formed from both individual affective responses as well as the various contextual variables one can encounter in an organizational context.

### ***Contemporary Investigation***

Like past research, understanding the antecedents and outcomes of job satisfaction remains prevalent. Contemporary research has investigated job satisfaction within the medical field – with many articles specifically investigating those in nursing (Alenazy, et al., 2021; Blanco-Donoso, et al., 2022; Bloemhof, et al., 2021; Failla, et al., 2021; Lapedis, et al., 2021; Norful, et al., 2021; Park, 2021; Zhang, et al., 2021; Zhao, et al., 2021); academia/education and how teachers'/professors' job satisfaction influences as well as is influenced by different variables (Ghasemy, et al., 2021; Kirksey, 2022; Lee, 2021; Newton, et al., 2021; Reeves, et al., 2022; Wang, & Yao, 2021; Yoo & Kim, 2022; Zayim Kurtay & Kondakci, 2021), as a means of understanding relevant factors regarding the job satisfaction of professional interpreters

(Courtney, & Phelan, 2019; Lee, 2017); the impact on job satisfaction with newsroom workers/reporters/journalists (Liu, & Lo, 2018; Liu, et al., 2018; Lucht, 2015, 2016; Ternes, et al., 2018; Wajid, & Hassan, 2016); the influence of computer-mediated forms of communication (including telework) on job satisfaction and computer-based technology's (i.e., simulations) ability to assess job satisfaction (Braun, et al., 2019; Czakert, et al., 2021; Krishnamurthy, et al., 2021; MacNaughton, & Cockerill, 2021; Sousa-Uva, et al., 2021); personality traits research (Vergauwe, et al., 2022); as well as various organizational components as it relates to employee job satisfaction, including cultural influences (Raina, & Roebuck, 2016), supervisor-subordinate communication competence (Steele, & Plenty, 2015), various forms of received/perceived support (i.e., emotional/social in nature) (Cranmer, et al., 2017; Sokro, et al., 2021), workplace solidarity (Kelly, & MacDonald, 2019; MacDonald, et al., 2019; Parida, et al., 2021), and motivational language (Mayfield, & Mayfield, 2019)..

Participative practices/workplace engagement (Atouba, et al., 2019; Mazzetti, et al., 2021) include the agreement/disagreement towards leadership communication (Erben, et al., 2019) and customer satisfaction and re-patronage intentions (Wolter, et al., 2019).

### **Affective Commitment**

An employee's commitment to a particular organization is of interest to both behavioral scientists and practitioners alike (Mowday, et al., 1982) by providing a greater understanding of the processes related to the commitment one feels towards an organization as well as the implications such commitment holds for employees, organizations, and society as a whole. At the employee level, a member committed to their place of employment may be more open to receiving both extrinsic, as well as, psychological rewards associated with their commitment. The extrinsic rewards may be higher wages, or some form of benefit associated with the commitment itself. The psychological rewards may come in the form of intrinsic job satisfaction or positive co-worker relationships. The implications for organizations come in the form

of, committed employees' reduced withdrawal behaviors as well as increased "extra-role" behaviors, such as creativity and innovativeness; these behaviors have been found to make an organization competitive in a market (Katz & Kahn, 1978). At the cultural level, society benefits from a workforce committed to their organizations by positively influencing rates of job movement (i.e., unemployment rates) as well as national productivity/work quality in a population (Mowday, et al., 1982). Because of its large impact at the individual, organizational, and societal level, the topic of organizational commitment has grown in popularity across the fields of industrial/organizational psychology and organization behavioral research, receiving attention as both an antecedent as well as an outcome (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

### ***Conceptualizations & Operationalizations***

Over the years, organizational commitment has been defined and measured in several different ways, and while differences exist, the various conceptual and operational definitions all share a common theme: a bond an individual forms with a particular organization (Klein & Park, 2015; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The definitions differ, however, in the way this bond develops. Classic attempts to explain how one's bond with an organization develops have been attitudinal (Mowday, et al., 1979; Porter, et al., 1974), calculated (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972), normative (Wiener, 1982), and organizational identification (Hall, et al., 1970).

Because of a lack of consensus regarding organizational commitment's conceptual definition, combined with issues of measurement that did not always correspond with the definition being applied, Meyer and Allen (1991) set out to provide a model of commitment that served to both, aid scholars in interpreting previous research as well as producing a unifying framework for future research. Although classic definitions regarding commitment varied, they generally reflected three common themes: *perceived costs*, *obligation*, and *affective attachment*. From this early work, Meyer and Allen (1991) developed a three-component model of

organizational commitment that consisted of Continuance, Normative commitment, and Affective commitment.

*Continuance* refers to the costs an individual associates with leaving the organization. Employees with a strong continuance commitment remain with an organization because they feel a *need* to do so. *Normative* commitment refers to the emotions an individual may feel towards staying with an organization. Employees with a high level of normative commitment remain with an organization because they believe they *ought* to do so. *Affective* commitment refers to an emotional attachment an individual has with an organization; employees with strong affective commitment continue working for the organization because they *want* to. Affective commitment is the form of organizational commitment of interest to the current dissertation.

Early definitions of affective attachment or affective commitment suggested that organizational commitment was emotionally driven (see: Buchanan, 1974; Kanter, 1968). According to Meyer and Allen (1991), the affective component of organizational commitment should be thought of as an emotional attachment, identification, and involvement in an organization.

### ***Contemporary Investigation***

Contemporary research investigating Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three-component model of commitment has been scant over the last 10 years. Contemporary scholarship has focused on: assessing the psychometric properties of Allen and Meyer's (1991) organizational commitment scale (Ajmal, et al., 2021), investigating affective commitment as an individual variable within the instructional context concerning public/private school teachers (Frisby, et al., 2015; Khan, 2015); and in an organizational context, as an antecedent variable (Al Zefeiti, & Mohamad, 2017; Dhurup, et al., 2016; Duarte, 2015; Schraggeová & Stupková, 2021), outcome variable (Chan, et al., 2015; Pinho, 2020; Snyder, & Cistulli, 2011), a correlate with other variables (Dinç, 2015), and as a mediating variable (Suk Bong, et al., 2015).

## **On-the-Job Behaviors**

### ***Conceptualizations & Operationalizations***

On-the-job behaviors can be defined in a multitude of ways, from positive behaviors (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors such as voluntarily committing oneself to an organization by going above-and-beyond what is contractually required of an employee) (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Jahangir, et al., 2004, Organ, 1988) to negative behaviors (e.g., counterproductive/deviant work behaviors such as destruction of property, unsafe behaviors, alcohol/drug use, and inappropriate verbal/physical action) (Bennet & Robinson, 2000; Cropanzano, et al., 1997; Marcus, et al., 2016; Spector, et al., 2006). For the current dissertation, on-the-job behaviors are defined as the positive engagement as well as negative disengagement behaviors, applicable across occupations, that hold implications for an organization's productivity.

Lehman and Simpson's (1992) typology of on-the-job behaviors combined previously developed typologies of employee behaviors as responses to job dis-satisfaction (Hirschman, 1970). One typology outlining organizational withdrawal and job adaptation behaviors describes the process by which dissatisfied employees choose specific behaviors that are either withdrawing or adaptive in nature (Lehman & Simpson, 1992). From this, Lehman and Simpson (1992) outlined a typology, which suggests that on-the-job behaviors consist of positive work behaviors, psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors. On-the-job behaviors differ from other typologies regarding negative workplace behaviors, by going beyond more commonly measured constructs relating to negative organizational outcomes, such as absenteeism, turnover, and accidents, to encompass a wide range of daily behaviors that directly influence employee productivity and morale (Lehman & Simpson, 1992). Unlike other typologies, this one does not suggest that harm-doing is

intentional. For example, in other typologies, such as “counterproductive behaviors” or “deviance”, negative work behavior is defined by an intention towards committing a harmful act that can be defined as an observable behavior; rather than non-observable antecedents, such as the *intention* to create harm, or other explanatory constructs such as social norms (as is the case in deviance behaviors) (Marcus, et al., 2016).

On-the-job behaviors are neither inherently observable nor intentionally harmful to an organization. Among these behaviors are positive work behaviors, psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors. Positive work behaviors consist of volunteering for extra work, being polite/considerate towards others, as well as, generally being timely (Cropanzano, et al., 1997). An example of positive work behaviors may be in observing an employee doing more work than required, volunteering to work overtime, or trying to think of ways to do their job better. Psychological withdrawal behaviors are when an individual disengages from the work environment; the individual may physically be present at the organization, but mentally they are not. Psychological withdrawal behaviors may come in the form of chatting with co-workers about non-work-related topics, fantasizing about being physically absent, or daydreaming about topics unrelated to the workplace. Physical withdrawal behavior is when an individual disengages by leaving work early without permission and taking longer lunch or rest breaks than allowed. Antagonistic work behaviors involve negative, antisocial behaviors involving dislike, contentiousness, or, in some cases, insubordination. Antagonistic behaviors may involve such behavior as arguing with co-workers or a supervisor or gossiping (Lehman & Simpson, 1992)

### ***Contemporary Investigation***

Contemporary research investigating on-the-job behaviors is scant at best; two foundational studies serve as the groundwork towards developing the on-the-job behaviors typologies (i.e., Hirschman, 1970). Although a quick search uncovers roughly 450 articles that

cite Lehman and Simpson's (1992) foundational study, these studies investigate correlates of on-the-job behaviors and not the construct itself (e.g., Bennett, & Robinson, 2000; Berry, et al., 2007; Dalal, 2005; Judge, & Bono, 2001; Podsakoff, et al. 2007). For example, many articles investigated job performance, workplace deviance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work behavior & workplace deviance behaviors; these behaviors are different from those developed by Lehman and Simpson (1992) in very distinct ways (i.e., these behaviors are non-communicative in nature). The current dissertation serves to further provide empirical evidence towards a more focused understanding of the on-the-job behaviors construct itself, as well as its measurement.

## **Participatory Behaviors**

### ***Complexities/Inconsistencies & Contemporary Investigation***

Participation is a complex phenomenon (Sirianni, 1987) with little consistency concerning conceptual clarity (Cahill, 1998; Cegala, et al., 1995). The research investigating participation behaviors is predominantly found in the health communication literature, stating that these behaviors have a positive influence on patient health outcomes related to understanding and retaining information about a prescribed treatment as well as a positive influence on treatment adherence. Patient participation is increasingly recognized as a key component in the redesign of healthcare processes and is advocated towards the improvement of patient safety (Longtin, et al., 2010). Keeping these benefits in mind, it seems fruitful to investigate participatory behaviors within the organizational context.

The literature investigating organizational communication has conceptually as well as operationally thought of both employee perceptual/behavioral outcomes in terms of a "reaction to", rather than "the active engagement in" the workplace. Employees who are actively engaged in their respective organizations are more likely to engage in positive organizational behavior. In

fact, participation has been widely commended as being beneficial for both employees and organizations alike (Karpin, 1995; As cited in Connell, 1998). From a human relations perspective, within the study of organizational communication, participation is “the involvement of subordinates in a task” (Hill, 1971, p. 64). Similar in these approaches is the act of participation as collaborative in nature, as opposed to individuals active engage in. Lacking in these definitions, as well as in investigations concerning participation within an organizational context, is investigating participatory behaviors as being an active engagement in communicative behaviors. To add to a lack of research and fill this gap in scholarship, the current dissertation seeks to develop a working scale that measures the communicative nature of organizational participatory behaviors. To accomplish this, the current dissertation utilizes Dillon’s (2012) operationalization describing patients’ communicative behaviors while participating in medical consultations. According to Dillon (2012), behaviors associated with a communicative nature toward participation encompass four categories of behaviors (i.e., information seeking, information provision, assertive utterances, and expressing concern). *Information seeking* involves an individual's active engagement towards gaining new knowledge by asking questions or verifying accuracy. This form of participation behavior may be observed as an employee feeling comfortable in openly, and without hesitation, asking questions about work related topics. *Information provision* includes actively engaging in answering unsolicited questions honestly and completely. Operationally, this is an employee’s general tendency to provide information about work related topics, even if it is not asked for. *Assertive utterances* are an individual’s tendency to provide their opinions and preferences actively and openly about various topics/decisions through expressing opinions, stating preferences, and issuing requests. An example of assertive utterances within an organizational context may come in the form of observing an employee expressing their opinions about work-related topics, often and without hesitation. *Expressing concerns* addresses actively communicating emotions and/or

acknowledging one's personal emotional state. This form of participation behavior is an employee's openness to regularly express their personal emotional state about work-related topics. It should be noted that: within the current study, during the development of the scale to measure workplace participatory behaviors, the assertive utterance items as well as the expressing concern items loaded onto the same factor – this factor was named “assertive expressions”

Additionally, the literature investigating organizational communication has conceptually, as well as operationally, thought of both employee perceptual/behavioral outcomes in terms of a *reaction to*, rather than *the active engagement in* the workplace. This notion is reflected in the gap present in research investigating the active communicative engagement within the organizational context. To date, there does not exist a validated scale to quantitatively measure active communicative engagement, or participatory behaviors, within an organizational context, a gap this project sought to fill.

## **CHAPTER 3: PILOT STUDY**

The pilot study was designed to accomplish two purposes. The first purpose was to validate a set of videos that would represent the three experimental conditions in the main study. These videos represented a boss who was using a combination representing presence and absence of nonverbal immediacy behaviors and verbally aggressive messages. The secondary purpose was to develop and conduct initial testing on a scale designed to measure workplace participatory behaviors.

### **Participants**

The current pilot study was conducted in two parts utilizing the same participants. The first part served to create and validate the video conditions that would later be used as the experimental conditions for the experiment (Part I); the second part of the pilot study served to validate a scale that, to date, does not have a validated means of quantitative measurement (Workplace Participatory Scale) (Part II).

Upon receiving Institutional Review Board approval, a total of 320 participants (78-82 participants per condition) participated in the pilot study. Participants were recruited through a large southeastern university's student research participation pool using SONA, a cloud-based software system for participant pool management. Lybarger, et al. (2017) conducted a video condition manipulation check utilizing a similar sampling approach and sample size.

The only qualifying characteristic for participation was that students were at least 18 years of age; participation for the pilot study/manipulation check was voluntary and participants were made aware of this in written form (see Appendix A for Informed Consent). After the participants read and agreed to the terms of the Informed Consent, they watched one of four randomly assigned videos prior to completing a questionnaire. Students who choose to participate in the study received research credit required for their basic communication course.

## Script/Video Creation (Part I)

Scripts for four versions of a fictional Supervisor presenting an announcement regarding a generalized workplace topic to reduce confounding variables that may be created by the script wording were created. The verbal and nonverbal differences among the video conditions involve the way the supervisor delivers the scripted message. In the scripts where the Supervisor utilized verbally aggressive messages, the actor was scripted to use the following behaviors: threats, character attacks, competence attacks, and ridicule; in the two scripts where the Supervisor was scripted to not use verbally aggressive messages, the behaviors outlined above were not expressed by the actor. In the scripts where the Supervisor utilized nonverbal immediacy behaviors, the actor was scripted to use nonverbal behaviors such as: good positive eye contact or gazing behaviors, positive facial expressions, positive head nods, increases in gestures, relaxed body position, purposeful body movements, and orientation of the body and head toward the camera; in the scripts where the Supervisor was scripted to not use nonverbally immediate behaviors, these behaviors were not displayed by the actor (see Appendix B for scripts).

The four scripts (experimental conditions) are as follows: In script 1, the Supervisor used verbally aggressive messages and nonverbal immediacy behaviors. Within script 2, the Supervisor used verbally aggressive messages but did not use nonverbal immediacy behaviors. For script 3, the Supervisor did not use verbally aggressive messages but did use nonverbal immediacy behaviors. In the final script, script 4, the Supervisor did not use verbally aggressive messages and did not display any nonverbal immediacy behaviors (see Appendix B). Having a condition where there is an absence of all experimental stimuli (a control condition) allows for a comparison across all conditions and provides a baseline for comparing the experimental conditions to better understand the extent to which the stimuli in the experimental conditions influence the dependent variables under investigation (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013).

Once the scripts were written and deemed satisfactory by the author, a semi-professional male actor was recruited to play the part of the supervisor. He was given the scripts and provided a reasonable amount of time to read the scripts and prepare prior to setting up a time/day appropriate to film the videos.

### **Measures**

To measure the amount of nonverbal immediacy behaviors observed within the video conditions, the McCroskey et al. (1995) nonverbal immediacy scale was used (see: Appendix C). This scale was modified from its original version to reflect the context/situation viewed within the video conditions (Example items include: “The supervisor gestures while talking”; “The supervisor uses monotone/dull voice when talking”; “The supervisor smiles while talking”).

McCroskey, et. al., (1995) report a Cronbach Alpha reliability of .85. Beyond an acceptable level of internal reliability, the McCroskey, et. al., (1995) Nonverbal Immediacy Scale also shows a high degree of internal validity. To test construct validity (including both convergent and divergent validity), Zhang et al. (2007) tested the scale alongside McCroskey and Teven’s (1999) teacher credibility scale (for convergent validity) and Kearney et al.’s (1991) teacher misbehavior scale (for divergent validity); results of a correlation analysis indicated a statistically significant positive relationship with teacher credibility and a statistically significant negative relationship with teacher misbehavior. These findings are consistent with other, similar, studies investigating the McCroskey, et al., (1995) Nonverbal Immediacy Scale. Immediacy behaviors have consistently shared a positive relationship with teacher credibility (Competence, Character, & Caring) (Glascock & Rggiero, 2006; Schrodt & Witt, 2006; Teven & Hanson, 2004; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998), and a negative relationship with misbehaviors (i.e., incompetence, indolence, and offensiveness) (Kearney et al., 1991; Kelsey et al., 2004; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996).

A modified version of Infante and Wigley's (1986) Verbal Aggressiveness Scale was used to measure the supervisor's perceived verbal aggressiveness in each video condition (see: Appendix C). The scale was modified from its original version to reflect the context/situation viewed within the video condition (Example items include: "When employees simply will not budge on a matter of importance, the supervisor will lose his temper and say rather strong things to them"; "The supervisor enjoys poking fun at employees who do things which are very stupid in order to stimulate their intelligence"; "When his employees are very stubborn, the supervisor will use insults to soften the stubbornness").

Infante & Wigley (1986) report a Cronbach Alpha reliability of .81. In addition to acceptable internal reliability, the Infante and Wigley (1986) Verbal Aggressiveness Scale also shows a high degree of internal validity. Infante and Wigley (1986) tested the scale's degree of criterion-related validity, including both concurrent and predictive validity. To investigate concurrent validity, they administered their scale along with seven other trait measures that included: The Argumentativeness Scale (Infante & Rancer, 1982), the Assault and Verbal Hostility sub-scales from Buss and Durkee's (1957) Hostility-Guilt Inventory, the Crowne and Marlowe (1960) Social Desirability Scale, the Feelings of Inadequacy subscale from the Janis and Field Personality Questionnaire (Hovland & Janis, 1950), the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension-Short Form (McCroskey, 1978), and the Cognitive Complexity Scale (Crockett, 1965). The above scales were administered to participants during three separate sessions over the course of two weeks (two or three instruments were administered per session). Results of a correlation analysis indicated a high degree of concurrent validity: Infante & Rancer (1982) Argumentativeness Scale ( $r = -.04, p < .05$ ), the Assault ( $r = .32, p < .001$ ) and Verbal Hostility ( $r = .43, p < .001$ ) sub-scales from Buss and Durkee's (1957) Hostility-Guilt Inventory, the Crowne and Marlowe (1960) Social Desirability Scale ( $r = -.39, p < .001$ ), the Feelings of Inadequacy subscale from the Janis and Field Personality Questionnaire

(Hovland & Janis, 1950) ( $r = -.15, p < .05$ ), Personal Report of Communication Apprehension-Short Form (McCroskey, 1978) ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ), and the Cognitive Complexity Scale (Crockett, 1965) ( $r = -.22, p < .05$ ).

The validation study conducted by Infante and Wigley (1986) shows concurrent validity by indicating a non-statistically and weak negative relationship between verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness because individuals who are predisposed to be argumentative focus their attack on the other person's position on a specific topic of communication, where people predisposed to exhibiting a high level of verbal aggressiveness tend to focus the locus of their attack on the other person's body, self-concept, or intelligence. People predisposed to trait argumentativeness possess a non-statistically significant and weak level of trait verbal aggressiveness; people predisposed to trait verbal aggressiveness naturally possess a non-statistically significant and weak level of trait argumentativeness.

A final validity study was conducted by Infante and Wigley (1986) for the purpose of investigating the scale's predictive validity. The authors first administered the scale to participants and then, three weeks later, under the guise of an entirely different study, had the same participants complete a booklet containing descriptions of three different interpersonal social influence situations developed from previous studies (i.e., Miller et al., 1977; Wiseman & Schenck-Hamlin, 1981). Within the booklet, six messages in total followed each interpersonal situation. Two messages were verbally aggressive, with four messages constituting "filler messages" designed to reduce the chance participants would draw any conclusions regarding the nature of the study (i.e., investigating verbal aggression). The results of this study indicated a statistically significant correlation between participants' self-report on the Verbal Aggressiveness Scale and the sum ratings of the three different social influence situations ( $r = .69, p < .001$ ). These studies, taken together, provide evidence of scale validity.

In addition to the above scales, participants also provided data regarding the items from the Workplace Participatory Behaviors Scale (for a list of items, See Appendix C), and demographic information, including age, biological sex, and race. Added space was provided for any additional comments

### ***Analysis***

To complete the first part of the Pilot Study, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to assess whether a statistically significant difference existed among the four conditions (see Appendix B for scripts). An ANOVA allows researchers to investigate the mean difference between two or more unrelated or independent groups on one variable of interest. These groups were unrelated or independent of one another because they were made up of different participants. The ANOVA provided statistical evidence concerning whether the experimental conditions provided the stimulation that defined the conditions themselves. Simply put, the ANOVA provided evidence that there was a clear, defining, difference between the conditions where the actor used nonverbal immediacy behaviors and the conditions where the actor used symbolic aggression, as well as the conditions where the actor did not use nonverbal immediacy behaviors and did not use symbolic aggression.

Prior to the ANOVA, the scales used for data collection (Nonverbal Immediacy scale by McCroskey et al., 1995; Verbal Aggressiveness scale by Infante and Wigley, 1986) underwent a Principle Components Analysis (PCA) to assess item overlap between the two scales as well as assess whether the items load to their respective scale within an acceptable statistical significance. After the PCA, an internal reliability analysis was conducted for the purpose of investigating the internal consistency of the items that comprise each scale.

PCA works similarly to a Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), by calculating various sum of squares and cross-product matrices to provide information regarding the relationships between the dependent variables; this relationship is presented in the form of a correlation

matrix (Fields, 2009). According to “the law of large numbers . . . the larger the sample size ( $n$ ), the more probable it is that the sample mean is close to the population mean” (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013, p. 207); as a sample size increases closer to the population size, the error between the sample mean and the population mean decreases. However, correlation coefficients fluctuate from sample to sample, making the reliability of a given factor analysis dependent upon the sample size. Several statisticians have suggested “rules of thumb” (Kass & Tinsley, 1979; Nunnally, 1978), but most agree that a sample of 300 is an appropriate sample size for factor analysis (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007); the sample size for the current study was 318.

PCA with orthogonal rotation (varimax), was conducted on the combined 29 items that compose both McCroskey et al. (1995) Nonverbal Immediacy Scale (9 items) and Infante and Wigley (1986) Verbal Aggressiveness Scale (20 items). The purpose of the PCA was to test for item overlap between the two scales being tested, and to assure that the items from each scale loaded onto their respective scales with an acceptable statistical significance.

The Keiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .90 [“superb” according to Field (2009); Hutcheson & Sofroniou (1999)]; indicating that the sample size is adequate for the factor analysis. During the first rotation, not all KMO values for individual items were  $\geq .50$ , (Field, 2009), these items were removed before subsequent rotation was completed. Bartlett’s test of sphericity  $\chi^2 (120) = 2792.02$ ,  $p = .000$ , indicated that correlations between items were sufficient for the PCA. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each component in the data. Three components had eigenvalues over Kaiser’s criterion of 1 and in combination explained 63.90% of the variance. Given the appropriate sample size, scree plot convergence, Kaiser’s criterion on three components, this is the number of components that were retained in the final analysis.

The results reported in the tables below were derived from four rotations ( $N=318$  for each rotation). The first rotation served to establish base-line factor loadings from which the scale would initially be developed. Two items were removed because their commonalities score was below the .5 threshold (see Table 5). The second rotation further investigated factor loading for the scales being tested; three items were removed because these items cross-loaded onto multiple factors (see Table 6). Rotation three saw three items being removed because these items cross-loaded onto multiple factors (see Table 7); one item was removed after the fourth rotation because this item cross-loaded (see Table 8). Three final items were removed after the fifth rotation as these items were deemed not sufficient to constitute a subscale (see Table 9). Table 10 shows the factor loadings after the final rotation. Based on the items that clustered on the same components, component 1 represents Verbal Aggressiveness (8 positively worded items), component 2 Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors (5 items; 1 item was negatively worded, and was reverse coded for analysis), and component 3 constituted a subscale of Verbal Aggressiveness (3 negatively worded items – that were reverse coded for analysis).

Previous studies investigating the validity of the items that make up Infante and Wigley's (1986) Verbal Aggressiveness scale justifies the removing of component 3. Both Levine, et al. (2004), as well as Kotowski, et al. (2009) found issues with the negatively worded items in the above-mentioned scale by Infante and Wigley (1986). Kotowski (2009) labeled the negatively worded items in the above-mentioned subscale of the Verbal Aggressiveness measure as a false-negative factor and problematic in the scale's validation (see Table 10 for Summary of Principle Components Analysis). The current results of the Principle Components Analysis provide further support for the problematic nature of these reverse-worded items in the Infante and Wigley (1986) Verbal Aggressiveness scale (to review this discussion see: Infante et al., 2011; Kotowski et al., 2009; Levine, et al., 2004). Overall, results of the PCA indicate that the

**Table 5: Immediacy and Aggressiveness Items Removed after First Rotation – PCA**

Item	Extraction
When his employees refuse to do a task, the supervisor knows is important, without good reason, he will tell them they are being unreasonable (Verbal Aggression item)	<b>.432</b>
The supervisor looks at employees while talking (Nonverbal Immediacy item)	<b>.376</b>

\*Criteria for common variance present in each factor loading: Commonalities  $\geq .05$  (Kaiser, 1970)

**Table 6: Immediacy and Aggressiveness Items Removed after Second Rotation – PCA**

Item	Verbal Aggression 1	Verbal Aggression 2	Nonverbal Immediacy 1	Nonverbal Immediacy 2	Nonverbal Immediacy 3
When the supervisor tries to influence his employees, he will make a great effort not to offend them (Verbal Aggression item)	<b>-.533</b>	<b>-.642</b>	-.015	.115	.003
The supervisor is always extremely careful to avoid attacking his employees intelligence when he attack their ideas (Verbal Aggression item)	<b>.535</b>	<b>.652</b>	-.043	-.145	.045
When employees do things the supervisor regards as stupid, he will try to be extremely gentle with them (Verbal Aggression item)	<b>.529</b>	<b>.552</b>	.008	-.250	.139

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

**Table 7: Immediacy and Aggressiveness Items removed after Third Rotation – PCA**

Item	Verbal Aggression 1	Verbal Aggression 2	Nonverbal Immediacy 1	Nonverbal Immediacy 2	Nonverbal Immediacy 3
The supervisor tries very hard to avoid having his employees feel bad about themselves when he tries to influence them	<b>.528</b>	<b>.545</b>	-.008	-.166	.150
The supervisor tries to make his employees feel good about themselves even when their ideas are stupid	<b>.521</b>	<b>.591</b>	-.034	-.194	-.042
When the supervisor attacks an employee's ideas, he tries not to damage their self-concepts	<b>.502</b>	<b>.589</b>	.031	-.149	.084

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

**Table 8: Immediacy and Aggressiveness Items Removed after Fourth Rotation – PCA**

Item	Verbal Aggression 1	Nonverbal Immediacy 1	Verbal Aggression 2	Nonverbal Immediacy 2	Nonverbal Immediacy 3
When employees criticize the supervisor's shortcomings, he will take it in good humor and will not try to get back at them	.539	-.028	.521	-.237	-.036

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

**Table 9: Immediacy and Aggressiveness Items Removed after Fifth Rotation – PCA**

Item	Verbal Aggression 1	Verbal Aggression 2	Nonverbal Immediacy 1	Nonverbal Immediacy 2	Nonverbal Immediacy 3
The supervisor has a very tense body position while talking	-.128	.156	.043	.848	.039
The supervisor has a very relaxed body position while talking	-.155	.016	-.098	.822	-.033
The supervisor looks at notes or papers while talking	-.046	-.020	-.102	-.027	.945

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

**Table 10: PCA Summary for Verbal Aggression & Nonverbal Immediacy Scales**

Item	Verbal Aggression	Nonverbal Immediacy	Verbal Aggression subscale
When employees behave in ways that are in very poor taste, the supervisor will insult them in order to shock them into proper behavior	<b>.790</b>	-.038	.252
If employees the supervisor is trying to influence really deserve it, he will attack their character	<b>.787</b>	-.065	.290
When the supervisor is not able to refute his employees' positions, he will try to make them feel defensive in order to weaken their positions	<b>.767</b>	-.013	.252
When his employees are very stubborn, the supervisor will use insults to soften the Stubbornness	<b>.766</b>	-.088	.174
When employees do things, which are mean or cruel, the supervisor will attack their character in order to help correct their behavior	<b>.762</b>	-.027	.216
When employees simply will not budge on a matter of importance, the supervisor will lose his temper and say rather strong things to them	<b>.753</b>	-.051	.291
When individuals insult the supervisor, he will get a lot of pleasure out of really telling them Off	<b>.738</b>	.011	.357
The supervisor enjoys poking fun at employees who do things which are very stupid in order to stimulate their intelligence	<b>.721</b>	.064	-.072
The supervisor uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking	.115	<b>.817</b>	.047
The supervisor uses a monotone/dull voice when talking	-.067	<b>.776</b>	.137
The supervisor smiles at employees while talking	-.352	<b>.690</b>	-.297
The supervisor gestures while talking	.238	<b>.688</b>	-.038
The supervisor smiles while talking	-.364	<b>.678</b>	-.303
When an argument shifts to personal attacks, the supervisor tries very hard to change the subject	.176	-.043	<b>.803</b>
The supervisor would refuse to participate in an argument when the argument involves personal attacks	.276	-.012	<b>.755</b>
When the supervisor dislikes employees greatly, he tries not to show it in what he says or how he says it	.429	-.088	<b>.584</b>

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

Infante & Wigley (1986) Verbal Aggressiveness Scale and McCroskey, et al. (1995) Nonverbal Immediacy Scale items indicate no overlap and the items for each scale loaded to their respective factors with an acceptable statistical significance.

### ***Reliability Analysis***

The amount of *Nonverbal Immediacy Cue/Behaviors* viewed within each video condition was measured using McCroskey et al., (1995) 10-item Nonverbal Immediacy Scale. Before data were collected, 1 item was removed, resulting in a scale consisting of 9 items. The item was removed because it was deemed irrelevant to the video conditions since the item measures movement around a room; the video stimuli presented an actor speaking to an audience through a video and there was no movement or personal contact with another person (item discarded: "The supervisor moves around the room while talking"). After the Principal Components Analysis, four more items were removed, resulting in a scale consisting of five items. To maintain consistency with the original validated scale, the five items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Never to 5 = Very often). The reported reliability for this measure is .85 (McCroskey, et al., 1995). The alpha reliability for the current study is .80.

The amount of *Verbal Aggressiveness* viewed within each video condition was measured using Infante and Wigley's (1986) 20-item Verbal Aggressiveness Scale. After the Principal Components Analysis, a total of nine items were removed, resulting in a scale consisting of 11 items. To maintain consistency with the original validated scale, the 11 items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Never to 5 = Very often). The reported reliability for this measure is .81 (Infante & Wigley, 1986); the alpha reliability for the current study is .91.

## **Workplace Participatory Behaviors Scale Items (Part II)**

A total of 54 items (information seeking, 12 items; Assertive Utterances, 15 items; Expressing Concern, 14 items; Information Provision, 13 items) were initially created to serve as the basis for the Workplace Participatory Behaviors scale (See Appendix C). Items for each dimension that comprises Workplace Participatory Behaviors were created from Dillon's (2012) operationalization investigating patient participation behaviors. Dillon (2012) investigated the relationship between a patient's communicative participation during a routine medical examination and recall of treatment recommendations at two primary-care medical clinics. The study used audio recordings of patient/physician interactions to collect data. After the medical interviews were completed between the patient and physician, participants filled out a self-report survey measure asking them to recall information either freely (with no cued recall) or to recall information assisted with a cued recall. The two self-reports regarding patients' proficiency in recalling information regarding the medical consultation were randomly assigned to participants. Interviews between the patient/physician interaction were transcribed and analyzed via the PACE coding system.

The items for the scale were reviewed by two people who hold expert knowledge in general research that investigates the behaviors being measured for face validity. There were no revisions addressed concerning the initial 54 items (no additional items were added, nor were items removed); data were collected through the University's research participation system, and the scale was subjected to a Principal Components Analysis to assess the factor loading of each item and scale dimensionality via IBM SPSS (A final factor analysis, via IBM AMOS, was conducted during the experiment.). The finalized items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type format ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree*.

### ***Principal Component Analysis (PCA)***

To complete the second part of the Pilot Study, a PCA and an internal reliability analysis was conducted. The PCA was expected to produce 4 factors (Information seeking, Assertive utterances, Expressing concern, & Information provision). The PCA allows researchers to investigate and identify groups/clusters of variables that compose a latent variable (i.e., workplace participatory behaviors). The PCA assisted the researcher in reducing the collected data set to a smaller set of factors; the PCA achieved this “parsimony by explaining the maximum amount of common variance in a correlation matrix using the smallest number of explanatory constructs” (Fields, 2009, p. 629).

The workplace participatory behaviors PCA (54 items) utilized orthogonal rotation (varimax). Although both orthogonal and oblique rotation effectively rotate each factor axis so that variables can be loaded onto one factor, they differ in specific ways. An orthogonal rotation maintains independence between factors while rotating them during the analysis; an oblique rotation allows the factors to correlate with one another (Fields, 2009). Since the workplace participatory scale is intended to be used as both a unidimensional scale that measures workplace participatory behaviors as a single construct and to measure specific dimensions of the workplace participatory construct, an orthogonal rotation (varimax) was used. In comparing the three methods of orthogonal rotation (i.e., varimax, quartimax and equamax), varimax is methodologically best suited. The quartimax method attempts to maximize the spread of factor loading across all factors and although this method provides ease of interpretation, it has often been found to result in many of the variables under analysis loading highly onto a single factor (Fields, 2009). In addition, the equamax method is a hybrid approach that utilizes parts of both the quartimax and varimax, but has been found to behave somewhat erratically in its approach to factor loading (Fields, 2009). The varimax approach attempts to maximize the dispersion of loadings within factors, meaning the varimax method to orthogonal rotation factor rotation “tries

to load a smaller number of variables highly onto each factor resulting in more interpretable clusters of factors” (Fields, 2009, p. 644). Results of the PCA are reported in terms of eigenvalues, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values for individual items (although values ranging from .8 and above are preferred, values above .5 were accepted – for the current study, scores ranged between .583 - .738) and the values resulting from the Bartlett’s test of sphericity (this value indicated that the correlations between each item were sufficiently large for the PCA).

Additionally, the finalized scale underwent an analysis to investigate the internal consistency of the items that compose the finalized scale (internal consistency is reported for both the finalized scale as well as each of the dimensions that make up the construct being measured). This analysis was used to assess whether the items that compose the scale are consistent and reliable.

## **Results**

A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with orthogonal rotation (varimax), was conducted on the 54 items that make up the Workplace Participatory Behaviors Scale. The purpose of the PCA was to investigate and identify the groups/clusters of variables (i.e., information seeking, assertive utterances, expressing concern, and information provision) that compose the workplace participatory behaviors construct.

The Keiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .98 [“superb” according to Field (2009); Hutcheson & Sofroniou (1999)], indicating that the sample size is adequate for the factor analysis. All KMO values for individual items were > .50; within the acceptable limit of .5 (Field, 2009); for additional detail concerning KMO limits and factor loadings, see Stevens (2002). Bartlett’s test of sphericity  $X^2(780) = 11,443.70, p = .000$ , indicated that correlations between items were sufficient for the PCA. Three components had eigenvalues over Kaiser’s criterion of 1 and in combination explained 65.46% of the variance.

Given the sample size ( $n = 318$ ), convergence of the scree plot, and Kaiser's criterion on three components, this is the number of components that were retained in the final analysis.

The results reported in the tables below were derived from four rotations. The first rotation served to establish base line factor loadings from which the scale would initially be developed. Six items were removed because of cross loading onto multiple factors (see Table 11). The second rotation further refined the scale, and three items were removed because these items either cross loaded onto multiple factors or failed to load at the .5 threshold (see Table 12). Rotation three saw 2 items removed because they loaded onto factors that, conceptually, did not make sense (see Table 13). The total number of participants for all analyses is 318.

Table 14 shows the factor loadings after the final rotation. The items that cluster on the same components suggest that component 1 represents Assertive Utterances/Expressing Concern (now referred to as Assertive Expressions), component 2 represents information seeking, and component 3 represents Information Provision.

### ***Reliability Analysis***

Lastly, the finalized scale underwent an analysis to investigate the items' internal consistency. The final Workplace Participatory Behaviors scale included 43-items. The alpha reliability for the current study is .98. Results of the PCA indicated 3 dimensions that make up the Workplace Participatory Behaviors Scale; because this scale is intended to be used as both a unidimensional as well as a multi-dimensional scale, the 3 components that were identified within the PCA was assessed for their individual internal consistency. Component 1 (Assertive Expressions) included 22-items with an alpha reliability of .97. Component 2 (information seeking) included 12-items with an alpha reliability of .96. Component 3 (Information Provision) included 9-items with an alpha of .93.

**Table 11: Workplace Participatory Behaviors Items Removed (First Rotation) – PCA**

Item	Assertive Expressions	Information Seeking	Information Provision
The employees do not hesitate to express their preferences about work related topics	<b>.580</b>	<b>.519</b>	.249
Overall, the employees are comfortable with expressing their emotions about work related topics	<b>.552</b>	<b>.537</b>	.297
The employees would describe themselves as someone who typically expresses his/her personal emotional state about work-related topics	<b>.525</b>	.203	<b>.519</b>
The employees regularly answer questions about work related topics as completely as they can.	.199	<b>.584</b>	<b>.510</b>
The employees regularly communicate their concerns about work related topics	<b>.513</b>	<b>.529</b>	.371
The employees tend to answer questions completely, when asked about work-related decisions	.161	<b>.529</b>	<b>.538</b>

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

**Table 12: Workplace Participatory Behaviors Items Removed (Second Rotation) – PCA**

Item	Assertive Expressions	Information Seeking	Information Provision
The employees regularly communicate their concerns about work related decisions	<b>.530</b>	<b>.506</b>	.375
The employees often readily express their preferences about work related topics	<b>.499</b>	<b>.494</b>	<b>.421</b>
The employees regularly answer questions honestly about work related decisions	.166	<b>.503</b>	<b>.588</b>

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

**Table 13: Workplace Participatory Behaviors Items Removed (Third Rotation) – PCA**

Item	Assertive Expressions	Information Seeking	Information Provision
The employees do not hesitate to answer questions about work related topics	.404	<b>.573</b>	.395
The employees would describe themselves as someone who normally acknowledges his/her personal emotional state about work-related topics	.449	.182	<b>.538</b>

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

**Table 14: Summary of PCA for Workplace Participatory Behaviors Scale**

Item	Assertive Expressions	Information Seeking	Information Provision
The employees do not hesitate to let others know about their opinions about work related topics	<b>.716</b>	.207	.228
Expressing their emotions about work related topics is not a problem for employees	<b>.650</b>	.441	.300
The employees do not hesitate to express their opinions about work related topics	<b>.649</b>	.421	.305
When the employees have a certain feeling about a work-related topic, they always communicate that feeling	<b>.643</b>	.335	.344
The employees regularly express their opinions about work related topics	<b>.639</b>	.404	.366
The employees are firm about expressing their opinions about work related topics	<b>.635</b>	.342	.311
The employees are assertive about expressing their preferences about decisions concerning work related topics	<b>.631</b>	.358	.317
The employees are firm about saying how they feel about work-related preferences.	<b>.619</b>	.348	.261
The employees usually take charge of expressing their preferences about decisions concerning work related topics	<b>.611</b>	.382	.296
It is not difficult for employees to express their emotions about work related topics	<b>.609</b>	.355	.319
The employees openly express their opinions about decisions concerning work related topics	<b>.609</b>	.427	.421
The employees openly express their emotions about decisions concerning work related topics	<b>.607</b>	.428	.329
The employees regularly express their emotions about work related topics	<b>.600</b>	.354	.399
The employees often readily reveal their opinions about work related topics	<b>.588</b>	.257	.415
The employees are assertive about expressing their opinion about work-related topics	<b>.588</b>	.313	.438
The employees generally have no problem acknowledging their personal emotional state about work-related topics	<b>.571</b>	.333	.409
The employees generally have no problem expressing their emotions about work-related decisions	<b>.570</b>	.460	.355
The employees do not hesitate to let their preferences related to work topics be known.	<b>.563</b>	.412	.333

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

Table 14 Continued

Item	Assertive Expressions	Information Seeking	Information Provision
The employees openly express their emotions about work related topics	<b>.563</b>	.385	.409
The employees regularly express they preferences about decisions concerning work related topics	<b>.541</b>	.387	.411
Acknowledging their emotions about work related topics is not a problem for employees	<b>.514</b>	.360	.437
The employees let others know their preferences about decisions concerning work related topics	<b>.502</b>	.387	.382
The employees feel comfortable about asking questions about work related topics	.380	<b>.726</b>	.287
The employees feel comfortable asking for the information they need to complete work-related tasks.	.362	<b>.706</b>	.309
The employees feel comfortable asking questions when seeking work-related information.	.350	<b>.390</b>	.348
The employees feel comfortable seeking out information while at work	.405	<b>.678</b>	.344
The employees feel comfortable asking for information at work	.422	<b>.670</b>	.273
The employees regularly seek out information they need to complete work-related tasks	.245	<b>.669</b>	.433
The employees do not hesitate about asking for information regarding work related topics	.449	<b>.663</b>	.284
The employees regularly ask for information they need to complete work-related tasks	.305	<b>.662</b>	.357
The employees tend to ask questions about work related topics	.304	<b>.661</b>	.334
The employees do not hesitate about asking for information at work	.418	<b>.657</b>	.305
The employees do not hesitate to ask questions about work related topics	.463	<b>.633</b>	.312
The employees regularly ask questions about work related topics	.346	<b>.616</b>	.330
The employees often answer questions honestly about work related topics	.304	.361	<b>.690</b>
When asked questions about work related topics, the employees always answer honestly	.287	.304	<b>.687</b>

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

Table 14 Continued

Item	Assertive Expressions	Information Seeking	Information Provision
The employees tend to respond honestly to questions about work related topics	.320	.333	.655
Even if it is not asked for, the employees regularly provide answers to questions about work related decisions	.354	.344	.644
Even if it is not asked for, the employees frequently provide information about work related topics	.320	.321	.644
Even if it is not asked for, the employees often readily provide answers to questions about work related topics	.363	.291	.637
The employees generally provide information about work-related decisions, even if it is not asked for.	.386	.234	.615
Even if it is not asked for, the employees tend to respond completely to questions about work related decisions	.312	.374	.580
The employees often answer questions honestly about work related topics	.431	.356	.567
<b>Eigenvalues</b>	<b>9.94</b>	<b>8.97</b>	<b>7.27</b>
<b>% of Variance Explained</b>	<b>24.63</b>	<b>22.42</b>	<b>18.17</b>

\*Criteria for Factor Loadings:  $\geq .50$  (Fields, 2009; Stevens, 2002)

## **Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) (Experimental Conditions)**

Two one-way Analysis of Variances (ANOVA) were conducted to compare the mean scores among the four video conditions (see Appendices for scripts defining each video condition). This analysis is used to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the means of two or more unrelated or independent groups on one variable of interest (i.e., an independent variable). One analysis was conducted to investigate whether a statistically significant difference existed between the four video conditions related to Verbal Aggression; another analysis was used to investigate whether a statistically significant difference existed between the four video conditions related to Nonverbal Immediacy. Results of the One-way ANOVA investigating the mean scores for Verbal Aggression shows a statistically significant difference was found between the tested video conditions,  $F(3, 316) = 66.56, p < .001$ . See Table 15 for means and standard deviations of each condition. As indicated by the mean scores, the video conditions that were reported as displaying the most Verbal Aggression were the conditions where the supervisor presented a verbally aggressive message. Tukey's HSD Test for multiple comparisons (see Table 16) found that the Verbal Aggression mean value was significantly different between Condition 2 (Verbal aggression used/Nonverbal Immediacy not used) and the other three conditions: Condition 1 (Verbal aggression used/Nonverbal Immediacy used), Condition 3 (Verbal aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy used), and Condition 4 (Verbal aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used). Condition 1 (Verbal aggression used/Nonverbal Immediacy used) was had a mean value that was significantly different from Condition 3 (Verbal aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy used). and Condition 4 (Verbal aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used). There was no statistically significant difference between Condition 4 (Verbal aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used) and

**Table 15: ANOVA Descriptives for Verbal Aggression and Nonverbal Immediacy**

	<i>Verbal Aggression Mean</i>	<i>Verbal Aggression Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Nonverbal Immediacy Mean</i>	<i>Nonverbal Immediacy Standard Deviation</i>
Condition 1: VA (Used) / NVI (Used)	3.16	0.86	4.19	0.86
Condition 2: VA (Used) / NVI (Not used)	3.88	0.78	3.05	0.59
Condition 3: VA (Not used) / NVI (Used)	2.34	0.62	4.13	0.79
Condition 4: VA (Not used) / NVI (Not used)	2.58	0.71	3.02	0.95

NOTE: For Scripts of video conditions see Appendix B

**Table 16: Verbal Aggression ANOVA Post Hoc (Tukey's HSD Test for Multiple Comparisons)**

<b>Video Condition (i)</b>	<b>Video Condition (j)</b>	<b>Mean Difference (i – j)</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Lower Bound for 95% Confidence Interval</b>	<b>Upper Bound for 95% Confidence Interval</b>
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Not used)	-0.72	< .001	-1.02	-0.41
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (used)	0.82	< .001	0.51	1.12
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (Not used)	0.58	< .001	0.28	0.89
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Used)	0.72	< .001	0.41	1.02
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (used)	1.53	< .001	1.23	1.84
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (Not used)	1.30	< .001	0.99	1.61
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Used)	-0.82	< .001	-1.12	-0.51
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Not used)	1.53	< .001	-1.84	-1.23
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (Not used)	-0.24	.198	-0.54	0.07
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Used)	-0.58	< .001	-0.89	-0.28
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Not used)	-1.30	< .001	-1.61	-0.99
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (used)	0.24	.198	-0.07	0.54

\*For Scripts of video conditions see Appendix B

Condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy used) ( $p = .198$ ). Thus, the two conditions using verbal aggressiveness were statistically significantly different at  $p < .05$  from each other, both were different from the condition using nonverbal immediacy and no verbal aggression; only the video condition using verbal aggressiveness with no nonverbal immediacy was different from the control condition.

Results of the ANOVA investigating the mean scores for Nonverbal Immediacy show a statistically significant difference found between the four video condition,  $F(3, 316) = 51.91$ ,  $p < .001$ . The mean and standard deviations for each condition are in Table 15. As indicated by the mean scores, the video conditions that were reported as displaying the most Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors were the conditions where the supervisor displayed the behaviors. Tukey's HSD Test for multiple comparisons (see Table 17) found that the mean value of Nonverbal Immediacy was significantly different between Condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy used) and Condition 2 (Verbal Aggression used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used) as well as Condition 4 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used); there was no statistically significant difference in means for Condition 1 (Verbal Aggression used/Nonverbal Immediacy used). Condition 1 (Verbal Aggression used/Nonverbal Immediacy used) and Condition 2 (Verbal Aggression used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used) as well as Condition 4 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used) had significantly different means; there was no statistically significant difference in means between Condition 1 and Condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy used). Thus, the two conditions using nonverbal immediacy were statistically significantly different at  $p < .05$  from the two conditions that did not use nonverbal immediacy behaviors, but not different from each other.

**Table 17: Nonverbal Immediacy ANOVA Post Hoc (Tukey's HSD Test for Multiple Comparisons)**

<b>Video Condition (i)</b>	<b>Video Condition (j)</b>	<b>Mean Difference (i – j)</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Lower Bound for 95% Confidence Interval</b>	<b>Upper Bound for 95% Confidence Interval</b>
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Not used)	1.14	< .001	0.82	1.47
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (used)	0.062	.963	-0.27	0.39
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (Not used)	1.17	< .001	0.54	1.50
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Used)	-1.14	< .001	-1.47	-0.82
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (used)	-1.08	< .001	-1.42	-0.75
<b>VA (Used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (Not used)	0.03	.996	-0.30	0.36
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Used)	-0.06	.963	-0.39	0.27
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Not used)	1.08	< .001	0.75	1.42
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (Not used)	1.11	< .001	0.78	1.44
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Used)	1.17	< .001	-1.50	-0.84
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Used) / NVI (Not used)	-0.03	.996	-0.36	0.30
<b>VA (Not used)/NVI (Not used)</b>	VA (Not used) / NVI (used)	-1.11	< .001	-1.44	-0.78

\*For Scripts of video conditions see Appendix B

## CHAPTER 4: EXPERIMENT – TESTING OF HYPOTHESIS/MODEL

### Participants

To test the hypotheses, an experiment was conducted involving participants recruited through an online survey administration system (i.e., Amazon’s Mechanical Turk or MTurk) (see Appendix D for MTurk Recruitment Message). The only qualifying characteristics for participation was that the participants were at least 22 years of age, work a 30+ hour work week at one place of employment, maintained continuous employment in their current position with the same supervisor/manager/boss for at least one (1) year, currently work in a position that a supervisor/manager/boss directly oversees, and is considered a “Blue-Collar Worker” (i.e., they are someone who is a member of the working class, performing manual labor and either earning an hourly wage OR being paid piece rate for completed work). Participation for the experiment was voluntary and participants were made aware of this in written form (see Appendix E). No one who participated in the Pilot Study (Part I or Part II) (Creation of Experimental Conditions & Manipulation Check) participated in the Experimental study.

Participants ( $N = 364$ ) for the experiment included 180 females (49.5%), and 181 males (49.7%); 2 participants reported being intersex (.5%) and 1 participant preferred not to answer (.3%). Ages ranged from 21 years to 70 years ( $M = 38.21$ ,  $SD = 11.35$ ) and demographically, the study consisted of 26 Asian or Pacific Islanders (7.1%), 27 Black or African Americans (7.4%), 13 Hispanic or Latino (3.6%), 4 Native American or American Indian (1.1%), and 292 White or Caucasian (80.2%) participants.

### Procedures

After the video conditions were created, the manipulation checks were performed/deemed successful (see Chapter 3 Pilot Study), and Institutional Review Board approval was obtained, participants for the experiment were recruited and randomly assigned to view one of three video conditions (See Appendix B for video condition scripts). Although four

video conditions were validated in the pilot study, it was deemed unnecessary and redundant to include the fourth video condition. Within video condition four the manager did not use symbolic aggression and did not use any nonverbal immediacy behaviors; the experimental condition was deemed redundant as it did not provide a stimulus and served minimal purpose towards comparing how the varying behaviors (stimuli) within each experimental condition influenced participant perceptions concerning the dependent variables.

### **Dependent Variable Questionnaire**

After participants were randomly assigned to view one of three video conditions, they were asked to complete the following scales (see Appendix H, to view the questionnaire in its entirety). Each scale was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis to assess item validity; determinations of model fit were made based upon the recommendations from Kline (2011).

### ***Communication Patterns***

To measure the communication patterns perceived within the assigned video condition, a modified version of the Revised Family Communication Patterns Scale by Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) was used. Koerner and Fitzpatrick's (2002) Communication Patterns scale consists of 26 items in total (15 items for conversation orientation; 11 items for conformity orientation), measured using a 7-point Likert-Type scale; to maintain consistency through the current survey, a 5-point Likert-type scale was used; the original scale was modified to reflect the context under investigation. Example conversation orientation items include: "My manager often asks my opinion when the work group is talking about something," "My manager encourages my to express my feelings," and "I can tell my manager almost anything." Example conformity orientation items include: "when anything really important is involved, my manager expects me to obey without question," "in our organization, my manager usually has the last word," and "when I am at work, I am expected to obey my manager's rules."

The scale has been shown to have a high degree of internal validity. Specifically, Koerner and Fitzpatrick tested their scale for content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity. According to Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002), the Revised Family Communication Patterns Scale assesses the whole breadth of the theoretical construct of family communication patterns, including both sub-scales (i.e., conversation orientation & conformity orientation). The Revised Family Communication Patterns Scale asks, “respondents to indicate the frequency of certain behaviors... that correspond closely to the theoretical constructs of conversation orientation and conformity orientation” (p. 57), indicating an acceptable level of content validity.

To assess the criterion-related validity, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) tested the scale alongside measures of theoretically related constructs, such as Fitzpatrick’s (1988) Relational Dimensions Inventory, including the three dimensions that compose the scale: ideology (conventional vs. nonconventional), interdependence (interdependent vs. independent), and communication (avoidance vs. engagement of conflict). In testing the criterion-related validity, they found a statistically significant correlation between the two scales. Although this evidence points towards acceptable criterion-related validity, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) argue that “strong evidence for criterion-related validity... comes from a number of studies that have successfully employed the Revised Family Communication Patterns Scale in research and correlated the dimensions to a variety of measures of other concepts” (p.58).

To assess the extent to which the Revised Family Communication Patterns Scale reflects a high level of construct validity, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) determined whether the observed correlations for the scale could be explained logically and convincingly through an existing theoretical model(s). Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) argue that the Revised Family Communication Patterns Scale “has a strong theoretical foundation, and the mechanisms by which conversation orientation and conformity orientation exert their influence on family

communication and its outcomes are usually well explicated and fit into the larger picture of family communication that has emerged from research based on a variety of theoretical models and approaches” (p.59). In-fact, Hesse et al. (2017) indicated that family communication patterns theory has been one of the most influential theories within the family communication literature, only adding to Koerner and Fitzpatrick’s argument regarding the strength of the theoretical foundation and its ability to explicate the family communication patterns construct.

A CFA was run for the purpose of testing the validity of the Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) Communication Orientation subscales. For the current study, a two-factor CFA model with the conversation orientation items and the conformity orientation items resulted in acceptable fit ( $\chi^2$  [298,  $N = 364$ ] = 834.29,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .93, RMSEA = .07 [CI = .065, .076], SRMR = .06, CMIN/DF = 2.80).

The Cronbach’s coefficient alpha for this scale has been reported as ranging between .84 and .92, with a mean alpha coefficient of .89 for conversation orientation & ranging between .73 and .87 for conformity orientation, with a mean alpha coefficient of .79 (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002). For the current study, conversation orientation was found to have a Cronbach alpha score of .97, and conformity orientation was found to have an alpha score of .93.

### ***Emotional Support***

To measure the amount of perceived emotional support within the organization presented in the video, a modified version of the Proactive Coping Inventory (Greenglass et al., 1999) was used. The original scale is made up of seven subscales (proactive coping; reflective coping; strategic planning’ preventive coping; instrumental support seeking’; emotional support seeking; avoidance coping). To investigate the posed hypothesis, the current study requires that only emotional support seeking be measured. The original scale contains five items using a seven-point Likert-type scale; to maintain consistency through the current survey, a five-point

Likert-type scale was used. The scale was modified from its original version to reflect the context under investigation; example items include: “If an employee is depressed, they know which of their co-workers they can call to help them feel better,” “co-workers help each other feel cared for,” and “The employees know which of their co-workers they can count on when the chips are down.”

The emotional support seeking subscale has been tested and found to have a high degree of internal validity beyond the reported inter-item total correlations (indicating sufficient discriminant validity, as suggested by theory). Greenglass et al. (1999) tested the dimensions, including the emotional support seeking subscale, for construct validity. Results of their analysis indicated that emotional support seeking correlated positively with proactive attitude, self-efficacy, as well as perceived emotional support. “Thus, the higher the emotional support seeking, the greater the seeking of assistance, information or advice about what to do and the greater the seeking of empathy from others” (Greenglass, et al., 1999, p.10).

A CFA was run to test the validity of Greenglass et al. (1999) Proactive Coping Inventory, Emotional Support subscale. For the current study, a single factor CFA model with the Emotional support items resulted in acceptable fit ( $\chi^2 [5, N = 364] = 19.97, p < .001, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .09 [CI = .051, .134], SRMR = .02, CMIN/DF = 3.99$ ).

The Cronbach’s coefficient alpha for this scale was not reported within the scale development article. However, Greenglass, et al. (1999) reported that the emotional support seeking dimension has good reliability and inter-item total correlations; Roesch et al. (2009) reported previous alpha reliability of .85. For the current study, the emotional support seeking dimension was found to have a Cronbach alpha score of .91

### ***Affective Commitment***

To measure the amount of affective organizational commitment perceived to exist within the organization presented in the experimental conditions, a modified version of the Organizational Commitment scale (Meyer & Allen, 1997) was used; the original scale consists of 3 subscales: Affective commitment, Normative commitment, and Continuance commitment. To investigate the posed hypotheses, the current study requires that only Affective commitment be measured. Meyer and Allen's (1997) measurement of affective commitment contains eight items and is measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale; to maintain consistency throughout the current survey, a five-point Likert-Type scale was used. The subscale was modified from its original version to reflect the context under investigation; example items include: "The employees all feel very happy to spend the rest of their careers with this organization," "The employees do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization" (reverse-coded item), and "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to the employees who work there."

The affective dimension has been shown to have a high degree of internal validity. Several studies have assessed the convergent/divergent validity by performing multisampling confirmatory factor analysis (see Cohen, 1996; Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett et al., 1994) and have provided support for the three-component model; where affective, normative, and continuance commitment each comprise separate dimensions of the organizational commitment construct, indicating a high level of construct validity. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) tested the validity of Meyer and Allen's (1997) affective commitment subscale. For the current study, a single factor CFA model with the affective commitment items resulted in acceptable fit ( $\chi^2 [5, N = 364] = 20.03, p = .001, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .09 [CI = .052, .134], SRMR = .02, CMIN/DF = 4.01$ ). During the CFA, two items were found to have low factor loading (item 4 – Factor Loading = .32; item 6 [recoded] – Factor Loading = .45), these items were removed from

any additional analysis. Two items were co-varied (Organizational Commitment item 5 & 6) to maintain an acceptable number of items within the subscale. Additionally, after reviewing the modification indices, one additional item was removed from the analysis (Organizational Commitment item 8). Previous studies investigating affective organizational commitment have reported a Cronbach's coefficient alpha as .79 (Cohen, 1996). For the current study, the affective commitment dimension was found to have a Cronbach alpha score of .88

### ***Overall Job Satisfaction***

To measure the overall job satisfaction perceived within the video organization, the three-item Overall Job Satisfaction (Cammann et al., 1983) was used. To maintain consistency throughout the current survey, a five-point Likert-type scale replaced the original seven-point scale. Sample items include: "All in all the employees are satisfied with their job" and "In general, the employees like working at this organization."

The scale has been tested by previous research and shown to possess a high degree of internal validity. Previous studies have reported positive correlations between overall job satisfaction and leaders' positive affectivity, leaders' job involvement, organizational commitment, and job involvement (George, 1995; Siegall & McDonald, 1995), while negative correlations have been reported between overall job satisfaction and employee perceived danger, perceived risk, task distractions, and intent to leave (Siegall & McDonald, 1995); these findings provide evidence of construct validity.

A CFA tested the validity of Cammann et al. (1983) Job satisfaction scale. For the current study, a single factor CFA model with the job satisfaction items, resulted in acceptable fit ( $\chi^2 [0, N = 364] = .000$ , *Probability level could not be computed*, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .77 [CI = .724, .824], SRMR = .0000). The Cronbach coefficient alpha for this scale has been reported as ranging from .71 to .94 (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Pearson, 1991; Siegall & McDonald, 1995).

For the current study, the overall job satisfaction scale was found to have a Cronbach alpha score of .88

### ***On-The-Job Behaviors***

To measure on-the-job behaviors perceived to be engaged in within the organization depicted in the video, a modified version of the On-the-job Behaviors scale (Lehman & Simpson, 1992) was used. Lehman and Simpson's (1992) measurement of on-the-job-behaviors scale contain 22 items in total (five items for Positive work behaviors; eight items for Psychological withdrawal behaviors; four items for Physical withdrawal behaviors; and five items for Antagonistic work behaviors), and is measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale; to maintain consistency throughout the current survey, a five-point Likert-Type scale was used. The original scale was modified to reflect the context under investigation. Positive work behavior sample items include "The employees do more work than required," "The employees volunteer to work overtime," and "The employees try to think of ways to do their jobs better." Sample psychological withdrawal behaviors include "The employees think about being absent," "The employees have thought about leaving their current job," and "The employees chat with other co-workers about non-work topics." Sample physical withdrawal behaviors include "The employees leave work early without permission," "The employees take longer lunch or rest breaks than allowed," and "The employees take supplies or equipment without permission." Finally, sample antagonistic work items include "The employees report other co-workers for breaking rules or policies," "The employees argue with their co-workers," and "The employees disobey their supervisor's instructions."

Lehman and Simpson (1992) investigated the validity of the scale, and the authors found that Interpersonal deviance scores positively correlated with antagonistic work behaviors ( $r = .62, p < .01$ ), indicating convergent validity between interpersonal deviance and antagonistic work behaviors. The items from these scales measure interpersonal behaviors that are

potentially harmful to other individuals within the organization (Bennett and Robinson, 2000). Bennett and Robinson (2000) also found a positive relationship between organizational deviance and psychological withdrawal ( $r = .65, p < .01$ ) as well as physical withdrawal behaviors ( $r = .79, p < .01$ ); the items from these scales measure organizational behaviors that are potentially harmful to the organization.

CFA was used to test the validity of Lehman and Simpson's (1992) On-the-job behaviors scale. For the current study, a four factor CFA model with the positive work behavior items, psychological withdrawal behavior items, physical withdrawal behavior items, and the antagonistic work behaviors items resulted in acceptable fit ( $\chi^2 [145, N = 364] = 605.42, p < .001, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .09 [CI = .086, .101], SRMR = .09, CMIN/DF = 4.17$ ). During the CFA one item was found to have a low factor loading (Psychological withdrawal behavior item 2 – Factor Loading = .38); this item was removed prior to any additional CFA. Two items were co-varied (Psychological withdrawal behaviors item 1 & 7), this was done to maintain an acceptable number of items within the subscale. Additionally, after reviewing the modification indices, two additional items were removed from the analysis (Positive work behaviors item 2 & antagonistic behaviors item 2).

The Cronbach's coefficient alpha for this scale has been reported as .70 for positive work behaviors, .84 for psychological withdrawal behaviors, .58 for physical withdrawal behaviors, and .60 for antagonistic work behaviors (Lehman & Simpson, 1992). It should be noted that Lehman and Simpson (1992) report two of the subscales as possessing low alpha reliability scores (i.e., .58 for physical withdrawal behaviors, and .60 for antagonistic work behaviors); The wording of the original items may be problematic as they are fairly vague in their wording (e.g., "did more work than required" and "thoughts of being absent"); in the modified version for the current study, these items were specific to the video organization and did not produce the same issues. For the current study, Cronbach alpha scores are as follows:

positive work behaviors ( $\alpha = .82$ ), psychological withdrawal ( $\alpha = .90$ ), physical withdrawal behaviors ( $\alpha = .92$ ), antagonistic work behaviors ( $\alpha = .82$ ).

### ***Workplace Participatory Behaviors***

To measure the perceived amount of participatory behaviors engaged in by employees working for the organization depicted within the assigned video condition, the Workplace Participatory behaviors scale created in the pilot study was used (see Chapter 3: Pilot Study). In the pilot study an initial test of the items and dimensions that make up the Workplace Participatory Behaviors Scale was tested with student data and a Principal Components Analysis. Using data collected from working professionals via Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), the 43-item Workplace Participatory Behaviors Scale was subjected to CFA to further test the scale dimensions and factor loadings. Prior to conducting the CFA, all missing data were removed and replaced with the series mean. During the CFA, the Workplace Participatory Behaviors Scale was evaluated in multiple ways to identify a good model fit. The following evaluations were used: items that caused a statistically significant amount of residual error were removed; and the following parameters were used to assess the overall model fit: 1) Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI), this comparative fit index compares the fit of a model against the null or independent model (Byrne, 2016; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004), and account for the complexity/parsimony of the tested model. These indices generally range between 0 and 1, with values  $\geq .90$  indicating an acceptable fit with values  $\geq .95$  as indicating models with "superior fit" (Byrne, 2016). 2) Steiger-Lind Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is considered an "absolute fit index" (Goodboy & Martin, 2020; Kline, 2011). According to Kline (2011), A value of 0 indicates the "best fit" while scores greater than 0 suggest a worse fit. According to Browne and Cudeck (1993), a score that is  $\leq .05$  indicates of good model fit. 3) The Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) is a measure of the mean correlation residual (i.e., the differences between observed and predicted covariances). According to Kline

(2011), a perfect model fit is indicated by an SRMR value of 0, with higher values indicating reduced model fit. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), acceptable SRMR scores should be  $\leq .08$ .

The final three-factor CFA model with the Assertive Expressions items, the information seeking items and the Information Provision items resulted in an acceptable fit ( $\chi^2 [857, N = 364] = 2570.06, p < .001, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .07 [CI = .071, .078], SRMR = .03, CMIN/DF = 2.99$ ). In an attempt to improve the model fit, the Modification Indices were assessed; the items with the highest Modification Indices scores were evaluated. Items were systematically removed from the model, starting with the item with the largest Modification Indices value. Once the item was removed, a subsequent CFA was run, until the final three-factor model was found to have an acceptable fit. Table 18 shows the items removed, as well as their Modification Indices.

Among the items listed in table 18, two items were covaried, instead of being removed (Expressing Concern, item 12 & Expressing Concern, item 8). These items were retained and co-varied because the number of items that made up the Expressing Concern subscale, were close to being at a minimum number (minimum = 3 items) for analysis (Raubenheimer, 2004).

The final three-factor CFA model with the Assertive Expressions items, the information seeking items, and the Information Provision items resulted in an acceptable fit ( $\chi^2 [271, N = 364] = 578.07, p < .001, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .06 [CI = .050, .062], SRMR = .02, CMIN/DF = 2.13$ ).

The final scale contains 25 items (eight items for Assertive Utterances; four items for Expressing Concern comprise the Assertive Expressions subscale; nine items for information seeking; and four items for Information Provision). Example assertive expression items include: "The employees are firm about saying how they feel about work-related preferences," "The employees openly express their opinions about decisions concerning work related topics," and

**Table 18: Item Covariances**

Items (error terms)	Modification Indices Par Change	
Information Provision (item 11) <--> Information Provision (item 2)	49.876	.217
Information Provision (item 9) <--> Information Provision (item 5)	65.694	.265
Assertive Utterances (item 1) <--> Information Seeking (item 1)	43.371	.138
Assertive Utterances (item 13) <--> Assertive Utterances (item 9)	35.400	.149
Expressing Concern (item 11) <--> Expressing Concern (item 3)	31.982	.142
Expressing Concern (item 1) <--> Information Provision (item 1)	26.974	.141
Expressing Concern (item 14) <--> Expressing Concern (item 2)	30.710	.143
Information Seeking (item 9) <--> Information Seeking (item 8)	22.717	.116
Assertive Utterances (item 8) <--> Assertive Utterances (item 3)	21.358	.116
Expressing Concern (item 12) <--> Expressing Concern (item 8)	30.096	.130

\*Criteria for Modification Indices:  $\geq 20$  (Hair, et. al., 2010; Kline, 2011)

“When the employees have a certain feeling about a work-related topic, they always communicate that feeling,” Example information seeking items include: “The employees feel comfortable asking for the information they need to complete work-related tasks,” “The employees tend to ask questions about work related topics,” and “The employees feel comfortable seeking out information while at work.” Example information provision items include: “The employees generally provide information about work-related decisions, even if it is not asked for,” “Even if it is not asked for, the employees regularly provide answers to questions about work related decisions,” “Even if it is not asked for, the employees often readily provide answers to questions about work related topics.”

Lastly, the finalized scale underwent an analysis to investigate internal consistency. The final Workplace Participatory Behaviors produced an alpha reliability of .98. Results of the PCA indicated three dimensions that make up the Workplace Participatory Behaviors Scale; because this scale is intended to be used as both a unidimensional as well as a multi-dimensional scale, the three components that were identified within the PCA was assessed for their individual internal consistency. Component 1 (12 assertive expression items) had an alpha reliability of .98. Component 2 (nine information seeking items) had an alpha reliability of .97. Component 3 (four information provision items) had an alpha reliability of .93.

## **CHAPTER 5: EXPERIMENT ANALYSIS & RESULTS**

### **Measurement Model; Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

Prior to testing the hypothesized model, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was first run on the measurement model, using all items and scales. The CFA tested the overall validity of the measurement model as well as the reliabilities between each of the scales used within the experiment. A 12-factor CFA model with the Communication Orientation (conversation and conformity) items, the Emotional Support items, the job satisfaction items, the affective organizational commitment items, the On-the-job Behavior items (Positive Work Behavior, Psychological Withdrawal Behavior, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic behaviors), and the Workplace Participatory Behavior items (Assertive Expressions, information seeking, and Information Provision) resulted in acceptable fit ( $\chi^2 [674, N = 364] = 1635.73, p < .001, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06 [CI = .059, .067], SRMR = .06, CMIN/DF = 2.43$ ).

The final questionnaire used for analysis contains 76 items [21 items for communication orientation (13 items for conversation orientation; nine items for conformity orientation); five items for Emotional Support Seeking Behaviors; three items for job satisfaction; four items for affective organizational commitment; 19 items for on-the-job behaviors (four items for positive work behaviors, five items for psychological withdrawal behaviors, four items for physical withdrawal behaviors, & four items for antagonistic behaviors); and 25 items for Workplace Participatory Behaviors (12 items for Assertive Expressions, nine items for information seeking behaviors, & four items for information provision behaviors)], measured using a 5-point Likert-Type scale.

### **Hypothesized Model; Structural Equation Model**

A causal modeling technique utilizing 364 participants recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) data collection platform was used for the purpose of testing the

hypothesized model. One important issue that arises when discussing the appropriateness of a Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) technique is sample size. Because sample size is an important issue to consider in SEM, it is important to address the question of: what is a large enough sample size for conducting SEM. There is an inherent difficulty in providing a simple answer to this question because several factors affect sample size requirements; although scholars have attempted to adapt SEM techniques for smaller sample sizes (e.g., Nevitt & Hancock, 2004), it is still generally accepted that SEM techniques require larger sample sizes (Kline, 2011). Factors include the number of parameters that make up a model; the analysis of a complex model requires more cases, or a larger sample, than that of a simpler model with less parameters (Kline, 2011). According to Kline (2011), a “useful rule of thumb concerning the relation between sample size and model complexity... [is] the N:q rule” (p.12). The N:q rule, as it is referred to by Jackson (2003), recommends a sample size be thought of in terms of the number of cases (N) to the number of model parameters (q) – it is recommended that this ratio be 20:1. Meaning a model should include 20 cases for every parameter that makes up the model. For example, in a model that is made up of five parameters, the ideal minimum sample size should be  $20 \times 5$  or  $N = 100$  (Kline, 2011). Although the 20:1 rule has been supported by several scholars, there are others who have suggested a minimum ratio of five to 10 cases per model parameter (Bentler & Chou, 1987), which would only require a minimum sample size of 100 participants. When considering the acceptance/rejection of journal submissions, Bartlett (2007) suggests that reviewers reject submissions that conduct SEM analysis with  $N < 200$  unless the population being studied is restricted in size. The reason for this is because almost any type of SEM, unless a very simple model is being investigated, is untenable with sample sizes less than 200 participants. Other scholars suggest a more absolute minimum sample size of 200 participants. Utilizing the N:q rule, the model hypothesized within the current study includes 11 parameter;  $20 \times 11 = 220$ . Whether using the N:q rule, or the accepted 200

participant minimum, the current study's sample size of 364 cases/participants is considered sufficient.

Causal modeling provides a technique for explaining possible causal relationships between variables that comprise a hypothesized model. Of the two types of causal modeling, Path Analysis (PA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM, sometimes referred to as latent variable modeling), the current dissertation utilized a Structural Equation Modeling technique for assessing the fit of the hypothesized model. The two techniques share some characteristics and differ on others. SEM is a collection of related techniques that includes Path Analysis.

The term "Structural Equation Modeling" (SEM) does not designate any single statistical technique; instead, it refers to a collection of related/inter-related causal modeling techniques/procedures. SEM dates to the early 1900s with the development of an analysis technique first introduced by Charles Spearman (1904), what we now refer to as "Exploratory Factor Analysis." Later, in 1918, a biogeneticist, Sewell Wright, published an article that described the basic assumptions and techniques of path analysis. In Wright's (1918) publication, he explains how the observed covariances within a hypothesized model could be related to the parameters of the model and explain the direct and indirect causal effects among the variables under investigation; in doing so, Wright (1918) demonstrated how these causal effects could be estimated. What differentiates Wright's (1918) explication of Path Analysis from the techniques of today's SEM techniques is that Wright's (1918) Path Analysis was intended to estimate the effect size of causal pathways that were *already known* (i.e., bone size of rabbits through genetic inheritance) – leading to a proven-or-falsified model. In today's behavioral sciences, researchers rarely, if ever, know the true causal pathways. They instead suggest a hypothesized model that is representative of previous research and theory; researchers then test this hypothesized model using sample data. The best researchers can do with this approach is to suggest, within an acceptable level of statistical significance, that their model is

consistent with the provided sample data and provides evidence for support of their hypothesized model. Unlike Wright's (1918) publication extending a previous study conducted by Castle (1914), investigating the genetically inherited size in rabbits through comparing bone measurements (as cited in Wright, 1918), Wright (1918) used his study extending Castle's (1914) observations to provide evidence of the validity usefulness of his Path Analysis technique. Behavioral scientists cannot suggest their findings provide evidence that their model is proven – only that the hypothesized model fits the data, or that they have “good model fit” (Kline, 2011).

Of the two forms of analysis described above, a Structural Equation Model (SEM) was used for the current study to test the hypothesized model; results did not indicate an acceptable model fit [ $\chi^2(41, N = 364) = 863.01, p < .001, CFI = .81, RMSEA = .24 (CI = .221, .249), SRMR = .19, CMIN/DF = 21.05$ ]. During the SEM, several modifications were made to the Hypothesized Model to achieve an acceptable model fit. To achieve model fit, the error terms for psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic behaviors were covaried; the error terms for Assertive Expressions, Information Provision, and information seeking were covaried; job satisfaction item 1, job satisfaction item 2, and job satisfaction item 3 were covaried; Emotional Support Parcel 1, Emotional Support Parcel 2, and Emotional Support item 5.

### **Research Questions & Hypothesis**

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 1b; which stated that a negative relationship exists between a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors and employee conformity orientation (1a), and a positive relationship exists between a leader's use of verbal aggression and employee conformity orientation (1b). The results of the one-way ANOVA (see Table 19) indicated a statistically significant difference in the amount of

**Table 19: Conformity Orientation by Experimental Condition**

<b>Condition</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
Video Condition 1 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression)	34.54	7.47
Video Condition 2 (Did Not Use Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression)	36.57	6.93
Video Condition 3 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Did Not Use Verbal Aggression)	29.27	9.89

conformity orientation reported by participants based on whether a leader used nonverbal immediacy behaviors or engaged in symbolic verbal aggression [ $F(2, 361) = 26.758, p < .001$ ]. Additionally, a Games-Howell *post hoc* test further indicated a significant difference between the amount of conformity orientation when the leader used nonverbal immediacy behaviors compared to the amount of conformity orientation when the leader used symbolic aggression (mean difference = 7.31,  $p < .001$ ).

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate Hypothesis 2a and Hypothesis 2b, which stated that a positive relationship exists between a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors and employee conversation orientation (2a), and a negative relationship exists between a leader's use of verbal aggression and employee conversation orientation (2b). The results of the one-way ANOVA (see Table 20) indicated a statistically significant difference in the amount of conversation orientation reported by participants based on whether a leader used nonverbal immediacy behaviors or engaged in symbolic aggression, [ $F(2, 361) = 21.179, p < .001$ ]. Additionally, a Games-Howell *post hoc* test further indicated a significant difference between the amount of conversation orientation when the leader used nonverbal immediacy behaviors compared to the amount of conversation orientation when the leader used symbolic aggression (mean difference = -11.19,  $p < .001$ ).

Hypothesis 3 stated that a negative relationship would exist between conformity orientation and social support seeking behavior in employees. The results of the SEM indicated a statistically significant relationship between conformity orientation and social support seeking behaviors in employees ( $b = -0.12, t = -4.74, p < .001$ ), supporting Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 stated that a positive relationship would exist between conversation orientation and social support seeking behavior in employees. The results of the SEM indicated a statistically significant relationship between conversation orientation and social support seeking behaviors in employees ( $b = 0.56, t = 13.14, p < .001$ ), supporting Hypothesis 4.

**Table 20: Conversation Orientation by Experimental Condition**

<b>Condition</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
Video Condition 1 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression)	35.44	14.65
Video Condition 2 (Did Not Use Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression)	30.64	14.82
Video Condition 3 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Did Not Use Verbal Aggression)	41.83	12.01

Hypothesis 5 stated that a positive relationship would exist between social support seeking behaviors in employees and employee overall job satisfaction. The results of the SEM indicated a statistically significant relationship between social support seeking behaviors in employees and employee overall job satisfaction ( $b = 1.67$ ,  $t = 13.94$ ,  $p < .001$ ), supporting Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 6a stated that a positive relationship would exist between employee job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors; while Hypothesis 6b, sought to investigate the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors. Results indicated a statistically significant positive relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors ( $b = 0.12$ ,  $t = 1.99$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ); supporting hypothesis 6a (see Table 21).

H6b assessed the mediating role of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors. As outlined in the above results, the relationship between employee job satisfaction on employee positive work behaviors, ignoring the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), was statistically significant. Step 2 towards better understanding the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment, showed that the regression for employee job satisfaction on the mediator, Employee affective organizational commitment, was statistically significant,  $b = 0.79$ ,  $t = 31.70$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (Employee Affective Organizational Commitment), controlling for employee job satisfaction, had a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable, employee positive work behaviors,  $b = 0.55$ ,  $t = 8.80$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 4 of the analyses revealed that, the indirect effect between employee job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors was statistically significant ( $b = 0.43$  [ $C.I. = 0.33, 0.54$ ],  $p < .001$ ); thus, Employee affective organizational commitment partially mediated the relationship between employee job

**Table 21: Mediation Analysis Summary**

Relationship	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Confidence Interval		p-value	Conclusion
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Overall Job Satisfaction --> Affective Organizational Commitment --> Positive Work Behaviors	0.115 (.047)	0.434	.328	.540	.001	Partial Mediation
Overall Job Satisfaction --> Affective Organizational Commitment --> Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors	-0.490 (.000)	0.080	-.031	.199	.151	No Mediation
Overall Job Satisfaction --> Affective Organizational Commitment --> Physical Withdrawal Behaviors	-0.447 (.000)	0.239	0.082	.409	.002	Partial Mediation
Overall Job Satisfaction --> Affective Organizational Commitment --> Antagonistic Behaviors	-0.324 (.000)	0.227	0.083	.373	.003	Partial Mediation
Overall Job Satisfaction --> Affective Organizational Commitment --> Information Seeking Behaviors	0.515 (.000)	0.346	0.198	.483	.000	Partial Mediation
Overall Job Satisfaction --> Affective Organizational Commitment --> Information Provision Behaviors	0.363 (.000)	0.333	0.195	.473	.000	Partial Mediation
Overall Job Satisfaction --> Affective Organizational Commitment --> Assertive Expression Behaviors	0.415 (.000)	0.408	0.266	.535	.000	Partial Mediation

organizational commitment partially mediated the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors; supporting hypothesis 12b (see Table 20).

Hypothesis 7a stated that a negative relationship would exist between employee job satisfaction and employee psychological withdrawal behaviors; while Hypothesis 7b, sought to investigate the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee psychological withdrawal behaviors. The results of the SEM indicated a statistically significant negative relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee psychological withdrawal behaviors ( $b = -0.49$ ,  $t = -7.04$ ,  $p < .001$ ); supporting hypothesis 7a (see Table 20).

H7b assessed the mediating role of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee psychological withdrawal behaviors. As outlined in the above results, the relationship between employee job satisfaction on employee psychological withdrawal behaviors, ignoring the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), was statistically significant. Step 2 towards better understanding the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment, showed that the regression for employee job satisfaction on the mediator, Employee affective organizational commitment, was statistically significant,  $b = 0.79$ ,  $t = 31.70$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), controlling for employee job satisfaction, did not have a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable, employee psychological withdrawal behaviors,  $b = 0.10$ ,  $t = 1.34$ ,  $p = .181$ . thus, hypothesis 7b was not supported (see Table 20).

Hypothesis 8a stated that a negative relationship would exist between employee job satisfaction and employee physical withdrawal behaviors; while Hypothesis 8b, sought to investigate the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee physical withdrawal behaviors.

The results of the SEM indicated a statistically significant negative relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee physical withdrawal behaviors ( $b = -.44$ ,  $t = -4.56$ ,  $p < .001$ ); supporting hypothesis 8a (see Table 20).

H8b assessed the mediating role of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee physical withdrawal behaviors. As outlined in the above results, the relationship between employee job satisfaction on employee physical withdrawal behaviors, ignoring the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), was statistically significant. Step 2 towards better understanding the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment, showed that the regression for employee job satisfaction on the mediator, Employee affective organizational commitment, was statistically significant,  $b = 0.79$ ,  $t = 31.70$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), controlling for employee job satisfaction, had a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable, employee physical withdrawal behaviors,  $b = 0.30$ ,  $t = 2.85$ ,  $p < .005$ . Step 4 of the analyses revealed that, the indirect effect between employee job satisfaction and employee physical withdrawal behaviors was statistically significant ( $b = 0.24$  [ $C.I. = 0.08, 0.41$ ],  $p < .005$ ); thus, Employee affective organizational commitment partially mediated the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee physical withdrawal behaviors; supporting hypothesis 12b (see Table 20).

Hypothesis 9a stated that a negative relationship would exist between employee job satisfaction and employee antagonistic behaviors; while Hypothesis 9b, sought to investigate the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee antagonistic behaviors. The results of the SEM indicated a statistically significant negative relationship between employee job satisfaction

and employee antagonistic behaviors ( $b = -0.32$ ,  $t = -3.91$ ,  $p < .001$ ); supporting hypothesis 9a (see Table 20).

H19b assessed the mediating role of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee antagonistic behaviors. As outlined in the above results, the relationship between employee job satisfaction on employee antagonistic behaviors, ignoring the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), was statistically significant. Step 2 towards better understanding the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment, showed that the regression for employee job satisfaction on the mediator, Employee affective organizational commitment, was statistically significant,  $b = 0.79$ ,  $t = 31.70$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), controlling for employee job satisfaction, had a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable, employee antagonistic behaviors,  $b = 0.29$ ,  $t = 3.19$ ,  $p = .001$ . Step 4 of the analyses revealed that, the indirect effect between employee job satisfaction and employee antagonistic behaviors was statistically significant ( $b = 0.23$  [ $C.I. = 0.08, 0.37$ ],  $p < .005$ ); thus, Employee affective organizational commitment partially mediated the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee antagonistic behaviors; supporting hypothesis 12b (see Table 20).

Hypothesis 10a stated that a positive relationship would exist between employee job satisfaction and employee information seeking behaviors; while Hypothesis 10b, sought to investigate the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee information seeking behaviors. The results of the SEM indicated a statistically significant positive relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee information seeking behaviors ( $b = 0.52$ ,  $t = 9.20$ ,  $p < .001$ ); supporting hypothesis 10a (see Table 20).

H10b assessed the mediating role of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee information seeking behaviors. As outlined in the above results, the relationship between employee job satisfaction on employee information seeking behaviors, ignoring the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), was statistically significant. Step 2 towards better understanding the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment, showed that the regression for employee job satisfaction on the mediator, Employee affective organizational commitment, was statistically significant,  $b = 0.79$ ,  $t = 31.70$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), controlling for employee job satisfaction, had a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable, employee information seeking behaviors,  $b = 0.43$ ,  $t = 7.23$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 4 of the analyses revealed that, the indirect effect between employee job satisfaction and employee information seeking behaviors was statistically significant ( $b = 0.35$  [ $C.I. = 0.19, 0.48$ ],  $p < .001$ ); thus, Employee affective organizational commitment partially mediated the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee information seeking behaviors; supporting hypothesis 12b (see Table 20).

Hypothesis 11a stated that a positive relationship would exist between employee job satisfaction and employee information provision behaviors; while Hypothesis 11b, sought to investigate the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee information provision behaviors. The results of the SEM indicated a statistically significant positive relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee information provision behaviors ( $b = 0.36$ ,  $t = 5.39$ ,  $p < .001$ ); supporting hypothesis 11a (see Table 20).

H11b assessed the mediating role of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee information provision

behaviors. As outlined in the above results, the relationship between employee job satisfaction on employee information provision behaviors, ignoring the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), was statistically significant. Step 2 towards better understanding the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment, showed that the regression for employee job satisfaction on the mediator, Employee affective organizational commitment, was statistically significant,  $b = 0.79$ ,  $t = 31.70$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), controlling for employee job satisfaction, had a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable, employee information provision behaviors,  $b = 0.42$ ,  $t = 5.76$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 4 of the analyses revealed that, the indirect effect between employee job satisfaction and employee information provision behaviors was statistically significant ( $b = 0.33$  [ $C.I. = 0.20, 0.47$ ],  $p < .001$ ); thus, Employee affective organizational commitment partially mediated the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee information provision behaviors; supporting hypothesis 12b (see Table 20).

Hypothesis 12a stated that a positive relationship would exist between employee job satisfaction and employee assertive expression behaviors; while Hypothesis 12b, sought to investigate the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee assertive expression behaviors. The results of the SEM indicated a statistically significant positive relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee assertive expression behaviors ( $b = 0.42$ ,  $t = 7.47$ ,  $p < .001$ ); supporting hypothesis 12a (see Table 20).

H12b assessed the mediating role of Employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee assertive expression behaviors. As outlined in the above results, the relationship between employee job satisfaction on employee assertive expression behaviors, ignoring the mediator (Employee affective

organizational commitment), was statistically significant. Step 2 towards better understanding the mediating effects of Employee affective organizational commitment, showed that the regression for employee job satisfaction on the mediator, Employee affective organizational commitment, was statistically significant,  $b = 0.79$ ,  $t = 31.70$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (Employee affective organizational commitment), controlling for employee job satisfaction, had a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable, employee assertive expression behaviors,  $b = 0.51$ ,  $t = 8.57$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 4 of the analyses revealed that, the indirect effect between employee job satisfaction and employee assertive expression behaviors was statistically significant ( $b = 0.41$  [ $C.I. = 0.27, 0.54$ ],  $p < .001$ ); thus, Employee affective organizational commitment partially mediated the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee assertive expression behaviors; supporting hypothesis 12b (see Table 20).

## CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

Using Structuration Theory (Giddens, 1984) and Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991) as guiding theoretical lenses, the current study sought to investigate how a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors and verbal aggression messages influences various affective and behavioral employee outcomes. In addition to this main objective, the current study sought to develop a scale that measures behaviors defined as communicative and engaging in nature; behaviors that provide evidence of communicative employee participation.

The findings detailed below suggest that a leader's use of verbal aggression, specifically verbally aggressive messages such as the use of threats, attacking a person's competence/character, the use of profanity, and teasing, have negative implications for employee outcomes, including the way employees interact with one another. These findings further suggest that a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors, specifically the use of positive facial expressions, hand gestures, vocal expressiveness, and space/distance, have positive implications for employee outcomes, including the way employees interact with one another.

The findings revealed that a leader who regularly uses verbally aggressive messages negatively influences employee affective/behavioral outcomes; including the way employees interact with each other. Use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors by a leader promoted positive interactions between employees. These findings provide supporting evidence for both Structuration Theory (Giddens, 1984) and Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991) by suggesting that the experiences and interpersonal relationships organizational members form are, in large part, determined by the nature of the interpersonal relationship they share with their leader.

## **Immediacy, Aggression, and Communication Patterns**

Hypotheses 1 and 2 investigated the influence a leader's communicative behaviors have on employee overall communication orientation. Specifically, hypotheses 1 and 2 investigated how a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors and verbally aggressive messages influences employee communication patterns in terms of conformity orientation and conversation orientation. Hypothesis 1a predicted that a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors would share a negative relationship with employee conformity orientation, while hypothesis 1b predicted that a leader's use of verbally aggressive messages would share a positive relationship with employee conformity orientation. Results indicated that participants in experimental Condition 3 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Did Not Use Verbal Aggression) reported employees were least likely to engage in a conformity orientation communication pattern, when compared to the other two experimental conditions where verbal aggression was observed; [Video Condition 1 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression) & Video Condition 2 (Did Not Use Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression)], supporting hypothesis 1a. The Hypothesis 1b results indicated that participants in experimental Condition 2 (Did Not Use Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression) reported that employees were most likely to engage in a conformity orientation communication pattern, when compared to the other two experimental conditions where nonverbal immediacy behaviors were observed; (Condition 1 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression) & Condition 3 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Did Not Use Verbal Aggression)), supporting hypothesis 1b.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors would share a positive relationship with employee conversation orientation; hypothesis 2b predicted that a leader's use of verbally aggressive messages would share a negative relationship with employee conversation orientation. The results from testing hypothesis 2a indicated that participants in experimental Condition 2 (Did Not Use Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal

Aggression) reported employees were least likely to engage in a conversation orientation communication pattern, when compared to the other two experimental conditions where nonverbal immediacy behaviors were observed [Video Condition 1 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression) & Condition 3 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Did Not Use Verbal Aggression)], supporting hypothesis 2a. The results from testing hypothesis 2b indicated participants who were in experimental Condition 3 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Did Not Use Verbal Aggression), reported that employees were most likely to engage in a conversation orientation communication pattern, when compared to the other two experimental conditions where verbal aggression were experienced [(Condition 1 (Used Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression) & Condition 2 (Did Not Use Nonverbal Immediacy/Used Verbal Aggression)], supporting hypothesis 2b.

The findings from the testing of hypotheses 1 and 2 support and extend previous research by adding evidence to the positive nature of nonverbal immediacy behaviors as well as the deleterious effects that accompany verbal aggression. Chong, et al., (2022) conducted a study examining how environmental elements influence the use of verbally aggressive behavior in children. Specifically, they were investigating how a parent's use of verbal aggression puts a child at risk of using verbal aggression later in life. The article provides evidence, both within its review of relevant literature as well as within its findings, that aggressive behavior from an individual in a position of power/influence, such as a leader within an organizational context, can create the potential risk for the use of aggression by another person in a position to be influenced, such as an employee. Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory helps explain how these behaviors are transferred from a person of influence to individuals in a position where they may be influenced by another. Bandura (1977) highlights how social behavior is greatly regulated/normalized through the influence of verbal cues from others through suggestions,

requests, rules, and direction. This provides an explanation concerning the influence of verbal aggression on conformity orientation while nonverbal immediacy behaviors did not.

Contemporary research provides evidence regarding the relationship between nonverbal immediacy behaviors and participants' willingness and motivation to communicate in positive ways (see e.g., Jia, et al., 2017; Sheybani, 2019). Jia et al. (2017) investigated the impact of a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy on employee emotional experiences and motivation to communicate with a supervisor; when a leader used nonverbal immediacy behaviors while communicating with employees, employees reported greater levels of perceived emotional support as well as an increase in motivation to communicate about relational/social topics/needs.

### **Communication Orientation and Social Support**

Hypothesis 3 investigated the relationship between a social group's conformity communication orientation and social support seeking behaviors among employees. Results indicated that very little differences existed between condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) and condition 2 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used). Both conditions showed the strongest direct effect between conformity orientation and social support seeking behaviors in employees. Condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) had the weakest direct effect. All three conditions were found to be statistically significant. Overall, the results suggest that organization members who engage in a conformity orientation are more likely to report they do not engage in social support seeking behaviors while at work, supporting hypothesis 3.

The negative relationship between a conformity communication pattern and social support seeking behaviors reinforce the conformity conceptualization that members of a social system who engage in conformity communication patterns are more likely to report that the

environment cultivates individuality and independence among members. These findings extend contemporary investigations of social support scholarship, which has predominantly investigated how social support affects various variables related to relationships and personal outcomes, by showing how variables, such as conformity orientation, have diminishing effects on whether employees engage in social support seeking behaviors. Furthermore, these findings support previous research that found a significant relationship between conformity oriented social systems and limits on the expressing of personal needs (see: Avtgis, 1999) and a higher likelihood of being self- rather than other-oriented during interpersonal interactions (see: Koerner & Cvancara, 2002). In a leadership or supervisory context, these conformity patterns have the potential to negatively impact teamwork and promote individuality or competition.

Hypothesis 4 investigated the relationship between conversation orientation and employees' social support seeking behaviors. Very little differences existed between condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) and condition 2 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used). Both conditions were found to have the strongest direct effect between conversation orientation and social support seeking behaviors in employees, while condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) was found to have the weakest direct effect. Overall, the results suggest that organization members who engage in a conversation orientation are more likely to report that they also engage in social support seeking behaviors while at work, supporting hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 4's results support the conversation orientation conceptualization; members of a social system who engage in conversation-oriented communication are more likely to report the environment cultivates sharing thoughts, feelings, and opinions among members. Furthermore, these findings support previous research investigating the relationship between communication orientation and conversation orientation on participants' sociability and the

amount of support seeking behaviors they engaged in (see: Huang, 1999; Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 1997; Koesten, 2004; Ledbetter, 2009).

The findings for hypotheses 3 and 4, as well as the nature of the current research, extends research investigating both conversation orientation and conformity orientation by investigating these variables in an environment outside of the family context, which dominates the literature investigating the dimensions of communication orientation. Extending communication orientations into the organizational communication context provides new avenues to pursue regarding communication effectiveness and developing more efficient organizations with healthier communication environments for employees

Communicating emotional support involves expressing warmth or nurturance toward another person; it is reassuring a person that they are valued and cared for (Taylor, 2010). By definition, this behavior creates a sense of community, warmth, and openness. Kim, et al. (2006) investigated cultural differences in groups (collectivistic vs individualistic) and how the dynamic differences between these groups influence support-seeking behaviors among group members. This study provides further support as conformity orientation is loosely defined as communication associated with groups that are interdependent (individualistic) and conversation orientation is loosely defined as communication associated with groups that are encouraged to share their thoughts, feelings, and opinions about a wide variety of topics to understand the collective's different viewpoints.

The findings provide further evidence and support for the findings in the Kim et al. (2006) study that found that groups defined as being collective in nature were more likely to engage in support seeking behavior while groups defined as being individualistic were less likely to engage in support seeking behavior (Kim et al., 2006). These findings, when taken together, suggest that a group's communicative practices have meaningful implications for healthy relational/group outcomes.

## **Social Support Seeking and Satisfaction**

Hypothesis 5 investigated the relationship between employee social support seeking behaviors and employee overall job satisfaction. Results indicated that condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) was found to have the strongest direct effect between employee overall job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors. Very little difference was found between condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) and condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used);. Overall, the results suggest that organization members who engage in social support seeking behaviors are more likely to report higher overall job satisfaction, supporting hypothesis 5.

The results support the positive benefits of cultivating an organizational atmosphere that encourages social support seeking behaviors in employees. Leaders observed using nonverbal immediacy behaviors had the strongest effect on overall employee job satisfaction. Organizations that want to improve employee overall job satisfaction through encouraging social support seeking behaviors should recommend that leaders use nonverbal immediacy behaviors in their everyday interactions with employees. These findings support a positive relationship between social support behaviors in employees and overall job satisfaction (see: Cummins, 1989; Gangster, et. al., 1986; LaRocco & Jones, 1978) as well as the relationship between workplace social support and job satisfaction (Harris, et al., 2007; Orpen & Pinshaw, 1975; Vroom, 1964). They add to previous findings by suggesting basic social needs are foundational for employee satisfaction (Maslow, 1970); the hierarchy of needs theory forwards basic social needs as foundational for humans' overall growth and development.

## **Job Satisfaction and Employee Behaviors**

Hypotheses 6 – 12 investigated the direct effects of employee overall job satisfaction as well as the mediating effects of affective organizational commitment. The results revealed that overall job satisfaction positively influences affective organizational commitment. For mediation to occur, the relationship between the independent variable and the mediating variable must be statistically significant. This relationship is consistent with previous research indicating that job satisfaction is a key determinant in an employee's attitude towards staying with, or leaving, an organization (Daly & Dee, 2006; Gardner, 2012; Xu, 2008). As noted in the limitations, issues associated with the job satisfaction measure imply that these findings must be replicated before being taken as definitive. Organizations that desire to influence the affective organizational commitment of employees should pursue a better understanding of antecedent variables found to positively influence employee overall job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6a investigated the direct effects of employee overall job satisfaction on employee positive work behaviors; hypothesis 6b sought to understand the mediating effects of employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors. Condition 2 where the leader was observed using verbally aggressive messages, but did not engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors showed the strongest direct effect between employee overall job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors. Condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) was found to have the second strongest direct effect and condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) displayed the weakest direct effect. In all three conditions, affective organizational commitment mediated the relationship between overall job satisfaction and employee positive work behaviors. Overall, the results from hypothesis 6a & 6b suggest that leaders who use verbally aggressive behaviors and who do not engage in

nonverbal immediacy behaviors are more likely to report that employees engage in positive work behaviors

Employees who reported overall being satisfied with their job were more likely to engage in positive work behaviors, such as volunteering for extra work, being polite/considerate towards others, and generally being on time (see: Cropanzano, et al., 1997). Furthermore, an employee's organizational affective commitment mediated the effects of overall job satisfaction (hypothesis 6b). An employee's willingness to engage in behaviors related to "positive work behaviors" (i.e., volunteering, being polite or considerate, and being on time) depends on the employees' commitment to their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Thus, organizations seeking to improve/support employee positive work behaviors should seek to cultivate antecedent variables that have been found to promote overall job satisfaction in employees.

Very little research has been done to further our understanding of Lehman and Simpson's (1992) on-the-job behaviors, including positive work behaviors. However, studies have examined variables conceptually related to positive work behaviors, which can be used to explain behaviors such as organizational citizenship (OCB). OCBs are extra-role behavior, or workplace behavior, that goes beyond the basic requirements of the job by performing non-obligatory tasks without being asked, or without the expectation of compensation, rewards, or recognition (Organ, 1988). Organ and Konovsky (1989) found that job satisfaction had one of the strongest relationships with OCBs. Both OCBs and on-the-job behaviors reflect an employee going above and beyond what is required and expected.

Hypothesis 7a sought to investigate the direct effects of employee overall job satisfaction on employee psychological withdrawal behaviors; hypothesis 7b sought to understand the mediating effects of employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and employee psychological withdrawal behaviors. Results indicated that condition three where the leader was observed using nonverbal immediacy

behaviors, but was not observed using verbally aggressive messages was found to have the strongest direct effect between employee overall job satisfaction and psychological withdrawal behaviors. Condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) had the second strongest direct effect and condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) had the weakest direct effect. In all three conditions, affective organizational commitment did not mediate the relationship between overall job satisfaction and psychological withdrawal behaviors. Overall, the results from hypothesis 7a & 7b suggest that employees with leaders who engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors and who do not use verbally aggressive messages are more likely to report engaging in psychological withdrawal behaviors

Hypothesis 7a's results indicated that employees who reported being overall satisfied with their job were less likely to engage in psychological withdrawal behaviors, includes talking with co-workers about non-work-related topics, fantasizing about not being at work, or daydreaming about topics unrelated to the workplace (see: Lehman & Simpson, 1992). Furthermore, an employee's organizational commitment does not mediate the relationship between overall job satisfaction and psychological withdrawal behaviors (7b). Thus, if organizations desire reduced employee psychological withdrawal behaviors, they would benefit from understanding the antecedent variables found to promote overall employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8a investigated the direct effects of employee overall job satisfaction on employee physical withdrawal behaviors, while 8b sought to understand the mediating effects of employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and employee physical withdrawal behaviors. Results indicated that condition three where the leader was observed using nonverbal immediacy behaviors, but was not observed using verbally aggressive messages was found to have the strongest direct effect between

employee overall job satisfaction and employee physical withdrawal behaviors. Condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) had the second strongest direct effect and condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) failed to be statistically significant. In all three conditions, affective organizational commitment did not mediate the relationship between overall job satisfaction and physical withdrawal behaviors. Overall, the results from hypothesis 8a & 8b suggest that employees of leaders who engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors and who do not use verbally aggressive messages are more likely to report physical withdrawal behaviors. Employees who reported being overall satisfied with their job were less likely to engage in physical withdrawal behaviors; such as leaving work early without permission or taking longer lunch breaks than what is allowed (see: Lehman & Simpson, 1992). Thus, if organizations seek to reduce the likelihood of employees engaging in physical withdrawal behaviors, they would benefit from understanding the antecedent variables that have been found to promote overall job satisfaction in employees.

As suggested, there is scant research dedicated toward better understanding Lehman and Simpson's (1992) on-the-job behaviors, including psychological and physical withdrawal behaviors. Studies have examined variables conceptually related to psychological and physical withdrawal behaviors, indicating they can be used to explain the relationship between job satisfaction and psychological and physical withdrawal behaviors. The mediating effects of organizational affective commitment can best be explained through investigating counterproductive work behaviors (CPB). CPBs are voluntary employee behaviors that violate organizational norms and are detrimental to organizational goals/interests; they include antisocial behavior, such as day dreaming, being late, or leaving early (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997). In their meta-analysis investigating the effects of job satisfaction on counterproductive behavior, Dalal (2005) suggested job satisfaction played an important role in understanding worker engagement in CPBs, which is consistent with Gouldner's (1960) Norms of Reciprocity

theory. When individuals are dissatisfied with topics related to their organization, including the organization itself or leadership, they “reciprocate” with negative behaviors, such as reducing their work effort, being late for work/leaving early, and taking longer breaks. Dalal’s (2005) meta-analysis consisted of 25 studies and a sample size of 6,106 participants; the results revealed a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and counterproductive work behaviors. Thus, affective responses, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, serve to be important predictors of counterproductive behaviors, such as day dreaming (psychological withdrawal) and being late for work/leaving early (physical withdrawal).

Hypothesis 9a sought to investigate the direct effects of employee overall job satisfaction on employee antagonistic behavior, while hypothesis 9b sought to understand the mediating effects of employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and employee antagonistic behaviors. Results indicated that condition three where the leader was observed using nonverbal immediacy behaviors but was not observed using verbally aggressive messages was found to have the strongest direct effect between employee overall job satisfaction and employee antagonistic behaviors. Condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) and condition 2 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was not used) failed to be statistically significant. In condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used), affective organizational commitment fully mediated the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and employee antagonistic behaviors. Condition 2 indicated no mediation effect and condition 3 produced partial mediation. Overall, the results from hypotheses 9a & 9b suggest that employees of leaders who engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors and who do not use verbally aggressive messages are more likely to report engaging in antagonistic behaviors.

The results from testing hypothesis 9a revealed that employees who reported being overall satisfied with their job were less likely to engage in antagonistic behaviors; including

regularly being argumentative with co-workers or with a supervisor, engaging in gossiping behaviors, and generally engaging in anti-social behavior (see: Lehman & Simpson, 1992). A deeper investigation of the results indicates that statistical significance was achieved only in the experimental condition where the leader did not use verbally aggressive behaviors, but did engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors (condition 3). If employers wish to minimize antagonistic behaviors in employees, they should train leaders to communicate in a nonverbally immediate fashion, while minimizing the use of verbal aggression messages. Furthermore, an employee's organizational affective commitment mediates the relationship between overall job satisfaction and employee antagonistic behaviors (hypothesis 9b); however, this mediation only occurred in experimental condition 3 (Verbal aggression was not used/Nonverbal immediacy was used). Thus, if organizations wish to reduce the likelihood of employees engaging in antagonistic behaviors, would benefit from understanding the antecedent variables that have been found to promote overall job satisfaction in employees, in addition to training leaders to communicate in a nonverbally immediate fashion while minimizing the use of verbal aggression.

As suggested, there is very little published scholarship dedicated to directly investigating Lehman and Simpson's (1992) on-the-job behaviors, including antagonistic behaviors. However, studies have examined variables conceptually related to antagonistic behaviors. Workplace deviance behaviors (WDB) consist of an individual's need to vent or release/express negative feelings concerning topics related to the workplace. These expressions of negative affect may come in the form of outrage, anger, or frustration (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Similarly, antagonistic work behaviors may involve such negative, and antisocial behaviors, as expressing dislike/contention, or, in some cases, insubordination via arguing with co-workers or a supervisor (Lehman & Simpson, 1992).

Previous research has identified a negative relationship between job satisfaction and WDBs (see: Ahmad & Omar, 2014; Bennett & Robinson, 2003; Bowling, 2010). Ahmad & Omar

(2014) suggested that employees who are satisfied with their job are less likely to engage in WDBs to avoid being dismissed from their position with the organization, which can be explained by Social Control Theory. Social Control Theory (Hirschi, 1969) explains that the bond an individual shares with a social institution serves to reduce the individual's tendency to engage in deviant behavior, which suggests deviant behavior is more likely to occur when an individual's bond, or commitment, to an organization is weakened. In the current project, this weakened bond may be due to lower job satisfaction. The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational affective commitment mitigates deviant behavior, such as antagonistic behaviors, through the affective response, job satisfaction, by which, an employee's bond with the organization, and/or their commitment, is strengthened.

Hypothesis 10a sought to investigate the direct effects of employee overall job satisfaction on employee information seeking behaviors, while 10b sought to understand the mediating effects of employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and employee information seeking behaviors. Results indicated that condition two where the leader was observed using verbally aggressive messages but was not observed using nonverbal immediacy behaviors was found to have the strongest direct effect between employee overall job satisfaction and employee information seeking behaviors. Condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) had the second strongest direct effect and condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) represented the weakest direct effect. In condition 1(Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used), affective organizational commitment mediated the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and information seeking behaviors, with condition 2 indicating no mediation effect and condition 3 producing partial mediation. Overall, the results from hypothesis 10a & 10b suggest that leaders

who use verbally aggressive messages and who do not engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors are more likely to report that employees engage in information seeking behaviors

The results from testing hypothesis 10a indicated that employees who reported being overall satisfied with their job were more likely to engage in information seeking behaviors, such as active engagement behaviors that seek to gain new knowledge/information by asking questions (see: Dillon, 2012). Furthermore, an employee's organizational commitment does not mediate the relationship between overall job satisfaction and information seeking behaviors if the leader engages in verbal aggression and does not engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors (Condition 2); however, mediation was found in the two experimental conditions where the manager used nonverbal immediacy behaviors (hypothesis 10b). Thus, if organizations seek to improve employee engagement in information seeking behaviors, they should seek to better understand the antecedent variables that have been found to promote overall job satisfaction in employees.

Hypothesis 11a investigated the direct effects of employee overall job satisfaction on employee information provision behaviors while hypothesis 11b sought to understand the mediating effects of employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and employee information provision behaviors. Results indicated that condition two where the leader was observed using verbally aggressive messages but was not observed using nonverbal immediacy behaviors was found to have the strongest direct effect between employee overall job satisfaction and employee information provision behaviors, with little differences in direct effect between condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) and condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used). In condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) and condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used), affective organizational commitment mediated the

relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and information provision behaviors, with condition 2 indicating no mediation effect from affective organizational commitment on the relationship between overall job satisfaction and employee Information Provision behaviors.

Overall, the results from hypothesis 11a & 11b suggest that leaders who use verbally aggressive messages and who do not engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors are more likely to report that employees engage in Information Provision behaviors

The results from testing hypothesis 11a indicated that employees who reported being overall satisfied with their job were more likely to engage in Information Provision behaviors; this includes actively answering unsolicited questions honestly and completely – and engaging in a general tendency to provide information about work related topics, without being asked for it (see: Dillon, 2012). Furthermore, an employee's organizational affective commitment does not mediate the relationship between overall job satisfaction and information seeking behaviors if the leader engages in verbal aggression and does not engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors (Condition 2); however, mediation was found in the two experimental conditions where the manager used nonverbal immediacy behaviors (hypothesis 11b). Thus, if organizations seek to improve employee information provision behaviors, they should seek to better understand the antecedent variables that have been found to promote overall job satisfaction in employees.

Hypothesis 12a investigated the direct effects of employee overall job satisfaction on employee assertive expression behaviors while hypothesis 12a sought to understand the mediating effects of employee affective organizational commitment on the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and employee assertive expression behaviors. Results indicated that condition 2 where the leader was observed using verbally aggressive messages but was not observed using nonverbal immediacy behaviors was found to have the strongest direct effect between employee overall job satisfaction and employee assertive expression

behaviors, with little differences in direct effect between condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) and condition 3 (Verbal Aggression was not used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used); all three conditions were found to be statistically significant. In all three conditions, affective organizational commitment was found to mediate the relationship between employee overall job satisfaction and employee assertive expression behaviors, with condition 1 (Verbal Aggression was used/Nonverbal Immediacy was used) having the strongest indirect effect. Overall, the results suggest that employees of leaders who use verbally aggressive messages and who do not engage in nonverbal immediacy behaviors are more likely to report engaging in information provision behaviors.

Employees who reported overall being satisfied with their job were more likely to engage in assertive expression behaviors; such as providing opinions and preferences as well as voicing one's emotions about work-related topics (see assertive utterances/expressing concern: Dillon, 2012). Furthermore, an employee's organizational commitment mediated the effects of overall job satisfaction on employee assertive expression behaviors (hypothesis 12b). Thus, if organizations seek to improve employee information provision behaviors, they should seek to better understand the antecedent variables that have been found to promote overall job satisfaction in employees.

The amount of scholarship investigating the dimensions of workplace participatory behaviors is incredibly limited, except information-seeking behaviors. Previous research has found job satisfaction plays a role in an employee's willingness to communicate. According to McCroskey and Richmond (1996), willingness to communicate refers to a person's general desire to both initiate and respond to communication presented by others. Willingness to communicate is active engagement in conversation. There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and an employee's willingness to communicate (Kloy-Eiam, 2008). Furthermore, an employee's willingness to actively engage in the workplace depends upon the

nature of the employee's commitment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Current findings provide evidence that job satisfaction and organizational affective commitment continue to promote active engagement within the workplace, specifically an employee's willingness to engage in communication relating to work related topics.

### **Limitations and Future Research**

The current project is not without its limitations. The first limitation concerns the sample size for the analysis. Issues with the Amazon MTurk data collection process. First, even with protections in place to minimize the number of bots and sloppy survey completion, a large number of people completing the survey had to be eliminated; each MTurk HIT that is rejected incurs a cost. Because the video conditions worked as anticipated, the data could not be combined for structural equation modeling and were thus tested as three independent samples based upon the conditions for most hypotheses. Scrutiny should be taken when interpreting the results – specifically the degree of statistical significance reported. A total of 364 participants were sampled, but when conducting the analysis, the experimental groups were divided into 3 groups (experimental condition 1, condition 2, and condition 3), because of this, a minimum of 106 and a maximum of 130 participants were included within the analysis. While these analyses yielded useful information, future research would benefit from collecting at least 200 people in each condition to be able to conduct structural equation modeling with a robust sample (Kline, 2011). Kline's (2011) recommendation that samples used for SEM analysis should consist of 200 participants is based on the median sample size in surveys of published articles that reported the results of structural equation models (see: Breckler, 1990; Shah & Goldstein, 2006). Although scholars have forwarded a minimum sample size of 200 participants for SEM, including Barrett (2007) who suggests any journal reviewing submissions that have < 200 participants should reject these articles for publication (unless the population under investigation

is restricted in size), 200 cases/participants may be too small for complex models that have a higher number of parameters for analysis (Kline, 2011).

A second limitation concerns the job satisfaction scale (Cammann et al., 1983). The scale consists of 3 items; confirmatory factor analysis could not be successfully completed because of multiple issues. First, the reverse-coded item did not have a high enough regression weight to be retained. Second, scales with less than three items have been questioned in terms of being actual scales (Hair et al., 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), scales consisting of 3 items are considered just identified and have zero degrees of freedom; in this case, as was found in the current study, models will consistently provide perfect fit (e.g., CFI = 1). Models with 2 items are underidentified and have negative degrees of freedom – in these instances, unique solutions cannot be found. However, the three-item scale produced acceptable Cronbach Alpha Coefficient reliability ( $\alpha = .88$ ). Future research would benefit from considering whether the negatively worded item is consistently problematic and would benefit from being positively worded, as negatively worded items have produced false-negative factors in the past (Kotowski et al., 2009; Violanti et al., 2018). Additional research regarding a valid and reliable overall or general job satisfaction scale would also be of benefit to the field as we continue to study this elusive psychological construct.

A third limitation regards the difficulty in the data collection. The current study utilized Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) data collection service. It is becoming more and more apparent that the COVID-19 Pandemic has had negative implications for researchers seeking to use online survey collection techniques, especially when these online techniques include monetary incentives for participation (Lawlor, et al., 2021). According to Lawlor, et al. (2021), survey fraud can lead to one or more challenges for researchers conducting research using an online data collection technique; these issues can include: an increase in the amount of random error found within a given dataset, potentially leading to erroneous conclusions and forcing

researchers to collect a sample size much larger than needed to account for the noise that was introduced by the fraudulent data. This was an issue experienced by the current investigation; a sample size of 1200+ participants made up the sample, but after accounting for/removing fraudulent submissions, a sample size of 364 participants made up the final data set that was used for the analysis.

Although a minor limitation, it is worth noting that the sample used for the experiment used within the current dissertation identified as blue-collar workers (see Appendix F for qualifying questions). According to the Bureau of Labor and Statistics blue-collar workers are defined as those whose work involves physical and manual labor. These individuals are often out in the field doing hard manual labor, are often trained on the job, and typically do not require any formal education. These occupations include such industries as, agriculture, manufacturing, construction, mechanics, electricians, mining, and/or maintenance work. On the other hand, white-collar workers are those who are salaried professionals, and typically have positions that require a degree in a specialized area. These occupations include such industries as corporate executives, advertising and public relation professionals, architects, lawyers, stockbrokers, and doctors (of all types, PhD/MD alike) (bls.gov). This limitation comes in the generalizability of the findings of the study itself. The findings discussed within the current dissertation cannot be extended to white collar environments where power distance is, at a varying degree, much less than the power distance experienced within blue-collar organizations/industry (see Hofstede, 1980a & 1980b).

Future research should further investigate the interactive effects of verbal aggression and nonverbal immediacy behaviors. The results indicate a clear interaction, but what is unclear is the nature of the interaction itself (see Appendix I for Experimental Condition Comparison Tables) – i.e., is nonverbal immediacy promoting a positive influence over the destructive nature of verbal aggression or is verbal aggression deteriorating the positive influence that nonverbal

immediacy holds on various outcomes? The question remains, do actions speak louder than words?

Further research needs to be conducted on the overall results of the study concerning how a leader's behaviors stretch beyond interpersonal interactions and perceptions of the leader as a communicator and the influence a leader's behaviors have on the behavior of those they lead. Additionally, investigating the reason affective organizational commitment failed to mediate the relationship between overall job satisfaction and psychological withdrawal behaviors/physical withdrawal behaviors warrants further attention.

Another area for further research involves the role nonverbal immediacy and verbal aggression play in the relationships among job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment (as a mediator), and information seeking behaviors/information provision behaviors. The current project found that when the leader was observed using verbally aggressive messages but was not nonverbally immediate, affective organizational commitment failed to serve as a mediator between overall job satisfaction and information seeking/information provision behaviors.

## **Contributions**

The findings from this project support the attitude, motivation, and behavior literature in providing additional evidence that attitudes carry implications for behavioral outcomes (Judge et al., 2001). These findings can be further explained through Approach-Avoidance theory, which states that, in general, people engage in behavior that fosters support for objects and people they evaluate favorably and have favorable/positive attitudes towards and engage in behavior that impedes or distances the individual from objects and people they evaluate negatively and have unfavorable/negative attitudes towards (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

This project has also provided evidence for Johnson and Hackman's (2018) statement that the essence of leadership lies in a leader's ability to exercise influence over those lead – and that this influence relies heavily on communicative action. The above results indicate that

the leader who engaged in nonverbal immediacy behaviors, behaviors that have been found to promote positive relational outcomes, also promote positive employee affect and behavioral outcomes that extend beyond the interactions between leaders and followers and influence the interactions followers have amongst themselves.

The findings from this project further extend our understanding of the principle of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), which states that when engaging in interpersonal interactions, we tend to naturally reciprocate both the positive and negative behaviors we observe in the individuals with whom we interact. The above hypothesis tests indicated that employees who had a leader engaged verbal aggression without nonverbal immediacy behaviors were more likely to engage in a conformity orientation communication pattern; employees who had a leader that engaged in nonverbal immediacy behaviors without verbally aggressive messages were more likely to engage in a conversation orientation communication pattern. The findings of this study extend our understanding of the principle of reciprocity by suggesting that reciprocity does not end at the dyadic interaction we have with another individual; in the case of a relationship defined by a significant power differentiation, such as the relationship between a leader and an employee, the principle of reciprocity extends to others beyond that initial interaction – again providing evidence of the extent of influence leaders have over followers. In addition to the above contributions, the current project also contributes to the understanding of communicative behaviors and interactions by providing a scale that measures behaviors defined as communicative and engaging in nature – behaviors that, currently, do not have a validated means of measurement. The behaviors measured within this scale includes, information seeking (i.e., actively seeking out information through the requesting of information directly or through asking questions), information provision (i.e., providing information that was voluntarily/without request, and/or answering questions that were asked honestly and as completely as possible), and assertive expressions (i.e., openly expressing opinions/how they

feel about certain topics, readily expressing preferences concerning decisions/topics, and communicating their emotional states about various topics).

The scale developed within the current project provides researchers with a new way of understanding how various antecedents influence the way employees engage themselves in conversation. Consequently, providing a potentially new line of research for understanding the workplace and how those employed, organize, and accomplish organizational objectives and goals through the communication engagement behaviors (i.e., information seeking, information provision, assertive expressions).

The overall findings of the current project may best be understood through the theoretical lens of Structuration Theory (Giddens, 1984) and Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). According to Structuration Theory, organizational rules, resources, cultural values, and norms shape the social interactions occurring within social systems. Leadership plays a meaningful role in defining and exercising elements such as rules, cultural values, and norms within the organizational context. According to these data from the blue-collar environment, an organization's leadership heavily influences the creation and re-creation of a given social structure, through the leader's everyday social practices and interactions with members of that system. This process is further explained through the use of Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991).

According to LMX there are three levels, or domains, involved in the leadership process: Leader, follower, and the dyadic relationship between the leader and the follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX emphasizes the importance of the relationship within this dynamic; in fact, past research has uncovered that high leader-member exchange is associated with the development of a follower's (employee's) understood role (Dansereau et al., 1975). This role development is accomplished through sharing information, direct influence, and support by a leader, i.e., high LMX (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980). The role development

can also come in the form of a lack of information, indirect influence, and a lack of support by a leader, i.e., low LMX (Graen, et al., 1982b). Leadership, in large part, by its' vary name, involves leading – this includes providing instruction/direction to followers/subordinates concerning not only day-to-day activity, but also encompasses social practices. As evidenced within the current study the influence of leadership goes beyond written and spoken instruction and involves the subtle nuances from nonverbal behaviors and paralinguistics (not what is said, but how something is said), as well as actual spoken language. Within each tested hypothesis, although not tested directly, a leader's use of verbally aggressive messages and nonverbal immediacy behaviors had an influence on the relationship among the variables being tested (see Appendix B for operationalization of each experimental condition). Although the results clearly point towards a clear relationship between the tested variables, the behaviors exhibited by a leader had an influence on the interaction among those variables, all-be-it subtle, but an influence non-the-less. Providing evidence of the influence that leader-member exchange and the relationship shared between leaders and members of an organization (i.e. followers) has on not only the relationship shared between leaders and organization members, but also the socializing of members amongst themselves and the relationships shared among members of an organization.

The conclusions made within the current project provides empirical evidence for how influential a leader's behaviors are in not only affective and behavioral responses, but also how these social interactions influence the social interactions of the system's members. A leader's communicative behaviors, both positive and healthy as well as deleterious and destructive, play a role in positively and negatively influencing the employees' behaviors. This project enhances our understanding of these interactions by showing that a leader's influence goes beyond perceptions and personal relationships shared by leadership and members of an organization to influence the interactions employees have with other organizational members.

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**APPENDICES**

## Appendix A

### Consent for Research Participation: Pilot Study

**Research Study Title:** An investigation into the joint effects of a leader's use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors & symbolic aggression on workplace engagement behaviors

**Researcher(s):** Joseph E. Lybarger, University of Tennessee, Knoxville  
Dr. Michelle Violanti, PhD, University of Tennessee, Knoxville

#### **Why am I being asked to be in this research study?**

We are asking you to be in this research study because the researchers need participants who are not a part of the research team to view the assigned video and help to validate the assigned video by identifying certain behaviors that should be observed in the video.

#### **What is this research study about?**

The purpose of the research study is a part of a project that is seeking to understand how a leader's use of specific behaviors influences an employee's responses within the workplace.

#### **How long will I be in the research study?**

If you agree to be in the study, your participation will last for 25 minutes. 2 minutes to watch a video, and 23 minutes to complete the survey questions.

#### **What will happen if I say "Yes, I want to be in this research study"?**

If you agree to be in this study, we will ask you to watch a video, and complete a short survey asking you to identify whether certain behaviors were observed within the video you saw

#### **What happens if I say "No, I do not want to be in this research study"?**

Being in this study is up to you. You can say no now or leave the study later. Either way, your decision won't affect your grades, your relationship with your instructors, or standing with the University of Tennessee. Instead of participating in the current study, possible options available to you students wishing to complete a non-SONA alternative can contact your instructor about writing a critique (e.g., a recorded speech from the McClung Public Speaking Contest). the time required for the alternative assignment will be commensurate with the time required to meet participation requirements or participation in another research study to receive credit.

#### **What happens if I say "Yes" but change my mind later?**

Even if you decide to be in the study now, you can change your mind and stop at any time. If you decide to stop before the study is completed, all you must do is close out of the survey. Any information already collected for the research will be discarded (as it will be incomplete); cases of incomplete data are not used for the final analysis.

#### **Are there any possible risks to me?**

We don't know of any risks to you from being in the study.

#### **Are there any benefits to being in this research study?**

We do not expect you to benefit from being in this study. Your participation may help us to learn more about the communication behaviors observed within the video. We hope the knowledge gained from this study will benefit others in the future.

#### **Who can see or use the information collected for this research study?**

although no identifying information will be collected, We will protect the confidentiality of the data you provide us.

If information from this study is published or presented at scientific meetings, your name and other personal information will not be used.

We will make every effort to prevent anyone who is not on the research team from knowing that you gave us information or what information came from you. Although it is unlikely, there are times when others may need to see the information we collect about you. These include:

- People at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville who oversee research to make sure it is conducted properly.
- Government agencies (such as the Office for Human Research Protections in the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services), and others responsible for watching over the safety, effectiveness, and conduct of the research.
- If a law or court requires us to share the information, we would have to follow that law or final court ruling.

**What will happen to my information after this study is over?**

We will not keep your information to use for future research or other purposes. Your name and other information that can directly identify you will be deleted from your research data collected as part of the study.

We will not share your research data with other researchers.

**Will I be paid for being in this research study?**

*Participants will be compensated for their time in the form of 1 research credit for full participation; in the event that a student finished half of the survey, they will be awarded half of the 1 research credit. The awarded research credit will be awarded to participants by the department.*

**Who can answer my questions about this research study?**

If you have questions or concerns about this study, or have experienced a research related problem or injury, contact the researchers, Joe E. Lybarger (jlybarga@vols.utk.edu), or Dr. Michelle Violanti (violanti@utk.edu).

For questions or concerns about your rights or to speak with someone other than the research team about the study, please contact:

Institutional Review Board

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

1534 White Avenue

Blount Hall, Room 408

Knoxville, TN 37996-1529

Phone: 865-974-7697

Email: utkirb@utk.edu

**STATEMENT OF CONSENT**

YES, I am 18 years or older, have read and understand the above consent form, and voluntarily agree to participate in this study

NO, I am not 18 years or older, AND/OR I do not consent to the above form, AND/OR I do not voluntarily agree to participate in this study

## Appendix B

### **SCRIPT FOR VIDEO CONDITION 1:** **Symbolic Aggression Used – Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors Used**

**Situation:** The Senior Chief for Branch Operations (a person in a high leadership position for a major manufacturing company) is addressing his employees regarding some changes and updates to the facility where he serves in a leadership position.

*(The Senior Chief is sitting behind his desk, leaned back and appearing very relaxed in his chair, holding a report in his hand as he prepares to address his employees. As the video starts recording the Senior Chief can be seen reading over a report, he looks up, makes positive and direct eye contact with the camera, smiles and in a very friendly way, extends his hand, and greets his viewers and begins the announcements)*

Hello obsequious ladder-climbers from the desk of the senior chief for branch operations, *(smiles and chuckles while stepping out from behind the desk and while walking around to the front of the desk)* today I have a few announcements concerning changes and updates to our facility, I'll try to use words that are easy for you understand *(sits down on front of desk and faces the camera straight on, with good posture and positive eye contact with the camera, a smile and while using hand gestures to direct the announcements reads the following)*.

*While only looking up at the camera occasionally and a posture that is neutral and slightly leaning forward, the Senior Chief reads the following with a slight increase in annoyance and a slight decrease in effort as the script moves forward towards the end:*

The first announcement is to help you mindless slobs with recycling; containers for paper and plastic only (*\*contradicting emphasis on only*) will be added to existing trash can locations. This means that in addition to having a trash can for landfill waste there will also be containers for paper and plastic. You should use the three trash cans responsibly (*\*contradicting emphasis on responsibly*) depending on the trash, that you throw away.

Not that you probably care, but the second announcement concerns the Styrofoam cups used within our facility; the company will now be using single use cups made from bamboo pulp to further help with eco-friendly recycling efforts.

The final announcement, my ladder-climbers, is that an additional vending machine will be added alongside the existing machines.

If you have any questions regarding these announcements, *(looking up, and raising right hand up towards the ceiling, chuckle and smile)* god help me (*\*contradicting emphasis on god help me*), you can address me directly about them; but don't waste my time with stupid questions. I hope you slackers have a productive and safe day, or whatever *(with a smile, and a single hand wave, the Senior Chief symbolically "signs off")*.

### **SCRIPT FOR VIDEO CONDITION 2:** **Symbolic Aggression Used – Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors Not Used**

**Situation:** The Senior Chief for Branch Operations (a person in a high leadership position for a major manufacturing company) is addressing his employees regarding some changes and updates to the facility where he serves in a leadership position.

*(The Senior Chief is sitting behind his desk, leaning slightly forward with good posture in his chair, holding a report in his hand as he prepares to address his employees. As the video starts recording the Senior Chief is stoic and unanimated in his use of nonverbal gestures as well as the way he speaks (paralinguistically), the Senior Chief greets his viewers and begins the announcements)*

Hello obsequious ladder-climbers from the desk of the senior chief for branch operations, today I have a few announcements concerning changes and updates to our facility, ill try to use words that are easy for you understand.

*While only looking up at the camera occasionally and a posture that is neutral and slightly leaning forward, the Senior Chief reads the following with a slight increase in annoyance and a slight decrease in effort as the script moves forward towards the end:*

The first announcement is to help you mindless slobs with recycling; containers for paper and plastic only (\*contradicting emphasis on only) will be added to existing trash can locations. This means that in addition to having a trash can for landfill waste there will also be containers for paper and plastic. You should use the three trash cans responsibly (\*contradicting emphasis on responsibly) depending on the trash, that you throw away.

Not that you probably care, but the second announcement concerns the Styrofoam cups used within our facility; the company will now be using single use cups made from bamboo pulp to further help with eco-friendly recycling efforts.

The final announcement, my ladder-climbers, is that an additional vending machine will be added alongside the existing machines.

If you have any questions regarding these announcements, (*looking up, and raising right hand up towards the ceiling, with neutral facial expressiveness*) god help me (\*contradicting emphasis on god help me), you can address me directly about them; but don't waste my time with stupid questions. I hope you slackers have a productive and safe day, or whatever.

### **SCRIPT FOR VIDEO CONDITION 3:**

#### **Symbolic Aggression Not Used – Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors Used**

**Situation:** The Senior Chief for Branch Operations (a person in a high leadership position for a major manufacturing company) is addressing his employees regarding some changes and updates to the facility where he serves in a leadership position.

*(The Senior Chief is sitting behind his desk, leaned back and appearing very relaxed in his chair, holding a report in his hand as he prepares to address his employees. As the video starts recording the Senior Chief can be seen reading over a report, he looks up, makes positive and direct eye contact with the camera, smiles and in a very friendly way, extends his hand, and greets his viewers and begins the announcements)*

Hello from the desk of the senior chief for branch operations, (*smiles and chuckles while stepping out from behind the desk and while walking around to the front of the desk*) today I have a few announcements concerning changes and updates to our facility (*sits down on front of desk and faces the camera straight on, with good posture and positive eye contact with the camera, a smile and while using hand gestures to direct the announcements reads the following*).

The first announcement is to help with recycling; containers for paper and plastic only will be added to existing trash can locations. This means that in addition to having a trash can for landfill waste there will also be containers for paper and plastic. You should use the three trash cans responsibly depending on the trash, that you throw away.

The second announcement concerns the Styrofoam cups used within our facility; the company will now be using single use cups made from bamboo pulp to further help with eco-friendly recycling efforts.

The final announcement is that an additional vending machine will be added alongside the existing machines.

*(With a smile and joyful expressiveness in his voice)* If you have any questions regarding these announcements, you can address me directly about them. I hope you have a productive and safe day (*with a smile, and a single hand wave, the Senior Chief symbolically "signs off"*).

**SCRIPT FOR VIDEO CONDITION 4:**  
**Symbolic Aggression Not Used – Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors Not Used**

**Situation:** The Senior Chief for Branch Operations (a person in a high leadership position for a major manufacturing company) is addressing his employees regarding some changes and updates to the facility where he serves in a leadership position.

*(The Senior Chief is sitting behind his desk, leaning slightly forward with good posture in his chair, holding a report in his hand as he prepares to address his employees. As the video starts recording the Senior Chief is stoic and unanimated in his use of nonverbal gestures as well as the way he speaks (paralinguistically), the Senior Chief greets his viewers and begins reading the announcements; occasionally looking up at the camera)*

Hello from the desk of the senior chief for branch operations, today I have a few announcements concerning changes and updates to our facility

The first announcement is that containers for paper and plastic only will be added to existing trash can locations. This means that in addition to having a trash can for landfill waste there will also be containers for paper and plastic. You should use the three trash cans responsibly depending on the trash, that you throw away.

The second announcement concerns the Styrofoam cups used within our facility; the company will now be using single use cups made from bamboo pulp to further help with eco-friendly recycling efforts.

The final announcement I have is that, an additional vending machine will be added alongside the existing machines that we have.

If you have any questions regarding these announcements, you can address me directly about them. I hope you have a productive and safe day.

## Appendix C

### Survey

**Instructions:** The following statements describe some of the verbal and nonverbal ways people sometimes communicate while talking with or to others. While considering the supervisor you saw in the video, indicate how much you agree/disagree with each statement

#### **NONVERBAL IMMEDIACY**

1. The supervisor gestures while talking
2. The supervisor uses a monotone/dull voice when talking
3. The supervisor looks at employees while talking
4. The supervisor smiles at employees while talking
5. The supervisor has a very tense body position while talking
6. The supervisor looks at notes or papers while talking
7. The supervisor has a very relaxed body position while talking
8. The supervisor smiles while talking
9. The supervisor uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking

#### **VERBAL AGGRESSION**

1. The supervisor is always extremely careful to avoid attacking his employees intelligence when he attack their ideas
2. When his employees are very stubborn, the supervisor will use insults to soften the stubbornness
3. The supervisor tries very hard to avoid having his employees feel bad about themselves when he tries to influence them
4. When his employees refuse to do a task, the supervisor knows is important, without good reason, he will tell them they are being unreasonable
5. When employees do things the supervisor regards as stupid, he will try to be extremely gentle with them
6. If employees the supervisor is trying to influence really deserve it, he will attack their character
7. When employees behave in ways that are in very poor taste, the supervisor will insult them to shock them into proper behavior
8. The supervisor tries to make his employees feel good about themselves even when their ideas are stupid
9. When employees simply will not budge on a matter of importance, the supervisor will lose his temper and say rather strong things to them
10. When employees criticize the supervisor's shortcomings, he will take it in good humor and will not try to get back at them
11. When individuals insult the supervisor, he will get a lot of pleasure out of really telling them off
12. When the supervisor dislikes employees greatly, he tries not to show it in what he says or how he says it
13. The supervisor enjoys poking fun at employees who do things which are very stupid in order to stimulate their intelligence
14. When the supervisor attacks an employee's ideas, he tries not to damage their self-concepts
15. When the supervisor tries to influence his employees, he will make a great effort not to offend them
16. When employees do things, which are mean or cruel, the supervisor will attack their character in order to help correct their behavior

17. The supervisor would refuse to participate in an argument when the argument involves personal attacks
18. When nothing seems to work in trying to influence his employees, the supervisor will yell and scream in order to get some movement from them
19. When the supervisor is not able to refute his employees' positions, he will try to make them feel defensive in order to weaken their positions
20. When an argument shifts to personal attacks, the supervisor tries very hard to change the subject

**Instructions:** The following statements describe certain behaviors people might engage in while communicating at work. While considering the supervisor you saw in the video, indicate how much you agree with each statement.

### **WORKPLACE PARTICPATORY BEHAVIORS SCALE**

#### **Information Seeking (i.e., Asking of questions)**

1. The employees feel comfortable asking for information at work
2. The employees do not hesitate to ask questions about work related topics
3. The employees do not hesitate about asking for information at work
4. The employees feel comfortable asking for the information they need to complete work-related tasks.
5. The employees feel comfortable asking questions when seeking work-related information.
6. The employees tend to ask questions about work related topics
7. The employees do not hesitate about asking for information regarding work related topics
8. The employees regularly ask for information they need to complete work-related tasks
9. The employees regularly ask questions about work related topics
10. The employees regularly seek out information they need to complete work-related tasks
11. The employees feel comfortable seeking out information while at work
12. The employees feel comfortable about asking questions about work related topics

#### **Assertive Utterances (Expressing of opinions and preferences)**

1. The employees do not hesitate to express their opinions about work related topics
2. The employees are firm about saying how they feel about work-related preferences.
3. The employees do not hesitate to let their preferences related to work topics be known.
4. The employees often readily reveal their opinions about work related topics
5. The employees let others know their preferences about decisions concerning work related topics
6. The employees openly express their opinions about decisions concerning work related topics
7. The employees often readily express their preferences about work related topics
8. The employees do not hesitate to let others know about their opinions about work related topics
9. The employees are assertive about expressing their preferences about decisions concerning work related topics
10. The employees do not hesitate to express their preferences about work related topics
11. The employees are firm about expressing their opinions about work related topics
12. The employees usually take charge of expressing their preferences about decisions concerning work related topics
13. The employees are assertive about expressing their opinion about work-related topics
14. The employees regularly express their opinions about work related topics
15. The employees regularly express they preferences about decisions concerning work related topics

#### **Expressing Concern (Expressing of emotions and/or acknowledging the individuals personal emotional state)**

1. Expressing their emotions about work related topics is not a problem for employees
2. It is not difficult for employees to express their emotions about work related topics

3. The employees generally have no problem acknowledging their personal emotional state about work-related topics
4. Overall, the employees are comfortable with expressing their emotions about work related topics
5. The employees would describe themselves as someone who normally acknowledges his/her personal emotional state about work-related topics
6. Acknowledging their emotions about work related topics is not a problem for employees
7. The employees regularly express their emotions about work related topics
8. When the employees have a certain feeling about a work-related topic, they always communicate that feeling
9. The employees regularly communicate their concerns about work related topics
10. The employees regularly communicate their concerns about work related decisions
11. The employees openly express their emotions about work related topics
12. The employees openly express their emotions about decisions concerning work related topics
13. The employees would describe themselves as someone who typically expresses his/her personal emotional state about work-related topics
14. The employees generally have no problem expressing their emotions about work-related decisions

**Information Provision (i.e., providing information and answering questions that were unsolicited/answering questions asked honestly and completely)**

1. Even if it is not asked for, the employees frequently provide information about work related topics
2. The employees often answer questions honestly about work related topics
3. The employees regularly answer questions about work related topics as completely as they can.
4. Even if it is not asked for, the employees often readily provide answers to questions about work related topics
5. The employees often answer questions honestly about work related topics
6. The employees generally provide information about work-related decisions, even if it is not asked for.
7. The employees regularly answer questions honestly about work related decisions
8. Even if it is not asked for, the employees regularly provide answers to questions about work related decisions
9. When asked questions about work related topics, the employees always answer honestly
10. The employees tend to answer questions completely, when asked about work-related decisions
11. The employees tend to respond honestly to questions about work related topics
12. Even if it is not asked for, the employees tend to respond completely to questions about work related decisions
13. The employees do not hesitate to answer questions about work related topics

## Appendix D

### MTurk Recruitment Message

**Study Name:** Testing a model of engagement: An investigation into the joint effects of a leader's verbal aggression and nonverbal immediacy cues on worker communicative engagement

**Study Type:** Online External Study – This study is an online study located on another website. Participants are not given access to the Study URL until after they sign up for the study

**Duration:** participation can last up to 20 minutes

**Credits:** \$1.45

**Abstract:** The current research seeks to build a model that explores both a leader's use of symbolic aggression, as well as nonverbal immediacy behaviors and how these verbal/nonverbal behaviors positively &/or negatively influence organizational members' affective (emotional) and behavioral outcomes. The independent variables include: symbolic aggression & nonverbal immediacy behaviors; while the dependent variables for the current study include: communication orientation (conformity/conversation), social support, affective commitment, job satisfaction, on-the-job behaviors (i.e., positive work behaviors, psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, antagonistic behaviors), & participatory behaviors (i.e., information seeking, information provision, assertive utterances, expressing concern).

**Description:** Current research, in the field of communication studies, investigates verbal aggression & nonverbal immediacy at length, however, these studies have only investigated the main effects of the above behaviors; scholars lack research investigating verbal/nonverbal behaviors jointly and how these behaviors, when studied concomitantly, influence various affective/behavioral outcomes. Thus, this study provides scholars with an investigation that fills this gap in our understanding of how the verbal/nonverbal communication we engage in influences various responses in those we interact with.

## Appendix E

### Consent for Research Participation: Study 2

**Research Study Title:** Testing a model of engagement: An investigation into the joint effects of a leader's verbal aggression and nonverbal immediacy cues on worker communicative engagement

**Researcher(s):** Joseph E. Lybarger, University of Tennessee, Knoxville  
Dr. Michelle Violanti, PhD, University of Tennessee, Knoxville

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We are asking you to be in this research study about leadership and employee behavior in the workplace. In order to participate, you must fulfill the following requirements:

- You must be 22 years or older.
- You must currently work at least 30 hours per week at one place of employment/organization.
- You must have maintained continuous employment in your current position with the same supervisor/manager/boss for at least one (1) year.
- You must currently work in a position that a supervisor/manager/boss directly oversees.
- You must be considered a "Blue-Collar Worker": i.e., Someone who is a member of the working class who performs manual labor and either earns an hourly wage OR is paid piece rate for completed work.

**If you do not meet these criteria**, please close your browser and discontinue participation in this survey.

The information in this consent form is to help you decide if you want to be in this research study. Please take your time reading this form and contact the researcher(s) to ask questions if there is anything you do not understand.

#### **Why is the research being done?**

The purpose of the research study is to examine the verbally aggressive messages and nonverbal behaviors that leaders (i.e., supervisor's/manager's/bosses) can and at times do use, and how these behaviors influence employee affective (emotional) and behavioral outcomes.

#### **What will I do in this study?**

If you agree to be in this study, you will first watch a short 1-2 minute video before completing an online survey (please note, not all participants will view the same video; out of 3 videos, you will only watch 1). The survey includes basic demographic questions about you the participant, as well as questions about how you think the employees feel and behave in the specific organization depicted in the short video you watch. The survey should take you 20 minutes to complete. You can skip questions that you do not want to answer. You will know you have reached the end of the study when you reach a message that thanks you for your time and cooperation as the study has reached an end.

#### **Can I say "No"?**

Participation in the study is completely voluntary. You can stop at any time, up until you submit the survey. After you submit the survey, we cannot remove your responses because we will not know which responses came from you.

**Are there any risks to me?**

We don't know of any risks to you from being in the study.

**Are there any benefits to me?**

We do not expect you to benefit directly from being in this study. However, your participation will help broaden current literature regarding how a leader's (i.e., supervisor's/manager's/bosses) communication behaviors influence the workplace; specifically, how these behaviors influence the affective (emotional) and behavioral outcomes of employees, as well as increase information known about the communication characteristics that are being investigated by us, the researchers.

**What will happen with the information collected for this study?**

The survey is anonymous, and no one will be able to link your responses back to you. Your responses to the survey will not be linked to your computer, email address or other electronic identifiers. Information collected for this study will be published and possibly presented at scientific meetings.

**Will I be paid for being in this research study?**

As an MTurk worker, you will receive \$1.45 compensation if you are found to be eligible and complete the survey in full with thoughtful responses through your MTurk worker account. In the survey link instructions on the MTurk website, you were made aware in the HIT preview that the HIT has a series of qualification questions and that acceptance to the study is contingent upon answering these questions satisfactorily. The qualification questions concern fulfilling the above criteria. At the end of the survey, you will be thanked and given an MTurk code to submit on the HIT preview site. This code will be approved by the researchers within 3 days of completing the survey to provide compensation. Each code is unique and randomly generated by Qualtrics to ensure your anonymity is not compromised.

**Who can answer my questions about this research study?**

If you have questions or concerns about this study, or have experienced a research related problem or injury, contact the researchers, Joe Lybarger at [jlybarga@vols.utk.edu](mailto:jlybarga@vols.utk.edu), and (240) 522-6467 OR Michelle Violanti at [violanti@utk.edu](mailto:violanti@utk.edu) and (865) 974-7072.

For questions or concerns about your rights or to speak with someone other than the research team about the study, please contact:

Institutional Review Board  
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville  
1534 White Avenue  
Blount Hall, Room 408  
Knoxville, TN 37996-1529  
Phone: 865-974-7697  
Email: [utkirb@utk.edu](mailto:utkirb@utk.edu)

**Statement of Consent**

I have read this form, been given the chance to ask questions and have my questions answered. If I have more questions, I have been told who to contact. By clicking the "I Agree" button below, I am agreeing to be in this study. I can print or save a copy of this consent information for future reference. If I do not want to be in this study or do not meet the criteria above, I can close my internet browser.

## Appendix F

### Survey Qualifying Questions

**Instructions:** Please answer the following questions

1. I am at least 22 years old
2. I currently work at least 30 hours per week at, at least, one place of employment
3. I have maintained continuous employment in my current position with the same supervisor/manager/boss for at least one (1) year
4. I currently work in a position that a supervisor/manager/boss directly oversees
5. I am considered a "Blue-Collar Worker": i.e., I am someone who is a member of the working class, and performs manual labor and either earns an hourly wage OR is paid piece rate for completed work

## Appendix G

### Rejection Message: Study 2

Thank you for taking our survey. As stated in the Consent Form, there are certain requirements that must be met in order to participate and receive compensation.

**You are seeing this message because you are not eligible to complete the study and receive compensation. This may be due to any of the following reasons:**

- *You are under 22 years old.*
- *You do not currently work an average of 30 hours per week at one place of employment/organization.*
- *You have not maintained continuous employment in your current position with the same supervisor/manager/boss for at least one (1) year.*
- *You do not work in a position that a manager/supervisor/boss oversees.*
- *Are not considered a “Blue-Collar Worker” and is not someone who is a member of the working class who performs manual labor and either earns an hourly wage OR is paid piece rate for completed work.*

*This follows Amazon Mechanical Turk policy, which states that “a Requester may reject your work if the HIT was not completed correctly, or the instructions were not followed.”*

**You may close this window or use your explorer bar to navigate back to the Amazon Mechanical Turk site.**

## Appendix H

### Survey

#### **COMMUNICATION PATTERNS**

**Instructions:** The following statements describe the communication that is observed between leaders and co-workers within a workplace setting. **Based on the video you just saw, indicate how much you agree with each statement.**

#### **Conversation Orientation**

1. The employees often talk about topics like politics and religion where some employees disagree with others
2. The manager often says something like “every member of the organization should have some say in work-related decisions”
3. The manager often asks employees for their opinion when the work group is talking about something
4. The manager encourages employees to challenge their ideas and beliefs
5. The manager often says something like “you should always look at both sides of an issue”
6. The employees usually tell their manager what they are thinking about things
7. The employees can tell their manager almost anything
8. The employees often talk about their feelings and emotions
9. The manager and the employees often have long, relaxed conversations about nothing in particular
10. The employees really enjoy talking with their manager, even when they disagree
11. The manager encourages the employees to express their feelings
12. The manager tends to be very open about his emotions
13. The employees often talk as a group about things they have done during the day
14. The employees often talk about their plans and hopes for the future
15. The manager likes to hear employee’s opinion, even when they don’t agree with the Manager

#### **Conformity Orientation**

1. When anything really important is involved, the manager expects employees to obey without question
2. The manager usually has the last word
3. The manager feels that it is important to be the boss
4. The manager sometimes becomes irritated with the employees views, if they are different from the manager’s
5. If the manager doesn’t approve of it, he doesn’t want to know about it
6. The employees are expected to obey the manager’s rules
7. The manager often says things like “you’ll know better when you’ve worked here longer”
8. The manager often says things like “my ideas are right, and you should not question them”
9. The manager often says things like “an employee should not argue with managers”
10. The manager often says things like “there are some things that just shouldn’t be talked about”
12. The manager often says things like “you should give in on arguments rather than risk making people mad”

**Instructions:** The following statements describe different ways employees receive emotional support from co-workers, as well as describe employee workplace-commitment and overall job-satisfaction. **Based on the video you saw, indicate how much you agree with each statement.**

**PROACTIVE COPING INVENTORY: EMOTIONAL SUPPORT**

1. If an employee is depressed, they know which of their co-workers they can call to help them feel better
2. co-workers help each other feel cared for.
3. The employees know which of their co-workers they can count on when the chips are down.
4. When an employee is depressed, they get out and talk to their co-workers.
5. The employees confide their feelings in their co-workers to build up and maintain close relationships.

**ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT**

1. The employees all feel very happy to spend the rest of their careers with this organization
2. The employees enjoy discussing their organization with people outside of it
3. The employees really feel as if this organization's problems are their own
4. The employees think that they could easily become as attached to another organization as they are to this one
5. The employees do not feel like "part of the family" at this organization (R)
6. The employees do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization (R)
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to the employees who work there
8. The employees do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization (R)

**OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION**

1. All in all, the employees are satisfied with their job
2. In general, the employees don't like their job
3. In general, the employees like working here

**Instructions:** The following statements describe different ways employees behave, as well as communicate in a workplace setting. **Based on the video you saw, indicate how much you agree with each statement.**

**ON-THE-JOB BEHAVIORS**

**Positive work behaviors:**

1. The employees do more work than required
2. The employees volunteer to work overtime
3. The employees attempt to change their working conditions
4. The employees negotiate with supervisors to improve their jobs
5. The employees try to think of ways to do their jobs better

**Psychological withdrawal behaviors:**

1. The employees have thought about being absent
2. The employees chat with other co-workers about nonwork topics
3. The employees leave workstation for unnecessary reasons
4. The employees daydream
5. The employees spend work time on personal matters

6. The employees put less effort into their jobs than they should
7. The employees have thought about leaving their current job
8. The employees let others do their work for them

**Physical withdrawal behaviors:**

1. The employees leave work early without permission
2. The employees take longer lunch or rest breaks than allowed
3. The employees take supplies or equipment without permission
4. The employees fall asleep at work

**Antagonistic work behaviors:**

1. The employees report other co-workers for breaking rules or policies
2. The employees file formal complaints against their co-workers
3. The employees argue with their co-workers
4. The employees disobey their supervisor's instructions
5. The employees spread rumors or gossip about their co-workers

**WORKPLACE PARTICIPATORY BEHAVIORS**

**Information Seeking (i.e., Asking of questions)**

1. The employees feel comfortable asking for information at work
2. The employees do not hesitate to ask questions about work related topics
3. The employees do not hesitate about asking for information at work
4. The employees feel comfortable asking for the information they need to complete work-related tasks.
5. The employees feel comfortable asking questions when seeking work-related information.
6. The employees tend to ask questions about work related topics
7. The employees do not hesitate about asking for information regarding work related topics
8. The employees regularly ask for information they need to complete work-related tasks
9. The employees regularly ask questions about work related topics
10. The employees regularly seek out information they need to complete work-related tasks
11. The employees feel comfortable seeking out information while at work
12. The employees feel comfortable about asking questions about work related topics

**Assertive Utterances (Expressing of opinions and preferences)**

1. The employees do not hesitate to express their opinions about work related topics
2. The employees are firm about saying how they feel about work-related preferences.
3. The employees do not hesitate to let their preferences related to work topics be known.
4. The employees often readily reveal their opinions about work related topics
5. The employees let others know their preferences about decisions concerning work related topics
6. The employees openly express their opinions about decisions concerning work related topics
7. The employees often readily express their preferences about work related topics
8. The employees do not hesitate to let others know about their opinions about work related topics
9. The employees are assertive about expressing their preferences about decisions concerning work related topics
10. The employees do not hesitate to express their preferences about work related topics

11. The employees are firm about expressing their opinions about work related topics
12. The employees usually take charge of expressing their preferences about decisions concerning work related topics
13. The employees are assertive about expressing their opinion about work-related topics
14. The employees regularly express their opinions about work related topics
15. The employees regularly express they preferences about decisions concerning work related topics

**Expressing Concern (Expressing of emotions and/or acknowledging the individuals personal emotional state)**

1. Expressing their emotions about work related topics is not a problem for employees
2. It is not difficult for employees to express their emotions about work related topics
3. The employees generally have no problem acknowledging their personal emotional state about work-related topics
4. Overall, the employees are comfortable with expressing their emotions about work related topics
5. The employees would describe themselves as someone who normally acknowledges his/her personal emotional state about work-related topics
6. Acknowledging their emotions about work related topics is not a problem for employees
7. The employees regularly express their emotions about work related topics
8. When the employees have a certain feeling about a work-related topic, they always communicate that feeling
9. The employees regularly communicate their concerns about work related topics
10. The employees regularly communicate their concerns about work related decisions
11. The employees openly express their emotions about work related topics
12. The employees openly express their emotions about decisions concerning work related topics
13. The employees would describe themselves as someone who typically expresses his/her personal emotional state about work-related topics
14. The employees generally have no problem expressing their emotions about work-related decisions

**Information Provision (i.e., providing information and answering questions that were unsolicited/answering questions asked honestly and completely)**

1. Even if it is not asked for, the employees frequently provide information about work related topics
2. The employees often answer questions honestly about work related topics
3. The employees regularly answer questions about work related topics as completely as they can.
4. Even if it is not asked for, the employees often readily provide answers to questions about work related topics
5. The employees often answer questions honestly about work related topics
6. The employees generally provide information about work-related decisions, even if it is not asked for.
7. The employees regularly answer questions honestly about work related decisions
8. Even if it is not asked for, the employees regularly provide answers to questions about work related decisions
9. When asked questions about work related topics, the employees always answer honestly
10. The employees tend to answer questions completely, when asked about work-related decisions

11. The employees tend to respond honestly to questions about work related topics
12. Even if it is not asked for, the employees tend to respond completely to questions about work related decisions
13. The employees do not hesitate to answer questions about work related topics

### **DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

**Instructions: Please answer the following questions about you, the participant.**

1. What is your age (in years)?
2. What is your biological sex?
  - Male
  - Female
  - Intersex
  - Other
  - Prefer not to answer
3. What is your race
  - Asian or Pacific Islander
  - Black or African American
  - Hispanic or Latino
  - Native American or American Indian
  - White or Caucasian
  - Other

## VITA

Born in Ellerslie, Maryland, Joe Lybarger attended West Virginia University (WVU: Morgantown, WV) for his undergraduate studies Majoring in Communication Studies and pursuing a Minor in Leadership. During his time at WVU Joe became an active member of both the Eastern Communication Association (ECA) as well as the National Communication Association (NCA) – Professional Associations he maintains active membership in still today. After completing his Bachelor's degree, Joe received an internship with the Office of Mine Safety and Health research (Pittsburgh, PA) – A division of the Center for Disease Control/National Institute for Occupational Safety & Health, where he served as a research assistant. During his time with the Office of Mine Safety and Health Research, Joe assisted lead researchers in investigating how to improve the safety of coal mines, by improving the safety culture of coal miners.

Joe then continued his education at the University of Akron (UofA: Akron, OH). During his time at UofA, Joe successfully completed his Master's Thesis under the direction of Dr. Andrew Rancer. His Thesis, titled: "*Do actions really speak louder than words?: Investigating the effects of Nonverbal Immediacy and Verbally Aggressive Messages on perceptions of a managers perceived level of Credibility, Caring, and Communicator Style*", investigated how a leaders use of Verbal, or Symbolic, Aggression and Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors interact to influence observers perceptions of a Leader's overall Source Credibility (i.e., Competence, Character, & Caring), and Affirming Communicator Style (i.e., Relaxed, Attentive, & Friendly); the research study completed within his Master's Thesis has been published in a peer reviewed Academic Journal (i.e., *Communication Research Reports*).

After successfully completing his Master's Program at UofA, Joe continued his education by pursuing a Doctoral Degree in Communication Studies from the University of Tennessee (UT: Knoxville, TN). During his Doctoral Studies at UT, Joe taught a variety of classes including: Survey of Communication Theory; Social Influence, Persuasion, and Compliance Gaining;

Survey of Interpersonal Communication; Survey of Organizational Communication; Professional Skills Development, Research Methods in Communication; Business and Professional Communication; and Oral Communication: Basic Speech. In addition to his course work, and teaching responsibilities, Joe was also an active volunteer on and off campus; serving as a name reader during the Graduate Schools Graduation Ceremonies, assisting the Department of Communication Studies Chair (Dr. John Haas) with a student professional development program that sought to provide undergraduate students with networking opportunities with for-profit/non-profit organizations and government offices in Knoxville, TN., Nashville, TN., and in Washington, DC. On July 8<sup>th</sup>, 2022, Joe successfully defended his Doctoral Dissertation titled: *“An investigation into the joint effects of a leader’s use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors & symbolic aggression on workplace engagement behaviors”*. Dr. Lybarger’s Doctoral Dissertation extended the finding from his Master’s Thesis, by conducted an experiment that investigated how a leaders use of Verbal, or Symbolic, Aggression and Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors interact to influence Affective and Behaviors outcomes in Employees. Additionally, Dr. Lybarger’s Dissertation created/validated a scale that measures Communicative Engagement Behaviors that, to date, did not have a validated means of measurement.

Over the years, Dr. Lybarger has served in a variety of leadership roles within academic associations directly related to his field of studies (i.e., Communication Studies). Among these leadership roles, Dr. Lybarger was elected to serve as: the Programming Chair for the Organizational Communication Division, the Programming Chair for the Communication Traits Division, was elected to serve as the Student Representative for the Nonverbal Communication Division, was elected to serve on the Executive Council as the representative for the Organizational Communication Division, in addition to numerous other roles as a paper reviewer, panel chair, and secretary for various divisions of professional associations (i.e., ECA & NCA).