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With a Little Help at Home: The Impact of Romantic Partner Support on Daily Burnout and Workplace Incivility

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Abstract

With rude and discourteous encounters in the workplace becoming more common, Workplace incivility (WI) is at an all-time high. As such, workers experience levels of burnout from these negative social interactions. The literature concedes that the results of these interactions lead to mounting burnout, causing negative physical and emotional outcomes at the individual and organizational levels. Considering that the literature also supports that employees have the potential to recover from burnout symptoms through rest, obtaining the perception of control of their circumstances, and cognitive reframing, the time and activities a worker spends at home carry the potential for minimizing burnout from daily incivility. Recognizing the potential of home-based activities and support to minimize burnout, this research emphasizes romantic partner support as a means to manage stress. This study, grounded in the Conservation of Resources Theory, explores the moderating effect of romantic partner support on the relationship between daily WI and burnout recovery. Using a diary study method over five consecutive workdays with 277 participants, the findings reveal a nuanced interaction between workplace stressors and personal relationships. Individual differences in romantic partner support were found to moderate the influence of WI on burnout recovery. These results have real-world implications, especially in demanding work environments, and extend previous research on WI, romantic partner support, and exhaustion recovery. The study contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of navigating workplace challenges and fostering resilience and well-being, concluding with a discussion of findings and suggestions for practice and future research.

Keywords: Workplace Incivility; Burnout, Romantic Partner Support;

Conservation of Resources

Acknowledgments

The path to completing a dissertation is often fraught with the challenges of burnout and the trials of incivility from a multitude of sources. Although it may test our limits, it also reveals the inherent resilience within us. In my journey, I found that resilience to be a vital but insufficient force. This dissertation, an exploration of how romantic partner support and other relational resources help mitigate the damage of workplace incivility on burnout, echoes the story of my own odyssey.

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an environment where you can flourish, where you can work with joy and love, unburdened by burnout. I hope that the findings of this study can contribute to creating a world where your passion and talents are free to thrive, where you can always see the love and joy in your work, and where your innate wisdom continues to shine. I thank you from the depths of my heart for all the joy you bring to my life and the energy you instill in me.

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With the support of this incredible caravan of resources, I have navigated the challenges of burnout and incivility, emerging with a dissertation that stands as a testament to our collective efforts. To each and every one of you, I extend my heartfelt thanks.

With the deepest appreciation,

Matthew

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The ubiquity of the day-to-day, subtle and ambiguously intended rude/discourteous workplace encounter known as workplace incivility (WI: Andersson & Pearson, 1999) is astounding. In a study by Porath and Pearson (2013), the authors estimated that nearly 98 percent of all workers experience some form of WI during the tenure of their vocational duties, and nearly half of the workforce experiences incivility every week. Porath and Pearson estimated that the financial cost of WI due to cognitive distractions and project delays was about $14,000 per employee annually. Moreover, WI is associated with a high level of burnout because the stress associated with WI dramatically affects the victim (e.g., Fida et al., 2018; W. Liu et al., 2019; Rahim & Cosby, 2016; Taylor et al., 2017). Owing to the literature supporting that WI connects directly to burnout, the hypothesized cost of WI to employers may be much higher because WI is not always reported or even discussed outwardly by the victim (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Harold & Holtz, 2015; Walsh et al., 2012). The connection of WI to burnout signals that WI may contribute meaningfully to the $125 to $190 billion spent in overall healthcare (8% of all healthcare costs) caused by employee burnout (Goh et al., 2016). Furthermore, WI may be a larger part of Goh et al.'s finding that as much as 34% of an employee's salary is lost in productivity by burnout.

For an individual who is a victim of WI, the damage of WI reaches beyond being primarily a precursor to burnout. Hershcovis and Barling (2010) argued that WI can significantly decrease job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, affective commitment, and psychological well-being while increasing job stress and the intention to seek a new job. Moreover, victims of WI tend to leave work with negative emotions (Zhou et al., 2015)

such as anxiety and depression (Han et al., 2022), ruminate over the social slight of WI throughout the evening before returning to work (Vahle-Hinz et al., 2019), experience sleep disturbances (Holm et al., 2015), and have adverse well-being outcomes both physically and psychologically (Hershcovis, 2011). In other words, even though the negative interpersonal interactions of WI may appear subtle and mild, individuals who experience WI likely will feel far more harm internally than what presents on the surface of day-to-day work interactions.

To understand the nuances of how WI occurs in the workforce, the literature has explored predictors and outcomes of WI, such as ethical leadership (Jensen et al., 2019), resiliency (Trent & Allen, 2019), family-work conflict (Cheng et al., 2019), parental status (Gloor et al., 2018), and demographics such as gender (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Cortina et al., 2002; Miner et al., 2014), and race (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Ozturk & Berber, 2022). Much of the existing literature has examined WI through the lens of Conservation of Resources Theory and has found that experiencing WI depletes resources (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2018; Vahle-Hinz et al., 2019; Xia et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2015). Given that it may be impossible to eliminate WI experiences, research also explores how those depleted resources may be recovered before the subsequent workday (Vahle-Hinz et al., 2019).

The literature on resource recovery suggests that recovery is enhanced by engaging in certain behaviors and experiences during non-work hours. Commonly studied behaviors include physical exercise and psychological detachment from work (c.f., Sonnentag et al., 2017 for a review). However, other forms of recovery and contextual influences on recovery have received less attention. Sonnentag et al. (2017)

called for more research to explore family processes and how various family

contexts/behaviors may facilitate or impede recovery from work-related stressors. Some

work suggests that romantic partner/spousal support, in particular, may be a key influence

on recovery processes (e.g., Meier & Cho, 2019; Park & Fritz, 2015; Park & Haun, 2017;

Pluut et al., 2018). Furthermore, research suggests that incivility can spill over between

home and work domains and that WI can interfere with family wellbeing (Sharma &

Mishra, 2021; Zhou et al., 2015). As such, the goal of this research is to examine

romantic partner support as a potential buffer of the effects of WI via its influence on

resource recovery during non-work hours.

       By filling the gap in the literature, researchers will better understand the nuances

of work-family interfaces regarding WI and recovery for future directions in research.

Additionally, understanding how WI and burnout are affected by romantic partner

support could give guidance to support efforts in the home when aiding a spouse with

WI. Potentially, the findings might prevent WI from sabotaging home or work

trajectories because, understanding the effectiveness of short-term recovery resources in

romantic partner support, the damage of WI may be truncated before it leads to burnout.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Workplace Incivility (WI)

As a subcategory of workplace mistreatment, WI is a well-studied research construct both inside the overarching literature of workplace mistreatment (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Budd et al., 1996; Spector & Jex, 1998) and as a unique subject of research (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Hershcovis, 2011; Schilpzand et al., 2016). The construct of WI is positioned in the literature as a unique construct, distinct from other types of overt acts of general workplace mistreatment by Andersson and Pearson (1999) to theoretically explain how the effects of a perpetrator's rude, discourteous, and offensive behaviors impact the emotional state and future actions of the target of the perceived incivility.

Through a synthesis of the literature in criminology (e.g., Tedeschi & Felson, 1994), sociology (e.g., Carter, 1998; C. Johnson, 1988), and management (e.g., Baron & Neuman, 1996; VandenBos & Bulatao, 1996), Andersson and Pearson (1999) defined WI as "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" (p. 457). Considering that WI can be between coworkers, supervisors, and customers during day-to-day interactions (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Hershcovis, 2011; Schilpzand et al., 2016), the subtle, rude, and discourteous actions inflicted on the victim can affect WI from all stakeholders of an organization.

Comparison of WI with Other CWBs

Because WI is a distinct type of workplace mistreatment in the literature (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Hershcovis, 2011; Schilpzand et al., 2016), the literature

clearly distinguishes WI from other types of workplace mistreatment. Workplace

mistreatment is frequently studied as part of a broad category of employee-directed

counterproductive workplace behaviors (CWB), which includes generalized workplace

abuse, workplace aggression, bullying, emotional abuse, incivility, interpersonal conflict,

abusive supervision, mobbing, social undermining, and victimization (Bowling & Beehr,

2006). These various forms of mistreatment are all associated with lower job satisfaction,

supervisor satisfaction, affective commitment, and psychological well-being for the

victim while increasing job stress and the intention to seek a new job (Hershcovis &

Barling, 2010). The CWB of workplace mistreatment has also been linked to mental,

psychological, and physical problems, as well as increased absenteeism (Hershcovis &

Barling, 2010; Shannon et al., 2007; Van De Griend & Messias, 2014). Furthermore,

workplace mistreatment can cause hostility, depression, suicidality, anxiety, PTSD,

burnout, immune deficiencies, digestive and lower bowel disturbances, musculoskeletal

problems, cardiovascular health problems, diabetes, weight loss, weight gain, low self-

esteem, low life satisfaction, and psychological distress (Burns, 2022; Coyne et al., 2017;

Ehie et al., 2021; Ng et al., 2019; Van De Griend & Messias, 2014).

Each type of workplace mistreatment, including WI, can also be defined uniquely.

Hershcovis (2011) argued through a meta-analysis of the workplace mistreatment

literature that WI differed significantly from social undermining, workplace bullying, and

general interpersonal conflict because WI was lower in intensity and more ambiguous in

its intent. In other words, one may experience rudeness in interpersonal conflict, but the

intent or perception of the rudeness can only be defined as WI if the rudeness is not

directly intended for the participant and is also only mild in its presentation.

Han et al. (2022) distinguished WI from other types of interpersonal CWB in their most recent meta-analysis of the literature by arguing that organizational leadership and workplace culture were influential in establishing norms that prevent vs. promote incivility. First, passive-avoidant leaders avoid the responsibilities and duties that come with being a leader (Bass, 1999). Such leaders are likely to be absent when action is required and hesitant to intervene in potentially problematic workplace situations, even when present (Bass & Avolio, 1995). These leaders are likely to foster environments where incivility is more prevalent due to their absence or reluctance to take corrective action when necessary. According to Harold and Holtz (2015), employees who work for a passive-avoidant leader are more likely to experience incivility. Second, civility norms promote respectful treatment among organizational members and serve as informal guidelines for workplace social relationships (Walsh et al., 2012). Employees are more likely to engage in civil interactions and avoid impolite behavior if they follow civility norms. According to research, intervention programs promoting civility norms, such as CREW (Civility, Respect, and Engagement in the Workplace), reduce WI and increase workplace civility (e.g., Leiter et al., 2011). Similarly, the term "civility climate" refers to perceptions of organizational practices and policies aimed at fostering a civil workplace (Daniels & Jordan, 2019). These policies and practices provide critical information to organizational members about how they should treat one another and the consequences of failing to do so. Members are more likely to believe incivility is acceptable and unlikely to result in disciplinary action in an uncivil environment (Gallus et al., 2014). WI may thrive as a result of perpetrators exploiting the vulnerabilities present in such environments.

Vasconcelos (2020) found that WI is an antecedent to constructs such as victim anger, violations of social contracts, insecurity surrounding one's job, changes in job demands, and support from co-workers, and is a precursor to organizational change. Scholars have also found that WI negatively influences both physical health and job satisfaction (Reio & Ghosh, 2009), triggers workplace ostracism (WO; Abubakar et al., 2018; Caza & Cortina, 2007; De Clercq et al., 2019), causes sleep disturbances (Holm et al., 2015), increases turnover intentions (Ghosh et al., 2013; Holm et al., 2015; Lim et al., 2008; Rahim & Cosby, 2016), and results in a sub-category of job stress that focuses on physical symptoms associated with performing job tasks called job anxiety (De Clercq et al., 2019; Reio & Ghosh, 2009). Additionally, Vasconcelos's (2020) review revealed that in customer service interactions, employees who experience WI often become instigators of WI towards the customers they service during job duties.

There are three different actor roles in WI: perpetrator, victim, and observer (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Miner & Eischeid, 2012; Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007). In the literature, each role experiences, rationalizes, cognitively processes, and is affected by WI differently. Therefore, the following sections will review the specifics of each actor's role.

Three Actor Roles of Workplace Incivility

Victim. The victim of WI is the individual who is the target of the social slight of WI. Considering that 98% of all workers experience some form of WI during the tenure of their employment (Porath & Pearson, 2013), nearly everyone who works likely is the victim of WI at some time. However, the literature supports that some characteristics or traits of individuals raise the likelihood one will become the victim of WI. As fully

detailed below, demographic elements such as gender, parental status, marital status, and race dramatically increase the potential of being a victim of WI.

Scholars contend that women likely experience WI and its associated negative outcomes more often than their male counterparts (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Cortina et al., 2002). As a purely gendered construct, a woman's motherhood can also be an antecedent to workplace incivility (Miner et al., 2014). In Miner et al.'s (2014) study, the authors found that mothers with three or more children reported being a victim of uncivil treatment in the workplace more frequently than women who had three or fewer children. Men who were also fathers also experienced more incivility than men without children but significantly less than women in the sample (regardless of motherhood status).

Considering that parental status in itself impacts if an individual experiences incivility in the workplace, the self-perception of a parental identity should be considered. Miner et al. (2014) found that even though motherhood had the potential to predict uncivil treatment, some negative outcomes of workplace incivility appear to be mitigated by the self-identification of being a mother. In the same study, men who were fathers did not have the same benefit of mitigating the negative outcomes by their self-identification of being a father.

In her conceptual paper, Cortina (2008) argued that incivility in the workplace is often conceptualized as covert practices of racism as a form of selective incivility. Recent scholars provide support for Cortina's conceptualization empirically in UK workplaces through their finding that professionals of differing races were often the main targets of selective incivility (e.g., Al-Hawari et al., 2020; Ozturk & Berber, 2022).

Existing literature shows that victims of WI tend to leave work with negative emotions (Zhou et al., 2015), ruminate over the social slight of WI throughout the evening before returning to work (Vahle-Hinz et al., 2019), experience sleep disturbances (Holm et al., 2015), and have negative well-being outcomes both physically and psychologically (Hershcovis, 2011), the burnout associated with WI is high (e.g., Fida et al., 2018; W. Liu et al., 2019; Rahim & Cosby, 2016; Taylor et al., 2017). A recent meta-analysis estimates significant weighted mean correlations of WI with anxiety ($r =.29$), depression ($r =.27$), physical health ($r =-.26$), job satisfaction ($r =-.35$), job performance ($r =-.22$), and turnover intention ($r =.27$; Han et al., 2022).

The literature indicates that targets of general workplace mistreatment often have increased turnover intentions (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008), have increased stress when compared to their co-workers (Bowling & Beehr, 2006), and engage substantially less in organizational citizenship behaviors (Dalal, 2005). Considering that the literature often lumps workplace incivility into the overall topic of workplace mistreatment, one can easily expect to find that workplace incivility has the same consequence relationships as the larger construct (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Dalal, 2005).

Even though the WI literature does include these outcomes, more nuanced consequences are present. Hershcovis (2011) argued that the consequences of the victim's job satisfaction, turnover intention, psychological well-being, and physical well-being interact differently with WI than the other forms of workplace mistreatment. When a victim experiences WI, they tend to leave work with negative emotions (Zhou et al., 2015) and ruminate over the social slight of WI throughout the evening before returning to work (Vahle-Hinz et al., 2019). Therefore, a single instance of workplace incivility

lasts substantially longer than the momentary action or occurrence in the minds of the victim. However, Andersson and Pearson (1999) argued that single occurrences of workplace incivility rarely occur. Instead, the authors postulate that frequent occurrences likely add up for the victim, and a spiral of negative affect and actions occur during a series of uncivil actions called "Incivility Spirals" (p. 458) – an argument supported by Su et al. (2021).

Resiliency to WI.

Not all victims of WI experience the same amount of negative effects. One of the main reasons some individuals experience fewer negative responses to WI is due to the psychological capital component known as trait-based resiliency (Avey et al., 2009; Bonanno, 2004; Coutu, 2002; Luthans, 2002; Youssef & Luthans, 2005). Luthans (2002) defined resiliency as a "developable capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, failure, or even positive events, progress, and increased responsibility" (p. 702). Even though resiliency was once thought to be relatively rare and innate in its presentation, the literature supports that resiliency is state-like and open to development (e.g., Bonanno, 2004; Coutu, 2002; Youssef & Luthans, 2005). Resilient individuals possess a firm grasp of reality (Coutu, 2002), and resiliency development efforts are similarly grounded in the creation of realistic assessments of one's competencies as well as the environmental factors involved in the situation and coping strategies when adversity occurs. As they are receptive to new experiences, adaptable to shifting demands, and emotionally stable when confronted with adversity, resilient individuals are better equipped to deal with the stressors in a constantly changing workplace environment (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004).

When connecting resiliency to WI, scholars have found specific nuances in how the two constructs interact. Welbourne et al. (2015) found the presence of strong horizontal collectivism values (emphasizing sociability) were more resistant to the effect of incivility on burnout, whereas those with strong horizontal individualism values (emphasizing self-reliance) were more vulnerable to burnout and dissatisfaction when confronted with incivility. The authors further found that Hispanic employees, compared to non-Hispanic employees, carried stronger resiliency of WI's impact on both burnout and declining job satisfaction, signaling that an employee's ethnicity/cultural values also carry the potential to vary one's relative vulnerability to the impact of WI.

Recent research into the relationship between resilience and WI has uncovered a variety of outcomes. Al-Hawari et al. (2020) noted that employees with high levels of resilience are better equipped to manage customer rudeness in roles requiring direct customer interaction. In the healthcare industry, especially among nurses, those with ordinary or below-average levels of psychological capital (which includes resilience) perceive themselves as less competent in compassionate care when confronted with WI. According to Y. Lee and Seomun (2016), compassionate competence incorporates a wide range of characteristics, including knowledge acquisition, emotional communication skills, empathy, and the maintenance of professional boundaries. The findings of Woo and Kim (2020) suggest that nurses with moderate or low levels of resilience may dispute their fundamental professional abilities. Therefore, it is plausible to suggest that a person's perception of their professional ability may be influenced by their capacity to withstand WI. Hashemi et al. (2018) demonstrate that non-customer or non-clinical contexts provide evidence for this perspective. Only resilience played a significant

moderating role among the psychological capital factors that could influence the

relationship between job stress and workplace incivility, particularly when resilience

levels were high among their study participants. Even though the authors did not directly

assess self-perceptions of competency, the findings appear to mirror the relationship

found by Woo and Kim (2020). One could logically argue that the ability to overcome or

circumnavigate WI may be due to their increased self-perceptions of higher core

competencies and not just that the participants carried the trait of being resilient.

     Perpetrator. Andersson and Pearson (1999) asserted the situation of incivility

has the potential to cause instigators of the incivility to perceive their own incivilities as

moralistic or even legitimate, leading to the potential of perpetuating future exchanges of

negative behaviors. Additionally, in most cases, the perpetrator may be unaware they

have been uncivil to the victim (Pearson et al., 2000). Owing to the lack of awareness and

the rationalization of uncivil behavior by perpetrators makes studying the impact of

workplace incivility on perpetrators nearly impossible. However, Pearson et al. (2000)

argued that instigators often receive praise from some coworkers for rude remarks or

slights, resulting in a change in their perceived status. Empirical research (Javadizadeh et

al., 2022; Tabibnia & Lieberman, 2007) supports individuals put forth significant effort

to increase their status because a sense of increased status triggers a reward in the brain

that is more powerful than any financial gain (Rock, 2009). When studying WI

specifically, the perpetrator's status can moderate the victim's levels of fear and anger

(Porath & Pearson, 2013). Even though the impact of the moderation of status focused on

the victim in Porath and Pearson (2013), logically, one could infer that status also impacts

the perpetrator's emotional state. Furthermore, one could easily argue that perpetrators of WI perceive uncivil actions towards the victim with overall positive outcomes.

      Observer. In Pearson et al. (2000), the authors outlined that the observer of WI can be a peer of the perpetrator and cause the negative outcomes of WI to be more intense. However, the most common occurrence is that observers of WI do not side with the perpetrator and experience negative outcomes in a similar vein as the victim. A growing body of literature in the WI literature focuses on the observer in WI (e.g., Folger et al., 2001; O'Reilly & Aquino, 2011; Skarlicki & Rupp, 2010; Turillo et al., 2002). Reich and Hershcovis (2015) presented the deontic model of justice (Folger et al., 2001) as a theoretical framework to explain how the observer cognitively processes seeing the injustice of instances of WI. According to the deontic model of justice, people experience a primarily negative, evolutionary-based reaction of emotion when they witness any aspect of injustice that conflicts with social norms, causing a desire to exact retributive behavior toward perpetrators (Folger et al., 2001; Skarlicki & Rupp, 2010). Observers of workplace mistreatment unconsciously develop a moral intuition that the mistreatment is wrong and that the victim may need third-party support (Jensen & Raver, 2021; Jungert & Holm, 2022; O'Reilly & Aquino, 2011; Shea et al., 2021).

      The deontic theory also asserts that one will engage in this retribution even if it results in the detriment of oneself (e.g., Turillo et al., 2002) because they relate to the victim as though they are part of their in-group by being part of the shared experience (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Indeed, the taking of a moral stance (Cropanzano et al., 2003, 2005) is not the only reason why observers feel the need to defend the victim. Observers

also experience emotional and cognitive responses because they believe they could be a future victim (Cropanzano et al., 2001).

When an observer sees WI in their workplace, the literature supports multiple outcomes. At the organizational level, observers can experience increased turnover intentions (Walsh et al., 2012) and lower job satisfaction (Walsh et al., 2012). Additionally, observers can experience decreases in performance (Giumetti et al., 2013; Porath & Erez, 2007), increased feelings of helpfulness to support the victim (Porath & Erez, 2007), and feelings of need for retaliation toward not only the perpetrator(s) but also the organization for allowing the WI to occur (Kim & Shapiro, 2008).

The gender of the actors in the act of WI has the potential for impacting how WI is interpreted by both the victim and the observer. Miner and Eischeid (2012) found that when the genders of the victim and the perpetrator were the same, the effects were overall more negative than when there was a difference in genders. In their study, men being rude to other men was less damaging than when women were rude to other women. The others described these interactions as a "clear affront to the power and status they have learned to expect for their group in interpersonal interactions" (Miner & Eischeid, 2012, p. 500). In general, witnesses of WI perceive the victimization of women far worse than that of men because observers of female-focused WI experience lower psychological well-being, report physical health problems, and lower levels of job satisfaction, which in turn associated with lowered commitment toward the organization and higher job burnout and turnover intentions (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007). Furthermore, when women are the target of WI, the observer often has increased work withdrawal (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004).

Existing Measures of Workplace Incivility

   The Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS: Cortina et al., 2001*).* In the initial

ideation of the WIS by Cortina et al. (2001), the participant is asked to respond to seven

(7) statements using Likert-like scales to determine the frequency of self-reported

amounts of WI perpetrated upon them within the last five years by co-workers. In the

scale, the questions addressed the most common "negative acts" that were not directly

associated with causing physical harm (e.g., devaluation of one's effort and work,

insulting and rude remarks, and the social exclusions from workplace interactions)

identified by Einarsen and colleagues (Einarsen et al., 1994; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996).

After using prior scholarship to create discussion points, Cortina et al. (2001) compiled

and created the questions in the WIS from focus group interviews conducted with

employees at various levels within their organization. Using data from $n = 1,662$

participants in a sample from a federal court, the authors tested the factor loadings for

each question. They found the questions each represented differing parts of the construct

of workplace incivility. The factor loadings ranged from 0.58 to 0.84. When combining

the seven questions into a single construct, the Cronbach's α score was 0.89.

   In their meta-analysis of the literature, Schilpzand et al. (2016) found that the

initial presentation of the WIS was the most commonly used in the literature to assess

perceived workplace incivility. However, the authors noted that in many of these cases,

authors used variations or additions to the WIS. When reviewing the cited literature, the

most common use of the measure included pulling item-specific factors from the WIS to

be explored independently (e.g., Blau & Andersson, 2005; Gilin Oore et al., 2010).

Scholars also adapted the WIS from being applied to a general population of workers in

different workgroups (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Leiter et al., 2011; Miner-Rubino &

Reed, 2010). Additionally, some scholars adapted the WIS to apply to a population of

women specifically (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004). Also, to address the problem of

assessment of WI outside of measuring a general perception of the construct over a five-

year period, Meier and Spector (2013) abbreviated the WIS to study incivility

longitudinally.

The most recent ideation of the WIS was developed by Cortina et al. (2013). In

this measure, the participant is asked to respond to 20 statements using Likert-like scales

to determine the frequency of self-reported amounts of workplace incivility perpetrated

directly observed or felt within the last year by co-workers. The authors argued that this

measure aided in assessing direct experiences of incivility rather than general perceptions

or imagined reactions to hypothetical scenarios. In the scale, the questions addressed the

most common "negative acts" that were not directly associated with causing physical

harm (e.g., devaluation of one's effort and work, insulting or rude remarks, and the social

exclusions from workplace interactions) that were in the original WIS and included added

items (e.g., perception of being refused to have some work with the participant and

withhold information needed to do work tasks). The Cronbach's α score of this formation

of the scale was 0.91.

The Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire (UWBQ: Martin & Hine,

2005). To address the primary concern that the WIS only assessed workplace incivility as

a unidimensional construct, Martin and Hine (2005) developed the UWBQ. Using the

recommendations of Arvey and Cavanaugh (1995) that measures that evaluate

participants' self-reported perceptions over one year likely include bias via memory

distortions in tandem with Budd et al.'s (1996) findings that forms of workplace

aggression such as incivility are relatively short-lived (situational, brief, and subtle),

Martin and Hine (2005) purposely chose to limit the questionnaire to a participant's

perceptions within a one-year timeframe. The authors' initial development for the

questions in the measure came from a convenience sample focus group ($n = 29$)

consisting of subject matter experts (researchers in the field incivility field $n = 5$) and

potential targets of workplace incivility (people working in various industries $n = 22$). In

the questionnaire, the participant is asked to respond to 20 statements using Likert-like

scales to determine the frequency of self-reported amounts of workplace incivility

perpetrated upon them within the last year by co-workers or their supervisors. Four (4)

questions addressed the perception of hostility, five (5) questions addressed how one

perceives privacy violations, seven (7) questions addressed the perception of

exclusionary behaviors of the perpetrators, and four (4) questions addressed the

perception of being gossiped about. Using data from $n = 339$ participants, Martin and

Hine (2005) segmented the data into two groups to establish and test the

validity/reliability of the measure (200 for exploratory factor analysis and 139 for

confirmatory factor analysis). The factor loadings ranged from 0.50 to 0.81 among the

four constructs, with each factor uniquely and statistically expressing the construct. When

evaluating the Cronbach's α scores, each of the four factors expressed high reliability

(privacy invasions =0.84, exclusionary behavior = 0.87, hostility =0.87, and gossiping

=0.84). The combined measure of all 20 questions in a single factor had a Cronbach's α

score of 0.92. Since the creation of the measure, multiple scholars have used/validated the

UWBQ in their studies (e.g., Kirk et al., 2011; Loi et al., 2021; Roberts et al., 2011).

Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (ICAWS; Spector & Jex, 1998). The

ICAWS has been used as a tool to measure WI in the literature both before and after

Andersson and Pearson's (1999) argument that WI is a distinct construct different from

interpersonal conflict (e.g., Spector & Jex, 1998). In this scale, the participant is asked to

respond to four (4) statements using Likert-like scales to determine the frequency of self-

reported amounts of interpersonal conflict perpetrated upon them. The four questions are

averaged to form a scale score. When scholars attempt to answer research questions that

focus more on the general effect of WI, they tend to use this measure rather than one that

uniquely focuses on the nuances of the construct of WI (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

Burnout

Job burnout is a perpetual psychological condition where workers shift from

being capable and willing to invest effort in vocational duties towards being unwilling

and incapable of using personal resources to accomplish job tasks (Demerouti et al.,

2010). Burnout results from chronic exposure to stress and often involves chronic

physical and or emotional exhaustion, causing decreased professional and personal

efficacy and a shift towards attitudes with negative perspectives encompassing the

perception of their work life (i.e., cynicism; Akirmak & Ayla, 2021; Maslach et al.,

2001). Physical/emotional exhaustion often refers to a draining of one's personal

energetic resources, chronic fatigue, or the inclusion of frequent feelings of physical

tiredness (Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Maslach et al., 2001). In burnout, reduced

professional efficacy encompasses a marked decline in feelings of competence and a

sense that vocational accomplishments and achievements really do not matter despite the

effort being devoted to job tasks (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Changes in work attitudes

(cynicism) refer to an emotional and cognitive distancing in the form of a negative affect regarding nearly all aspects of one's job (Aplin-Houtz et al., 2023a; Maslach et al., 2001).

The spectrum of burnout ranges as a continuum of acute fatigue from a physical or emotionally draining day of difficult work, which dissipates after a short recovery time to severe and ongoing forms of exhaustion (Akirmak & Ayla, 2021; Gavelin et al., 2022; Maslach et al., 2001). These experiences of exhaustion involve cognitive difficulties, mental distancing from any and all aspects of work, doing the bare minimum to accomplish job requirements, and negative perceptions surrounding their job or the importance of their role in accomplishing organizational goals after long-term exposure to physical or emotional job tasks. In situations where the exhaustion is severe or chronic, burnout symptoms only dissipate after extended rest periods (Leone et al., 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2009).

The consequences of burnout are serious. Because burnout is characterized by chronic exhaustion (physical, emotional, and spiritual) that leads to lowered professional efficacy and an alteration in one's perspectives and attitudes surrounding their work toward primarily negative (i.e., cynicism; Maslach et al., 2001). Individuals suffering from burnout frequently report severe psychological health problems such as sleep disturbances, headaches, and gastrointestinal infections (e.g., Shirom et al., 2005; Toker & Biron, 2012). Furthermore, the literature suggests that burnout increases the risk of type 2 diabetes and physician-diagnosed myocardial infarctions, as well as the risk of all-cause mortality or premature death (Ahola & Hakanen, 2014). Furthermore, burnout increases the use of both sponsored and unsponsored company time off to address the worker's physical and emotional ailments (Kim et al., 2011; Toppinen-Tanner et al.,

2005). Given all of the foregoing, reducing burnout associated with any cause, such as WI, would significantly impact not only individual but also organizational outcomes.

Existing Measures of Burnout

Maslach Burnout Inventory™ (MBI: Maslach et al., 2001). When evaluating existing measures for burnout, Boudreau and Jeppesen (2015) found that 88% of burnout research in the recent literature used some direct variation of MBI. The MBI contains three factors: Emotional Exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP, and a diminished perspective of one's Personal Accomplishments (PA), assessed with 22 questions using Likert-type scales (Maslach et al., 2001). There are five commercially available versions to address the nuances of differences between sampled populations. These different versions include specific questions geared towards medical professionals (MBI-HSS MP), human service workers (MBI-HSS), educators (MBI-ES), students (MBI-GS S), and a questionnaire for general use (MBI-GS).

Even though the MBI in all of its forms is widely used in contemporary literature, a substantial limitation exists in using the measure in empirical research. The authors of the MBI have not made the measure free to use in social science research but instead charge as much as $3.60 per participant.

Oldenburg Burnout Inventory was initially introduced by Evangelia Demerouti et al. (2001). This inventive work introduced the OBI as an alternative to the previously established Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The primary objective of developing the OBI was to provide a tool that could measure burnout across a broad range of occupations, ensuring its relevance and applicability in a variety of work contexts.

The OBI was organized around two central dimensions: exhaustion and disengagement from work. The exhaustion dimension was created to encompass the physical, cognitive, and emotional aspects of burnout. In contrast, the disengagement dimension sought to capture the more nuanced negative attitudes workers may hold toward various aspects of their work, including the work content, work objects, and the nature of the work itself.

By the year 2008, the OBI had undergone several modifications. The version created by Demerouti and Bakker in that year is a 16-item questionnaire with both positively and negatively framed questions. While the foundational dimensions of exhaustion and disengagement remained the same, the enhancements to the instrument aimed to provide a more nuanced and comprehensive understanding of burnout. This change resulted from ongoing efforts to make the OBI more versatile and applicable across various occupational contexts.

In the years that followed its introduction and subsequent refinement, the OBI became the subject of a large number of validation studies. In 2005, Halbesleben and Demerouti conducted a study on the construct validity of the OBI's English translation involving a diverse group of American employees. Their findings were encouraging, with the OBI demonstrating its two-factor structure consistently. In addition, the instrument demonstrated commendable internal consistency and clearly distinguished itself from other related constructs. In 2015, Reis et al. conducted another influential study. This study, which included participants from Greece and Cyprus, aimed to evaluate the factorial invariance of the OBI across diverse samples and cultural contexts. The findings supported the robust two-factor structure of the OBI across disparate samples and cultural

contexts. Collectively, these studies demonstrate the OBI's transformation and its status as a reliable instrument within occupational health psychology.

Theoretical Framework: Conservation of Resources Theory (COR)

Conservation of Resources (COR) theory is frequently employed to understand employee stressors and recovery. It explains how people manage stress by attempting to gather, keep, grow, and protect things (resources) that have value to them based on evolutionary biases (Hobfoll, 1989). The theory defines resources as physical objects (money, food), personal characteristics (status, learned personality traits), status quo conditions (employment, social relationships), and physical/emotional energies (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). Mastery of skills (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978), learned resourcefulness (Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari Smira, 1986), self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965), socioeconomic establishment and relative status (Worden & Sobel, 1978), and vocational status were the variables used as examples of these resources in Hobfoll's (1989) initial manuscript (Parry, 1986). Contemporary scholars, however, include coworker and management trust/mistrust (Lanaj et al., 2018), emotional stability, hostile attribution bias, locus of control, situational factors such as workload and workplace constraints (Zhou et al., 2015), and spousal support (Xia et al., 2019) as resources associated with COR.

Given the breadth of resource forms, anything could seem to be considered a resource. However, a central tenant of COR is that certain resources are centrally and universally valued (Hobfoll, 1989). Throughout the literature, these valued resources, even when manifesting in different ways in different cultures, include physical health, emotional prosperity/security, both biological and chosen family, self-esteem, and a sense of purpose and life meaning (e.g., Hobfoll, 1989, 2001; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Xia et al.,

2019; Zhou et al., 2015). The COR posits individuals innately default to evolutionary

cognitive biases to believe that the loss of resources appears more salient to one's

survival effort than the gathering of resources (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001; Hobfoll et al., 2018).

In other words, when stressed, people will go to great lengths to conserve existing

resources for the preservation of self. Even though gathering new resources may aid in

lowering stress, people default to relying on and protecting existing resources more

readily.

   Previous scholarship links COR theory to WI to explain how people cope with the

stress of the social slight of WI (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2015). Moreover,

targets may allocate additional resources to manage these experiences. For instance, they

may devote time to determining the intent of perpetrators, cognitive resources to

determining how to respond, and worry about the possibility of losing social connections.

All of these actual and/or potential resource losses may impede employees' efforts to

complete work and maintain social connections, leading to negative emotions (Zohar et

al., 2003). Scholars contend that these resulting negative emotions reduce one's feelings

of competence and instill a sense that vocational accomplishments/achievements do not

matter despite effort being placed into job tasks (Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Maslach et al.,

2001). Ultimately, changes in attitude and fatigue associated with expressing affective

emotion lead to occupational burnout in both short- and long-term exposure to emotional

stressors (Leone et al., 2008; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2009).

   There are at least three theoretical mechanisms by which WI may deplete

resources: (i) the cognitive demands of sensemaking, (ii) threats to social relationships,

and (iii) the need for regulation (Hobfoll et al., 2018; Westman, 2001). First, considering

that WI perpetrators' intentions are not always evident (Andersson & Pearson, 1999),

Zhou et al. (2015) argued that targets of WI may need to commit additional efforts

toward determining the perpetrators' intentions before deciding how to react. These

sensemaking activities require executive function and, as such, deplete cognitive

resources (Colville et al., 2012; Holt & Cornelissen, 2014; Ng et al., 2019).

Second, WI leads targets to believe their social ties and relationships with

coworkers are at stake – thus signaling a loss of a valued social resource (Bunk &

Magley, 2013; Leiter et al., 2011.) Therefore, even minor WI may result in the actual or

potential loss of resources and induce psychological suffering (e.g., increased negative

affect; Lim et al., 2008; Matthews & Ritter, 2016). This may be especially true if

observers are encouraging the perpetrator (Pearson et al., 2000)

Thirdly, given organizational display rules, WI may prompt the need for emotion

and behavior regulation (i.e., emotional labor; Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2020; Sliter et

al., 2010) to constrain retaliatory impulses. Thus, when employees encounter rude and

impolite conduct on the job, it is likely that they will deplete some resources, such as a

positive disposition (Aplin-Houtz et al., 2023b; Ragsdale & Beehr, 2016).

COR theory suggests that losses of resources are highly salient and tend to affect

emotions and behaviors quickly. Supporting COR theory's propositions that experiencing

WI will deplete resources; several studies have found relationships between stressors and

resource depletion (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2018; Sonnentag et al., 2017; Xia et al., 2019).

Further, some studies have specifically found links between WI and resource depletion

(e.g., Vahle-Hinz et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2015). Therefore, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: Overall WI will be positively associated with Overall Burnout.

Next, COR theory proposes that when resource loss occurs, people become motivated to acquire more resources to "replace" those that have been expended. This replacement process is called *resource recovery* and is theoretically related to stress-coping strategies (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986; Hobfoll, 2001; Skinner, 1980). Theoretically, an individual must *invest* some resources to protect against resource loss. Investment may take the form of direct replacement (e.g., withdrawing from a savings account to replace lost income, investing time in repairing a social relationship, etc.; Vinokur & Schul, 2002; Wells et al., 1997) or indirect replacement. In the case of indirect replacement, one invests in a different resource to replace the one that was depleted (Fuller et al., 2007; Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007). Examples may include exercising to increase physical strength when one's cognitive capacities are exhausted. In each case, however, an investment of existing resources (time, energy, patience, etc.) is required to accomplish resource recovery (Hobfoll, 2001; Hobfoll et al., 2018).

Because loss of resources has stronger and longer effects than resource gain, and because resource recovery requires an investment of existing resources, individuals who experience frequent resource losses become vulnerable to "loss cycles" in which each loss (i.e., each experience of WI) further depletes the resources available to invest in recovery, and loss cycles "gain in momentum as well as magnitude" (Hobfoll et al., 2018, p. 106). This suggests that when the loss (WI) is experienced more frequently, the speed of resource depletion may escalate, leaving fewer resources to invest in non-work recovery activities and producing more work-family conflict. Further, even when one can invest in recovery activities, resource gain cycles are slower and weaker than resource loss cycles – resulting in an overall net loss. As a complementary perspective, the effort-

recovery model proposes that one can recover their resources only when no further demands are being made on resources (Meijman & Mulder, 1998).

Loss cycles can eventually exhaust one's resources entirely – producing a state of burnout (Chen et al., 2009; Crawford et al., 2010; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Leone et al., 2008; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2009). In their meta-analysis, Hobfoll et al. (2018) describe this state of exhaustion as defensive, focused on self-preservation, and sometimes irrational or aggressive. Many scholars explain the state and causes of burnout through the lens of COR (e.g., Chen et al., 2009; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

Indeed, the relationship between incivility in the workplace and employee burnout is a central topic in contemporary organizational studies. Numerous studies have investigated the extent of daily workplace incivility and its relationship with burnout, each adding to our understanding of these complex dynamics. According to Porath and Pearson (2013), even minor daily interactions can cause significant stress and contribute to a general feeling of burnout. Lim et al. (2008) investigated employees' daily interactions and found that perceived incivility was strongly correlated with negative work outcomes, thereby bolstering this argument. The researchers found that such interactions left employees feeling emotionally drained at the end of the day, which is a key symptom of burnout. Schilpzand et al. (2016) investigated the ambiguity inherent in impolite behaviors further, emphasizing that this lack of clarity frequently leads to ruminating and anxiety. Their analysis demonstrated how this sustained mental activity outside of work hours can contribute to feelings of exhaustion, an essential aspect of

burnout. Sulea et al. (2012) found in a longitudinal study that daily workplace incivility

was not only associated with immediate distress but also predicted burnout symptoms

over time. In addition, Zhou et al. (2015) conducted a study examining the impact of

daily encounters with workplace incivility on work-related attitudes and performance.

Their findings indicated that daily incivility in the workplace can lead to decreased job

satisfaction, increased job stress, and decreased task and contextual performance, which

ultimately contribute to feelings of burnout. Holm et al. (2015) confirmed that the

frequency and severity of daily incivility can predict emotional exhaustion, a key aspect

of burnout. In summary, multiple lines of research demonstrate that perceptions of daily

workplace incivility have a positive correlation with burnout. Consequently, we propose

the following hypothesis for empirical testing:

> *Hypothesis 2: Daily WI will be positively associated with Burnout at the end of*
>
> *the day.*

Given the tenets of COR theory, it seems likely that successful adaptation to WI

experiences requires a) ensuring that WI occurs only occasionally (giving people time to

recover resources and avoid loss cycles) and b) availability of recovery supports.

Regarding the latter, some attention has been given to workplace supports (e.g., breaks,

social support, leadership, etc.; Fitzgerald & Danner, 2012; Martin et al., 2016; Rockstuhl

et al., 2012; Xia et al., 2019). However, owing to a commonplace absence of

institutionalized supports such as coping tools or company-sponsored resources to

address burnout, other negative workplace outcomes, and perceptions of life strain,

people tend to create individualized coping and recovery strategies and often engage in

those strategies outside of work hours (Lanaj et al., 2018; Ragsdale & Beehr, 2016;

Sonnentag et al., 2017; Vahle-Hinz et al., 2019). To overcome burnout from the stress of

negative social vocational interactions, individuals often engage in available recovery

resources (Hobfoll, 2002, 2011; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Lanaj et al., 2018; Neff et al., 2012;

Zhou et al., 2015). The following section outlines how romantic partner support functions

as a recovery resource in COR theory.

Romantic Partner Support

When victims are socially excluded, they report lower levels of confidence, trust,

and communication in the workplace (Van Heugten, 2011) and require social support

from colleagues, friends, and family (Cohen & Wills, 1985; King et al., 1995; Schulz &

Schwarzer, 2004; Xia et al., 2019). Recent literature has devoted increasing attention to

the role of romantic partners in providing social support for work-related stressors (e.g.,

Hahn et al., 2012; Meier & Cho, 2019; Park & Fritz, 2015; Park & Haun, 2017; Pluut et

al., 2018; Walter & Haun, 2020).

Social support can be provided in several ways, including instrumental support

(helping solve a problem), tangible support (providing food, clothing, or financial

resources such as money), emotional support (providing comfort or reassurance), and

informational support (providing advice; Schulz & Schwarzer, 2004). Considering that a

romantic partner (form of family) often functions in providing and filling all of these

roles in a worker's decision-making and stress mitigation (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983;

Matsui et al., 1995; Neff et al., 2012; Suchet & Barling, 1986; Xia et al., 2019), romantic

partner support arguably is the most salient of relationships in social support for recovery

efforts when the worker feels victimized during their occupational activities.

Romantic partner support (also referred to as spousal support) serves as a resource and tool many people use to address the stressors of work (e.g., Cohen & Wills, 1985; Xia et al., 2019). In the work recovery literature, spousal support has most often been studied in three ways. The first area of support is instrumental support, which has been examined in two types of forms. One form includes aiding in providing alternative options/framing of ways to handle stressful work situations and helping with elements of job tasks such as proofreading a document or providing a proxy for a difficult discussion with a coworker (King et al., 1995). The second form includes taking over the duties of home demands such as household chores or childcare responsibilities (King et al., 1995; Lapierre et al., 2018), and this practical assistance often helps mitigate the depleting impacts of negative aspects of work (Halbesleben et al., 2012; Xia et al., 2019). Further, when the spouse takes on some duties, it may allow the receiving employee more opportunity (time, energy, etc.) to invest in known recovery activities (e.g., psychological detachment, mastery experiences, relaxation, exercise, sleep, etc.; King et al., 1995; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007; Sonnentag et al., 2017).

The second area of romantic partner support is emotional support — providing sympathy, concern, and listening to the feelings associated with the negative aspects of one's work (Ferguson et al., 2016; King et al., 1995). For example, Ferguson et al. (2016) found that when employees confide in their spouses about their negative work experiences, the sympathetic ear and empathy towards the associated negative emotions substantially minimize the damage of stressful work interactions.

A third area of romantic partner support is aiding in the actions of cognitive shifting. Psychologists frame cognitive shifting as redirecting one's focus of attention

toward more productive and successful areas rather than allowing the employee to fixate

on the stressful stimuli (Beck, 1963; Hayes & Strosahl, 2005; Head et al., 1989). This

form of *distraction* to disengage in the negative aspects of work and redirect towards the

joys of home activities and experiences is a supportive activity that is grouped under

emotional support, but the literature is conflicted if it is a separate construct unto itself

(Hahn et al., 2012).

Regardless of the form the support takes, romantic partner support is expected to

produce resource *crossover* between partners. Resource crossover is defined as shifting

physical, emotional, or cognitive resources from one area of a person's life to another

area to circumnavigate stresses (Hobfoll, 2002, 2011; Hobfoll et al., 2018). In a business

setting, resource crossover presents in something as simple as having photos or other

mementos of one family, pets, hobbies, or other non-work-related focal points in one's

workspace to provide stimuli to change mood, focus, or perspective when one becomes

stressed on the job. When viewing romantic partner support through the lens of the

crossover of resources in COR theory (Hobfoll, 2002, 2011), the recovery resource of

romantic partner support presents the potential for adding other coping resources to an

individual who is experiencing the stress of WI.

In a diary study of intimate partners, Neff et al. (2012) demonstrated how

performance self-esteem and job-related self-efficacy felt during one's daily activity of

work were transferred from one individual to another during the evening time spent with

the intimate partner via the crossover of resources in COR theory. The authors based their

study on self-expansion theory (Aron et al., 1991) and the premise that in intimate

relationships, individuals increasingly incorporate their partners' resources, perspectives,

and identities into their own self-concept (Aron & Aron, 1986; Aron et al., 2005). According to this theory, "the evaluative and affective responses to another's acquisition and loss of resources...are to some extent the same as if the acquisition or loss was with regard to one's own resources" (Aron et al., 2005, p. 210). This finding supports the self-expansion theory and the proposed direct crossover mechanism as a direct reflection of empathic response (Westman, 2001). In a separate study, Neff et al. (2013) discovered that job-related self-efficacy was transferred to a partner when both partners discussed their jobs and learned how the other dealt with adversity. Through crossover processes, a person who brings home their job-related self-efficacy beliefs, accomplishments, and ways of coping with difficulties can increase their partner's job-related self-efficacy beliefs.

Even though the literature suggests that recovery resources can mitigate the effects of WI (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2018; Vahle-Hinz et al., 2019; Xia et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2015), the literature does not directly account for how recovery timelines may vary. Lanaj et al. (2018) suggested that future research should explore how the repair efforts with recuperating resources (such as romantic partner support) occur within a relatively short time window because additional resources are often needed to process the negative interactions at work. Therefore, this study will focus on addressing the following hypotheses to address the gap in the literature and to advance the nuances of theory associated with WI and burnout:

> *Hypothesis 3: Daily romantic partner support is significantly related to overnight resource recovery.*

Hypothesis 4: Daily romantic partner support will moderate the relationship between daily workplace incivility and burnout to minimize the overall level of burnout.

In terms of resource recovery, the importance of partner support cannot be overstated. Adamczyk and Segrin (2015) discovered that perceived support from a romantic partner can improve psychological health and reduce stress. The implication is that a supportive partner can offer resources (such as emotional support and reassurance) that aid in the recovery process after work.

How does detachment factor into this equation? Sonnentag and Fritz's (2007) recovery experience model posits that psychological detachment from work during non-work time is essential to the recovery process. Detachment provides a mental break from job-related stressors, thereby reducing stress symptoms and facilitating resource recovery. Using this concept as a foundation, Sonnentag et al. (2010) discovered that psychological detachment mediates the relationship between work demands and well-being. In essence, detachment from work obligations facilitates resource recovery, especially when work demands are high.

Consider the 2011 study by Hahn et al. to connect these threads. They discovered that job stressors decreased feelings of well-being, but that this effect was mitigated by social support and detachment. This highlights the significance of both partner support and detachment in the resource recovery process. Therefore, we can conclude that support from a romantic partner can facilitate detachment from work, acting as a catalyst for resource recovery. Partner support can provide the emotional resources required to mentally disengage from work-related stressors, thereby facilitating the recovery process.

Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis within the larger framework of the COR

theory, in which supportive interactions and psychological detachment are vital resources

that help counterbalance resource depletion caused by work demands:

> *Hypothesis 5a: Detachment as a recovery experience will mediate the*
>
> *relationship between daily romantic partner support and overnight resource*
>
> *recovery.*

The importance of relaxation in the process of resource recovery is poignantly

presented in the recovery experience model by Sonnentag and Fritz (2007). They assert

that relaxation creates a peaceful mental landscape, becoming a critical mechanism for

resource rejuvenation. This serene state paves the way for resource replenishment,

helping to restore those depleted during work. Building on this foundation, a study by

Kühnel et al. (2012) corroborates the role of relaxation in the healing process. They found

that simple relaxation activities, such as leisure activities or rest, effectively restored

psychological resources diminished by work. Their findings illuminate how relaxation

serves as a counterweight to stress, enhancing overall well-being and becoming an

integral player in the recovery journey. In a complementary vein, research by Geurts and

Sonnentag (2006) elucidates the protective role of relaxation. They demonstrated that

post-work relaxation is crucial in counteracting the detrimental health impacts of job

stress. This study lends further credence to the mediating role of relaxation, showcasing

its potential to foster recovery and stave off resource depletion.

Taking a leap towards the connection between social support and relaxation, a

study by Hahn et al. (2011) found that the combined power of social support and

relaxation significantly bolstered well-being amidst job stressors. This finding opens the

door to the notion that partner support may foster an environment of relaxation, acting as

a catalyst for resource recovery. Further cementing this connection, Fritz et al. (2010)

discovered that social support outside of work aided employees in unwinding and

detaching from work, which in turn led to enhanced overall well-being.

Drawing from the collective insights of these studies, a compelling narrative

emerges about the roles of relaxation and partner support in resource recovery. A

supportive partner, it seems, can create an environment conducive to relaxation, thereby

fostering an atmosphere that facilitates resource recovery. This narrative finds harmony

with the central principles of the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, extending our

understanding of how relaxation and partner support can serve as vital safeguards against

the resource depletion that arises from work demands. In light of these findings and

theoretical perspectives, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5b: Relaxation as a recovery experience will mediate the relationship

between daily romantic partner support and overnight resource recovery.

In the recovery experience model developed by Sonnentag and Fritz (2007),

mastery was proposed as an intriguing component of the recovery experience. In this

context, mastery is depicted as the effort to acquire new skills or hone existing ones

during non-work hours. They propose that mastery activities stimulate resource recovery

and promote personal growth. A study by Eschleman et al. (2010) lends additional

credence to the role of mastery in resource recovery, building on this premise. Individuals

who engaged in mastery experiences outside of work hours demonstrated greater mental

detachment from work, decreased stress, and increased life satisfaction. These results

highlight the importance of mastery in promoting well-being and replenishing depleted

resources.

Incorporating the aspect of social support, Hahn et al. (2011) provide an insightful

link between social support and mastery. Their research revealed that social support and

mastery experiences significantly enhanced well-being, particularly when confronted

with job stressors. This evidence introduces the notion that partner support might nurture

an environment favorable to mastery, thereby facilitating resource recovery. In a similar

vein, Fritz et al. (2010) determined that social support received outside of the workplace

was instrumental in enabling employees to engage in mastery experiences, which led to

an overall improvement in well-being.

Inferring a role for romantic partner support in promoting resource recovery

through the facilitation of mastery experiences is reasonable in light of these findings. It

appears that a supportive partner's emotional and mental space fosters an environment

conducive to mastery activities, thereby promoting resource recovery. This conclusion is

consistent with the foundational principles of the Conservation of Resources (COR)

theory, which positions social support and mastery experiences as crucial resources that

help counterbalance the resource depletion caused by work demands. Consequently, the

evidence gathered in this investigation strongly supports the following claim:

> *Hypothesis 5c: Mastery as a recovery experience will mediate the relationship*
>
> *between daily romantic partner support and overnight resource recovery.*

In their recovery experience model, Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) incorporated the

concept of control as a necessary component of the recovery process. The notion of

control refers to the power one holds to dictate the way their non-work time is spent.

According to their argument, a sense of control during off-duty hours can aid in the recovery process by fostering autonomy and personal fulfillment. In a subsequent investigation of the role of control in recovery, Kühnel and Sonnentag (2011) provided additional support. Their study unearthed that the ability to govern leisure activities mitigated emotional exhaustion and augmented the sensation of feeling recovered.

The study by Hahn et al. (2011) offers compelling insights into the relationship between social support and control. Their findings confirm that social support and a sense of control over leisure time contribute to overall happiness. This finding suggests that the presence of a supportive partner could foster an environment that encourages greater control over personal time, thereby promoting resource recovery. Adding credence to this argument, Ten Brummelhuis and Trougakos (2014) found that the support rendered by significant others empowers employees to exert greater control over their leisure activities, contributing to an overall elevation in recovery.

Synthesizing these research findings invites the plausible inference that daily support from a romantic partner could play a role in amplifying resource recovery by facilitating control as a recovery experience. A supportive partner could foster a non-work environment that encourages autonomy and decision-making, thereby facilitating resource recovery. This aligns neatly with the central tenets of the COR theory, which views social support and control during leisure time as crucial resources for counterbalancing the effects of work-related resource depletion. Therefore, we propose the following to be empirically tested:

Hypothesis 5d: Control as a recovery experience will mediate the relationship between daily romantic partner support and overnight resource recovery.

Recall, however, that resource investments are required for resource recovery (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986; Hobfoll, 2001; Skinner, 1980). As a dyad, romantic partners must invest resources in their relationship to build and sustain dyadic support (Xia et al., 2019). If either partner's resources have been depleted, it may become increasingly difficult (via a loss spiral) for either partner to invest resources in the relationship (Hobfoll et al., 2018). That is, romantic partners may become unwilling or unable to invest in support behaviors (which require time and energy of their own) or may become unwilling or unable to sustain a positive exchange relationship supporting resource exchange. For example, Zhou et al. (2015) found that WI decreased the quality of family relationships and led to family undermining, echoing findings by Meier and Cho (2019). COR's concept of transferring resources includes shifts of affect, time, and self-esteem from one partner to the other –which may be either positive or negative (e.g., Neff et al., 2012, 2013). Booth-LeDoux et al. (2020) found that burnout levels among both partners affected the support they were able to provide each other. COR theory proposes that resources tend to group together and sustain each other ("caravans") and that certain environmental conditions promote the development and maintenance of resource caravans. Hobfoll (2011) argued that one's family can function as a resource caravan and that when partners engage in negative interpersonal behaviors such as social undermining or family incivility, these behaviors may increase loss cycles and impede recovery (e.g., Lin & Bai, 2022). Thus, we expect the overall relationship quality to influence partners' ability to provide support via the formation of resource caravans.

Hypothesis 6: Overall relationship quality (reflecting social

exchange/reciprocity) will be positively associated with perceived romantic

partner support.

Hypothesized Model

Our proposed research model is an expansive examination of workplace

dynamics, personal relationships, and their effects on stress and recuperation. The study

is based on multiple interconnected hypotheses, each of which plays a unique role in this

exhaustive investigation.

Hypothesis 1 posits a positive relationship between workplace incivility (WI) and

overall burnout. This hypothesis serves a particular purpose in our research as a pseudo-

litmus test. Due to its solid foundation in existing literature, the congruence of our sample

responses with this hypothesis will provide us with a credibility base. By demonstrating

that the responses of our sample are consistent with broader trends identified in recent

research, we can confidently assert that our data are representative and trustworthy. This

is a crucial launching point for our research, laying the groundwork for our investigation

of the subsequent hypotheses.

The subsequent investigation, Hypothesis 2, extends the examination to a daily

level and asserts that daily occurrences of WI correlate with burnout levels at the end of

each day. This hypothesis focuses on the potential cumulative effect of WI's short-term

effects on overall burnout. It applies the broad concept explored in Hypothesis 1 to

everyday life, providing us with a more nuanced understanding of the issue at hand.

The third hypothesis, which posits a significant relationship between daily support

from a romantic partner and overnight resource recovery, shifts our focus to the personal

realm. This hypothesis is essential because it introduces a brand-new factor to our model: the role of romantic partner support. It emphasizes the significance of external, non-work-related factors in mitigating workplace stress.

This investigation is furthered by the fourth hypothesis, which proposes that daily romantic partner support may act as a buffer by moderating the relationship between daily WI and burnout, thereby reducing overall burnout levels. Work and personal life are intricately intertwined in this hypothesis, and positive influences in one area may mitigate negative influences in the other.

The subsequent phase of our investigation is outlined in Hypotheses 5a through 5d. These hypotheses explore the role of different recovery experiences as mediators in the relationship between daily romantic partner support and overnight resource recovery. They propose that detachment, relaxation, mastery, and control - experiences regarded as crucial to recovery - mediate this relationship. It adds another layer to our understanding of the dynamics at play by providing a deeper look into the individual's personal experiences and their role in the recovery process.

The conclusion of our model, Hypothesis 6, introduces an overarching factor: the overall quality of relationships. This hypothesis suggests a correlation between the quality of the relationship, which is characterized by social exchange and reciprocity, and the perception of romantic partner support. It completes the circle of our study by tying the significance of quality personal relationships back to the support they offer and their potential impact on workplace stress and burnout.

Overall, the proposed model is a multifaceted, layered investigation into the intricate interplay between workplace conditions, personal relationships, and individual

experiences. It aims to provide a complete picture of how these factors influence the

dynamics of burnout and recovery. Please see Figure 1 for a visual representation of the

model.

(Insert Figure 1 about here)

Chapter 3: Method

Participants and Procedures

Participants were 277 US adults recruited via Prolific. We implemented the

following inclusion criteria:

(Insert Table 1 about here)

The rationale for sampling only the United States rather than a general population

includes the notion that gender roles and romantic partner roles may be culturally

specific, and it also addresses Xia et al.'s (2019) limitation of studying spousal support

only in the homogenous population of Eastern culture (China). Xia et al. suggested that

relationships of the variable of romantic partner support (spousal support) should be

explored in Western cultures to determine if the relationships translate between cultures.

Further, due to the interest in the overall concept of romantic partner support as a

construct, all participants must be in a committed long-term relationship, with

legal/formal marriage not being required. Considering that many people choose to

cohabitate rather than legally bind their relationships (Hassel & Hassel, 2002; Hatch,

2017; Johnson et al., 2011), the construct of romantic partner support likely includes non-

married dyads. The target number of participants will be determined using a power

analysis pending the finalization of the hypotheses; it is expected to be between 200-500

participants.

In order to gather a sample meeting our inclusion criteria, we first conducted a

screening survey for participants who listed that they were in a committed relationship

and were employed full-time on Prolific's panel (N=5,719). In this screening survey, we

asked the participants if they met the inclusion criteria for the study and if they would be

willing to participate in a series of surveys where they would be sampled twice a day.

Participants were paid $0.25 to fill out this screener survey. We capped the maximum

number of respondents to 1,000 for this screening survey. From this group of 1,000, we

identified 374 participants who met the criteria. These participants were invited to take

part in the full study.

We purposely conducted a quantitative diary study with multiple daily samplings

to answer a research question. Participants were asked to complete an initial survey

(approximately 20 minutes) with demographics, focal variables in our theoretical model,

and control exploratory variables. We then sampled the participants twice daily for five

consecutive days, with one sampling in the morning (7 am-11 am Central Standard Time)

and one in the evening (5 pm-10 pm Central Standard Time). Finally, we sampled the

participants a final time with repeated measures from the initial sampling (approximately

15 minutes). Each participant was paid $5.00 for the initial sampling, $0.50 for each diary

sampling, $5.00 for the final sampling, and a bonus of $10.00 if they completed all the

samplings. Below is a graphical representation of our sampling in Figure 2:

(Insert Figure 2 about here)

During the initial survey, we captured data from 277 participants (74.064% of the

374 identified from the screening survey). These 277 were invited to take part in the next

phase of sampling. Participants completed the morning and evening sampling during the

next five days (Monday-Friday). Of the 277, 203 (73.285%) completed at least one

sampling for all five days, 29 (10.469%) completed at least one sampling during four of

the days, 16 (5.776%) completed at least one sampling for at least three of the days, 11

(3.971%) completed at least one sampling for at least two of the days, and six (2.166%)

completed at least one sampling during one day. Twelve participants (4.332%) did not

complete the diary samplings. When evaluating the response rate of the diary sampling,

we observed that the participation in the dairy sampling ranged from 202 participants

(72.924%) to 245 (88.448%) for the morning sampling and 233 (84.126%) to 251

(90.614%) for the evening sampling. Overall, the response rate was 85.415% for the

diary sampling.

General Demographics

Participants in the study (N = 277) had a diverse range of demographic

characteristics. The ages ranged from 21 to 81 years, with a mean age of 39.69 years (SD

= 9.807) and a relatively homogeneous distribution, as 45.4% of participants fell between

the ages of 31 and 40 years. The gender distribution was predominantly male (63.9%),

with females accounting for 33.9% of the participants and Non-Binary/Third Gender

individuals making up 2.2% of the sample. The racial composition was primarily White

or Caucasian (76.5%), with the remaining participants identifying as Asian (5.8%), Black

or African American (8.3%), Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish Origin (6.5%), and Multiracial

or another (2.9%). Participants' educational attainment was diverse, with the largest

group holding an undergraduate degree (50.9%), followed by high school/GED holders

(18.8%), graduate degree holders (24.5%), and doctorate holders (5.4%). Income levels

were distributed into two groups: over half (75.9%) of the participants earned $50,000 or

more, while the remaining 24.1% earned less than $50,000. Please see Table 2 for a more

detailed breakdown of the sample's demographics. Additionally, please see Appendix I

for the informed consent used for sampling.

(Insert Table 2. about here)

Relationship Demographics

Our study focused on resources derived from romantic partners and thus collected information about participants' relationship tenure, relationship status, and relationship definition. Participants had been involved in their relationships for a duration ranging from 0.5 to 45 years, with a mean tenure of 11.782 years (SD = 8.8175). The majority of participants (78.3%) were married, with the remaining participants (21.7%) being single but in long-term relationships. Relationship definitions among participants were predominantly legally married (76.2%), followed by cohabiting (8.3%), domestic partners (6.1%), boyfriend/girlfriend (6.9%), and common-law marriage (2.5%).

Panels from the company Prolific were used to collect data because sampling using Internet vendor–based sources often yields more consistent sample composition, respondent integrity, data quality, data structures, and substantive results than sampling using non–Internet vendor–based sources (Smith et al., 2016).

Procedure

Considering that the variable of WI is studied most with a survey method (Vasconcelos, 2020), a survey method is consistent with the current literature. Therefore, this study employed a survey method. Consistent with the research literature on resource depletion and recovery, a diary sampling method was used (an initial (Time 1) survey + two responses a day for five consecutive workdays + a Time 2 Survey). As previously described, daily samplings occurred once in the morning (before the work shift) and once in the evening (after the work shift). For each of the daily surveys, participants were sent an e-mail including the survey link when it was time to complete the survey. A diary study is commonly used to explore short-term recovery efforts associated with COR

theory (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2018; Neff et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2015). Additionally, during

the Time 1 survey, control and exploratory variables were gathered to account for

elements that impact modeling, such as job satisfaction, job stress (not accounted for by

WI), gender, age, work tenure, and the like (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016).

Measures

Overall Measures

Overall Workplace Incivility (WI). The Uncivil Workplace Behavior

Questionnaire (UWBQ: Martin & Hine, 2005) was utilized to measure workplace

incivility (WI) from the initial sampling. This measure has been extensively validated

regarding reliability and construct/discriminant validity across multiple populations. It

comprises four factors - hostility, privacy violations, exclusionary behaviors of the

perpetrators, and being gossiped about - that cover more areas of potential WI than other

measures available. This measure was chosen for its ability to allow deeper analysis with

the four-factor model and/or collapse the factors into a single construct. Additionally, the

questionnaire is readable by most audiences. As the aim was to explore the impact of

daily WI, the questionnaire prompt was modified to address the frequency of WI during

the work shift and not to cover the experience of WI over a one-year period. Sample

items included: "How frequently has someone at work raised their voice while speaking

to you?" and "How often has someone at work interrupted you while you were speaking

on the telephone?" Participants answered the questions on a five-point Likert-like scale

where 1 = never (occurred) and 5 = very often (occurred).

In our sample, the mean score for overall WI was 2.069 (SD = 0.657), and the

range of the mean values between the participants ranged from 1 to 4.05. Mean values of

each factor showed similar central tendencies, with hostility at 2.377, privacy invasion at

1.777, excusatory behavior at 2.233, and gossiping at 1.875.

The measure was assessed for reliability at the construct and factor levels and was

found to be reliable, with a Cronbach's α of 0.922 for the overall construct. Each factor's

Cronbach's α ranged between 0.806 and 0.891 for the factors, with hostility at 0.806,

privacy invasion at 0.822, exclusory behavior at 0.891, and gossiping at 0.884.

We also screened the data for normality and for missingness and observed no

significant problems, although (as expected) the distribution of incivility was right-tailed.

Please see **Appendix III** for the results of this analysis.

Burnout (OVERALL). We used the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) to

measure burnout perceptions and intensity for overall burnout collected at the second

sampling. The measure includes two major factors (exhaustion and disengagement) that

cover the overall elements required to answer our research question. In contrast to the

MBI and all of its derivations, Demerouti and Bakker (2008) argued that the OLBI's two

factors more adequately address the overall burnout construct than the three factors in the

MBI. The authors further argued that the OLBI addresses problematic assessment

problems of wording and scoring identified by prior scholarship in the MBI (Demerouti

et al., 2001; Lee & Ashforth, 1990). Sample items include: "During my work, I often feel

emotionally drained" and "Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost

mechanically." Participants answered the questions on a five-point Likert-like scale

where 1 = never (occurred) and 5 = very often (occurred).

The mean value for the overall construct was 2.920 (SD = 0.805), and the range of

the mean values between the participants ranged from 1 to 5.00. Additionally, the mean

values of each factor showed similar central tendencies, with exhaustion at 2.872 and

disengagement at 2.722.

The measure was assessed for reliability at the construct and factor levels and was

found to be reliable, with a Cronbach's α of 0.924 for the overall construct. When

evaluating each factor's Cronbach's α, we also determined that the measure was reliable

(exhaustion = 0.868, disengagement = 0.867).

We also screened the data for normality and for missingness and observed no

significant problems, and the distribution of burnout was quite normal. Please see

Appendix III for the results of this analysis.

Romantic Partner Support (RPS). We used the Support in Intimate

Relationships Rating Scale (*SIRRS*) developed by Dehle et al. (2001) to assess the level

of perceived spousal support. The SIRRS consists of 25 items scored on a 5-point Likert-

type scale ("0 =Does not occur" to "4= a very high amount"). The SIRRS has four factors

describing the types of support provided: (1) esteem/emotional – eight questions, (2)

physical comfort – four questions, (3) informational – eight questions, and (4) tangible

support – five questions. The total score ranges from 27 to 81, with higher scores

indicating higher perceived spousal support. In a study by Barry et al. (2009), the authors

validated the reliability and utility of this measure. Each question connecting to the four

factors had AVE scores ranging from 0.49 to 1.00. The prompt for the scale is *Based on*

your experience with your romantic partner last night; please rate the number of

interactions that occurred between you and your partner. Please rate according to the

following scale = 0 (did not occur), 1 (small amount), 2 (Moderate amount), 3 (high

amount), and 4 (very high amount). Sample items include: "Held my hand,", "Kissed

me", "Said it was OK to feel the way I was feeling", and "Gave me suggestions about how to handle a situation."

The mean value for the overall construct was 3.191 (SD = 0.842), and the range of the mean values between the participants ranged from 1 to 5.00. Mean values of each factor showed similar central tendencies, with informational support at 2.944, physical touch support at 3.3875, esteem support at 3.194, and tangible support at 3.239.

The measure was assessed for reliability at the construct and factor levels and was found to be reliable, with a Cronbach's α of 0.922 for the overall construct. When evaluating each factor's Cronbach's α, we also determined that the measure was reliable (informational support = 0.806, physical touch support =0.891, esteem support =0.884, and tangible support = 0.924).

We also screened the data for normality and for missingness and observed no significant problems. Please see **Appendix III** for the results of this analysis.

Relationship Quality. We used the Marriage/Relationship Scale (MRS: Brkljačić et al., 2019) to measure this variable. The MRS uses nine questions to evaluate a single factor quantifying the perceived quality of one's relationship. Each item is scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale ("1 =strongly disagree" to "5 =Strongly. Agree"). Sample items include "In your relationship, how satisfied are you regarding the distribution of duties and responsibilities?" and "In your relationship, how satisfied are you regarding caring for and relationship to the children." The mean value for the overall construct was 4.165 (SD = 0.867), and the range of the mean values between the participants ranged from 1 to 5.00.

The measure was assessed for reliability at the construct and factor levels and was found to be reliable, with a Cronbach's α of 0.945 for the overall construct. Considering that in the original manuscript, Cronbach's α score was 0.96, we determined that the measure was overall reliable.

Recovery Experience (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). We assessed the four factors of recovery experience (psychological detachment, relaxation, mastery, and control) using this 16-question questionnaire. Each factor has four associated questions. Sample items include "I use the time to relax", "I forget about work," "I do something to broaden my horizons", and "I determine for myself how I will spend my time."

The mean value for the overall construct was 3.617 (SD = 0.770), and the range of the mean values between the participants ranged from 1.19 to 5. Mean values of each factor showed similar central tendencies, with detachment at 3.251 (SD = 1.104), relaxation at 3.8534 (SD = 0.946), mastery at 3.518 (SD = 1.039), and control at 3.846 (SD = 0.917).

The measure was assessed for reliability at the construct and factor levels and was found to be reliable, with a Cronbach's α of 0.921 for the overall construct. Each factor's Cronbach's α ranged between 0.895 and 0.931 for the factors, with detachment at 0.895, relaxation at 0.931, mastery at 0.927, and control at 0.905. Considering that in the original manuscript, the Cronbach's α score for each factor ranged between 0.790 to 0.850, and our reported values were higher than the original, we determined that this measure was overall reliable.

We also screened the data for normality and missingness, and observed no significant problems. Please see **Appendix III** for the results of this analysis.

Daily Measures

Daily Workplace Incivility. Because best practices for diary methods limit the length of daily surveys (which decreases missing data), each daily survey was limited to approximately 15-20 items. Following previously-published studies, we employed a truncated version of the Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire (UWBQ: Martin & Hine, 2005) to assess daily workplace incivility. To ensure the reliability of the subscales and the overall construct, we included at least two questions per factor. Specifically, we selected ten items from the original 20-item measure to capture daily workplace incivility. These ten items were chosen based on their association with four subscales: hostility (2 items), privacy invasion (2 items), exlcusatory behaviors (3 items), and gossiping (3 items).

By including at least two questions per subscale, we conducted a reliability analysis to assess the internal consistency of each subscale and the overall workplace incivility construct. The results indicated high Cronbach's α values for the overall scale (α = 0.910) and the subscales of hostility (α = 0.764), exlcusatory behaviors (α = 0.812), and gossiping (α = 0.858). These values suggest that our measure of workplace incivility exhibited high reliability and consistency across the different subscales. However, the privacy invasion subscale demonstrated lower reliability, with a Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.588, indicating less internal consistency.

The reliability analysis of the Workplace Incivility (WI) measure revealed a Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.91, indicating high internal consistency. The average inter-item correlation was 0.51, indicating moderate positive relationships between the items. The Signal-to-Noise ratio was 10, further supporting the measure's reliability. The item

statistics showed positive and significant item-total correlations for all items, ranging

from 0.58 to 0.78. The mean score for the WI measure was 1.4, with a standard deviation

of 0.61, and the median inter-item correlation was 0.49.

For the Hostility - WI subscale, the reliability analysis yielded a Cronbach's α

coefficient of 0.76, indicating acceptable internal consistency. The G6 statistic was 0.62,

suggesting moderate reliability. The average inter-item correlation was 0.62, indicating

moderate positive relationships between the items. The Signal-to-Noise ratio was 3.2,

indicating acceptable reliability. The item statistics showed positive and significant item-

total correlations, with raw.r and std.r values of 0.9. The mean score for the measure was

1.5, with a standard deviation of 0.76.

Regarding the Privacy Invasion - WI subscale, the reliability analysis yielded a

Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.59, indicating fair internal consistency. The G6 statistic was

0.42, suggesting lower reliability. The average inter-item correlation was 0.42, indicating

weaker positive relationships between the items. The Signal-to-Noise ratio was 1.5,

indicating relatively poor reliability. The item statistics showed positive and significant

item-total correlations, with raw.r and std.r values of 0.84 and 0.81, respectively. The

mean score for the measure was 1.4, with a standard deviation of 0.69.

For the Exclusory Behavior - WI subscale, the reliability analysis yielded a

Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.81, indicating good internal consistency. The G6 statistic

was 0.75, suggesting strong reliability. The average inter-item correlation was 0.59,

indicating moderate positive relationships between the items. The Signal-to-Noise ratio

was 4.4, indicating good reliability. The item statistics showed positive and significant

item-total correlations for all items, with raw.r and std.r values ranging from 0.86 to 0.87.

The mean score for the measure was 1.5, with a standard deviation of 0.76.

Regarding the Gossiping - WI subscale, the reliability analysis yielded a

Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.86, indicating high internal consistency. The G6 statistic

was 0.81, suggesting strong reliability. The average inter-item correlation was 0.67,

indicating moderate positive relationships between the items. The Signal-to-Noise ratio

was 6.1, indicating good reliability. The item statistics showed positive and significant

item-total correlations for all items, with raw.r and std.r values ranging from 0.84 to 0.91.

The mean score for the measure was 1.3, with a standard deviation of 0.65.

We also screened the data for normality and for missingness. Please see

Appendix III for the results of this analysis.

Daily Romantic Partner Support. We used a truncated version of the Support in

Intimate Relationships Rating Scale (*SIRRS*) developed by Dehle et al. (2001) to measure

daily romantic partner support. Specifically, we used seven items from the overall 25

items. These seven items were selected based on their association with four subscales:

informational support (2 items), physical touch support (2 items), esteem/emotional

support (1 item), and tangible support (2 items).

Our reliability statistics revealed high Cronbach's α values for the overall scale (α

= 0.902) and for the sub-scales of informational support (α = 0.883), physical touch

support (α = 0.720), and tangible support (α = 0.794). Owing to the factor of

esteem/emotional support only having one question, we could not assess the reliability of

Cronbach's α. Overall, these values suggest that our measure of romantic partner support

was reliable and consistent across the different subscales.

The mean value for the overall construct was 2.732 (SD = 0.031), and the range of the mean values between the participants ranged from 1 to 5. Mean values of each factor showed similar central tendencies, with informational support at 2.475 (SD = 1.167), physical touch support at 2.766 (SD = 1.204), esteem/emotional support at 2.738 (SD = 1.362), and tangible support at 2.947 (SD = 1.224).

We also screened the data for normality and missingness. Please see **Appendix III** for the results of this analysis.

Daily Recovery Experience (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). We assessed the four factors of recovery experience (psychological detachment, relaxation, mastery, and control) using four questions from the overall 16-question questionnaire. Each factor had one associated question. Please see Appendix II for the questions.

The mean value for the overall construct was 3.173 (SD = 0.963), and the range of the mean values between the participants ranged from 1 to 5. Mean values of each factor showed similar central tendencies, with detachment at 3.200 (SD = 1.359), relaxation at 3.540 (SD = 1.209), mastery at 2.460 (SD = 1.289), and control at 3.490 (SD = 1.223).

We conducted a reliability analysis using the α() function in R to assess the internal consistency of the measure. The raw Cronbach's α coefficient for the overall construct was 0.752, indicating good internal consistency among the items. Additionally, the standardized α coefficient was 0.76, suggesting a reliable measure. Moreover, the G6(smc) coefficient, which measures the general factor saturation, was 0.73. The average inter-item correlation (average_r) was 0.44, indicating a moderate degree of association among the items. The signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) was 3.1, indicating an acceptable level of reliability. The α standard error (ase) was 0.0056.

The reliability estimates if individual items were dropped from the scale were also examined. The raw α coefficients ranged from 0.60 to 0.80 for the individual items, indicating varying levels of reliability. Mastery had the highest raw α coefficient of 0.80, while Relaxation had the lowest coefficient of 0.60. These results suggest that removing certain items would slightly decrease the overall reliability of the scale.

We also screened the data for normality and missingness. Please see **Appendix III** for the results of this analysis.

Daily Burnout and Recovery from Burnout. For the daily measure of burnout levels, we used the Single Item Burnout measure first used by Dolan et al. (2015). Using the question, "Overall, based on your definition of burnout, how would you rate your level of burnout?", the respondent chose between five options that ranged from no symptoms of burnout (1) to severe symptomatic state (5). The measure used self-report levels. We believe that by using this measure, we captured and connected the amount of burnout from a single day of the week. Furthermore, we sampled the question at the diary study's morning and evening time points to determine how RPS impacted the change in Burnout.

We employed the following steps to determine the difference in burnout between the evening and the next morning. First, a new variable, "Burnout_shift," was created in the dataset. This variable contained the reported burnout values in the morning shifted up by one row, with the first value being set as "NA" since there is no previous morning value to be compared against. Next, another variable called "Burnout_diff" was computed in the same dataset. This variable represented the difference between the burnout levels in the evening and the shifted burnout values. By subtracting the shifted morning burnout

values from the burnout levels in the evening, we obtained the difference in burnout between these two time points. These calculations allowed us to quantify the change in burnout from the evening to the following morning and examine the dynamics of burnout over time.

The variable "burnout_diff" was analyzed for descriptive statistics. Even though the range of values observed in the variable ranged from -4 to 4, the mean value was found to be 0.012 (SD = 0.679).

We also screened the data for normality and missingness. Please see **Appendix III** for the results of this analysis.

Control Variables

To eliminate potential explanations for the hypothesized relationships in this study, we incorporated control variables in accordance with Bernerth and Aguinis (2016). *Social Support.* Our theoretical perspective contends that, as an extremely close relationship involving daily interactions, romantic partner support differs qualitatively from other, more generic types of social support. Thus, we control for other types of social support in our analyses to ensure that romantic partner support accounts for variance above and beyond other types of social support. The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS: Zimet et al., 1988) was utilized to measure the initial sampling. This measure has been extensively validated regarding reliability and construct/discriminant validity across multiple populations. It comprises three factors – significant other, friends, and family - that cover the construct of social support. Sample items included: "I can talk about my problems with my family" and "I have friends with

whom I can share my joys and sorrows." Participants answered the questions on a five-point Likert-like scale where 1 = Very Strongly Disagree and 7 = Very Strongly Agree

The mean value for the overall construct was 5.639 (SD = 1.042), and the range of the mean values between the participants ranged from 1 to 7. Mean values of each factor showed similar central tendencies, with support from one's significant other at 5.944 (SD =1.081), family at 5.639 (SD =1.287), and friends at 5.333 (SD =1.305). Considering that in the original manuscript by Zimet et al. (1988) found an overall mean value for the construct of perceived social support was 5.80, and the factors ranged between 5.75 and 5.85 (significant other = 5.74, family = 5.80, and friends 5.85); we argue that the sampled measure appears similar in its presentation as the original construct.

The measure was assessed for reliability at the construct and factor levels and was found to be reliable, with a Cronbach's α of 0.94 for the overall construct. Each factor's Cronbach's α ranged between 0.937 and 0.948 for the factors, with significant other support at 0.939, family support at 0.937, and friend support at 0.948. Considering that we will be using a measure for significant other support, we also assess the reliability of combining family and friend support. This Cronbach's α was 0.937.

We also screened the data for normality and missingness. Please see **Appendix III** for the results of this analysis.

Resiliency. Because resilience has a known influence on the relationship between WI and outcomes, we controlled for the self-reported levels of resiliency with the Brief Resilience Scale (BRS) by Smith et al. (2008). Controlling for resilience demonstrates that romantic partner support has effects above and beyond resilience. The scale included questions like "I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times" and "I usually come

through difficult times with little trouble." The Scale had six items scored on a 5-point

Likert-type scale ("1 =strongly disagree" to "5 =Strongly. Agree"). Overall, the BRS

comprised a single factor representing the construct of resiliency.

The questions were answered during the second full sampling after the

completion of diary sampling. Out of the 277 possible participants, 261 responded,

accounting for 94.224% of the total population. The participants answered all questions

for the measure during this sampling. Even though the answers ranged from 1 to 5, the

mean for the BRS was 3.553 (SD =1.052). Additionally, the measure was assessed for

reliability at the construct level and was found to be reliable, with a Cronbach's α of

0.920 for the overall construct.

Chapter 4: Results

In this chapter, we test each proposed hypothesis in our theoretical model in an attempt to answer our research question. Additionally, we detail the findings of exploratory analysis to add a more nuanced understanding of the relationships between the variables being studied. All of the analysis was performed in R (R Core Team, 2021) with various software packages.

Descriptive Statistics

To properly assess the relationships of the variables to be modeled, we combined the descriptive statistics detailed in Chapter Three. Beyond central tendency, we constructed a table that includes all relevant explanations of the data. Please see Table 3 for more details.

(Insert Table 3 about here)

Additionally, we assessed the correlations between all variables and their factors. Owing to the large size of the table, the findings for this analysis will be stored in the university database. Please click on the following link for the document:

(External Link)

Hypothesis 1

Primary Analysis

Because the existing literature associated with workplace mistreatment consistently reports that workplace incivility positively correlates with overall burnout (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2018; Leone et al., 2008; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Vasconcelos, 2020; Zhou et al., 2015), we first wanted to ensure that our current sample also shows this relationship. As such, the relationship between overall burnout (assessed

at Time 2) and the independent variable of workplace incivility (assessed at Time 1) was examined using a linear regression model. Recall that the time frame referenced by these items was approximately five to seven days apart from Time 1 and Time 2. We hypothesized that in our sample, overall workplace incivility would correlate positively with overall burnout. In addition, we included control variables identified in the literature, including age, organizational tenure, resilience, and total social support.

The results of the regression analysis indicated that Time 1 workplace incivility did indeed significantly correlate with Time 2 overall burnout ($b = 0.302$, $SE = 0.062$, $t(271) = 4.858$, $p < 0.001$). This finding suggests that higher levels of workplace incivility are associated with increased overall burnout. Furthermore, this finding demonstrates that our sample fundamentally aligns with the current literature. Please see Table 4 for details of all the significant and non-significant relationships tested in this model. Additionally, please see Figure 3, which visually represents the significant and non-significant paths in the model. The regression analysis yielded an R^2 value of 0.357, suggesting that the independent variables explained approximately 35.67% of the variance in overall burnout ($F = 30.06$, $p < .0001$).

(Insert Table 4 about here)

(Insert Figure 3 about here)

With some of our control measures, we also mirrored findings from previous literature. Resilience was negatively associated with burnout ($b = -0.273$, $SE = 0.041$, $t(271) = -6.618$, $p < 0.001$), as was overall social support ($b = -0.176$, $SE = 0.040$, $t(271) = -4.354$, $p < 0.001$). The correlation between age and overall burnout was not statistically significant ($b = -0.008$, $SE = 0.005$, $t(271) = -1.74$). Similarly, there was no

significant correlation between organizational tenure and overall burnout ($b = 0.003$, SE

$= 0.006$, $t(271) = 0.442$, $p = 0.659$).

To determine how much of the variance could be attributed to each variable

predicting burnout, we conducted a relative weight analysis using the "relaimpo" package

in R. WI, which accounted for 25.57% of the variance of the model. However, our

controls resilience and social support accounted for the majority of the variance with a

combined 72.1% (46.58% resiliency, 25.52% social support). Additionally, age and work

tenure accounted for a combined 2.3% of the additional variance.

Hypothesis 1 Exploratory Analysis

To further explore the relationships underlying hypothesis 1, we conducted an

exploratory analysis to examine the effects of the sub-factors in overall workplace

incivility (hostility, excusatory behavior, gossiping, privacy invasions) on overall

burnout. We also included control variables (age, organizational tenure, resilience, and

social support). As expected, the controls had findings similar to the primary analysis.

Our regression model accounted for approximately 40.63% of the variance in

overall burnout ($R^2 = 0.406$), with an F-statistic of 22.92, $p < 0.000$. The analysis only

revealed significant effects of exclusionary behavior and privacy invasion on the

dependent variable. Exclusionary behavior was positively associated with the outcome (b

$= 0.287$, $SE = 0.058$, $t(268) = 4.964$, $p < 0.001$). This suggests that as exclusionary

behavior increases, the outcome variable also increases. On the other hand, privacy

invasion was negatively associated with the outcome ($b = -0.205$, $SE = 0.064$, $t(268) = -$

3.178, $p = 0.002$). This indicates that as privacy invasion increases, the outcome variable

decreases. However, the positive correlation in analysis between privacy invasions and

overall burnout brings this interpretation into question. Both gossiping and hostility yielded nonsignificant effects. Further details of the significant and non-significant relationships are presented in Table 5 below, and Figure 4 provides a visual representation of these relationships.

(Insert Table 5 about here)

(Insert Figure 4 about here)

To determine how much of the variance could be attributed to each variable predicting burnout, we conducted a relative weight analysis using the "relaimpo" package in R. The factors of WI accounted for the following variance in the model: Hostility = 6.901%, Exclusionary behaviors = 20.849%, Privacy invasion =3.514%, and Gossiping =6.40%. However, our controls resilience and social support accounted for the majority of the variance with a combined 60.14% (38.976% Resiliency, 21.164% social support). Additionally, age and work tenure accounted for a combined 2.1% of the additional variance.

These findings lend substantial support to the relevance of exclusionary behaviors as a significant predictor of burnout while also suggesting potential areas for future investigation, particularly concerning the effects of privacy invasions and the non-significant impact of hostility and gossiping in our sample.

Hypothesis 2

Primary Analysis

To test hypothesis 2, we conducted a linear mixed model analysis using the "lme4" package in R to explore the relationship between *daily* workplace incivility and *daily* burnout while controlling for age, organizational tenure, resilience, and overall

social support. Our analysis involved repeated measures data for daily workplace

incivility and burnout at the end of the workday, capturing observations over time for

each individual. The control measures were collected during the Time 1 survey.

We chose to employ cluster mean centering for our independent variables in the

context of this analysis. This choice was primarily influenced by the characteristics of our

data and the objectives of our analysis. Given that our data were hierarchical and each

participant had multiple data points, cluster mean centering becomes an essential aspect

of our analysis. Cluster mean centering is accomplished by subtracting the group mean

from each individual score within each cluster. This enables the intercept to be

interpreted as the expected outcome when the independent variable is at its group mean,

thereby providing a meaningful reference point for comparing the effects of the

independent variables within groups. This is especially pertinent to our study, in which

understanding the behavior of variables within clusters (individuals in this instance) is

crucial (Heck & Thomas, 2020).

We were able to maintain a clear and meaningful interpretation of our model's

intercept while accounting for the hierarchical structure of our data by employing cluster

mean centering for our independent variables. Literature suggests that the decision to

center or not to center, as well as the choice of centering method, should be based on

meticulous consideration of the research question, the nature of the data, and the specific

objectives of the analysis (Heck & Thomas, 2020). Our methodology conforms to these

suggestions, providing a robust and interpretable framework for our research question.

As expected, the results revealed a significant positive relationship between daily

workplace incivility and daily burnout ($b = 0.346$, $SE = 0.020$, $t(4265) = 17.706$, $p <$

.001). This finding supports our hypothesis 2 that daily workplace incivility is associated

with higher levels of burnout at the end of the day. Please see Table 6 for details of

significant and non-significant relationships and Figure 5 for a visualization of the

results.

During the course of our research, we identified the need for a technique similar to

RWA in order to better comprehend the effect of our independent variables on the

dependent variable. RWA is a potent instrument that enables us to determine the relative

importance of predictor variables in a regression model, providing valuable insights into

how each variable contributes to the prediction of the outcome. However, while RWA is

extremely effective in simple regression models, it has limitations when applied to

multilevel models because it cannot account for the hierarchical data structure. In

addition, at the time this dissertation was written, there was no R package available that

could conduct RWA in a multilevel modeling context. This posed a significant challenge,

as our data, with its hierarchical structure and multiple data points contributed by each

participant, required a method capable of handling this complexity effectively. In

response to this challenge, we examined the literature and discovered empirical support

for the application of the Pratt Index in multilevel modeling. Liu et al., (2014)

demonstrated the efficacy of the Pratt Index in multilevel modeling, offering an

alternative to RWA. The Pratt Index computes the proportion of the total effect of each

predictor variable, providing a measure of variable importance capable of handling the

complexities of multilevel data. We again used the "relaimpo" package in R for this

analysis.

The Pratt Index for WI was 0.037, indicating that the variable could explain

roughly 3.7% of the variance. However, the two controls with latent constructs accounted

for the majority of the variance (90.6%: Resilience =0.542 and Social Support =0.364).

Additionally, the continuous control variables represented 5.6% of the remaining

variance (Age = -0.005 and Job Tenure = 0.062).

In summary, our findings support hypothesis 2, suggesting that daily workplace

incivility significantly predicts daily burnout. Additionally, resilience and social support

from others were found to be protective factors against daily burnout. However, age and

organizational tenure showed limited associations with daily burnout within the context

of our repeated measures design.

Hypothesis 2 Exploratory Analysis

To further explore the relationships underlying hypothesis 2, we conducted an

exploratory analysis to examine the effects of daily excusatory behavior, daily gossiping,

daily privacy invasions, and the control variables (age, organizational tenure, resilience,

and social support from others) on end-of-day burnout. Again, we chose not to center

variables with the same rationale provided in the primary analysis.

The analysis revealed that daily exclusionary behavior had a significant positive

relationship with end-of-day burnout ($b = 0.255$, $SE = 0.018$, $t(4139) = 13.852$, $p < .001$).

Similarly, hostility also had a significant positive relationship with end-of-day burnout (b

$= 0.052$, $SE = 0.017$, $t(4139) = 2.991$, $p =.003$). These results indicate that higher levels

of exclusionary behavior and hostility were associated with increased end-of-day

burnout. However, daily privacy invasions did not show a significant relationship with

end-of-day burnout (b = -0.027, SE = 0.017, t(4134) = -1.525, p = .127), suggesting that

daily privacy invasions may not strongly impact end-of-day burnout. Furthermore, daily

gossiping did not show a significant relationship with end-of-day burnout (b = 0.027, SE

= 0.023, t(4165) = 1.134, p = .257), indicating that daily gossiping may not have a

substantial influence on end-of-day burnout.

(Insert Table 7 about here)

(Insert Figure 6 about here)

We again used the "relaimpo" package in R to determine the Pratt Index. For the

factors of WI, we found that two factors positively contributed to the model and two that

negatively contributed for a total of approximately 5.5% of the variance (Exclusionary

Behavior = 0.049, Hostility = 0.014, Privacy Invasions =-0.003, Gossiping =-0.002).

However, the two controls with latent constructs again accounted for the majority of the

variance (88.5%: Resilience =0.531 and Social Support =0.354). Additionally, the

continuous control variables represented 5.6% of the remaining variance (Age = -0.005

and Job Tenure = 0.061).

Hypothesis 3

Primary Analysis

The aim of this analysis was to investigate how daily romantic partner support

influences daily recovery from burnout. In this analysis, the dependent variable was

recovery, which was operationalized as the overnight *change* in burnout (morning

burnout – previous night's burnout). The predictor was perceived romantic partner

support during the previous evening. We used the participant's relationship tenure, age,

resilience, and total social support, excluding significant others as controls. Again, we

used cluster mean, centering our independent variables with the same rationale for

previous hypotheses. A linear mixed-effects model was used to account for the

hierarchical structure of the data, with random intercepts and fixed slopes for individual

participants. The Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) of the model was 0.163,

indicating that approximately 16.3% of the total variability in the outcome variable (can

be attributed to differences between groups (in this case, the different participants).

The results revealed that there was a marginally significant positive association

between perceived support from romantic partners and daily recovery from burnout ($b =$

0.037, $SE = 0.021$, $t = 1.757$, $p = 0.079$). This result on the surface, suggests that higher

levels of perceived support from romantic partners were related to greater daily recovery

from burnout.

On the other hand, relationship tenure, age, resilience, and total social support

excluding significant others did not demonstrate significant effects on daily recovery

from burnout. Please see Table 8 for the significant and non-significant relationships in

the analysis and Figure 7 for a visual representation of the relationships.

(Insert Table 8 about here)

(Insert Figure 7 about here)

The analysis of random effects showed individual variability in the intercepts, suggesting

differences in the baseline levels of recovery from burnout among participants.

We again used the "relaimpo" package in R to determine the Pratt Index. Daily

Romantic Partner Support positively contributed to the model (0.065). However, the two

controls with latent constructs again accounted for a smaller variance (34.3%: Resilience

=0.194 and Social Support =0.149). Additionally, the continuous control variables

represented 0.5% of the remaining variance (Age = 0.004 and Relationship Tenure =

0.001).

In summary, the findings suggest that perceived support from romantic partners is a

significant factor in daily recovery from burnout above and beyond the effects of other

types of social support, with higher levels of perceived support associated with greater

daily recovery. However, relationship tenure, age, resilience, and total social support

excluding significant others did not have significant effects on daily recovery from

burnout. It is important to note that these findings are specific to the analyzed dataset, and

further research is needed to provide a comprehensive understanding of the topic.

Hypothesis 3 Exploratory Analysis

To further explore the relationships underlying hypothesis 3, we conducted an

exploratory analysis to examine the effects of the sub-factors of daily romantic partner

support (informational, physical touch, tangible, and esteem support) on the recovery

from burnout. We also included the control variables (age, organizational tenure,

resilience, and social support). A linear mixed effects model was employed, considering

the hierarchical structure of the data, with random intercepts for individual participants.

The ICC of the model was 0.164, indicating that approximately 16.4% of the total

variability in the outcome variable (can be attributed to differences between groups (in

this case, the different participants).

The results indicated that daily informational support was not a significant

predictor of recovery from burnout ($b = 0.014$, $SE = 0.021$, $t = 0.653$, $p = 0.513$).

Similarly, daily esteem support did not significantly affect the recovery from burnout ($b =$

-0.016, SE = 0.016, t = -1.804, p = 0.071). Additionally, daily physical touch support was

not found to be a significant predictor of recovery from burnout (b = 0.016, SE = 0.022, t

= 0.711, p = 0.477). However, daily tangible support demonstrated a significant positive

association with the recovery from burnout (b = 0.045, SE = 0.018, t = 2.478, p = 0.013).

Recall that tangible support includes support activities such as childcare, domestic

chores, and actions that minimize the requirements of home responsibilities. These

findings suggest that higher levels of daily tangible support are the most effective form of

romantic partner support related to recovery from incivility-induced burnout. Please see

Table 9 for the significant and non-significant relationships in the analysis and Figure 8

for a visual representation of the relationships.

(Insert Table 9 about here)

(Insert Figure 8 about here)

We again used the "relaimpo" package in R to determine the Pratt Index. For the

factors of Romantic Partner Support, we found the factors contributed to a total of

approximately 77.4% of the variance (Informational Support = 0.087, Physical Touch

Support = 0.109, Esteem Support =-0.028, Tangible Support =0.606). The two controls

with latent constructs accounted for 22.3% of the variance (Resilience =0.124 and Social

Support =0.099). Additionally, the continuous control variables represented 0.63% of the

remaining variance (Age = 0.002 and Job Tenure = 0.001).

Hypothesis 4

Primary Analysis

This analysis aimed to examine the moderating effect of daily romantic partner

support on the relationship between daily workplace incivility and recovery from

burnout. It was hypothesized that the presence of daily romantic partner support would weaken the negative impact of workplace incivility and promote a better recovery from burnout. The analysis was conducted using a linear mixed model using package "lme4" with the REML estimation method.

The model demonstrated good convergence with an REML criterion at a convergence value of 6750.6. The scaled residuals indicated some variability, ranging from -5.902 to 4.818, suggesting some discrepancies between the observed data and the predicted values. Regarding the random effects, the analysis revealed that the intercept exhibited a variance of 0.074 and a standard deviation of 0.273 at the ID level. The residual variance, which captures unexplained variability at the individual level, was 0.374, with a standard deviation of 0.612. These random effects accounted for the variability in the outcome variable that was not explained by the fixed effects. Overall, the model fit was good.

For the model's fixed effects, the estimates provided valuable insights into the relationships between each predictor and burnout recovery. The intercept of recovery was significant (0.120, SE $= 0.199$, $p < 0.001$). This suggests that when all predictors are zero, burnout increased overnight (negative recovery).

For the main variables of interest, the main effects of daily workplace incivility ($b = 0.322$, $t = 8.497$, $p < .001$) and daily romantic partner support ($b = 0.038$, $t = 1.832$, $p = .067$) were both at least marginally significant. Additionally, the interaction between daily romantic partner support and daily workplace incivility was significant ($b = -0.146$, $t = -1.934$, $p = .053$). None of the control variables were significantly associated with

recovery. Please see Table 10 for the descriptive statistics for this analysis and Figure 9

for a visual representation of the model.

(Insert Table 10 about here)

(Insert Figure 9 about here)

We next evaluated the simple slopes of the significant moderation found in the

last step of the analysis. The results indicated that when individuals perceive high levels

of workplace incivility and simultaneously experience strong romantic partner support,

there is a significant positive relationship with burnout recovery. The gradient of the

slope for this condition was 0.332, indicating a higher rate of burnout recovery. The *t*-

value associated with this slope was 4.286, which was highly significant ($p < 0.001$). On

the other hand, when individuals perceive high levels of workplace incivility but have

low levels of romantic partner support, the slope for burnout recovery was 0.186. The *t*-

value for this slope was 3.167, which is also significant ($p = 0.002$). These findings

suggest that having a supportive romantic partner significantly enhances burnout

recovery in situations where workplace incivility is prevalent at the daily level. Please see

Figure 10 for a visual representation of the simple slopes.

(Insert Figure 10 about here)

Hypothesis 4 Exploratory Analysis

To further explore the relationships underlying hypothesis 4, we conducted an

exploratory analysis to examine the effects of the factors in daily romantic partner

support (informational, physical touch, tangible, and esteem support) in moderating the

relationship between daily workplace incivility and recovery from burnout. We also

included the control variables (age, organizational tenure, relationship tenure, resilience,

and social support). A linear mixed effects model was employed, considering the

hierarchical structure of the data, with random intercepts for individual participants. The

analysis was conducted using a linear mixed model using package "lme4" with the

REML estimation method.

The model demonstrated good convergence with an REML criterion at a

convergence value of 6762.1. The scaled residuals indicated some variability, ranging

from -5.980 to 4.741, suggesting some discrepancies between the observed data and the

predicted values. Regarding the random effects, the intercept (average recovery)

exhibited a variance of 0.776 and a standard deviation of 0.279. The residual variance,

which captures unexplained variability at the individual level, was 0.374, with a standard

deviation of 0.612. The intercept had a significant and negative effect, which was

nonsignificant, with an estimated coefficient of 0.057 ($SE = 0.390$, $p = 0.884$). Among

the control variables, there were no significant effects on burnout recovery.

For the main variables of interest, the main effects of daily workplace incivility (b

$= 0.022$, $t = 0.130$, $p = .897$) and the factors of daily romantic partner support

(informational support: $b = 0.377$, $t = 1.169$, $p = .243$, physical touch support: $b = -0.814$, t

$= -21.72$, $p = .0.030$, esteem support: $b = 0.376$, $t = 1.184$, $p = .237$, tangible support: $b = -$

0.034, $t = -0.137$, $p = .891$) garnered both significant and nonsignificant relationships.

Consistent with the results of hypothesis 4, physical touch support was the only type of

romantic partner support that had a significant effect. Additionally, the interactions

between the types of daily romantic partner support and daily workplace incivility were

significant with one moderator (physical touch support * workplace incivility: $b = 0.289$,

$t = 2.070$, $p = .039$). However, the other three moderators were nonsignificant

(informational support * workplace incivility: b = -0.060, t =-0.414, p = .679, esteem

support * workplace incivility: b = -0.163, t =-1.371, p = .171, and tangible support *

workplace incivility: b = -0.028, t =-0.224, p = .823) Please see Table 11 for the

descriptive statistics for this analysis and Figure 10 for a visual representation of the

model.

(Insert Table 11 about here)

(Insert Figure 11 about here)

We next evaluated the simple slopes of the significant moderation found (the

interaction of daily physical touch support and daily workplace incivility on recovery

from burnout) in the last step of the analysis. The results indicated that when individuals

perceived higher levels of workplace incivility and simultaneously experienced higher

levels of physical touch support, there was a significant positive relationship with burnout

recovery. The gradient of the slope for this condition was 0.311, indicating a higher rate

of burnout recovery. The t-value associated with this slope was 5.295, which was highly

significant ($p < 0.001$). On the other hand, when individuals perceive high levels of

workplace incivility but have low levels of romantic partner support, the slope for

burnout recovery was 0.022. The t-value for this slope was 0.284, which was not

significant (p =0.777). Please see Figure 12 for a visual representation of the simple

slopes.

(Insert Figure 12 about here)

In summary, these results demonstrate that the presence of a supportive romantic

partner can sometimes, but not always, mitigate the adverse effects of workplace

incivility on burnout recovery. The findings emphasize the importance of recognizing and

nurturing positive romantic relationship dynamics as a valuable resource for individuals facing challenging work environments.

Hypothesis 5a-d

Primary Analysis

In this hypothesis, we aimed to determine if specific types of our participants' daily recovery experiences mediated the relationship between daily romantic partner support and burnout recovery. As such, the model to be tested included perceptions of daily romantic partner support as the independent variable, the daily reported perceptions of factors of recovery experiences (Detachment, Relaxation, Mastery, and Control) as mediators, burnout recovery as the dependent variable, and control variables. Each sub-hypothesis related to the proposition of the mediation value of each of the factors of recovery experience with Hypothesis 5a regarding Detachment, 5b addressing Relaxation, 5c covering Mastery, and H5d evaluating Control. The data used for analysis included daily repeated measures for the independent variable, the mediators, and the dependent variable. Conversely, the control measures were collected during the initial single-time sampling.

These hypotheses were tested using a multilevel mediation model with repeated measures, which was estimated using lavaan version 0.6.15 with the ML (Maximum Likelihood) estimator and the NLMINB (Nonlinear Optimization with Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno) optimization method in R. Owing to missing data from some participants missing a survey attempt during the daily diary sampling, the analysis was conducted on a sample of 3,411 observations out of a total of 5,377.

Due to the large number of parameters to be estimated, we took a conservative approach to control selection, choosing to only control for age and relationship tenure. This decision was based on our concern for statistical power, as our small sample size of 277 restricts the number of predictors we can realistically include without jeopardizing the validity of our findings (Tabachnick et al., 2013). Prior research has demonstrated the relevance of age and relationship tenure as influential variables in a variety of social and behavioral contexts (Sprecher, 2002; Stafford et al., 2004), making their incorporation both theoretically and empirically justifiable. In addition, age and relationship tenure are continuous variables that are not constrained by Likert-scale measures, providing a more nuanced representation of variance and enabling stronger linearity assumptions (Norman, 2010).

In the context of control selection, the extent to which controls should be included in a model is a topic of ongoing debate. Others warn that an excessively inclusive approach can obscure relationships of interest and even introduce bias (Spector & Brannick, 2011). Given our reduced sample size, the risk of the model overfitting with numerous controls is substantial. By focusing on only age and relationship tenure, we hope to strike a balance between the need for precision and the limitations of our sample size, thereby enhancing the robustness and interpretability of our findings.

The model included 16 parameters and converged after 7 iterations. The chi-square test statistic was significant ($\chi^2 = 4098.946$, $df = 14$, $p < 0.001$), indicating a lack of fit between the model and the data. The comparative fit index (CFI) was 0.234, well below the recommended threshold of 0.90 (Bentler, 1990), and the Tucker-Lewis Index

(TLI) was -0.368, indicating a poor fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). These metrics suggest that the model had a poor fit to the data.

Therefore, we next sought to identify and remedy the cause of the poor model fit. A detailed evaluation of the modification indices (MIs) was conducted. For all of the intended mediators in the model (detachment, relaxation, control, and mastery), there were values that ranged between 157.571 and 1,844.601 between the variables. Considering that these measures were single items that were sampled with repeated measures and that the measures were all factors of the greater construct or recovery experience, we determined that there was no way to further constrain the model without combining the measures into a single construct. Even though the model fit was poor and we were unable to constrain and still test the hypotheses, we will present the findings and follow up with an exploratory analysis.

Our study utilized a multivariate mediation model to clarify the pathways between daily romantic partner support (RPSD) and burnout recovery via detachment, relaxation, mastery, and control as mediators. All variables were assessed simultaneously, yielding a holistic illustration of their intricate interplay. Additionally, we used cluster mean centering for the repeated measures when they functioned as an independent variable in the model.

The a1 path, which describes the effect of RPSD on detachment, was statistically significant (a1 = 0.172, SE = 0.021, $p < 0.001$), indicating that an increase in RPSD correlates with a rise in detachment. The corresponding b1 path, which mapped the effect of detachment on burnout recovery, was also statistically significant (b = 0.117, SE = 0.031, $p < 0.001$). Consequently, the indirect effect via detachment (a1*b1 = 0.018)

partially mediates the relationship between RPSD and burnout recovery. The total effect

of RPSD on recovery from burnout was significant (-0.038, SE = 0.016, p = 0.021), while

the direct effect remained significant (-0.020, SE = 0.015, p = 0.029) after controlling for

detachment.

Likewise, the a2 path, which describes the effect of RPSD on relaxation, was

significant (a2 = 0.152, SE = 0.031, p <0.001), indicating that RPSD improves relaxation.

The b2 path describing the effect of relaxation on recovery from burnout was also

statistically significant (b2 = 0.329, SE = 0.058, p <0.001). This resulted in a statistically

significant indirect effect via relaxation (a2*b2 = 0.050), indicating partial mediation.

The total effect of RPSD on recovery from burnout was significant (0.096, SE = 0.018, p

< 0.001), and the direct effect remained significant (0.046, SE = 0.018, p = 0.007) when

relaxation was controlled for.

The mediation relationship was also observed between RPSD and burnout

recovery via mastery, with the a3 path (a3 = 0.223, SE = 0.034, p <0.001) and the

corresponding b3 path (b3 = 0.153, SE = 0.041, p <0.001) both being significant. The

indirect effect through mastery indicated partial mediation (a3*b3 = 0.034). The total

effect of RPSD on recovery from burnout was significant (0.080, SE = 0.017, p <0.001),

and the direct effect remained significant (0.046, SE = 0.015, p = 0.003) after controlling

for mastery.

The a4 path, representing the effect of RPSD on control, was significant (a4 =

0.237, SE = 0.035, p < 0.001), as was the b4 path, representing the effect of control on

burnout recovery (b4 = 0.131, SE = 0.039, p = 0.001). The statistically significant

indirect effect via control (a4*b4 = 0.031) provided further evidence for partial

mediation. The total effect of RPSD on burnout recovery was significant (-0.065, SE =

0.017, p = 0.001), while the direct effect remained significant (-0.034, SE = 0.016, p =

0.035) when controlling for control.

The control variables, age and relationship tenure, affected burnout recovery. Age

had no effect on burnout recovery (-0.002, SE = 0.002, p = 0.322), indicating that it does

not significantly influence recovery variations. Relationship duration exerted a small,

non-statistically significant positive effect (0.002, SE = 0.002, p = 0.181), suggesting that

longer relationship duration may marginally aid burnout recovery, albeit without

statistical significance. Please see Table 12 for all of the significant and nonsignificant

relationships in the model and Figure 13 for a visual representation.

(Insert Table 12 about here)

(Insert Figure 13 about here)

Exploratory Analysis

Owing to the poor model fit in the primary analysis, we explored an alternate

model in an attempt to improve the model fit. To accomplish this, we collapsed the four

factors of daily recovery experience into a single construct by using the mean of the four

measures as a single variable (daily recovery experience). Please note that the evaluation

of this measure was detailed in chapter three of this dissertation. Considering that our

measures for daily romantic partner support and recovery from burnout and our controls

(age and relationship tenure) did not allow for any covariance, no other changes to the

model were made.

The multilevel mediation model was estimated using lavaan version 0.6.15 with

the ML (Maximum Likelihood) estimator and the NLMINB (Nonlinear Optimization

with Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno) optimization method and consisted of 7

parameters and converged after 13 iterations. Owing to missing data from some

participants missing a survey attempt during the daily diary sampling, the analysis was

conducted on a sample of 3,430 observations out of a total of 5,377. The chi-square test

statistic was significant ($\chi2 = 4.008$, df $= 2$, $p = 0.135$), indicating a good fit between the

model and the data. The comparative fit index (CFI) was 0.996, above the recommended

threshold of 0.90 (Bentler, 1990), and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) was 0.985,

indicating a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Additionally, the Root Mean Square Error of

Approximation (RMSEA) was 0.017, and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual

(SRMR) was 0.005, suggesting a good fit for the model residuals. When comparing this

model to the primary analysis of hypotheses 5a-d, all model fit indexes improved. Please

see Table 13 for a breakdown of the changes in model fit from the primary analysis to the

current model.

To assess whether there were other ways to improve the model, we again assessed

the MIs. We found robust MI values ranging between 0.000 and 3.922. Considering that

no values were extreme and there was also no way to covary questions in constructs, we

determined there was no way to improve the model further. However, these MI values

combined with good model fit metrics indicate that the model fits well.

Examining parameter estimates, the daily recovery experience was positively

associated with recovery from burnout, but the relationship was not significant (b: b $=$

0.012, $p = 0.318$). The relationship of RPSD on burnout recovery approached

significance (c: b $= 0.022$, $p = 0.059$). Daily recovery experience was also found to be

significantly positively influenced by RPSD (a: b = 0.326, p = 0.000). Additionally, both controls were nonsignificant in the model.

Next, we examined the mediation relationships in our model. The indirect effect of recovery experience on burnout recovery was not significant (b = 0.004, p = 0.318), while the total effect of the same relationship was significant (b = 0.026, p = 0.017). When we evaluated these two paths together, we were not able to find any type of mediation in the model because both the total and indirect effects are not significant. Moreover, a Sobel test echoed the nonsignificant mediation result with a Sobel statistic of 0.999 (SE =0.004, p =0.318). Please see Table 14 for a list of the significant and nonsignificant relationships and Figure for a visual representation of the relationships of the model.

(Insert Table 14 about here)

(Insert Figure 14 about here)

In summary, even though our model fit was substantially improved by collapsing the factors of daily recovery experience, our exploratory analysis yielded an overall similar result as the primary analysis. Both the primary and exploratory analyses reveal that there is not a statistically significant mediation relationship of daily recovery experience (at both the factor and construct level) on the relationship between daily romantic partner support and burnout recovery. Therefore, we did not find any support for hypotheses 5a-d.

Hypothesis 6

Primary Analysis

The purpose of this analysis was to investigate the predictive value of the overall relationship quality of the participants' romantic relationships relationship on their perceptions of daily romantic partner support.

Based on the COR theory and empirical evidence outlined in our life review, we hypothesize that overall relationship quality will positively influence perceived romantic partner support. The theory and previous studies suggest that investment in relational resources facilitates resource recovery, establishing a positive social exchange, also referred to as 'resource caravans.' This dynamic consequently fosters higher levels of perceived support from romantic partners. However, if either partner's resources are depleted, their capacity or willingness to invest in the relationship may diminish, disrupting this beneficial exchange. Hence, we posited that a high-quality relationship, marked by reciprocal exchange, would be conducive to daily support provision between romantic partners.

In the model to test this hypothesis, the sole fixed effect of interest was the quality of the romantic relationship. This measure was collected only during the first sampling. Conversely, the dependent variable was daily perceived RPS, which was sampled during the diary sampling. To properly assess the predictive relevance of the independent variable, we included the controls age, relationship tenure, and perceived social support from friends and family. The two social support measures (support from friends and support from family) were combined into a single variable.

We analyzed the data using the "lme4" package in R with a linear mixed-effects model. This model used restricted maximum likelihood (REML) estimation. The results revealed that the intercept was significantly negative, indicating that the baseline level of daily romantic partner support was lower than the reference value (b = -1.357, SE = 0.48, t = -2.818, p = 0.005).

Supporting Hypothesis 6, the overall quality of the romantic relationship showed a significant positive association with daily support (b = 0.492, SE = 0.065, t = 7.559, p < 0.001). In other words, the people in our sample who perceived that they were in higher-quality romantic relationships tended to receive more daily support. This also indicates that higher relationship quality was related to increased perceived daily support in the same way that the existing literature reports the positive connection between overall relationship quality and overall perceptions of romantic partner support.

Only relationship tenure was significant when we considered how controls impacted our model (b = -0.024, t = -2.888, p =0.004). However, the nonsignificant relationships of our other two controls (age: b =0.009, t =1.369, p =0.172; social support from family and friends b =0.076, t =1.557, p =.121) also reveal important information about how our participants perceive RPS at the daily level. The analysis gives insight into the perceptions of daily RPS relying more saliently on the length of the relationship compared to the wisdom of age. Additionally, the nonsignificant relationship of social support from family and friends allows for an important nuanced understanding of daily RPS. Please see Table 15 for the significant and nonsignificant relationships in the model and Figure 15 for a visual representation of the model findings.

We again used the "relaimpo" package in R to determine the Pratt Index. We

found that Relationship Quality contributed approximately 93.3% of the variance (0.933).

The Pratt Index for Social Support from friends and family was 0.039 (3.9%).

Additionally, the continuous control variables represented 1.6% of the remaining

variance (Age = 0.012 and Relationship Tenure = 0.004).

Additional Exploratory Analysis

Considering that RPS comprises multiple facets, we deemed it essential to

investigate how relationship quality influences the informational, physical touch, esteem,

and tangible aspects of daily RPS separately. Our goal was to gain a more nuanced

understanding of how relationship quality affects daily RPS. Initially, we intended to

analyze the data using a model in which all four factors would be evaluated concurrently

as dependent variables. However, after observing an unsatisfactory model fit while

testing hypotheses 5a-d, we were apprehensive that a similar method might also yield an

unsatisfactory model fit. Using the "lavaan" R package, we evaluated our theoretical

model, which included daily RPS dimensions as dependent variables, relationship quality

as the primary independent variable, and controls (age, relationship tenure, and social

support from friends and family).

As anticipated, the fit of the model was poor. The significance of the chi-square

test statistic ($\chi2 = 9665.302$, df = 6, $p < 0.001$) indicates that the model did not adequately

suit the data. In addition, the comparative fit index (CFI) was 0.314, which was

significantly lower than the recommended threshold of 0.90 (Bentler, 1990), and the

Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) was -1.972, which indicated a weak fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). These metrics indicated that the model did not adequately suit the data.

Given these issues, we decided to investigate the reasons for the inadequate model fit. A comprehensive evaluation of the modification indices (MIs) produced notable results, particularly when examining the construct of detachment under the influence of various predictors. Unfortunately, the relationship between all daily RPS factors had excessively high MI values (ranging from 1081.640 to 2600.448), whereas all other relationships produced MI values of 0.00. This demonstrated a very high level of shared covariance between the DVs, which caused problems for the concurrent model.

In response to these obstacles, we chose to analyze each dependent variable separately using linear models. This solution enables us to effectively manage the shared covariance between the DVs and provide a more precise interpretation of the results. It enables us to tailor each model to the particulars of its respective DV, such as its assumptions, covariates, and error terms.

In this analysis, four separate linear mixed-effects models were fitted using the "package in R to investigate the impact of relationship quality on different factors of daily RPS. Each model also included a random intercept term to account for individual variations. Additionally, each model contained the same controls initially tested in the primary analysis.

All of the relationships between relationship quality and the dependent variables (the factors of daily RPS) were significant and positive in their individual models (daily informational support: $b = 0.346$, $SE = 0.075$, $t = 4.619$, $p < 0.001$; daily physical touch support: $b = 0.576$, $SE = 0.070$, $t = 8.187$, $p < 0.001$; esteem support: $b = 0.514$, $SE =$

0.079, $t = 6.464$, $p < 0.001$; tangible support: $b = 0.556$, $SE = 0.071$, $t = 7.882$, $p < 0.001$).

The controls also had similar significant results for all of the models.

Furthermore, the coefficient of determination (R^2) values were calculated to

assess the proportion of variance explained by the models. The R^2 values, representing

the proportion of variance explained by the fixed effects, were 0.101 (informational

support), 0.229 (physical touch support), 0.134 (esteem support), and 0.188 (tangible

support). The R^2 values, which consider both fixed and random effects, were 0.697

(informational support), 0.723 (physical touch support), 0.619 (esteem support), and

0.670 (tangible support). These values indicate the respective model's ability to explain

the variability in the response variables.

In conclusion, the analysis revealed that relationship quality significantly

influenced different aspects of romantic partner support. The findings demonstrated

positive associations between relationship quality and informational support, physical

touch support, esteem support, and tangible support. Although not a focus, it was

interesting to note that relationship tenure showed a significant negative association with

physical touch support, esteem support, and tangible support. These results contribute to

understanding how relationship quality influences specific dimensions of support within

romantic relationships.

Chapter Five: Discussion

With the goal of this research effort being to examine how romantic partner support can act as a potential buffer of the effects of WI via its influence on resource recovery during non-work hours, we formulated a theoretical model with hypotheses derived from a deep exploration of the literature to be tested empirically. Using a sample of general workers in a committed romantic relationship who also reported experiencing workplace incivility, we gathered data at multiple points during a consecutive week to help accomplish this research aim. In the last chapter, we outlined and tested each of the six hypotheses along with subsequent exploratory analysis with our sample. We will now evaluate the nuanced meaning of our findings by evaluating each hypothesis individually in the context of the literature and discussing what new knowledge can be gleaned from this study. Additionally, we will discuss how our findings will influence practice and evaluate how our study's limitations give the potential for future research.

Hypothesis 1

In evaluating hypothesis 1, we examined the relationship between workplace incivility and overall burnout to determine if our data were consistent with the larger body of research. Consistent with extant literature (Lanaj et al., 2018; Leone et al., 2008; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Vasconcelos, 2020; Zhou et al., 2015), our regression analysis revealed a positive correlation between workplace incivility and burnout ($b = 0.302$, $p < 0.001$), confirming not only the theory that higher levels of workplace incivility are associated with increased overall burnout in our sample compared to the extent literature but also confirming hypothesis 1.

Our data also reflected the role of control measures, specifically resilience and social support, in mitigating burnout. Higher levels of resilience ($b = $ -0.273, $p < 0.001$) and social support ($b = $ -0.176, $p < 0.001$) are associated with less overall reported burnout, as supported by previous research (e.g., Halbesleben, 2006). This is consistent with the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, which posits that job resources, such as resilience and social support, can counteract the effects of work demands, thereby reducing the likelihood of burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

However, not all relationships in our sample were on par with the current literature. Contrary to previous research (Maslach et al., 2001), we found that neither age nor organizational tenure significantly correlated with burnout. This disparity may be attributable to differences in sample demographics or workplace contexts, highlighting the multifaceted nature of burnout and the impact of individual and environmental factors.

When we consider the amount of variance explained in the relationships of the variables in the model, we found that our model aligned with the current literature. Our independent and control variables collectively explained approximately 35.67% of the variance in overall burnout ($R^2 = 0.357$), indicating that workplace incivility, resilience, and social support have a significant impact on burnout. While factors beyond the scope of our model undoubtedly contribute to burnout, our findings are consistent with the conventional understanding of the functions of these key variables. These findings align with the larger body of research on variance explained by R^2 scores. Previous research, such as that conducted by Jaccard and Wan (1996) in their investigation of relationship satisfaction, has established that R^2 values in the vicinity of .30 are typically regarded as

substantial and signify a significant proportion of variance explained. Overall, the R^2

value of 0.357 in the present study indicates that the predictors employed explain a

considerable quantity of variance in the dependent variable, burnout. This result is

consistent with previous research, which consistently supports the interpretation of such

R^2 values as indicative of a substantial quantity of variance explained.

Numerous studies have emphasized the importance of evaluating the statistical

significance of the overall regression model when investigating burnout. Maslach and

Jackson (1986), in their study of organizational factors contributing to burnout,

emphasized the significance of the F-statistic in validating the model's overall fit. In

accordance with established empirical findings, they emphasized that a statistically

significant F-statistic indicates that the model accounts for a substantial quantity of

variance in burnout. The statistical significance of the overall regression model has also

been emphasized by other studies examining burnout in various populations. In their

examination of burnout among healthcare employees, Demerouti et al. (2001) reported

statistically significant F-statistics ranging from 24.46 to 42.68, indicating a strong fit of

their regression models to the data. This result is congruent with previous research on

burnout, which emphasizes the significance of a statistically significant F-statistic as an

indicator of a well-fitting regression model that is consistent with established empirical

knowledge.

Through an exploratory analysis of the various facets of workplace incivility, we

discovered a significant correlation between burnout and exclusionary behaviors and

privacy intrusions, but not with hostility and gossiping. This finding provides a nuanced

perspective on the impact of workplace incivility, suggesting that not all uncivil

behaviors contribute equally to burnout. This finding deviates from existing literature (Cortina et al., 2001) that suggests all forms of workplace incivility may contribute to burnout.

Our regression analysis revealed an intriguing pattern of workplace incivility's effects on burnout as a whole. Firstly, exclusionary behaviors exhibited a significant positive correlation with overall burnout (b = 0.287, SE = 0.058, t(268) = 4.964, $p <$ 0.001), consistent with prior research indicating that ostracism or exclusionary behaviors in the workplace are positively associated with emotional exhaustion, a major aspect of burnout (O'Reilly et al., 2013). Consequently, our finding corroborates prior research by providing evidence that an increase in exclusionary behaviors is associated with an increase in overall burnout.

In our study, there was no significant correlation between hostility and gossiping in the workplace and burnout. This finding is somewhat at odds with previous research that suggested a connection between hostile work environments and burnout (Tepper et al., 2007) and between negative gossip and stress that could contribute to burnout (Kuo et al., 2018).

Contrary to the positive raw correlations, the finding of a negative beta coefficient between privacy invasions and overall burnout in our regression analysis should be interpreted with caution. This negative coefficient could be an artifact of the regression model rather than an accurate reflection of the fundamental relationship between the variables. Multicollinearity occurs when the independent variables are highly correlated with one another, resulting in unstable and unreliable coefficients (Dormann et al., 2013). In some instances, regression analysis can produce erroneous results due to

multicollinearity, where the independent variables are highly correlated with one another, resulting in unstable and unreliable coefficients. In addition, omitted variable bias, which occurs when a pertinent variable is omitted from a model, can distort observed relationships and lead to erroneous interpretations (Clarke, 2005). As a result, the negative beta coefficient, in this instance, should not be used to gain new insights into the relationship between privacy invasions and burnout, as it may be a statistical anomaly and not a significant finding.

Hypothesis 2

With support for hypothesis 1 indicating that our sample behaved in a manner compared to the extent of the literature, we next turn to determine if the relationship explored in hypothesis 1 also appeared at the daily level in hypothesis 2. However, before exploring relationships between daily constructs of the variables, it is important to compare the overall constructs of workplace incivility and burnout to their daily counterparts that were obtained during the diary sampling to identify if the daily constructs behave similarly to the overall constructs. Without this step, there is the potential to have skewed interpretations of the results.

The number of observations (N) for daily constructs (was considerably greater than that for all constructs (277) based on the data set. This makes sense, as daily constructs capture more instances of incivility than global constructs as a whole. The larger sample size for daily constructs makes intuitive sense, given that these are daily instances of individual workplace incivility. Every working day provides opportunities for these behaviors to occur, and each instance is recorded individually. On the other hand, the global constructs are comprised of more comprehensive and aggregated

measurements collected over a longer period of time, which explains why there are fewer

observations. Typically, a larger sample size, such as that of the daily constructs,

provides a more accurate representation of the population because it reduces the effect of

outliers and the margin of error (Field, 2013). Nevertheless, larger sample sizes increase

the possibility of detecting statistically significant differences that are not meaningful or

practically significant (Button et al., 2013). Field (2013) has emphasized that while a

larger 'N' in research can produce a more accurate picture of the population, it does not

necessarily guarantee the generalizability of the results. In addition, Button et al. (2013)

note that pursuing larger sample sizes can occasionally result in false positives or

overestimating effect sizes. Consequently, it is crucial to strike a balance between sample

size and meaningful results.

All forms of incivility had lower daily means than overall means. In the case of

Hostility, for example, the mean score for the overall construct is 2.378, while the mean

score for the daily construct is 1.512. This could suggest that perceived hostility may be

lower on a daily basis compared to when it is accumulated and considered as a whole.

These results are consistent with prior research in the field. For instance, a study by

Hershcovis and Reich (2013) concluded that perceptions of incivility can vary

substantially depending on whether they are viewed as isolated daily incidents or as a

result of a series of encounters. In addition, Schilpzand et al. (2016) discovered that while

the immediate, daily effects of incivility may be minimal, the cumulative effect can be

significantly more impactful. However, as these authors propose, additional research is

required to fully comprehend the distinctions between the global and daily constructs of

incivility.

In evaluating hypothesis 2, the primary finding that daily workplace incivility was positively associated with daily burnout is consistent with the existing literature on the topic as well as the findings associated with hypothesis 1, which consistently demonstrates a strong relationship between these two variables. While most previous studies have measured incivility and burnout at an aggregate or episodic level, our daily-level analysis provides a novel contribution by demonstrating that these relationships also hold true for employees' day-to-day experiences.

Our results for our control variables were comparable to those found in the findings of Hypothesis 1. On a daily basis, resilience and social support have a significant impact on burnout perceptions. Similarly, our daily analysis did not reveal a significant relationship between age or organizational tenure and burnout. Even though there do not appear to be any studies that explicitly evaluated these non-significant variables on a daily basis, the findings in conjunction with those in hypothesis 1 are contrary to some previous research (Maslach et al., 2001) that suggests these factors may affect burnout. Nevertheless, the relationship between age, tenure, and burnout is frequently complex and may be influenced by other variables that were not accounted for in our study. Consequently, our findings do not negate the potential significance of age or tenure, but they do suggest that their effects may be more nuanced or context-dependent.

In our exploratory analysis, we examined the known determinants of daily workplace incivility, including hostility, exclusionary behavior, invasions of privacy, and gossiping. According to Baillien et al. (2011), the significant positive relationship between exclusionary behavior and daily burnout is consistent with the notion that exclusion is a potent form of social stressor that leads to negative outcomes such as

burnout. Similarly, the substantial association between daily hostility and daily burnout is supported by the larger body of literature. Daily manifestations of hostility, such as demeaning behavior, rude comments, or aggression, can create a chronic stressor for employees, making it more difficult for them to disengage physically and emotionally from their work (Grandey et al., 2007). This persistent exposure to hostility can deplete an employee's emotional reserves and result in emotional exhaustion, a key component of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). This process is explained by the Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) model, which posits that demanding job characteristics, such as workplace hostility, require sustained physical or psychological effort from the employee and, if not balanced with adequate job resources, can lead to burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Moreover, according to the Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), daily encounters with hostility in the workplace can provoke negative emotions, which can accumulate over time and contribute to burnout. As a result, daily hostility in the workplace, as a result of ongoing tension and emotional exhaustion, can indeed contribute to daily burnout.

Examining the dynamics of stress and emotional responses can shed light on the disparity between the significance of hostility's daily relationship with exhaustion and its insignificance overall. According to the Affective Events Theory (AET), individuals respond to distinct workplace events, such as instances of hostility, with a variety of affective responses, which then impact their job satisfaction and performance (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). These emotional responses tend to be instantaneous and fleeting, which explains why the effects of hostility may be more pronounced on a daily basis, resulting in greater daily fatigue.

In contrast, when considering the relationship as a whole, the effects of hostility may be buffered or diluted over time by other factors. For instance, a person may develop coping mechanisms or experience low-hostility periods that allow for recuperation, thereby reducing the overall impact of hostility on burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Similarly, positive experiences or supportive relationships at work could reduce the overall association with burnout (Hobfoll, 1989).

Finally, it is essential to contemplate the accumulation and measurement of events and experiences. Daily measurements capture the fluctuations and immediate effects of hostile events, whereas global measurements may not adequately capture these nuances, providing instead a more averaged and potentially diluted picture (Ilies et al., 2007). Due to the immediacy and potency of daily hostile experiences versus the mitigating factors and potential measurement limitations present in an overall assessment, hostility may be significantly associated with burnout at the daily level but not at the overall level.

The absence of significant associations between daily gossiping and burnout suggests that not all forms of daily incivility in the workplace are equally harmful. However, it is important to observe that the relationship between privacy invasions and daily burnout contained the same negative coefficient as in the overall construct evaluation in hypothesis 1. This further signals that the negative relationship found in both hypotheses 1 and 2 for this relationship is likely due to an artifact of regression analysis. Additionally, the relationship between daily gossiping and burnout is not significant in the model, and a negative beta coefficient when the raw correlations between the constructs indicate a similar artifact of analysis may be in play.

Hypothesis 3

Although the literature suggests that recovery resources can mitigate the effects of WI at the overall construct level (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2018; Vahle-Hinz et al., 2019; Xia et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2015), our literature review revealed the literature does not directly account for how recovery timelines might vary. Lanaj et al. (2018) suggested that future research should explore how repair efforts with recuperating resources (such as romantic partner support) occur within a relatively short time window because additional resources are often needed to process negative interactions at work.

The primary objective of this analysis was to explore how daily romantic partner support might facilitate daily recovery from incivility-induced burnout. With the COR theory as the guiding framework, the study examined several predictors, including individual variables such as relationship tenure, age, and resilience, and social support variables, particularly the perceived support from romantic partners and total social support excluding significant others. COR theory postulates that individuals strive to retain, protect, and build resources and that the potential or actual loss of these valued resources can lead to stress (Hobfoll, 1989). Within this framework, social support, including romantic partner support, is considered a crucial resource that can aid in preventing resource depletion and fostering resource accumulation, thereby promoting recovery from stressors such as burnout.

The findings of this analysis extend our understanding of the role of romantic partner support in the recovery from burnout. Consistent with the tenets of COR theory, it was observed that the perceived support from romantic partners significantly influenced daily recovery from burnout. This aligns with previous research emphasizing the role of

social support in mitigating the impact of stressors and fostering recovery (Cohen &

Wills, 1985). Notably, these results suggest that perceived support from romantic partners

may serve as a critical resource that individuals can draw upon to promote recovery from

burnout.

      Contrary to expectations and inconsistent with some previous literature,

relationship tenure, age, resilience, and total social support excluding significant others

did not significantly influence daily recovery from burnout. While resilience has been

linked to better recovery and adaptation in the face of stressors (Bonanno, 2004), it did

not emerge as a significant predictor in this context. Similarly, while age and social

support have been previously related to coping mechanisms and stress outcomes (Pearlin,

1989; Schwarzer & Leppin, 1991), they did not demonstrate significant effects in this

study. These unexpected results underscore the complex and multifaceted nature of

recovery processes and suggest that the effects of these variables may be contingent on a

variety of factors not captured in the current study.

      The exploratory analysis further revealed that out of different types of support

from romantic partners, only tangible support, i.e., activities such as childcare, domestic

chores, and actions that minimize home responsibilities, showed a significant positive

association with recovery from burnout. This result resonates with COR theory,

emphasizing the role of tangible resources in coping with stressors and preventing

resource loss (Hobfoll, 2001).

      Taken together, these findings underscore the relevance of COR theory in

understanding the processes of recovery from burnout and highlight the importance of

tangible support from romantic partners in this process. Further research, preferably

longitudinal in design, is needed to fully elucidate the dynamics of these relationships and further test and extend the predictions of the COR theory.

Hypothesis 4

The findings of hypothesis 4 offer a nuanced understanding of the moderating effect of daily romantic partner support on the association between daily workplace incivility and burnout recovery. This interaction demonstrates that the negative impact of workplace incivility on burnout recovery is not uniform but rather fluctuates based on the level of support from a romantic partner. When individuals experience both high levels of workplace incivility and strong romantic partner support, there is a significant positive relationship between these two factors and fatigue recovery. Consistent with the buffering hypothesis (Cohen & Wills, 1985), this indicates that a supportive intimate partner can serve as a buffer, mitigating the negative effects of workplace incivility on well-being.

These relationships highlight the intricate interplay between workplace stressors and personal relationships, highlighting the fact that individual differences influence the influence of workplace incivility on burnout recovery in romantic partner support. This nuanced understanding can inform interventions aimed at enhancing workplace well-being by recognizing the value of positive romantic relationships as a resource for individuals facing challenging work environments.

The moderation relationships uncovered by this research have real-world implications, particularly in high-pressure work environments. In actual situations, incivility in the workplace may be perceived as a threat to personal resources, resulting in increased tension and burnout. However, the presence of a supportive romantic partner can be a valuable resource, assisting in restoring lost energy and cultivating resilience.

Physical touch support from a romantic partner, for instance, may offer emotional solace

and validation, thereby assisting individuals in coping with negative work experiences

(Gallace & Spence, 2010). This is consistent with COR theory, which emphasizes the

significance of resource gain in compensating for resource loss and fostering well-being

(Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 1989).

In contrast, the absence of romantic partner support may exacerbate burnout,

reflecting the COR theory's concept of resource spirals, in which the depletion of one

resource leads to the depletion of other resources, creating a downward spiral of well-

being (Hobfoll, 2001). The results are also consistent with the social support theory,

which emphasizes the role of interpersonal relationships in mitigating the effects of stress

(Cohen & Wills, 1985).

In conclusion, the findings confirm and extend previous research on the

relationship between workplace incivility, support from romantic partners, and fatigue

recovery. This research contributes to a more complete understanding of how individuals

can navigate the challenges of workplace incivility and nurture resilience and well-being

by revealing the nuanced role of different types of romantic partner support and their

moderating effects. It emphasizes the significance of recognizing and cultivating healthy

romantic relationships as indispensable resources in the contemporary workplace.

Hypothesis 5a-d

Our study investigated a previously unexplored domain of the relationship

between daily romantic partner support and overnight resource recovery, with a focus on

the mediating role of recovery experiences such as detachment, relaxation, mastery, and

control. Based on the COR theory, we proposed several hypotheses emphasizing the

importance of partner support and varied recovery experiences for effective work stress management and overall health.

The first hypothesis (Hypothesis 5a) asserted that psychological dissociation from work-related stressors, which is facilitated by daily partner support, plays an essential role in the recovery experience and mediates the relationship between partner support and resource recovery. Similarly, Hypothesis 5b proposed that relaxation, induced by a supportive partner, contributes to the mediating function in resource recovery. In addition, Hypothesis 5c hypothesized that partner support could facilitate mastery experiences outside of work hours, thereby accelerating the resource recovery process. Lastly, Hypothesis 5d asserted that a supportive spouse may allow for greater control over personal leisure time, thereby enhancing the resource recovery process.

After analyzing our data, we discovered intriguing findings that warranted further investigation. The findings revealed a correlation between daily intimate partner support, overnight resource recovery, and the various recovery experience aspects. Not only did these correlations support our hypotheses, but they also highlighted the interconnectedness of these variables, highlighting the significance of their interrelationships for the well-being of individuals as a whole (Fredrickson, 2002).

In light of this, we delved deeper into our hypotheses and confirmed them in light of the Conservation of Resources theory. This theory asserts that individuals endeavor to retain, protect, and build resources and view their potential or actual loss as a threat (Hobfoll, 1989). In this context, the relationship between daily stressors and the resource recovery process is mediated by recovery experiences such as psychological detachment, relaxation, mastery, and control.

In this light, our findings supported the existing literature, corroborating the notion that a supportive environment—in this case, provided by a partner—fosters psychological detachment from work-related stressors, thereby allowing individuals to recover from the strains of work (Etzion et al., 1998; Sonnentag et al., 2010). Similarly, our findings supported the theory that relaxation, which is typically experienced when an individual feels secure and unthreatened, replenishes depleted resources, thereby promoting well-being (Brosschot et al., 2006). Our findings also supported the contention that mastery experiences, when facilitated by a supportive companion, accelerate resource recovery, thereby enhancing self-efficacy and providing a sense of accomplishment (Eschleman et al., 2010). Reis et al. (2000) found that control over one's leisure time, facilitated by a supportive companion, significantly contributes to resource recovery. This was further supported in our exploratory analysis. We found a significant total effect but not indirect effect of the relationships in the model suggesting that RPS helps with burnout recovery beyond providing opportunities for recovery experience.

In conclusion, our study augments the current understanding of recovery experiences by investigating them as distinct daily phenomena and recognizing their contribution to a larger, more comprehensive concept of recovery. This concept combines daily fluctuations in recovery experiences with longer-term patterns and tendencies. In this context, our findings highlight the dynamic nature of the recovery process, highlighting the importance of daily recovery experiences in mitigating work-related stress and promoting overall well-being (Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). The results also highlight the significance of refining the model, contemplating

additional mediators, and employing robust statistical methods to increase the explanatory power of future research.

Hypothesis 6

Consistent with the COR theory and previous empirical evidence (Hobfoll, 2001; Neff & Karney, 2005), we discovered that an investment in relational resources, as indicated by high-quality relationships, promoted greater levels of perceived support from romantic partners. In our model, the relationship quality variable was significant, indicating a strong correlation with daily RPS. This is consistent with prior research demonstrating a positive relationship between overall relationship quality and perceived RPS (Reis et al., 2004; Simpson, 2007).

The function of controls in our model was similarly illuminating. The significant negative relationship between relationship duration and perceived daily RPS indicates that relationship duration can influence perceptions of daily support. As suggested by previous research (Aron et al., 2002), this could be the result of a gradual decline in the novelty or intensity of emotional interactions. The nonsignificant relationships between age and social support from friends and family also provide important insights. Although external social support and age may play a role in relationship dynamics, the character of the relationship may be a more significant factor in perceiving daily RPS.

In our exploratory analysis, we investigated the influence of relationship quality on various aspects of daily RPS, including informational, physical contact, esteem, and tangible aspects. The unsatisfactory model fit prompted us to examine each form of RPS, which yielded more nuanced insights into how relationship quality influences the various dimensions of daily RPS. We found that relationship quality significantly and positively

affected all aspects of daily RPS. These findings contribute to a deeper comprehension of

the complex interplay between relationship quality and the various dimensions of RPS.

Managerial Implications

The first significant implication of our findings is that workplace incivility

significantly contributes to employee burnout, not only overall but also on a daily basis.

This is consistent with the findings of Andersson and Pearson (1999), who concluded that

impolite and disrespectful behavior at work can contribute to burnout. To mitigate these

negative effects, managers must adopt a firm stance against incivility. This may entail

developing clear and explicit codes of conduct that define what constitutes respectful

behavior and the repercussions for failing to adhere to such standards. Moreover,

managers can implement regular training programs that emphasize interpersonal respect

and teach conflict management and resolution skills. Managers must also establish

effective grievance mechanisms through which employees can report instances of

incivility safely and in confidence. The prompt and equitable resolution of such

grievances can discourage future instances of disrespect and foster a more positive and

productive workplace.

A person's capacity to recover from work-induced burnout is significantly

influenced by the daily support they receive from their romantic partner. Managers

cannot control the romantic relationships of their employees, but they can cultivate

conditions that enable employees to maintain a healthier work-life balance, thereby

giving them more time to receive such vital support. This could entail providing

employees with flexible work hours, where they have some control over when they start

and end work, allowing them to meet personal obligations. Managers could also consider

instituting policies that restrict after-hours communication, allowing employees to focus on their personal lives. In addition, managers could investigate the possibility of remote work, which would eradicate commute time and allow employees more time to recover and receive romantic partner support.

Regarding tangible forms of support, managers could consider ways to offer their team members practical aid. Providing additional resources, such as additional human capital or technological instruments, can reduce work-related stress (Edmondson, 2003). However, hiring people or providing technology does not directly address the problem of workplace incivility outside of inadvertently lowering the stressful environment where incivility occurs.

Creating a culture of emotional intelligence within the organization is one way to address workplace incivility. Goleman (1995) define emotional intelligence as the capacity to recognize, comprehend, and manage one's own emotions and recognize, comprehend, and influence the emotions of others. By increasing the emotional intelligence of managers and team members, organizations can create an environment in which individuals are more attuned to the subtle indicators and behaviors that may signal the beginning of workplace incivility (Mayer et al., 2008).

For managers to develop emotional intelligence, they must be able to identify the early warning indicators of stress or discontent among team members (George, 2000). By recognizing these indicators, managers can take proactive measures to provide support or resources prior to the escalation of workplace incivility (Porath & Pearson, 2013). This could include regular one-on-one check-ins to assess employee well-being, creating open

channels of communication where team members feel safe expressing concerns, or

instituting flexible work arrangements to reduce stress (Allen et al., 2015).

Enhancing emotional intelligence among team members can result in a more

empathic and supportive work environment (Côté, 2017). When coworkers are sensitive

to one another's emotional states, they are more likely to recognize when a colleague is

struggling and offer assistance or encouragement (Jordan & Troth, 2004). This awareness

can foster a sense of camaraderie and shared responsibility for sustaining a positive and

respectful work environment (Carmeli, 2003).

The results of this study demonstrate the importance of romantic partnership

support in the recovery process from workplace incivility and burnout. Fostering

romantic partnership support extends beyond the traditional boundaries of organizational

influence, posing a unique challenge for managers. In contrast to other workplace support

systems, the intimate partner is likely not an employee of the organization, making direct

intervention more difficult. Managers can, however, indirectly cultivate an environment

encouraging romantic relationships among employees. This may involve instituting

policies that promote work-life balance, such as flexible work hours, the option to work

remotely, or additional paid time off for family matters (Allen, 2001). By minimizing

work-family conflict, organizations can create space for employees to cultivate their

romantic relationships, contributing to their overall well-being and resiliency (Beutell &

Greenhaus, 1983).

It is essential to understand the potential limitations and ethical considerations in

this field. While organizations can create supportive environments for their employees,

direct intervention in their romantic relationships may be perceived as intrusive or

inappropriate. Managers must strike a delicate balance between respecting individual

privacy and providing support that correlates with the values and objectives of the

organization (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Incorporating marriage counseling into employer-sponsored health plans could be

an innovative way to support romantic relationships. Despite evidence that relationship

quality plays an important part

in mental and emotional health (Lebow et al., 2012), this form of mental health

care service is frequently excluded from these plans. Since it was discovered that

relationship quality is important to the recovery process, there is a compelling argument

for organizations to reconsider this exclusion. By providing coverage for marital

counseling, companies can provide a tangible resource that supports employees' romantic

relationships, thereby aligning with broader organizational objectives for employee well-

being and retention (Doherty & Simmons, 1996).

This approach acknowledges that the health and stability of romantic relationships

are not solely private matters but can directly affect workplace performance and

satisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2017). It is also consistent with the growing corpus of

research highlighting the significance of mental health support in the workplace (Spencer,

2015).

Based on our findings, which highlight the importance of resilience as a powerful

predictor of daily burnout, surpassing the influence of daily intimate partner support, it is

clear that managers play a pivotal role in addressing and mitigating burnout in their

workforce. As a trainable trait or skill, resilience emerges as a plausible intervention

strategy for enhancing employees' ability to recover from burnout. Managers should, therefore, consider incorporating resilience training into their organizational practices.

Smith et al. (2008) demonstrate that resilience can be cultivated and enhanced through targeted training programs. By providing employees with access to resilience training programs, managers can equip them with the necessary tools and techniques to manage workplace stressors and overcome daily challenges effectively. This proactive stance benefits individual employees and contributes to the organization's overall health, as evidenced by a reduction in burnout-related absenteeism and turnover rates (Kuhn & Pelster, 2011).

Nevertheless, it is essential to recognize that resilience training should not be conducted in isolation. Adhering to the tenets of the conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989), managers should take proactive measures to inform and encourage employees to utilize home-based resources, particularly intimate partner support, as a supplementary means of bolstering their resilience. Substantial evidence attests to the central role that intimate partner support plays in mitigating the effects of workplace stress and fostering psychological well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). In this context, managers should emphasize the importance of identifying and utilizing this valuable resource in conjunction with resilience training. This comprehensive approach, which combines internal and external sources of support, is an effective method for preventing and recovering from exhaustion.

Our evolving understanding of resilience includes emotional, cognitive, mental, physical, and spiritual dimensions. Collectively, these dimensions contribute to an individual's capacity to navigate and recover from life's stressors. When we consider how

romantic partner support falls into this comprehensive framework, it becomes clear that

such support plays a crucial role in enhancing each dimension of resilience, making it a

priceless asset in resilience training programs.

Emotional resilience, which entails managing and regulating emotions in the face

of adversity, is a cornerstone of well-being (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Romantic

partners are frequently a dependable source of emotional support, providing a secure and

empathetic environment for individuals to freely express their emotions. Incorporating

support from intimate partners into resilience training enables individuals to effectively

utilize this source of emotional solace and develop greater emotional resilience.

Cognitive and mental resilience refers to the capacity to modify thought patterns

and maintain mental lucidity under stress (Southwick et al., 2014). By providing diverse

perspectives and functioning as problem-solving partners, romantic partners can

contribute significantly to cognitive flexibility. In addition, a companion's emotional

support can reduce stress's cognitive burden (Reis et al., 2004). Resilience training can

improve cognitive and mental resilience by teaching strategies for constructive

discussions and decision-making processes with companions.

Physical resiliency is the capacity to maintain physical health and vitality in the

face of adversity (Connor & Davidson, 2003). By encouraging healthful behaviors such

as exercise, nutrition, and rest, romantic partners can directly impact physical resilience.

They provide inspiration, accountability, and practical support for maintaining a healthful

lifestyle. A crucial aspect of overall resilience is that resilience training can provide

instruction on how to utilize companion support to improve physical health.

Spiritual resilience is the capacity to discover meaning, purpose, and connection

in spite of adversity (Walsh et al., 2012). Often, romantic partners share the same

spiritual beliefs and values, which fosters a profound sense of spiritual companionship.

During times of stress, couples can engage in spiritual practices or meaningful dialogues

that strengthen their shared spirituality. By recognizing and utilizing the spiritual

dimension of their relationship, resilience training can assist individuals in enhancing

their sense of interconnectedness and purpose, thereby contributing to their spiritual

resilience.

Incorporating support from intimate partners into resilience training, addressing

these four dimensions, is consistent with a holistic approach to enhancing resilience. By

utilizing the emotional, cognitive, mental, physical, and spiritual resources that romantic

partnerships provide, individuals can be better prepared to overcome adversity.

Moreover, research demonstrates that strong and supportive romantic relationships are

associated with increased overall well-being (Dush & Amato, 2005), making them an

indispensable component of any strategy for building resilience.

The interaction between workplace incivility, burnout recovery, and intimate

partnership support presents managers with both challenges and opportunities.

Organizations can cultivate a more resilient and satisfied workforce by recognizing the

importance of romantic relationships in the recovery process and taking proactive

measures to support these relationships. This requires careful consideration of

boundaries, ethical implications, and novel approaches, such as including marriage

counseling in health plans. Managers can contribute to a positive organizational culture

that acknowledges and values the interconnectedness of work and personal life by

adopting a holistic view of employee well-being that extends beyond the workplace.

Limitations and Future Research

The primary limitation of our study is the short duration of the diary sampling

phase. This period of time, which lasted only five consecutive workdays, may not have

been long enough to provide a complete picture of the investigated phenomena,

especially variations in burnout. The cumulative effects of incivility and burnout over a

long period of time may not have been adequately accounted for, especially for measures

influenced by incivility in the workplace. This limitation is consistent with research

(Cortina et al., 2013) indicating that the effects of workplace incivility are frequently

chronic and cumulative. Typically, the effects of such actions are indirect, inconspicuous,

and intensify with time (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). In contrast to more overt forms of

aggression or harassment, incivility can manifest in ostensibly minor slights or dismissals

that, over time, accrue to cause significant stress and dissatisfaction (Andersson &

Pearson, 1999). As a result, the results of such actions may not be immediately evident

within a short period of time. Although the daily diary method is helpful for documenting

immediate reactions and day-to-day variation, it may not adequately capture the long-

term effects of workplace incivility. This limitation suggests a compelling prospective

research direction.

To better capture the temporal character of workplace incivility's effects, future

research could extend the diary sampling phase over a longer period of time than a single

work week. This could lead to a more nuanced and comprehensive understanding of how

these effects evolve and compound over time. Such an approach would be consistent with

the increasing recognition of longitudinal research's significance in understanding

workplace dynamics (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). However, such research may not be

feasible due to the inherent difficulties of long-term sampling, such as attrition and other

variables beyond the researcher's control. The feasibility and capability of extended diary

studies may be affected by participant fatigue, changes in employment roles, or

organizational restructuring (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). As a result, we propose that

future researchers examine different types of stress as their dependent variable rather than

burnout. By focusing on more immediate or short-term stress responses, researchers may

obtain valuable insights without the need for extensive sampling periods. Incorporating

additional methodologies, such as interviews or focus groups, could provide

complementary perspectives on the intricate relationship between workplace incivility

and employee well-being (Einarsen et al., 2018).

In conclusion, despite the fact that our study provides valuable insights into the

relationship between workplace incivility and burnout, the limitations of the sampling

duration emphasize the need for continued exploration and innovation in research

methods. Future research can contribute to a more comprehensive and actionable

comprehension of incivility and its effects on employee well-being by embracing a

multifaceted approach that acknowledges the complexity and temporal nature of

workplace dynamics.

Chapter Six: Conclusion

The objective of this study was to determine how daily support from a romantic companion affects a person's recovery from workplace incivility and resulting burnout. We gathered information from 277 participants over a five-day period during which they kept a daily journal. Our objective was to evaluate these experiences at the micro-level, on a daily basis, as opposed to using longitudinal or cross-sectional designs that provide a more macro-level perspective of the phenomena.

Consistent with the existing literature, our findings indicate that daily incivility in the workplace does contribute to burnout in the short term. This is consistent with research such as that conducted by Andersson and Pearson (1999), who argued that incivility at work, such as rudeness and disrespectful behavior, has negative effects on the well-being of employees, thereby contributing to increased fatigue.

In addition, our research revealed a direct correlation between daily recovery experience and romantic partner support. Among the various forms of support, it appeared that tangible support from a romantic partner, such as conducting chores or providing financial assistance, was the most effective in promoting daily recovery. This is consistent with the findings of other researchers, such as Cutrona (1996), who proposed that practical forms of support can function as a potent buffer against stress.

Contrary to our expectations, we were unable to corroborate the buffering effect of daily romantic support on the relationship between daily workplace incivility and recovery from burnout. It is feasible that the limited duration of our study prevented us from detecting this effect. Prior research (e.g., Cohen & Wills, 1985) has demonstrated

the significance of social support in stress buffering, but it is possible that these effects will not be instantaneously observable within the limited timeframe of our study.

In addition, despite some significant findings, the model did not provide adequate support for the mediating effect of daily perceptions of recovery experience. Previous research has shown that recovery processes are multifaceted and complex (Sonnentag et al., 2008). This suggests that there may be additional factors at play that were not included in our model.

Lastly, our study revealed that individuals' perceptions of their overall relationship quality also influenced their perceptions of their romantic partner's daily support. This is consistent with the social exchange theory (Thibault & Kelley, 1959), which suggests that the perceived quality of interpersonal relationships influences the reception and interpretation of support behaviors.

In conclusion, while our study revealed important daily-level insights into the role of romantic partner support in the recovery from workplace burnout, it also revealed potential areas for future research, particularly regarding the timing of support effects and the complex factors that influence daily recovery experience.

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Tables

Table 1. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Inclusion	Criteria
	• 18+ years old • Currently working on-site in the United States • Working full time • Experiences workplace incivility at least 25% of the time during workdays. • Be in a committed long-term relationship

Table 2. Demographics

Age	N	%
21-25	10	3.610%
26-30	35	12.635%
31-35	63	22.744%
36-40	63	22.744%
41-45	39	14.079%
46-50	29	10.469%
51-55	16	5.776%
56-60	14	5.054%
61-65	3	1.083%
66-70	4	1.444%
71-75	0	0.000%
75-81	1	0.361%

Income	N	%
< $20,000	1	0.400%
$20,000 to $34,999	23	8.300%
$35,000 to $49,999	43	15.500%
$50,000 to $74,999	85	30.700%
$75,000 to $99,999	65	23.500%
$100,000+	60	21.700%

Race	N	%
Asian	16	5.800%
Black or African American	23	8.300%
Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish Origin	18	6.500%
White or Caucasian	212	76.500%
Multiracial or another	8	2.900%

Education	N	%
< High School	1	0.400%
High School/GED	52	18.800%
Undergraduate	141	50.900%
Graduate	68	24.500%
Doctorate	15	5.400%

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Variables in the Study

Descriptive Statistics	N	Range	Min.	Maxi.	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Workplace Incivility									
Workplace Incivility (Overall)	277	3.050	1.000	4.050	2.077	0.654	0.428	0.588	-0.091
Hostility	277	3.750	1.000	4.750	2.378	0.752	0.566	0.367	-0.113
Privacy Invasion	277	3.200	1.000	4.200	1.777	0.771	0.594	1.116	0.390
Exclusory Behaviors	277	3.857	1.000	4.857	2.233	0.856	0.733	0.414	-0.444
Gossiping	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	1.875	0.840	0.705	0.865	0.249
Workplace Incivility (Daily)	5366	4.000	1.000	5.000	1.450	0.613	0.376	2.318	6.554
Hostility	5366	4.000	1.000	5.000	1.512	0.761	0.579	1.810	3.331
Privacy Invasion	5366	4.000	1.000	5.000	1.445	0.692	0.479	2.085	5.076
Exclusory Behaviors	5366	4.000	1.000	5.000	1.535	0.763	0.582	1.726	2.909
Gossiping	5366	4.000	1.000	5.000	1.307	0.654	0.427	2.794	8.506
Burnout									
Overall	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.925	0.805	0.648	-0.030	-0.122
Morning	4286	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.310	1.016	1.032	0.602	-0.209
Evening	4313	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.310	1.037	1.076	0.565	-0.358
Recovery from Burnout	3441	8.000	-4.000	4.000	-0.010	0.675	0.455	-0.025	3.885
Romantic Partner Support									
Romantic Partner Support (Overall)	277	3.960	1.040	5.000	3.188	0.842	0.710	-0.352	-0.181
Informational Support	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.944	0.820	0.673	0.136	-0.117
Physical Touch Support	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.387	1.113	1.239	-0.346	-0.736
Esteem Support	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.222	1.017	1.035	-0.318	-0.558
Tangible Support	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.239	1.070	1.144	-0.453	-0.604

Romantic Partner Support (Daily)	5377	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.732	1.054	1.110	0.273	-0.737
Informational Support	5377	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.482	1.177	1.385	0.417	-0.767
Physical Touch Support	5377	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.769	1.211	1.466	0.236	-0.942
Esteem Support	5362	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.750	1.374	1.887	0.131	-1.237
Tangible Support	5377	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.938	1.221	1.491	0.028	-1.014
Recovery Experience									
Recovery Experience (Overall)	277	3.813	1.188	5.000	3.617	0.770	0.593	-0.513	0.272
Detachment	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.252	1.102	1.215	-0.160	-0.990
Relaxation	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.854	0.944	0.892	-0.994	0.840
Mastery	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.519	1.038	1.077	-0.636	-0.385
Control	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.845	0.915	0.838	-0.824	0.387
Recovery Experience (Daily)	5377	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.181	0.960	0.922	-0.036	-0.573
Detachment	5369	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.196	1.357	1.840	-0.126	-1.238
Relaxation	5369	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.549	1.197	1.433	-0.354	-0.864
Mastery	5377	4.000	1.000	5.000	2.475	1.293	1.671	0.488	-0.859
Control	5367	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.502	1.224	1.499	-0.355	-0.879
Relationship Quality	277	3.000	1.500	4.500	3.184	0.866	0.750	-1.195	0.786
Controls									
Resilience	277	4.000	1.000	5.000	3.552	1.028	1.057	-0.518	-0.296
Social Support									
Total Social Support	277	6.000	1.000	7.000	5.487	1.169	1.367	-1.020	1.120
Significant Other Support	277	5.000	2.000	7.000	5.639	1.042	1.085	-0.975	0.922
Family Support	277	6.000	1.000	7.000	5.640	1.287	1.656	-1.317	1.734
Friend Support	277	6.000	1.000	7.000	5.333	1.305	1.704	-1.076	1.365

Table 4. Analysis of Relationships on Overall Burnout

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	RWA %	
(Intercept)	4.570	0.310	13.407	0.000		
Workplace Incivility	0.302	0.062	4.858	0.000	25.573	***
Controls						
Age	-0.008	0.005	-1.748	0.082	2.109	.
Organization Tenure	0.003	0.006	0.442	0.659	0.206	
Resiliency	-0.274	0.041	-6.618	0.000	46.587	***
Social Support	-0.176	0.040	-4.354	0.000	25.524	***
		DF	adjusted R^2			
F	30.06	271	0.345			

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Table 5. Analysis of Relationships with Factors on Overall Burnout

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	RWA %	
(Intercept)	4.572	0.332	13.760	0.000		***
Workplace Incivility						
Hostility	0.089	0.064	1.382	0.168	6.908	
Exclusionary Behavior	0.287	0.057	4.964	0.002	20.849	**
Privacy Invasion	-0.205	0.064	-3.178	0.000	3.514	***
Gossiping	0.092	0.059	1.565	0.119	6.401	
Controls						
Age	-0.009	0.005	-1.971	0.049	1.976	*
Organization Tenure	0.004	0.006	0.683	0.495	0.209	
Resiliency	-0.278	0.040	-6.945	0.000	38.976	***
Social Support	-0.176	0.039	-4.513	0.000	21.164	***

		DF	adjusted R^2
F	22.92	268	0.389

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Table 6. Analysis of Relationships with Burnout at the End of the Day

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	Pratt	
(Intercept)	3.835	0.394	9.803	0.000		***
Workplace Incivility	0.346	0.020	17.706	0.000	0.256	***
Controls						
Age	-0.009	0.006	-1.443	0.150	0.002	
Organization Tenure	0.017	0.009	1.976	0.049	0.002	*
Resiliency	-0.224	0.057	-4.014	0.000	0.467	***
Social Support	-0.179	0.055	-3.251	0.000	0.255	***

	Marginal	Conditional
R^2	0.199	0.864

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Table 7. Exploratory Analysis of Relationships of the Factors of Workplace

Incivility with Burnout at the End of the Day

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	Pratt	
(Intercept)	4.532	0.406	11.164	0.000		***
Workplace Incivility						
Hostility	0.052	0.017	2.991	0.003	0.015	**
Exclusionary Behavior	0.255	0.018	13.852	0.002	0.049	**
Privacy Invasion	-0.027	0.017	-1.525	0.127	-0.003	
Gossiping	0.027	0.023	1.134	0.257	-0.002	
Controls						
Age	-0.007	0.007	-1.010	0.314	-0.005	
Organization Tenure	0.017	0.009	1.909	0.057	0.061	.
Resiliency	-0.267	0.058	-4.622	0.000	0.531	***
Social Support	-0.201	0.057	-3.527	0.000	0.354	***
			DF	adjusted R2		
F	22.92		268	0.389		

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Table 8. Analysis of Relationships of Daily Romantic Partner Support with Daily Recovery from Burnout

Variable					
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	Pratt
(Intercept)	0.158	0.144	1.101	0.272	
Romantic Partner Support (RPS)	0.037	0.021	1.757	0.079	0.645
Controls					
Age	-0.002	0.003	-0.472	0.637	0.004
Relationship Tenure	0.001	0.003	0.305	0.761	0.001
Resiliency	-0.014	0.021	-0.666	0.506	0.194
Social Support	-0.013	0.019	-0.706	0.481	0.149
	Marginal	Conditional			
R^2	0.040	0.166			

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Table 9. Analysis of Relationships of the Factors of Daily Romantic Partner Support with Daily Recovery from Burnout

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	Pratt	
(Intercept)	0.161	0.149	1.117	0.404		
Romantic Partner Support (RPS)						
Informational Support	0.014	0.021	0.653	0.513	0.087	
Physical Touch Support	0.016	0.022	0.711	0.477	0.109	
Esteem Support	-0.016	0.016	-1.804	0.071	-0.028	.
Tangible Support	0.045	0.018	2.478	0.013	0.606	**
Controls						
Age	-0.001	0.003	-0.487	0.627	0.002	
Relationship Tenure	0.001	0.003	0.330	0.741	0.001	
Resiliency	-0.014	0.021	-0.698	0.485	0.124	
Social Support	-0.013	0.019	-0.698	0.485	0.099	
	Marginal	Conditional				
R^2	0.006	0.169				

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Table 10. Analysis of Moderating Relationships of Daily Romantic Partner on the Relationship Between Daily Workplace Incivility and Recovery from Burnout

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	
(Intercept)	0.120	0.198	0.604	0.546	
Romantic Partner Support (RPS)	0.038	0.021	1.832	0.067	
Workplace Incivility (WI)	0.332	0.039	8.497	0.000	.***
Controls					
Age	-0.002	0.003	-0.526	0.599	
Relationship Quality	0.003	0.029	0.118	0.906	
Organization Tenure	0.002	0.003	0.491	0.623	
Relationship Tenure	0.001	0.003	0.225	0.822	
Resiliency	-0.013	0.022	-0.626	0.531	
Social Support without RPS	-0.012	0.021	-0.570	0.569	
Moderation					
RPS * WI	-0.146	0.076	-1.934	0.053	.
	Marginal	Conditional			
R^2	0.051	0.209			

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Table 11. Analysis of Moderating Relationships of the Factors of Daily Romantic Partner on the Relationship Between Daily Workplace Incivility and Recovery from Burnout

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	
(Intercept)	0.057	0.390	0.146	0.884	
Romantic Partner Support (RPS)					
Daily Informational Support	0.377	0.322	1.169	0.247	
Daily Physical Touch Support	-0.814	0.375	-2.172	0.030	*
Daily Esteem Support	0.377	0.318	1.184	0.237	
Daily Tangible Support	-0.034	0.250	-0.137	0.891	
Workplace Incivility (WI)	0.022	0.167	0.130	0.897	
Controls					
Age	-0.005	0.002	-1.934	0.053	
Relationship Quality	0.049	0.024	2.088	0.037	*
Organization Tenure	0.003	0.003	0.849	0.396	
Relationship Tenure	0.002	0.003	0.648	0.517	
Resiliency	0.003	0.019	0.183	0.855	
Social Support without RPS	-0.021	0.018	-1.157	0.247	
Moderation					
RPS * WI					
Daily Informational Support * WI	-0.060	0.145	-0.414	0.679	
Daily Physical Touch Support *WI	0.289	0.140	2.070	0.039	*
Daily Esteem Support * WI	-0.163	0.119	-1.371	0.171	
Daily Tangible Support *WI	-0.028	0.125	-0.224	0.224	
	Marginal	Conditional			
R^2	0.252	0.879			

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Table 12. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings of Hypotheses 5a-d

Variable		Estimate	Std.Err	z-value	P(>|z|)	ci.lower	ci.upper
Recovery from Burnout							
Romantic Partner Support (RPS)(c)		0.012	0.013	0.912	0.362	-0.013	0.037
Detachment	(b1)	-0.020	0.009	-2.359	0.018	-0.037	-0.003
Relaxation	(b2)	0.046	0.010	4.690	0.000	0.027	0.065
Mastery	(b3)	0.028	0.010	2.878	0.004	0.009	0.047
Control	(b4)	-0.034	0.010	-3.563	0.000	-0.053	-0.016
Controls							
Age		-0.002	0.002	-0.991	0.322	-0.005	0.002
Relationship Tenure		0.002	0.002	1.338	0.181	-0.001	0.006
RPS → Daily Detachment	(a1)	0.167	0.022	7.742	0.000	0.124	0.209
RPS → Daily Relaxation	(a2)	0.334	0.019	17.795	0.000	0.297	0.371
RPS → Daily Mastery	(a3)	0.498	0.019	25.928	0.000	0.460	0.536
RPS → Daily Control	(a4)	0.311	0.019	16.296	0.000	0.274	0.349
Indirect							
Detachment		0.002	0.002	0.905	0.365	-0.002	0.006
Relaxation		0.004	0.004	0.910	0.363	-0.005	0.012
Mastery		0.006	0.006	0.911	0.362	-0.007	0.018
Control		0.004	0.004	0.910	0.363	-0.004	0.011
Total							
Detachment		-0.018	0.009	-2.124	0.034	-0.035	-0.001
Relaxation		0.050	0.010	5.173	0.000	0.031	0.069
Mastery		0.034	0.009	3.581	0.000	0.015	0.052
Control		-0.031	0.010	-3.224	0.001	-0.050	-0.012

Sobel Testing	Sobel	P(>|z|)	Power
Detachment	1	0.317	0.159
Relaxation	1	0.317	0.159
Mastery	1	0.317	0.159
Control	1	0.317	0.159

Table 13. Changes in Model Fit

Model #	X²	Df	X²/Df	Sig.	TLI	SRMR	CFI	RMSEA	ΔTLI	ΔSRMR	ΔCFI	ΔRMSEA
1	4001.315	6	666.886	< .001	-.905	.229	.238	.441				
2	4.008	2	2.004	.135	.985	.005	.996	.017	1.890	-0.224	0.767	-0.424

Table 14. Significant and Nonsignificant Relationships in Hypothesis 5 Exploratory

Analysis

Variable	Estimate	Std.Err	z-value	P(>|z|)	ci.lower	ci.upper
Recovery from Burnout						
Romantic Partner Support RPS)(c)	0.021	0.023	0.899	0.369	-0.025	0.067
Recovery Experience (b)	0.063	0.023	2.754	0.006	0.018	0.109
Controls						
Age	-0.001	0.011	-0.741	0.458	-0.004	0.002
Relationship Tenure	0.002	0.002	0.939	0.365	-0.002	0.022
RPS → Recovery Experience (a)	0.326	0.015	22.053	0.000	0.297	0.355
Indirect						
Recovery Experience	0.021	0.008	2.733	0.006	0.006	0.036
Total						
Recovery Experience	0.042	0.023	1.796	0.073	-0.004	0.087

Table 15. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings of Hypothesis 6

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	Pratt	
(Intercept)	-1.357	0.481	-2.818	0.005		*
Relationship Quality	0.492	0.065	7.559	0.000	0.933	***
Controls						
Age	0.009	0.007	1.369	0.172	0.012	.
Relationship Tenure	-0.024	0.008	-2.888	0.002	0.004	*
Social Support (No RP)	0.076	0.049	1.557	0.121	0.039	

	Marginal	Conditional
R^2	0.208	0.749

Figures

Figure 1. Theoretical Model
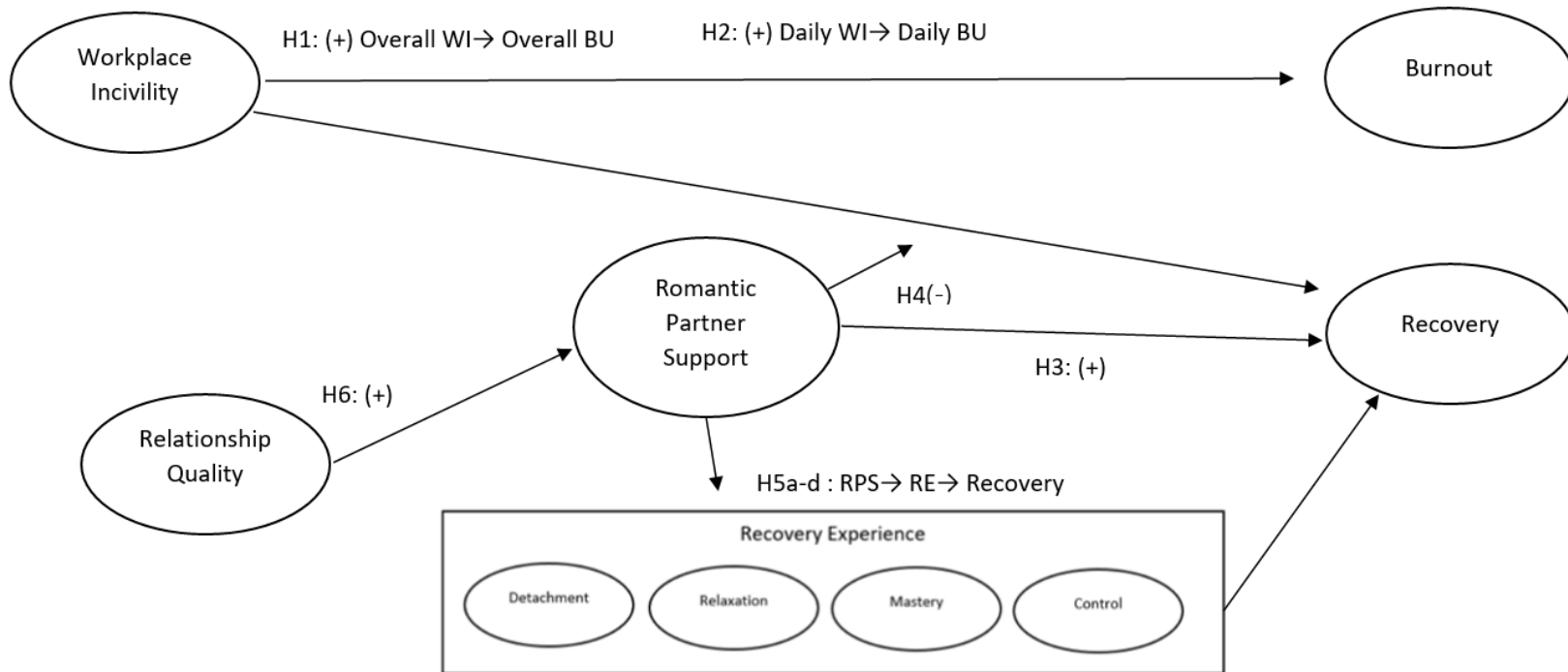
Figure 2. Sampling and Pay Method

Daily Surveys (2x per day for 5 days)

Preliminary Survey	Day 1 Morning Survey	Day 2 Morning Survey	Day 3 Morning Survey	Day 4 Morning Survey	Day 5 Morning Survey	Final Survey
Approx. 20-25 mins. ($5.00)	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	Approx. 20-25 mins. ($5.00)
	Day 1 Evening Survey	Day 2 Evening Survey	Day 3 Evening Survey	Day 4 Evening Survey	Day 5 Evening Survey	
	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	Approx. <5 mins. ($0.50)	

Figure 3. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings of Hypothesis 1.
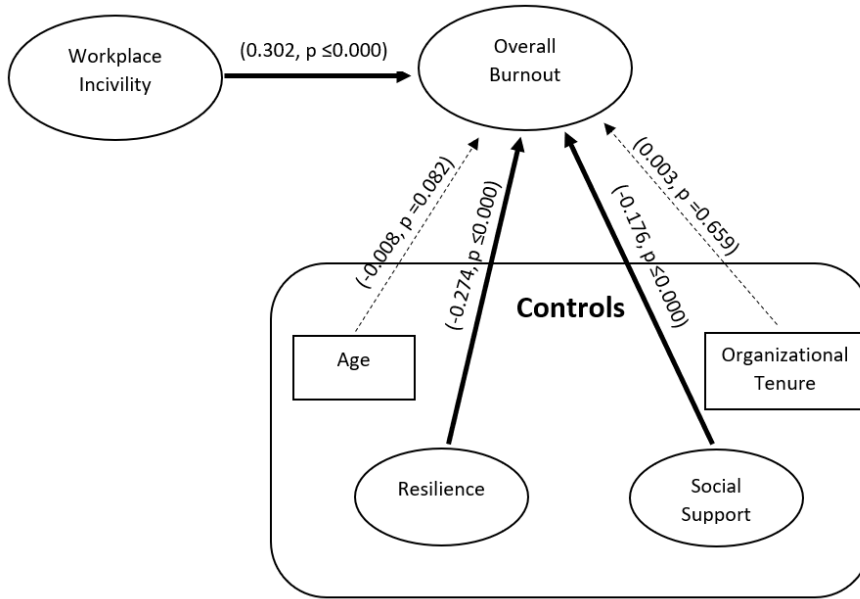
Figure 4. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings of Exploratory Analysis of

Hypothesis 1.
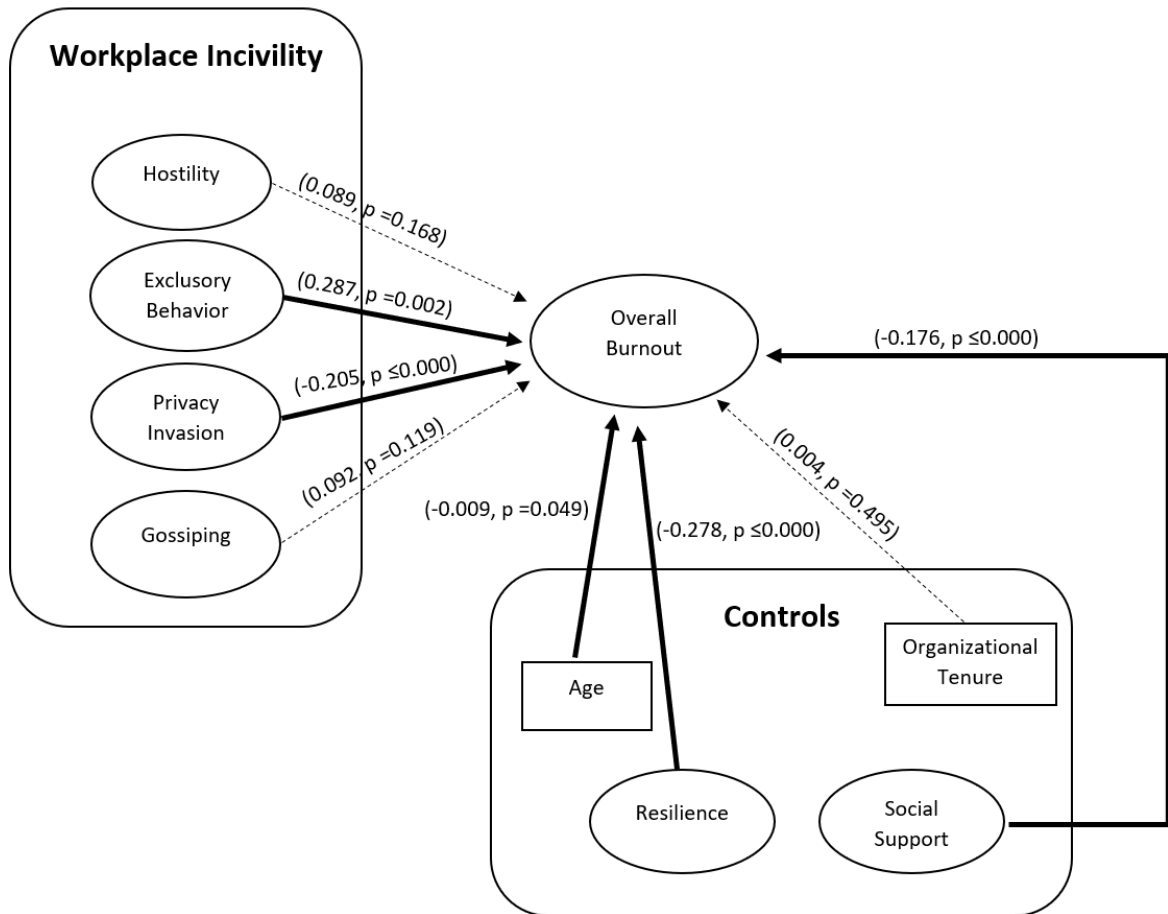
Figure 5. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings of Hypothesis 2
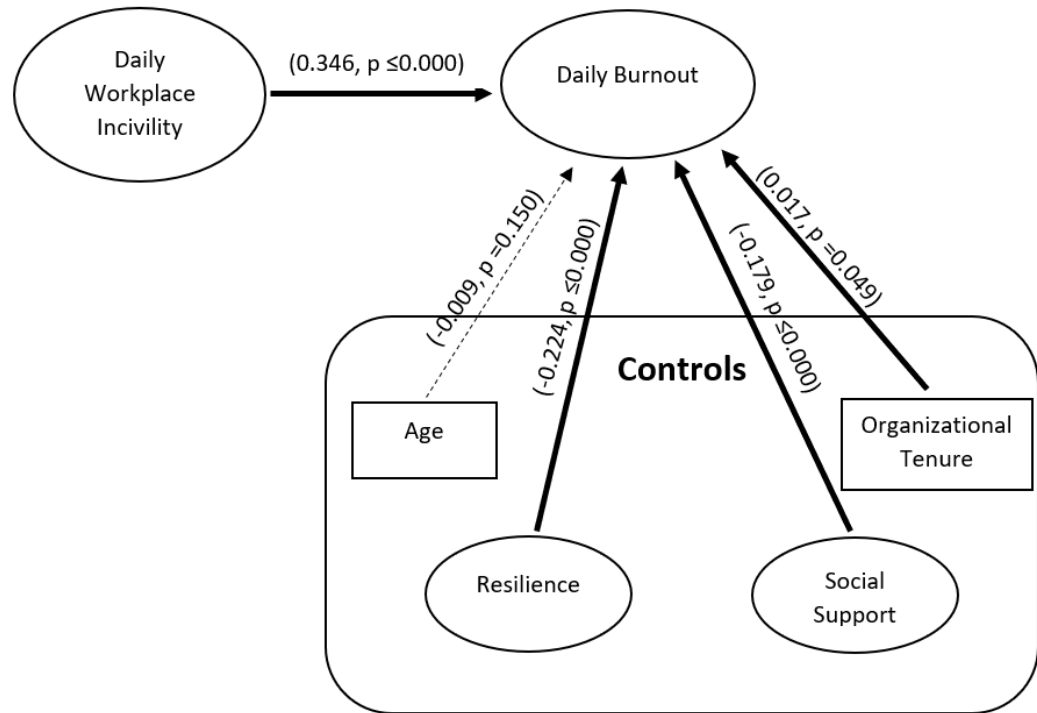
Figure 6. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings of Exploratory Analysis for

Hypothesis 2
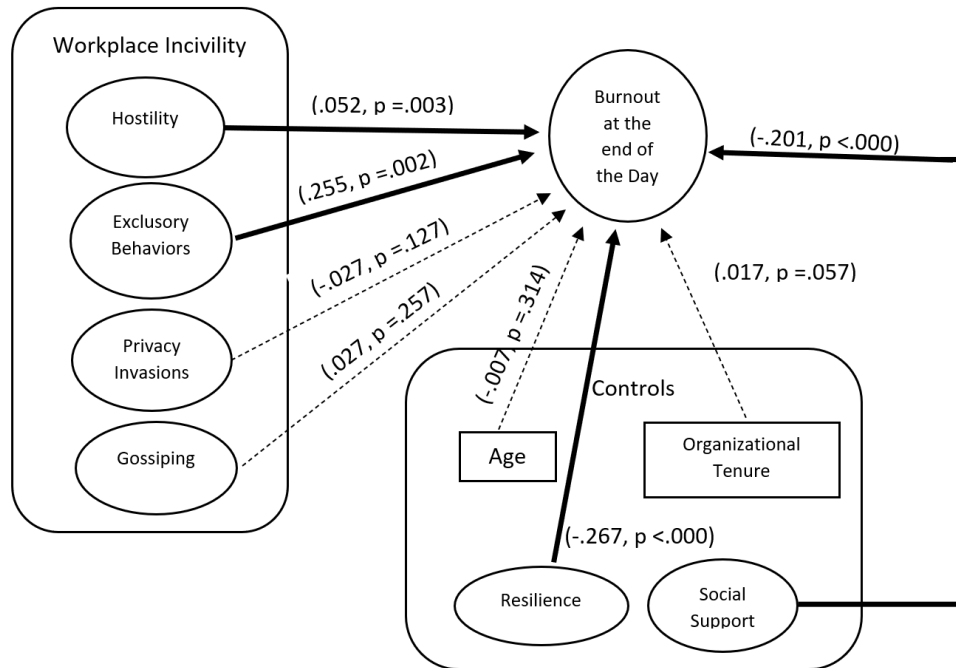
Figure 7. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings of Analysis for Hypothesis 3
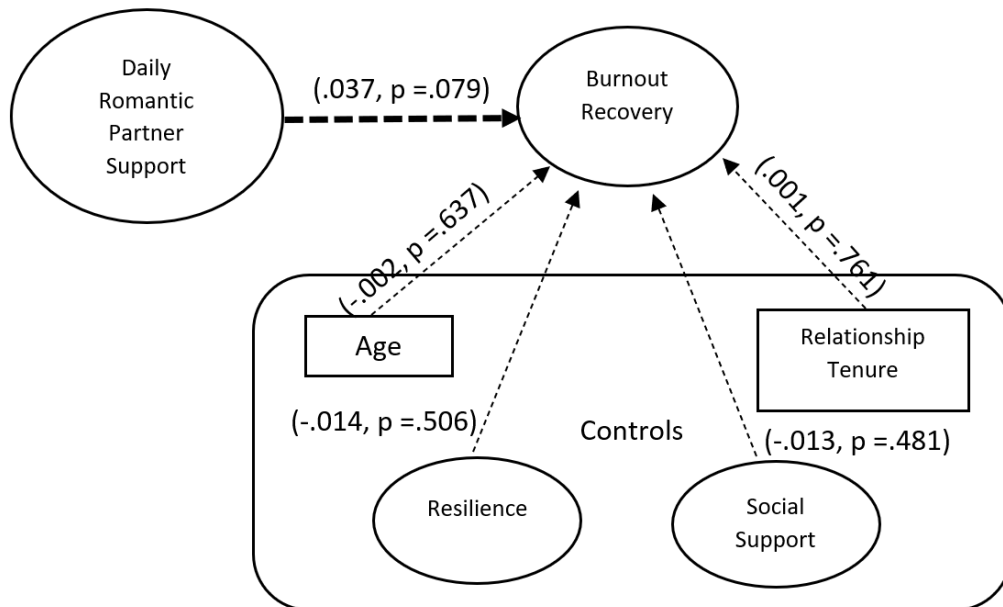
Figure 8. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings of Exploratory Analysis for
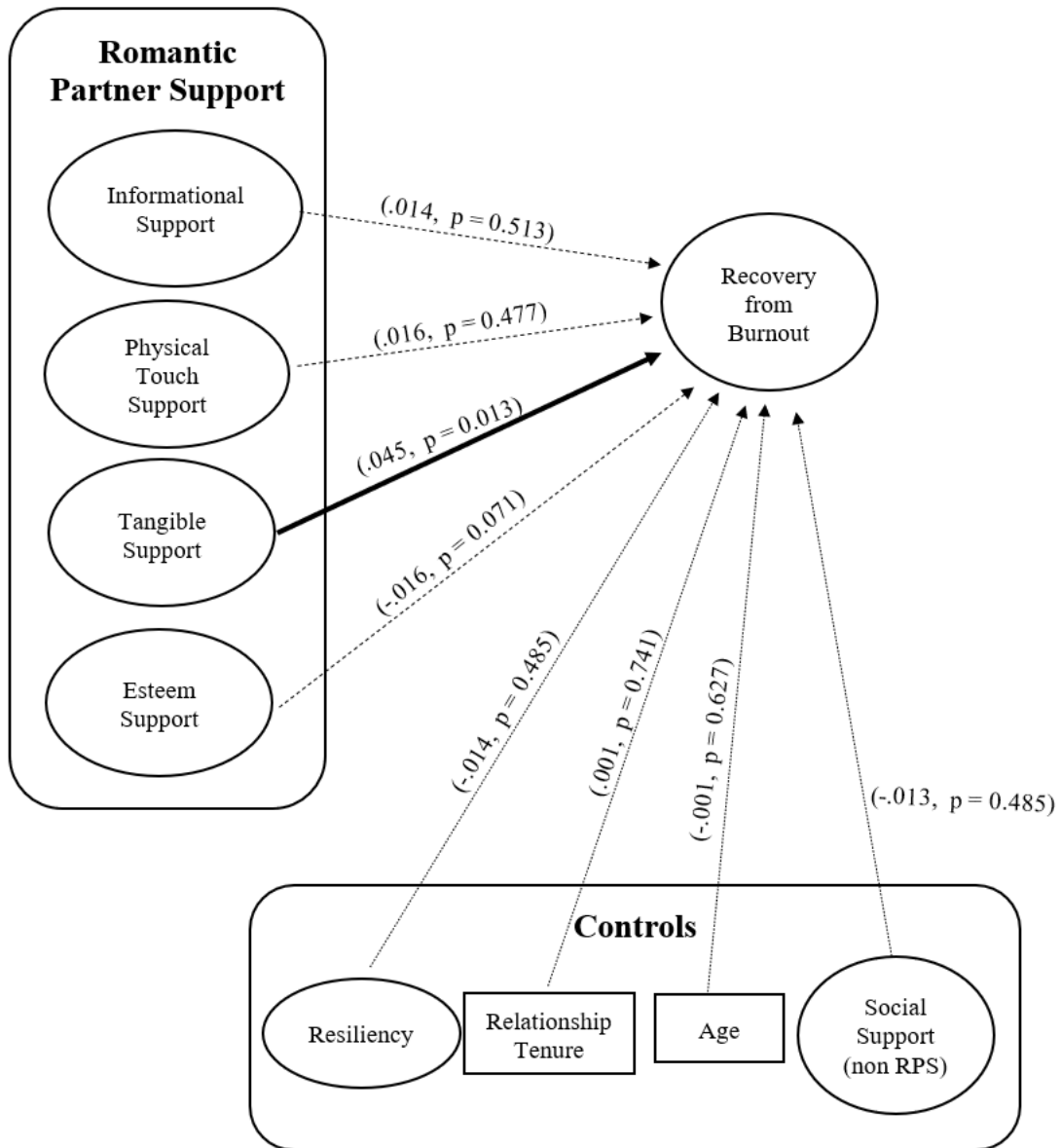
Hypothesis 3

Figure 9. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings for Hypothesis 4
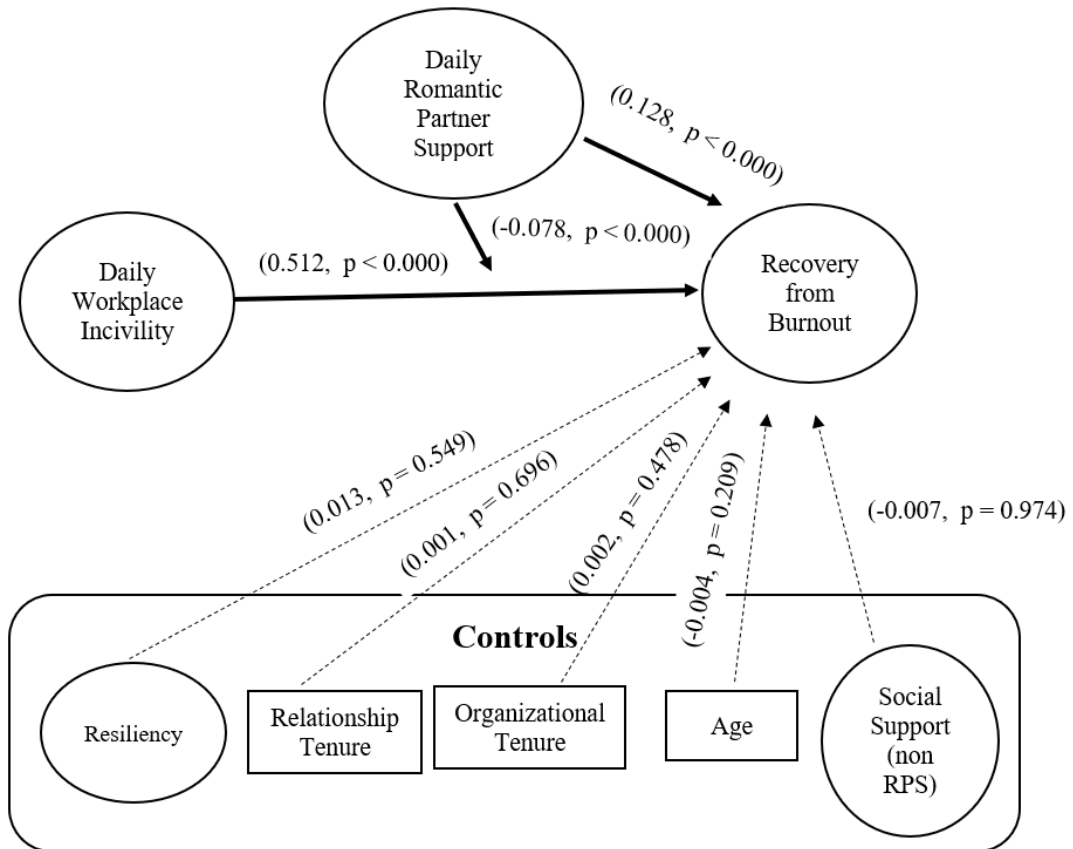
Figure 10. Simple Slope Analysis of Romantic Partner Support
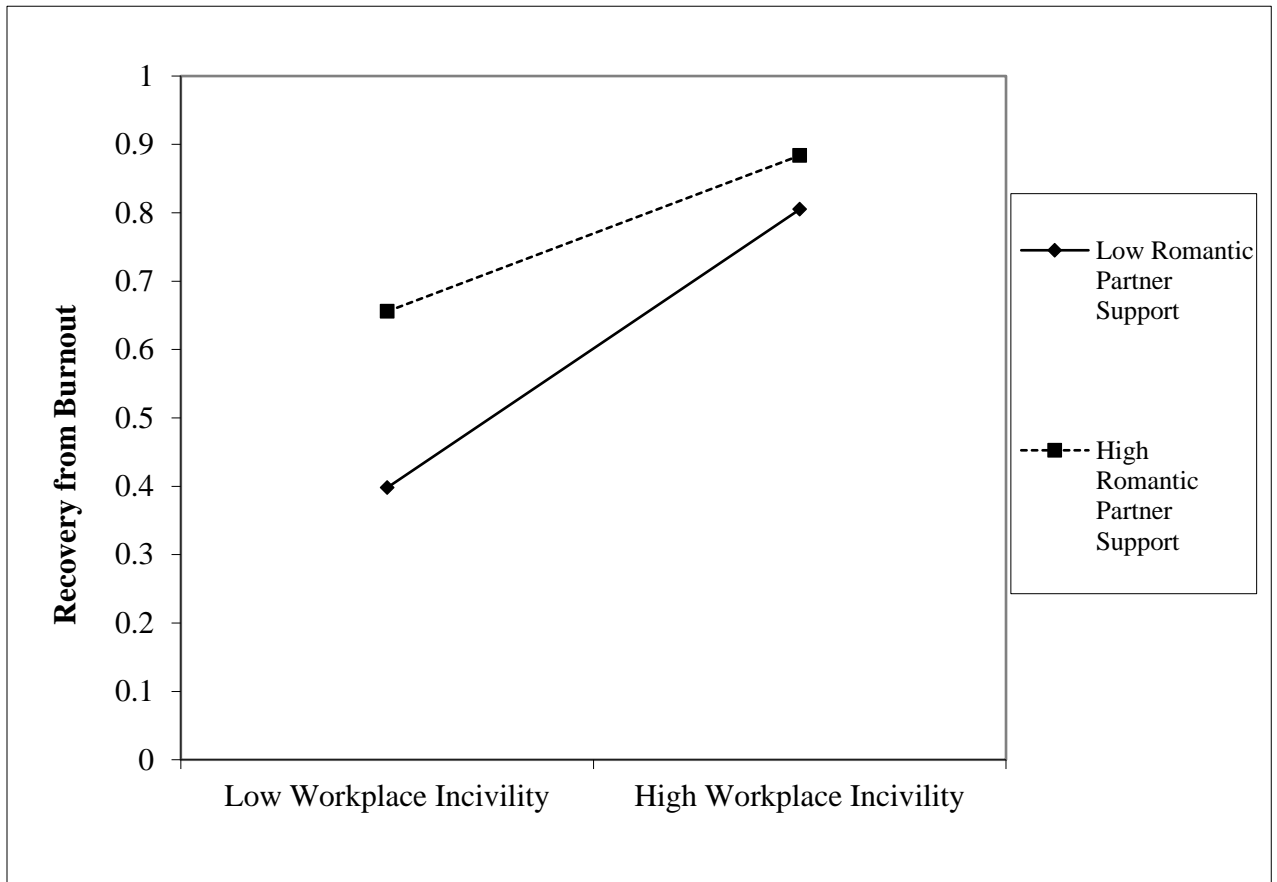
Figure 11. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings for Hypothesis 4 Exploratory
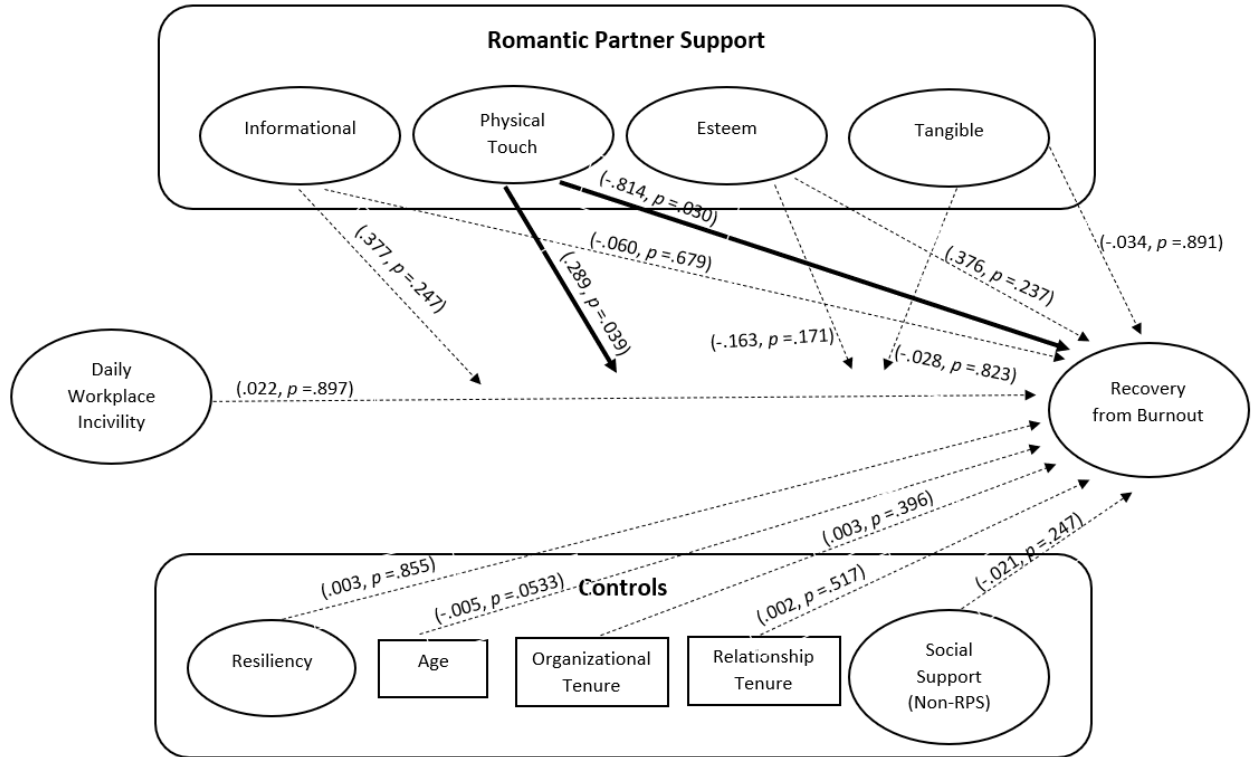
Analysis

Figure 12. Simple Slope Analysis for Daily Physical Touch Support on Daily

Workplace Incivility and Recovery from Burnout
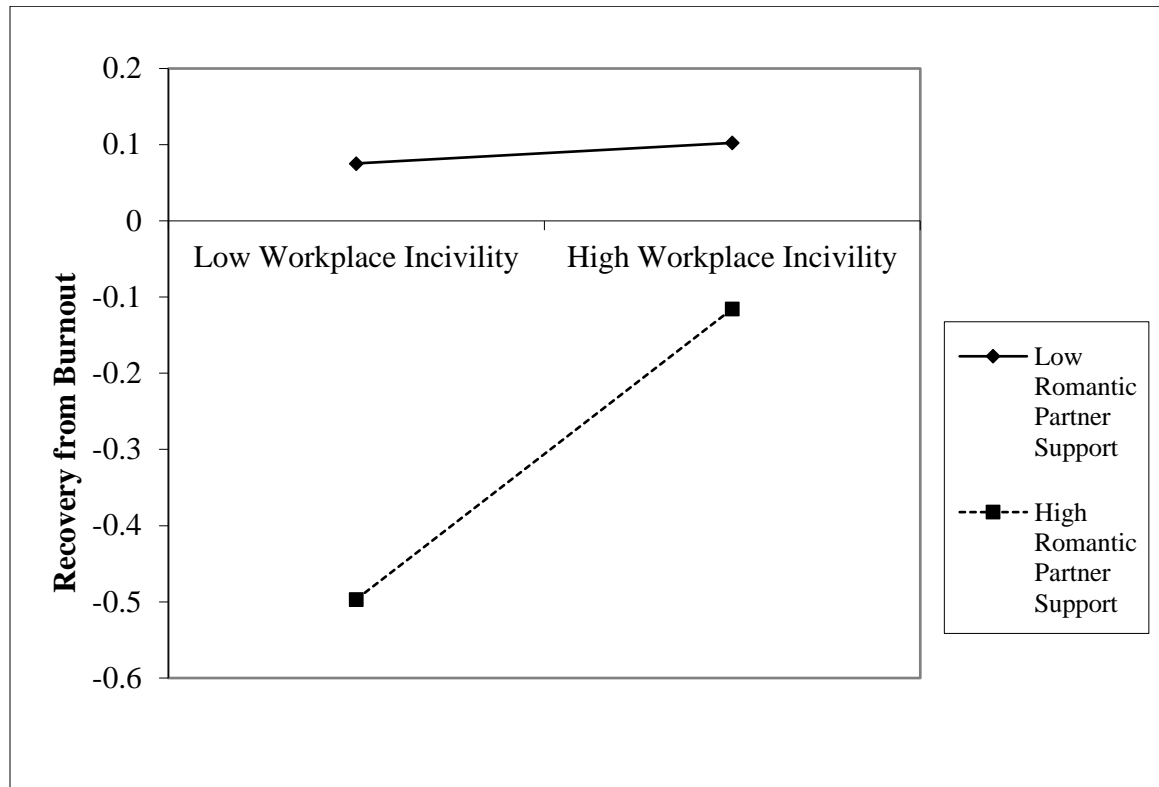
Figure 13. Model for the Primary Analysis of Hypothesis 5a-d
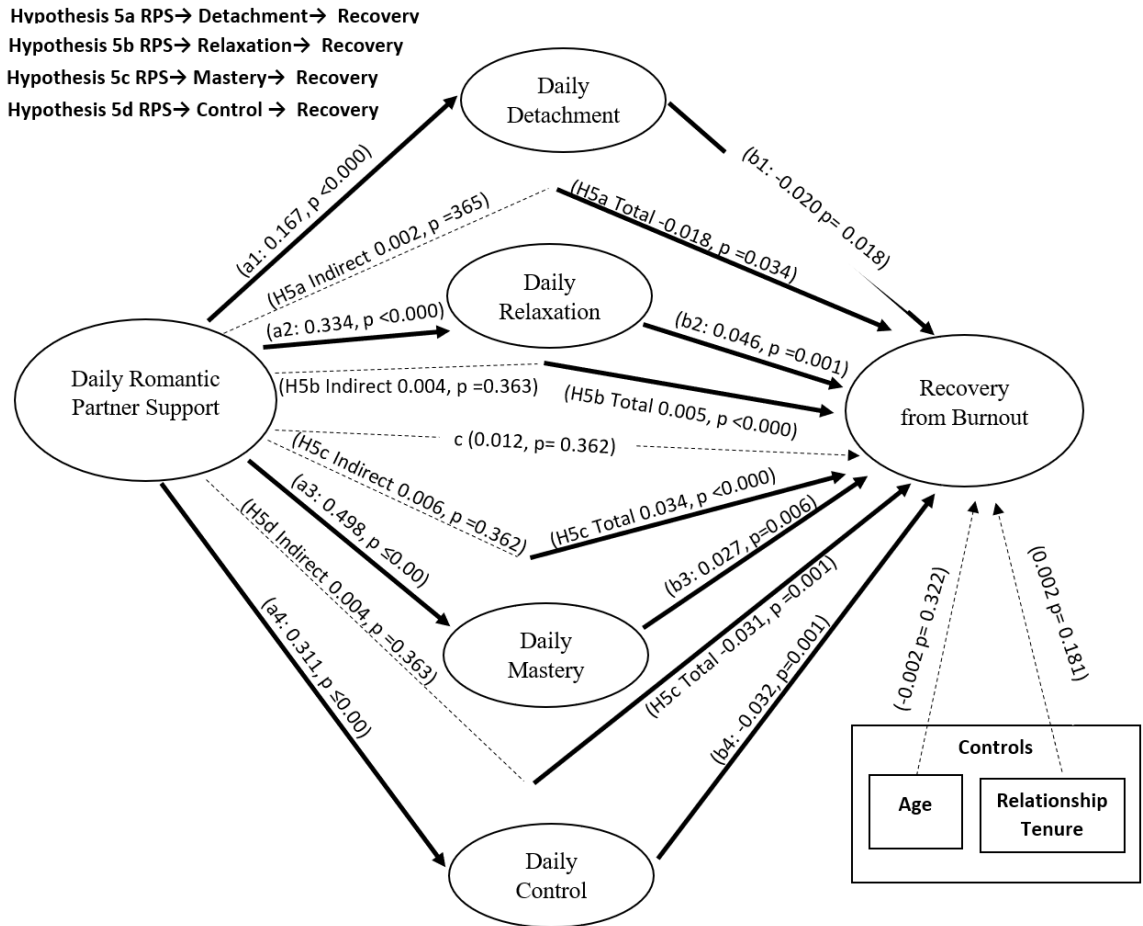
Figure 14. Model for Exploratory Analysis of Hypothesis 5
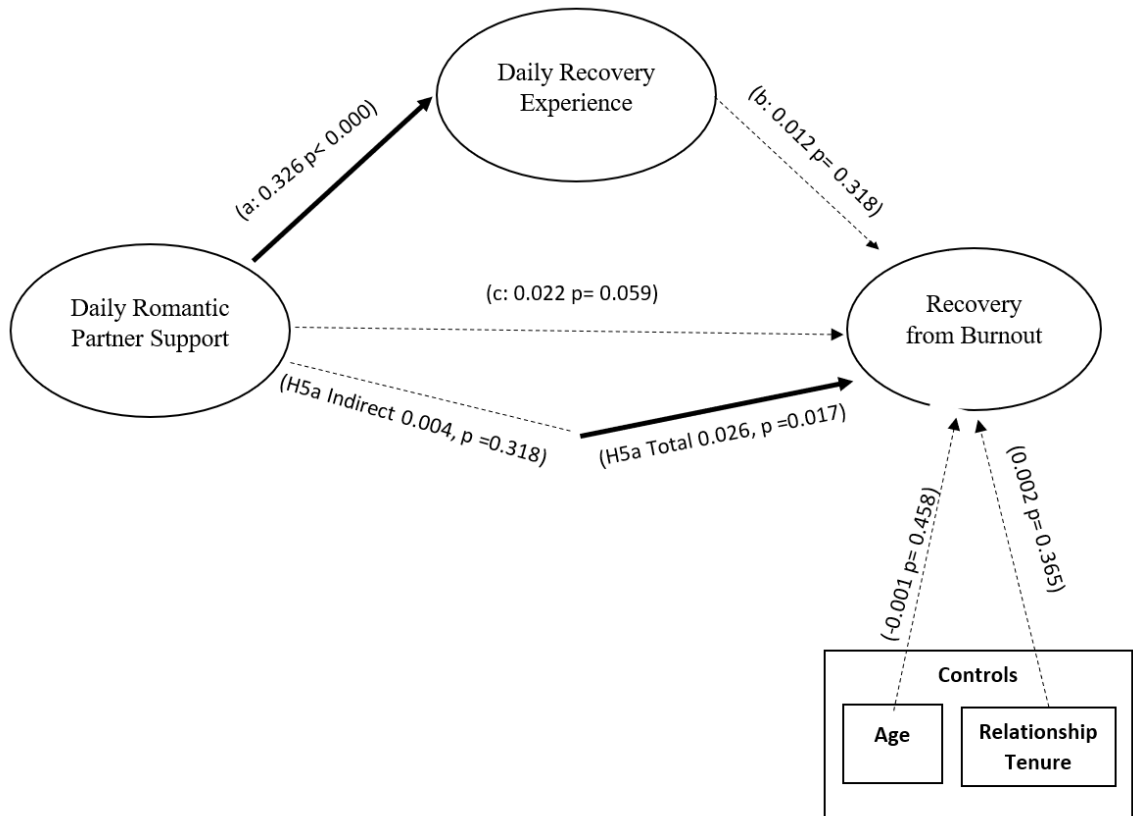
**Figure 15. Significant and Nonsignificant Findings for Hypothesis 6 Visual**
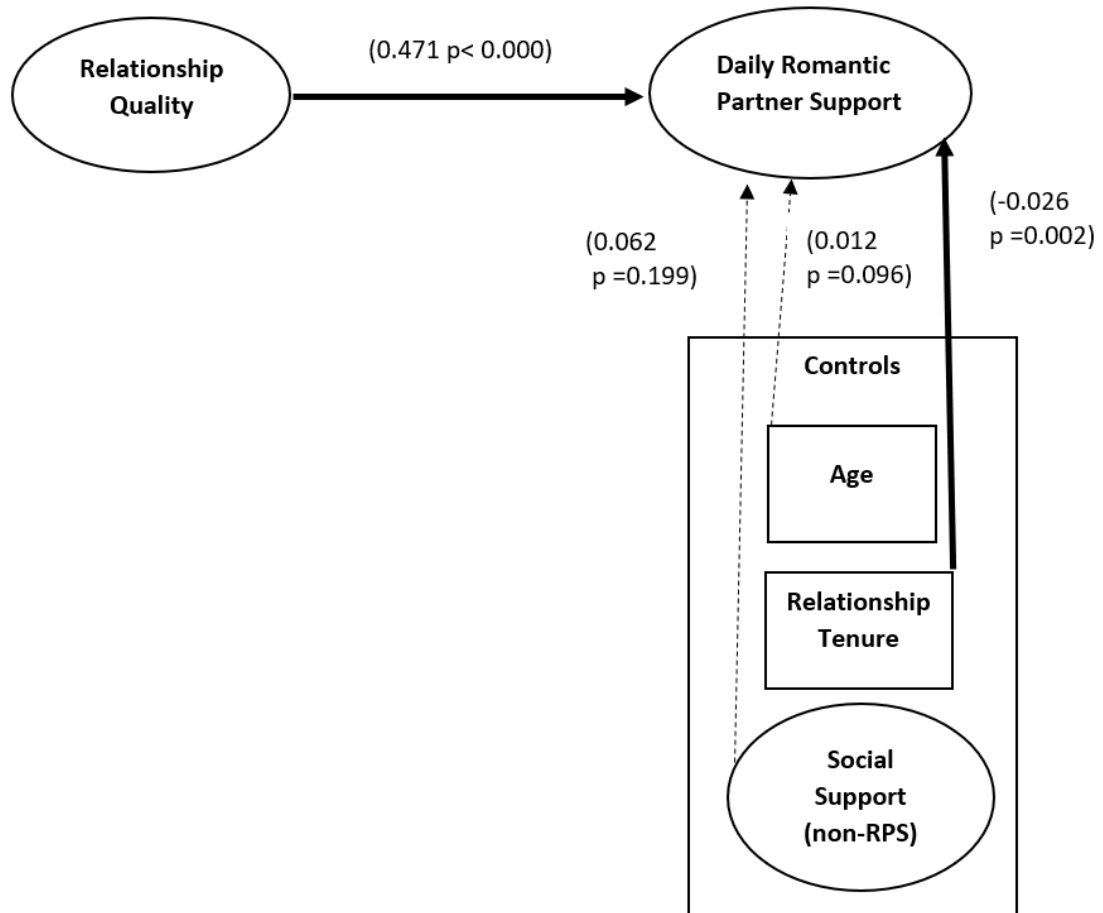
Appendix I: Informed Consent

University of Missouri–St. Louis
Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities

Principal Investigator: Matthew Aplin-Houtz
Department Name: Business
Faculty Advisor: Stephanie Merritt
IRB Project Number: 2094920 SL

Key Information About the Study

You are being asked to participate in a research study. The purpose of the research study
is to determine the effects of long-term and short-term romantic partnership. You are
being asked to fill out multiple surveys to take part in this research. You will first fill out
one longer survey with demographics and other questions. After the first sampling, you
will fill out a short survey in the morning at the approximate start of the work-shift for
five consecutive days. Additionally, you will fill out a short survey at approximately the
end of your work shift. Finally, you will be given the questionnaire from the initial
sampling without demographics. Below is a diagram of all the samplings in this study to
visualize how many surveys are included to participate.
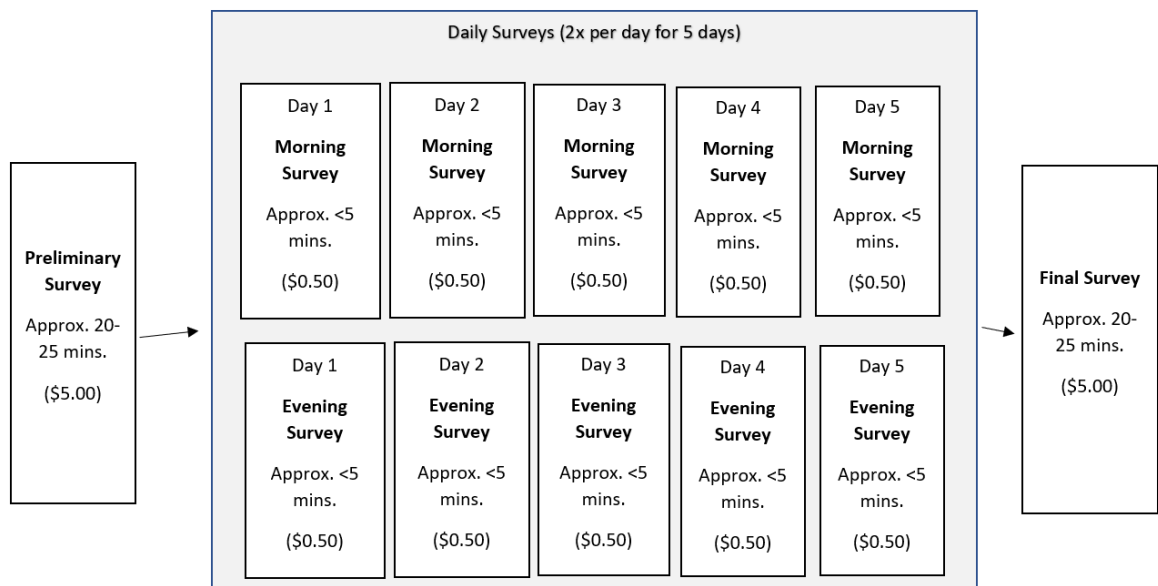
Please note that associated with the Daily Surveys, you will have a two-hour window to
complete the short surveys. This window will be roughly between 8 am to 10 am Eastern
Standard time for the morning sampling and 4 pm to 6 pm for the evening sampling.

Should you miss the window to submit the survey, you will not receive credit for the survey. However, you can participate in the next sampling without any penalty.

There are no known benefits for participating in this study outside of financial compensation. Some possible risks may include boredom and fatigue during the time of filling out the online surveys.

Please read this form carefully and take your time. Let us know if you have any questions before participating. The research team can explain words or information that you do not understand. Research is voluntary and you can choose not to participate. If you do not want to participate or choose to start then stop later, there will be no penalty or loss of benefits.

Purpose of the Research
You are being asked to participate in this study because you have indicated that you experience at least one instance of civility on at least 25% of workdays and have a long-term romantic partner (marriage not required). The purpose of the study is to determine how romantic partner support impacts the relationship of daily workplace incivility leading to burnout

What will happen during the study?
You are being asked to:
- Answer questions in two larger surveys (one at the beginning of the study and one at the end – each about 15-20 minutes long)
- Answer very short questionnaire (less than five minutes) at the beginning of your workshift for five consecutive days. You will have a two-hour window to complete this survey. Approximately 8 am – 10 am Eastern Standard time
- Answer very short questionnaire (less than five minutes) at the end of your workshift for five consecutive days. You will have a two-hour window to complete this survey. Approximately 4 pm – 6 pm Eastern Standard time

Your participation is expected to last a total of approximately one hour throughout the entire study.

There will be a maximum of 500 people participating in this study.

What are the expected benefits of the study?
You may not benefit as a result of your participation in the study. Information learned from the study may help other people in the future by understanding how romantic partners provide support to recover from burnout caused by incivility.

What are the possible risks of participating in this study?
There are certain risks and discomforts that may occur if you take part in this research study. They include boredom and fatigue. Additionally, there is a very small possibility of your answers to questions being linked to you.

To help lower these possible risks, we will not contact you in any way other than to address payment concerns or to notify of a data breach if it occurs. We have purposely chosen to collect data with Prolific to minimize the amount of identifiable data we are given to link your responses to you.

As this study involves the use of your personal information (an identification number associated with your Prolific account and not name, address, or email), there is a chance that a loss of confidentiality will occur. However, the researchers have procedures in place to lessen the possibility of this happening, as described in the "Will information about me be kept private" section.

We will tell you about any new important information we learn that may affect your decision to continue to participate in this study.

What other choices do I have if I don't want to be in this study?
You are not required to be in this study. You can choose not to participate. If you wish to stop participation at any time, you can just close the survey and not fill out any other surveys as part of this study. There will be no penalty for stopping your participation except that you will not be eligible for the $10 bonus, which requires completion of all surveys.

Will I receive compensation for taking part in this study?
You will be compensated for taking part in this study. For your time and effort, you will receive:

- For the diary portion, you will get paid $0.50 a response (less than a few minutes to complete).
- For the two larger surveys, you will be paid $5.00 for each survey (approximately 20 minutes each).
- If you fill out all surveys, you will receive a bonus of $10.00. This will be for completing both longer surveys and five days of both morning and evening sampling. If you missed one of the samplings, you would not receive the bonus.
- If you fill all 12 surveys, you will be paid $25.00 for approximately one hour of total time to complete the surveys.

Are there any costs for participating in this study?
You should not expect any costs to participate in this study.

Will information about me be kept private?
The research team is committed to respecting your privacy and keeping your personal information confidential. We will make every effort to protect your information to the extent allowed by law.

When the results of this research are shared, we will remove all identifying information (changing the Prolific assigned identification to a different identification number) so it will not be known who provided the information. Your information will be kept as secure as possible to prevent your identity from being disclosed. Once data is collected, we will store

it on a password protected computer. Data will only be shared with research personnel unless we are required to share it with the university for compliance purposes.

We may share what we collected from you as part of this research, for future research without additional informed consent from you.

Who do I contact if I have questions or concerns?
If you have any questions or concerns about this research study, or if you have any problems that occur from taking part in this research study, you may call the researcher Matthew Aplin-Houtz at 812-870-3171 or Ma2B2@umsl.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the University of Missouri–St. Louis Institutional Review Board (IRB) at 314-516-5972 or irb@umsl.edu. The IRB is a group of people who review research studies to make sure the rights and welfare of participants are protected.

Do I get a copy of this consent?
You will receive a copy of this consent for your records by clicking here (insert hyperlink here for this document).
We appreciate your consideration to participate in this study.

Do you agree to take part in this study?
Y/N   (no signature collected)

Appendix II: Survey Questions

First Survey

Screening Questions

Instructions: Please answer the below questions as it describes your demographics:

Do you work full-time (approximately 32+ hours a week)? Yes no

Are you over the age of 18? Yes no

Do you experience workplace incivility at least one time a day during the typical workweek? Workplace incivility is defined as rude, discourteous, and offensive behaviors that impact the emotional state (please note this is not direct hostility in the workplace) yes no

Do you currently live with your romantic partner in a committed relationship? Yes no

Do you live and work in the United States? Yes No

Do you work Monday through Friday during a traditional work shift (8-5, 9-6, 10-7) Yes No

Demographics

In what year were you born? _____
What is your personal yearly wage amount?

   a.) Less than $20,000
   b.) $20,000 to $34,999
   c.) $35,000 to $49,999
   d.) $50,000 to $74,999
   e.) $75,000 to $99,999
   f.) $100,000+

Work Classification

   a. Full time
   b. Part-time
   c. Other

Marital status

   a. Married

    b.   Widowed but not remarried
    c.   Divorced and not remarried
    d.   Separated from current spouse
    e.   Single but in a long term relationship

What is your race/ethnicity?
    a.   Asian
    b.   Black or African American
    c.   Hispanic, Latino or Spanish Origin
    d.   Middle Eastern or North African
    e.   Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
    f.   White or Caucasian
    g.   Multiracial or another
    h.   Prefer not to answer

What is your highest educational achievement?

    a.   Did not finish high school
    b.   High school graduate / GED
    c.   Undergraduate degree
    d.   Graduate degree
    e.   Doctorate degree

How many years with current employer?_____

In what region of the US do you currently live? _____

Instructions: Please answer the below questions as it describes your home responsibilities.

How many children younger than 18 years old do you have who currently live in your home? __

How many years have you lived with your current domestic relationship?_____

How would you define your current domestic relationship status?

    a.   Legally married
    b.   Domestic partners
    c.   Common law marriage
    d.   Boyfriend/Girlfriend
    e.   Cohabitating
    f.   other

Who does most of the cooking, cleaning, and laundry in your household?

    a. Exclusively or almost entirely me
    b. Mostly me and someone else helps out
    c. Shared equally between me and someone else
    d. Mostly someone else and I help out
    e. Exclusively or almost entirely someone else

One a scale of 1 to 10, how stressed is your romantic partner when they come home from work? 1 (no stress), 10 (extremely high stress)

Main Variables

The Uncivil Work Behavior Questionnaire (UWBQ: Martin & Hine, 2005)
*This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your efforts and perceptions associated with work. Think about your current position and organization **during the past month** and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 5:*
1 never, 2 rarely, 3 occasionally, 4 often, and 5 very often.
How often did experience the following by anyone you came into contact with associated with your job/role during the past month?
Hostility
    1. Raised their voice while speaking to you.
    2. Used an inappropriate tone when speaking to you.
    3. Spoke to you in an aggressive tone of voice.
    4. Rolled their eyes at you.

Privacy Invasion
    1. Took stationery from your desk without later returning it.
    2. Took items from your desk without prior permission.
    3. Interrupted you while you were speaking on the telephone.
    4. Read communications addressed to you, such as e-mails or faxes.
    5. Opened your desk drawers without prior permission

Exclusionary Behavior
    1. Did not consult you in reference to a decision you should have been involved in.
    2. Gave unreasonably short notice when canceling or scheduling events you were required to be present for.
    3. Failed to inform you of a meeting you should have been informed about.
    4. Avoided consulting you when they would normally be expected to do so.
    5. Was excessively slow in returning your phone messages or e-mails without good reason for the delay.
    6. Intentionally failed to pass on information which you should have been made aware of.
    7. Were unreasonably slow in seeing to matters on which you were reliant on them for, without good reason.

Gossiping
1. Publicly discussed your confidential personal information.
2. Made snide remarks about you.
3. Talked about you behind your back.
4. Gossiped behind your back.

Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI: Demerouti & Bakker, 2008)
This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your efforts and perceptions associated with work. Think about your current position and organization and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 4: 1 Strongly Agree, 2 Agree, 3 Disagree, 4 Strongly Disagree

1. I always find new and interesting aspects in my work
2. There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work
3. It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way
4. After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better
5. I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well
6. Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically
7. I find my work to be a positive challenge
8. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained
9. Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work
10. After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities
11. Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks
12. After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary
13. This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing
14. Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well
15. I feel more and more engaged in my work
16. When I work, I usually feel energized

Recovery Experience Questionnaire (Sonnetag & Fritz, 2007)
1. I forget about work.
2. I don't think about work at all.
3. I distance myself from my work.
4. I get a break from the demands of work.
5. I kick back and relax.
6. I do relaxing things.
7. I use the time to relax.
8. I take time for leisure.
9. I learn new things.
10. I seek out intellectual challenges.
11. I do things that challenge me.
12. I do something to broaden my horizons.
13. I feel like I can decide for myself what to do.

14. I decide my own schedule.
15. I determine for myself how I will spend my time.
16. I take care of things the way that I want them done.

Support in Intimate Relationships Rating Scale (*SIRRS*; Dehle et al., 2001)
Instructions: Based on your experience with your romantic partner last night, please rate the amount of the interactions occurred between you and your partner. Please rate according to the following scale = 0 (did not occur), 1 (small amount), 2 (Moderate amount), 3 (high amount), 4 (very high amount).
1. Gave me suggestions about how to handle a situation
2. Told me what to do to solve a problem or deal with a situation
3. Helped me think about a situation in a new way
4. Taught me or showed me how to do something
5. Shared a personal experience that was similar to my situation
6. Shared facts or information with me about a situation I was facing
7. Restated what I had told him/her about a situation
8. Inferred how I was feeling about a situation
9. Hugged me or cuddled with me
10. Kissed me
11. Held my hand
12. Patted or stroked me affectionately
13. Told me everything would be OK
14. Said he/she thought I handled a situation well
15. Expressed confidence in my ability to handle a situation
16. Said good things about me
17. Said it was OK to feel the way I was feeling
18. Took my side when discussing my situation
19. Said he/she would feel the same way in my situation
20. Said I was not at fault for my situation
21. Offered to do something to help me directly w/my situation
22. Did something to help me directly
23. Offered to help me indirectly (e.g., offered to do my chores)
24. Did something to help me indirectly (e.g., did my chores)
25. Offered to do something with me to help me feel better

Single Item Burnout (Dolan et al., 2015)
   "Overall, based on your definition of burnout, how would you rate your level of burnout?"
   Responses, options:
1.   I enjoy my work, I have no symptoms of burnout
2.   Occasionally I am under stress and I don't always have as much energy as I once did, but I don't feel burned out
3. I am definitely burning out and have one or more symptoms of burnout, such as physical and emotional exhaustion

4. The symptoms of burnout that I am experiencing won't go away. I think about frustration at work a lot
5. I feel completely burned out and often wonder if I can go on. I am at a point where I may need some changes or may need to seek some sort of help."

Exploratory/Control Variables

Meaningful Work (Steger & Dik, 2012)

This section looks to understand how meaningful you perceive your work to be. Please rate the following items using the scale below.

[1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree]

1. I have found a meaningful career.
2. I understand how my work contributes to my life's meaning.
3. I have a good sense of what makes my job meaningful.
4. I have discovered work that has a satisfying purpose.
5. I view my work as contributing to my personal growth.
6. My work helps me better understand myself.
7. My works helps me make sense of the world around me.
8. My work really makes no difference to the world.
9. I know my work makes a positive difference in the world.
10. The work I do serves a greater purpose.

Turnover Intentions (Driscoll & Beehr, 1995)

Based on your current organization and work environment, please indicate your level of agreement or extent that you have thought about each of the following statements below.

1. Thoughts about quitting this job cross my mind. [never, rarely, sometimes, often, very often, all the time]
2. I plan to look for a new job within the next 12 months [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree]
3. How likely is it that, over the next year, you will actively look for a new job outside of this firm? [very unlikely, moderately unlikely, somewhat unlikely, somewhat likely, moderately likely, very likely]

Job Embeddedness (Clinton et al., 2012)

This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your work environment and professional fulfillment. Think about your current position and organization and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 5:

[1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree]

1. My organization provides me with a way of life that suits me.
2. Overall, I fit very well in my organization.
3. My closest friends are in my organization.
4. Overall, I have strong ties with people throughout my organization.
5. I would miss the excitement that this job brings if I left.
6. If I left, there would be many things about my organization life that I would be sad to lose.
7. The area where I am based right now is suitable for my family and friends.
8. There is plenty to keep me happy off duty around here.
9. Even if I decide to leave my organization I would still live in the area where I am based at the moment.
10. My family/partner has strong ties around the community where I am currently based.
11. Leaving the area where I am currently based would mean many personal and/or family sacrifices.
12. I would be very sad to leave the general community where I am based right now.
13. Please choose Agree for this question. [Attention Check 1]

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS: Spector, 1985, 2022)
This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your satisfaction with aspects of your job. Think about your current position and organization and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 5:
2,3, 5, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 19-21, 23, 24, 26, 28, 29, 34-36
1= Disagree very much, 2= Disagree moderately, 3= Disagree slightly, 4= Agree slightly, 5=Agree moderately, 6= Agree very much
Pay
1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
2. Raises are too far and few between. (r)
3. I am unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me. (r)
4. I feel satisfied with my chance for salary increases.
Promotion
5. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job. (r)
2. Those that do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.
3. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.
4. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
Supervision
9. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.
2. My supervisor is unfair to me. (r)
3. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates. (r)
4. I like my supervisor.
Benefits
13. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive. (r)

2.   The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.
3.   The benefit package we have is equitable. (r)
4.   There are benefits we do not have which we should have (r)

Rewards
17.   When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
2.   I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated. (r)
3.   There are few rewards for this who work here. (r)
4.   I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be. (r)

Operating procedures
21.   Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult. (r)
2.   My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.
3.   I have too much to do at work. (r)
4.   I have too much paperwork. (r)

Coworkers
25.   I like the people I work with.
2.   I find I have to work harder to my job than I should because of the incompetence of people I work with. (r)
3.   I enjoy my coworkers.
4.   There is too much bickering and fighting at work. (r)

Work itself
29.   I sometimes feel my job is meaningless. (r)
2.   I like doing the things I do at work.
3.   I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.
4.   My job is enjoyable.

Communication
33.   Communications seem good within this organization.
2.   The goals of this organization are not clear to me. (r)
3.   I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization. (r)
4.   Work assignments are often not fully explained. (r)

Job Crafting Questionnaire (JCQ: Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013)
This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your efforts and perceptions associated with work. Think about your current position and organization and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 5:

[1 = Hardly Ever, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Frequently, 5 = All the time]

Task Crafting
1 Introduce new approaches to improve your work
2 Change the scope or types of tasks that you complete at work
3 Introduce new work tasks that better suit your skills or interests
4 Choose to take on additional tasks at work
5 Give preference to work tasks that suit your skills or interests
6 Change the way you do your job to make it more enjoyable for yourself
7 Change minor procedures that you think are not productive

Cognitive Crafting

8 Think about how your job gives your life purpose
9 Remind yourself about the significance your work has for the success of the organization
10 Remind yourself of the importance of your work for the broader community
11 Think about the ways in which your work positively impacts your life
12 Reflect on the role your job has for your overall well-being

Relational Crafting

13 Engage in networking activities to establish more relationships
14 Make an effort to get to know people well at work
15 Organize or attend work related social functions
16 Organize special events in the workplace (e.g., celebrating a co-worker's birthday)
17 Introduce yourself to co-workers, customers, or clients you have not met
18 Choose to mentor new employees (officially or unofficially)
19 Make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests

Attitude Toward the Color Blue (Miller & Simmering, 2022)
Please consider your thoughts about the color blue and respond below. There are no right or wrong answers. Some of the questions may be similar to one another. However, the repetition is necessary for proper statistical analysis.
[1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree]

1. Blue is a beautiful color.
2. Blue is a lovely color.
3. Blue is a pleasant color.
4. The color blue is wonderful.
5. Blue is a nice color.
6. I think blue is a pretty color.
7. I like the color blue.

Work-Family Conflict (Bellavia & Frone, 2005)

Thinking about your current work and personal life, please indicate the frequency that you have experienced each of the following feelings using the scale below.

[1 = never 2 = rarely 3 = sometimes, 4 = most of the time, 5 = all the time]

In the last 6 months, how often have you experienced…

1. Your job makes you feel too tired to do the things that need attention at home.
2. Stress at work makes you irritable at home.
3. Job worries or problems distract you when you are at home.
4. Your job reduces the effort you can give to activities at home.
5. Personal or family worries and problems distract you when you are at work.
6. Stress at home makes you irritable at work.

7. Activities and chores at home prevent you from getting the amount of sleep you need to do your job well.
8. Responsibilities at home reduce the effort you can devote to your job.

Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS: Zimet et al., 1988)
Instructions: We are interested in how you feel about the following statements. Read each statement carefully. Indicate how you feel about each statement a scale of 1 (very strongly disagree) to 7 (very strongly agree).

1. There is a special person who is around when I am in need.
2. There is a special person with whom I can share joys and sorrows.
3. My family really tries to help me.
4. I get the emotional help & support I need from my family.
5. I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me.
6. My friends really try to help me.
7. I can count on my friends when things go wrong.
8. I can talk about my problems with my family.
9. I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
10. There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.
11. My family is willing to help me make decisions.
12. I can talk about my problems with my friends.

Morning Sampling

Recovery Experience Questionnaire (Sonnetag & Fritz, 2007)

Instructions: Based on your experience last night, respond to the items with respect to how you spent your evening (e.g., "During time after work, I kick back and relax") on a 5-point scale from1 (I do not agree at all) to 5 (I fully agree).

1. I forgot about work.
2. I did relaxing things.
3. I sought out intellectual challenges.
4. I decided my own schedule

Support in Intimate Relationships Rating Scale (*SIRRS*; Dehle et al., 2001)
Instructions: Based on your experience with your romantic partner last night, please rate the amount of the interactions occurred between you and your partner. Please rate according to the following scale = 0 (did not occur), 1 (small amount), 2 (Moderate amount), 3 (high amount), 4 (very high amount).

1. Helped me think about a situation in a new way
2. Shared facts or information with me about a situation I was facing
3. Hugged me or cuddled with me
4. Said it was OK to feel the way I was feeling
5. Took my side when discussing my situation
6. Did something to help me directly

7. Did something to help me indirectly (e.g., did my chores)

Single Item Burnout (Dolan et al., 2015)

"Overall, based on your definition of burnout, how would you rate your level of burnout?"

Responses, options:

1. I enjoy my work, I have no symptoms of burnout
2. Occasionally I am under stress and I don't always have as much energy as I once did, but I don't feel burned out
3. I am definitely burning out and have one or more symptoms of burnout, such as physical and emotional exhaustion
4. The symptoms of burnout that I am experiencing won't go away. I think about frustration at work a lot
5. I feel completely burned out and often wonder if I can go on. I am at a point where I may need some changes or may need to seek some sort of help."

End of Work Shift Sampling

The Uncivil Work Behavior Questionnaire (UWBQ: Martin & Hine, 2005)

*This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your efforts and perceptions associated with work. Think about your current position and organization **during the your most recent workshift** and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 5 regarding how your perceived others in your work setting treated you:*

1 never, 2 rarely, 3 occasionally, 4 often, and 5 very often.

How often did experience the following by anyone you came into contact with associated with your job/role during your most recent workshift?

Hostility

1. Used an inappropriate tone when speaking to you.
2. Rolled their eyes at you.

Privacy Invasion

3. Interrupted you while you were speaking on the telephone.
4. Read communications addressed to you, such as e-mails or faxes.

Exclusionary Behavior

5. Avoided consulting you when they would normally be expected to do so.
6. Intentionally failed to pass on information which you should have been made aware of.
7. Were unreasonably slow in seeing to matters on which you were reliant on them for, without good reason.

Gossiping

8. Publicly discussed your confidential personal information.
9. Made snide remarks about you.
10. Talked about you behind your back.

Single Item Burnout (Dolan et al., 2015)
"Overall, based on your definition of burnout, how would you rate your level of burnout?"
Responses, options:

1. I enjoy my work, I have no symptoms of burnout
2. Occasionally I am under stress and I don't always have as much energy as I once did, but I don't feel burned out
3. I am definitely burning out and have one or more symptoms of burnout, such as physical and emotional exhaustion
4. The symptoms of burnout that I am experiencing won't go away. I think about frustration at work a lot
5. I feel completely burned out and often wonder if I can go on. I am at a point where I may need some changes or may need to seek some sort of help."

Final Survey

Main Variables

The Uncivil Work Behavior Questionnaire (UWBQ: Martin & Hine, 2005)
This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your efforts and perceptions associated with work. Think about your current position and organization __*during the past month*__ *and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 5:*
1 never, 2 rarely, 3 occasionally, 4 often, and 5 very often.
How often did experience the following by anyone you came into contact with associated with your job/role during the past month?
Hostility

1. Raised their voice while speaking to you.
2. Used an inappropriate tone when speaking to you.
3. Spoke to you in an aggressive tone of voice.
4. Rolled their eyes at you.

Privacy Invasion

1. Took stationery from your desk without later returning it.
2. Took items from your desk without prior permission.
3. Interrupted you while you were speaking on the telephone.
4. Read communications addressed to you, such as e-mails or faxes.
5. Opened your desk drawers without prior permission

Exclusionary Behavior

1. Did not consult you in reference to a decision you should have been involved in.
2. Gave unreasonably short notice when canceling or scheduling events you were required to be present for.
3. Failed to inform you of a meeting you should have been informed about.
4. Avoided consulting you when they would normally be expected to do so.
5. Was excessively slow in returning your phone messages or e-mails without good reason for the delay.

6. Intentionally failed to pass on information which you should have been made aware of.
7. Were unreasonably slow in seeing to matters on which you were reliant on them for, without good reason.

Gossiping
1. Publicly discussed your confidential personal information.
2. Made snide remarks about you.
3. Talk about you behind your back.
4. Gossiped behind your back.

Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI: Demerouti & Bakker, 2007)
This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your efforts and perceptions associated with work. Think about your current position and organization and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 4: 1 Strongly Agree, 2 Agree, 3 Disagree, 4 Strongly Disagree

1. I always find new and interesting aspects in my work
2. There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work
3. It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way
4. After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better
5. I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well
6. Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically
7. I find my work to be a positive challenge
8. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained
9. Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work
10. After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities
11. Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks
12. After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary
13. This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing
14. Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well
15. I feel more and more engaged in my work
16. When I work, I usually feel energized

Recovery Experience Questionnaire (Sonnetag & Fritz, 2007)
1. I forget about work.
2. I don't think about work at all.
3. I distance myself from my work.
4. I get a break from the demands of work.
5. I kick back and relax.
6. I do relaxing things.
7. I use the time to relax.
8. I take time for leisure.
9. I learn new things.

    10. I seek out intellectual challenges.
    11. I do things that challenge me.
    12. I do something to broaden my horizons.
    13. I feel like I can decide for myself what to do.
    14. I decide my own schedule.
    15. I determine for myself how I will spend my time.
    16. I take care of things the way that I want them done.

Support in Intimate Relationships Rating Scale (*SIRRS*; Dehle et al., 2001)
Instructions: Based on your experience with your romantic partner last night, please rate
the amount of the interactions occurred between you and your partner. Please rate
according to the following scale = 0 (did not occur), 1 (small amount), 2 (Moderate
amount), 3 (high amount), 4 (very high amount).
    1. Gave me suggestions about how to handle a situation
    2. Told me what to do to solve a problem or deal with a situation
    3. Helped me think about a situation in a new way
    4. Taught me or showed me how to do something
    5. Shared a personal experience that was similar to my situation
    6. Shared facts or information with me about a situation I was facing
    7. Restated what I had told him/her about a situation
    8. Inferred how I was feeling about a situation
    9. Hugged me or cuddled with me
    10. Kissed me
    11. Held my hand
    12. Patted or stroked me affectionately
    13. Told me everything would be OK
    14. Said he/she thought I handled a situation well
    15. Expressed confidence in my ability to handle a situation
    16. Said good things about me
    17. Said it was OK to feel the way I was feeling
    18. Took my side when discussing my situation
    19. Said he/she would feel the same way in my situation
    20. Said I was not at fault for my situation
    21. Offered to do something to help me directly w/my situation
    22. Did something to help me directly
    23. Offered to help me indirectly (e.g., offered to do my chores)
    24. Did something to help me indirectly (e.g., did my chores)
    25. Offered to do something with me to help me feel better

Single Item Burnout (Dolan et al., 2015)
    "Overall, based on your definition of burnout, how would you rate your level of
    burnout?"
    Responses, options:
    1.   I enjoy my work, I have no symptoms of burnout

2. Occasionally I am under stress and I don't always have as much energy as I once did, but I don't feel burned out
3. I am definitely burning out and have one or more symptoms of burnout, such as physical and emotional exhaustion
4. The symptoms of burnout that I am experiencing won't go away. I think about frustration at work a lot
5. I feel completely burned out and often wonder if I can go on. I am at a point where I may need some changes or may need to seek some sort of help."

Exploratory/Control Variables

Meaningful Work (Steger & Dik, 2012)

This section looks to understand how meaningful you perceive your work to be. Please rate the following items using the scale below.

[1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree]

1. I have found a meaningful career.
2. I understand how my work contributes to my life's meaning.
3. I have a good sense of what makes my job meaningful.
4. I have discovered work that has a satisfying purpose.
5. I view my work as contributing to my personal growth.
6. My work helps me better understand myself.
7. My works helps me make sense of the world around me.
8. My work really makes no difference to the world.
9. I know my work makes a positive difference in the world.
10. The work I do serves a greater purpose.

Turnover Intentions (Driscoll & Beehr, 1995)

Based on your current organization and work environment, please indicate your level of agreement or extent that you have thought about each of the following statements below.

1. Thoughts about quitting this job cross my mind. [never, rarely, sometimes, often, very often, all the time]
2. I plan to look for a new job within the next 12 months [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree]
3. How likely is it that, over the next year, you will actively look for a new job outside of this firm? [very unlikely, moderately unlikely, somewhat unlikely, somewhat likely, moderately likely, very likely]

Job Embeddedness (Clinton et al., 2012)

This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your work environment and professional fulfillment. Think about your current position and organization and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 5:

[1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree]

1. My organization provides me with a way of life that suits me.
2. Overall, I fit very well in my organization.
3. My closest friends are in my organization.
4. Overall, I have strong ties with people throughout my organization.
5. I would miss the excitement that this job brings if I left.
6. If I left, there would be many things about my organization life that I would be sad to lose.
7. The area where I am based right now is suitable for my family and friends.
8. There is plenty to keep me happy off duty around here.
9. Even if I decide to leave my organization I would still live in the area where I am based at the moment.
10. My family/partner has strong ties around the community where I am currently based.
11. Leaving the area where I am currently based would mean many personal and/or family sacrifices.
12. I would be very sad to leave the general community where I am based right now.
13. Please choose Agree for this question. [Attention Check 1]

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS: Spector, 1985, 2022)
This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your satisfaction with aspects of your job. Think about your current position and organization and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 5:

1= Disagree very much, 2= Disagree moderately, 3= Disagree slightly, 4= Agree slightly, 5=Agree moderately, 6= Agree very much
Pay
1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
2. Raises are too far and few between. (r)
3. I am unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me. (r)
4. I feel satisfied with my chance for salary increases.
Promotion
1. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job. (r)
2. Those that do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.
3. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.
4. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
Supervision
1. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.
2. My supervisor is unfair to me. (r)

3.   My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates. (r)
4.   I like my supervisor.

Benefits
1.   I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive. (r)
2.   The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.
3.   The benefit package we have is equitable. (r)
4.   There are benefits we do not have which we should have (r)

Rewards
1.   When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
2.   I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated. (r)
3.   There are few rewards for this who work here. (r)
4.   I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be. (r)

Operating procedures
1.   Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult. (r)
2.   My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.
3.   I have too much to do at work. (r)
4.   I have too much paperwork. (r)

Coworkers
1.   I like the people I work with.
2.   I find I have to work harder to my job than I should because of the incompetence of people I work with. (r)
3.   I enjoy my coworkers.
4.   There is too much bickering and fighting at work. (r)

Work itself
1.   I sometimes feel my job is meaningless. (r)
2.   I like doing the things I do at work.
3.   I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.
4.   My job is enjoyable.

Communication
1.   Communications seem good within this organization.
2.   The goals of this organization are not clear to me. (r)
3.   I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization. (r)
4.   Work assignments are often not fully explained. (r)

Job Crafting Questionnaire (JCQ: Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013)
This portion of the survey is to understand your thoughts on your efforts and perceptions associated with work. Think about your current position and organization and answer the following questions on a scale of 1 – 5:

[1 = Hardly Ever, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Frequently, 5 = All the time]

Task Crafting
1 Introduce new approaches to improve your work
2 Change the scope or types of tasks that you complete at work
3 Introduce new work tasks that better suit your skills or interests
4 Choose to take on additional tasks at work

   5 Give preference to work tasks that suit your skills or interests
   6 Change the way you do your job to make it more enjoyable for yourself
   7 Change minor procedures that you think are not productive
Cognitive Crafting
   8 Think about how your job gives your life purpose
   9 Remind yourself about the significance your work has for the success of the organization
   10 Remind yourself of the importance of your work for the broader community
   11 Think about the ways in which your work positively impacts your life
   12 Reflect on the role your job has for your overall well-being
Relational Crafting
   13 Engage in networking activities to establish more relationships
   14 Make an effort to get to know people well at work
   15 Organize or attend work related social functions
   16 Organize special events in the workplace (e.g., celebrating a co-worker's birthday)
   17 Introduce yourself to co-workers, customers, or clients you have not met
   18 Choose to mentor new employees (officially or unofficially)
   19 Make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests

Attitude Toward the Color Blue (Miller & Simmering, 2022)
Please consider your thoughts about the color blue and respond below. There are no right or wrong answers. Some of the questions may be similar to one another. However, the repetition is necessary for proper statistical analysis.
[1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree]
   1. Blue is a beautiful color.
   2. Blue is a lovely color.
   3. Blue is a pleasant color.
   4. The color blue is wonderful.
   5. Blue is a nice color.
   6. I think blue is a pretty color.
   7. I like the color blue.

Work-Family Conflict (Bellavia & Frone, 2005)

Thinking about your current work and personal life, please indicate the frequency that you have experienced each of the following feelings using the scale below.

[1 = never 2 = rarely 3 = sometimes, 4 = most of the time, 5 = all the time]

In the last 6 months, how often have you experienced…

1. Your job makes you feel too tired to do the things that need attention at home.
2. Stress at work makes you irritable at home.
3. Job worries or problems distract you when you are at home.

4. Your job reduces the effort you can give to activities at home.
5. Personal or family worries and problems distract you when you are at work.
6. Stress at home makes you irritable at work.
7. Activities and chores at home prevent you from getting the amount of sleep you need to do your job well.
8. Responsibilities at home reduce the effort you can devote to your job.

Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS: Zimet et al., 1988)
Instructions: We are interested in how you feel about the following statements. Read each statement carefully. Indicate how you feel about each statement on a scale of 1 (very strongly disagree) to 7 (very strongly agree).
1. There is a special person who is around when I am in need.
2. There is a special person with whom I can share joys and sorrows.
3. My family really tries to help me.
4. I get the emotional help & support I need from my family.
5. I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me.
6. My friends really try to help me.
7. I can count on my friends when things go wrong.
8. I can talk about my problems with my family.
9. I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
10. There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.
11. My family is willing to help me make decisions.
12. I can talk about my problems with my friends.

Appendix III. Normality and Missing Data

Measures

Overall Workplace Incivility (WI).

The data were screened for outliers and normality, and none of the items exhibited high skewness or kurtosis exceeding the cutoffs of -/+ 2.00 for skewness and -/+ 7.00 for kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). Skewness values ranged from -0.040 to 1.885, and kurtosis values ranged from -0.999 to 3.595. Univariate outliers were examined using box plots for extreme cases, and three were detected, but they were not extreme values. The computed mean value of all 20 questions was also screened to determine if the data were normally distributed. A Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that the data were not normally distributed (W =0.968, DF = 277, p $\geq$0.000). The histogram also showed that the data displayed a left skew.
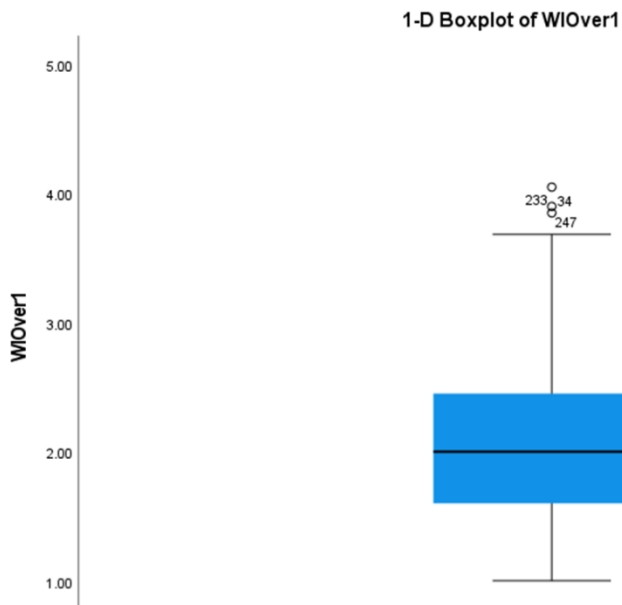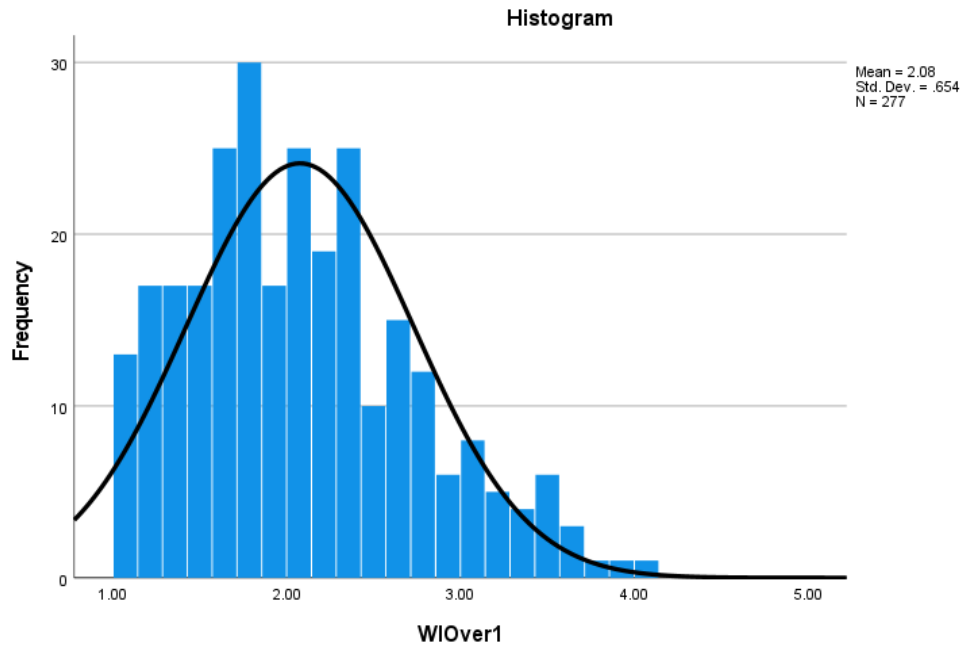
Histogram

For the collected data from the sample, there were relatively few cases where participants did not complete all 20 items of the questionnaire. Questions 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 17, and 19 each had one missing item, while question 6 had three missing items, and question 18 had two missing items. Upon reviewing the missing data at the individual case level, each missing value occurred only once in a participant.
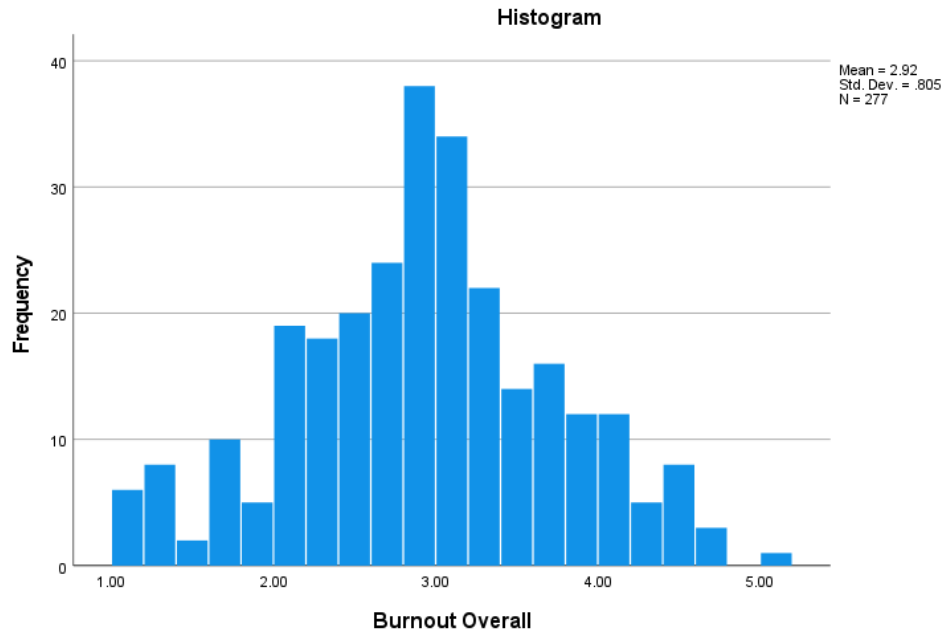
Burnout (OVERALL).

For the collected data from the sample, there were relatively few cases where participants did not complete all 16 items of the questionnaire. Questions 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, and 16 each had one missing item, while question 9 had four missing items and questions 4 and 13 had two missing items. Upon reviewing the missing data at the individual case level, each missing value occurred only once in a participant, except for one case that had two missing values. No imputation was done since the number of missing values was extremely low.

The data were screened for outliers and normality, and none of the items exhibited high skewness or kurtosis exceeding the cutoffs of -/+ 2.00 for skewness and -/+ 7.00 for kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). Skewness values ranged from -0.876 to 1.012, and kurtosis values ranged from -1.130 to 1.112. Univariate outliers were examined using box plots for extreme cases, and one was detected but not extreme.
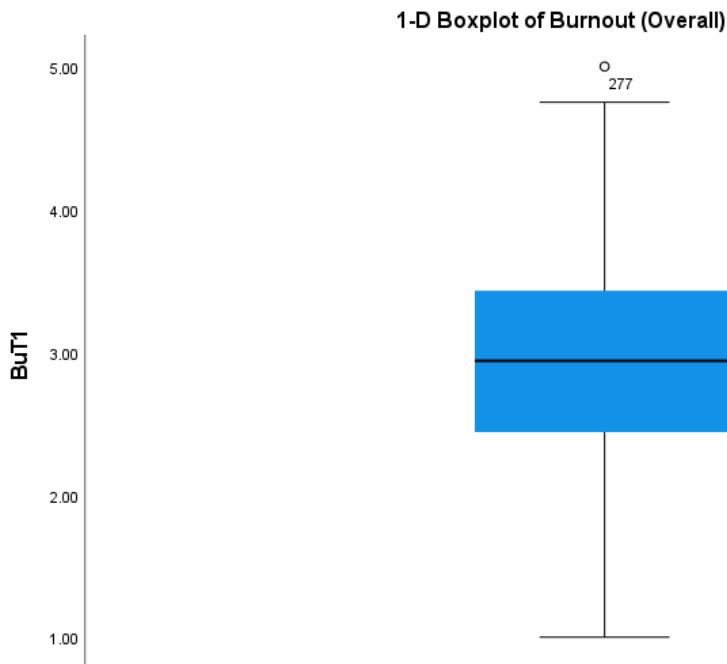
The computed mean value of all 16 questions was also screened to determine if the data were normally distributed. A Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that the data were normally distributed (W =0.991, DF = 277, p =0.085). The histogram also showed that the data were normally distributed.

Histogram

Mean = 2.92
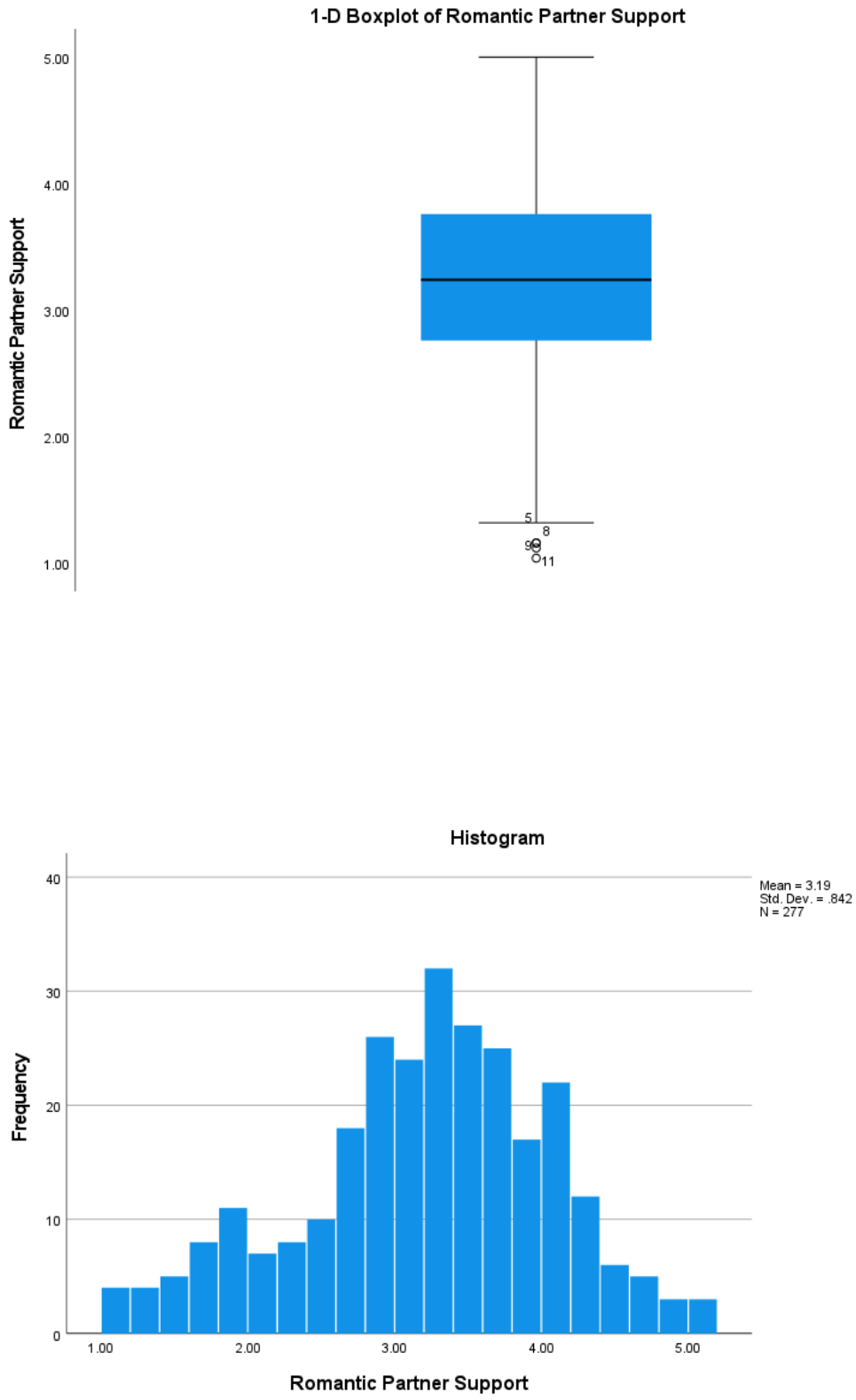Std. Dev. = .805
N = 277

Romantic Partner Support (RPS).

For the collected data from the sample, there were relatively few cases where participants did not complete all 16 items of the questionnaire. Questions 2-8, 9, 11, 14-18, 21-22, and 24-25 each had one missing item, while question 22 had four missing items, and questions 4, 8, 11, and 14 had two missing items. Upon reviewing the missing data at the individual case level, each missing value occurred only once in a participant.

The data were screened for outliers and normality, and none of the items exhibited high skewness or kurtosis exceeding the cutoffs of -/+ 2.00 for skewness and -/+ 7.00 for kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). Skewness values ranged from -0.758 to 0.282, and kurtosis values ranged from -0.794 to 0.139. Univariate outliers were examined using box plots for extreme cases, and one was detected, but it was not extreme. The computed mean value of all 25 questions was also screened to determine if the data were normally distributed. A Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that the data were normally distributed (W =0.991, DF = 277, p =0.085). The histogram also showed that the data were normally

distributed.

1-D Boxplot of Romantic Partner Support


Histogram

Mean = 3.19
Std. Dev. = .842
N = 277

Relationships Quality.

Considering that we collected items for this measure during our final sampling, there was attrition in responses. Overall, 261 of the 277 sample answered questions for this measure. For the collected data from the sample, there were relatively few cases where participants did not complete all 9 items of the questionnaire. Questions 1-2, 4-6, and 8-9 each had one missing item, while question 6 and 8 had three missing items, and question 5 had two missing items. Upon reviewing the missing data at the individual case level, each missing value occurred only once in a participant.

The data were screened for outliers and normality, and none of the items exhibited high skewness or kurtosis exceeding the cutoffs of -/+ 2.00 for skewness and -/+ 7.00 for kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). Skewness values ranged from -1.554 to -0.870, and kurtosis values ranged from -0.386 to 1.997. Univariate outliers were examined using box plots for extreme cases, and seven were detected, but they were not extreme. The computed mean value of all 9 questions was also screened to determine if the data were normally distributed. A Shapiro-Wik's test revealed that the data were normally distributed (W =0.860, DF = 261, p <0.000). The histogram also showed that the data was not normally

distributed but rather highly right-skewed.

1-D Boxplot of Relationship Quality

Histogram

Mean = 4.16
Std. Dev. = .867
N = 261
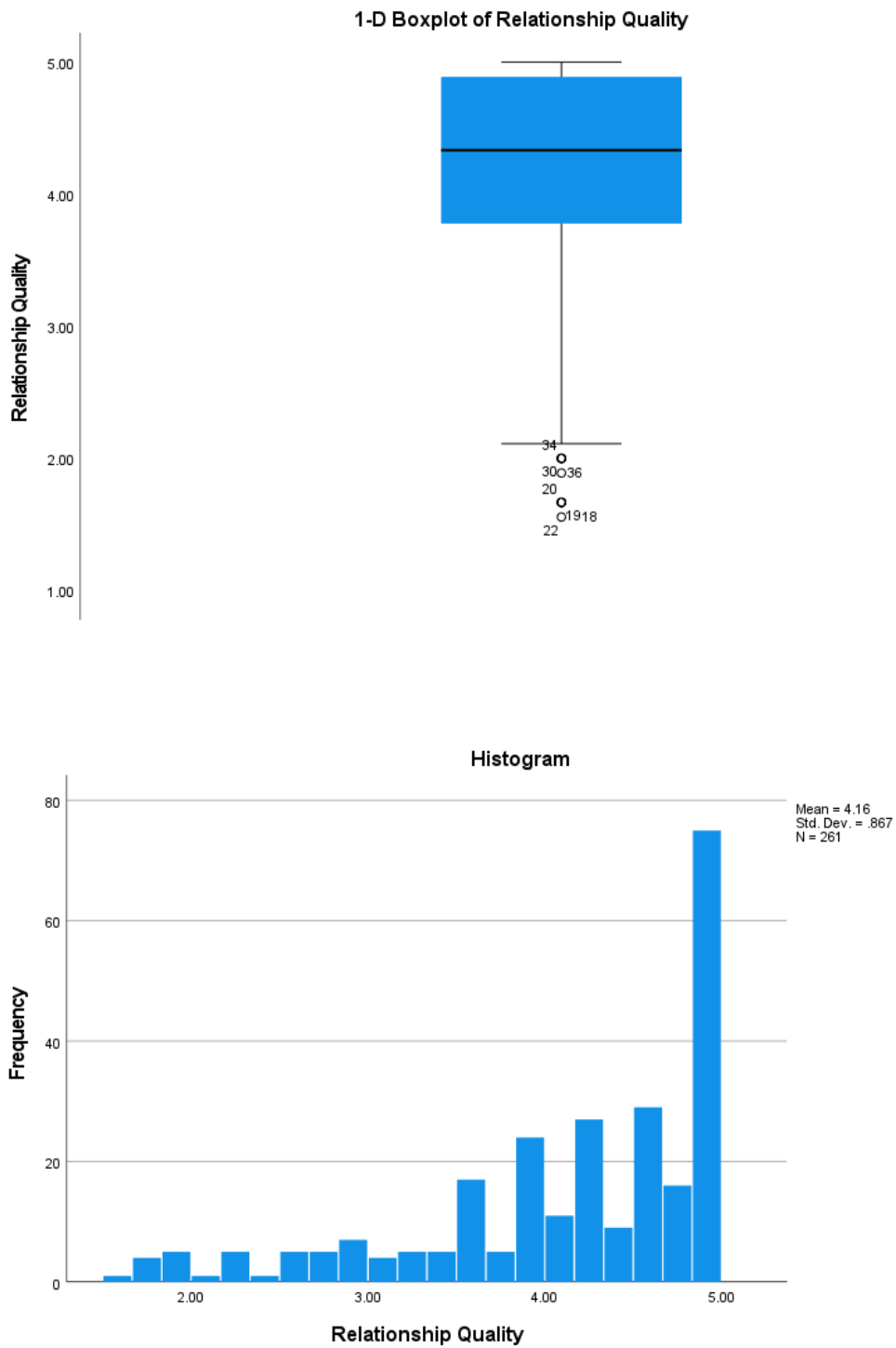
Daily Workplace Incivility. The available sample for the study consisted of 277

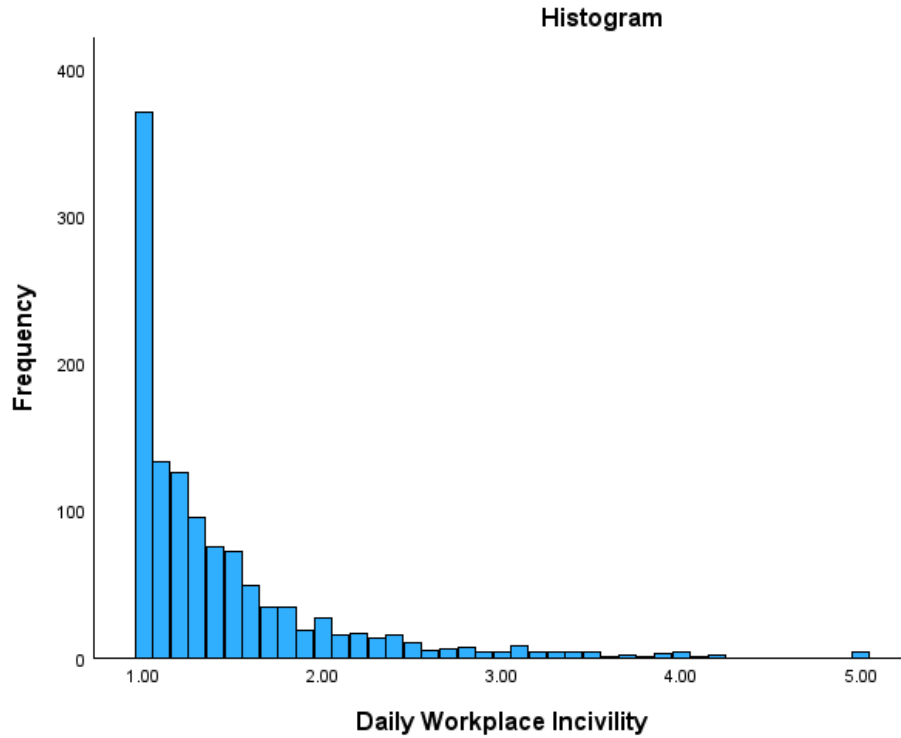participants, with response percentages between 84.16 and 90.62%.

Daily Workplace Incivility	Mean	SD	Cronbach's α	Day	% of Responses[*]
	1.438	0.614	0.910	1	90.62
				2	87.35
				3	86.68
				4	85.25
				5	84.16

[*]Total possible n=277

Additionally, each question of the daily sampling contained less than 5% missing data in

each item missing data in the questionnaire. This suggested imputation was unnecessary,

which is consistent with prior literature (Graham, 2009; Schafer & Graham, 2002).

The data were screened for outliers and normality, and none of the items exhibited

high skewness or kurtosis exceeding the cutoffs of -/+ 2.00 for skewness and -/+ 7.00 for

kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). Skewness values ranged from 1.74 to 3.757, and kurtosis

values ranged from 1.755 to 15.028. Hair et al. (2010) have cautioned against the

automatic removal of outliers, especially when sample sizes are substantial (as is the case

with our repeated sampling method). They advocate for exploring the potential reasons

behind extreme values before excluding them. In situations where the data represent

complex and multifaceted phenomena, the presence of outliers might signify certain

underlying processes, interactions, or unique occurrences that could be crucial for a

comprehensive understanding of the studied phenomenon. Therefore, we chose not to

remove the outliers.

A Shapiro-Wik's test revealed that the data were normally distributed (W =0.716,

DF = 1202, p <0.000). The histogram also showed that the data was not normally

distributed but rather highly left skewed.

Daily Recovery Experience. The available sample for the study consisted of 277

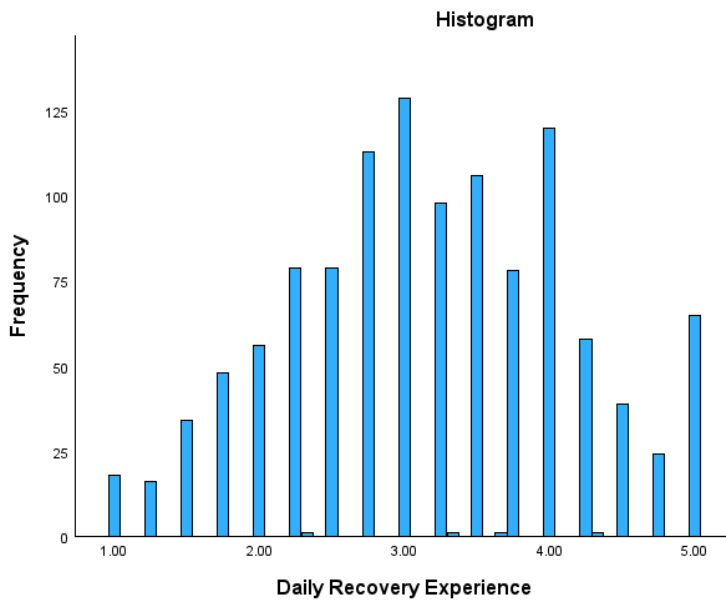participants, with response percentages between 72.924 and 88.448%.

Recovery Experience	Mean	SD	Cronbach's α	Day	% of Responses*
	3.181	0.960	0.752	1	85.199%
				2	85.921%
				3	87.726%
				4	88.448%
				5	72.924%

*Total possible n=277

Additionally, each question of the daily sampling contained less than 5% missing data in

each item missing data in the questionnaire. This suggested that imputation was not

necessary, which is consistent with prior literature (Graham, 2009; Schafer & Graham, 2002).

The data were screened for outliers and normality, and none of the items exhibited high skewness or kurtosis exceeding the cutoffs of -/+ 2.00 for skewness and -/+ 7.00 for kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). Skewness values ranged from -0.61 to 0.596, and kurtosis values ranged from -1.237 to -0.181. A Shapiro-Wik's test revealed that the data were normally distributed (W =0.982, DF = 1164, p <0.000). The histogram also showed that the data was not normally distributed but rather right-skewed.
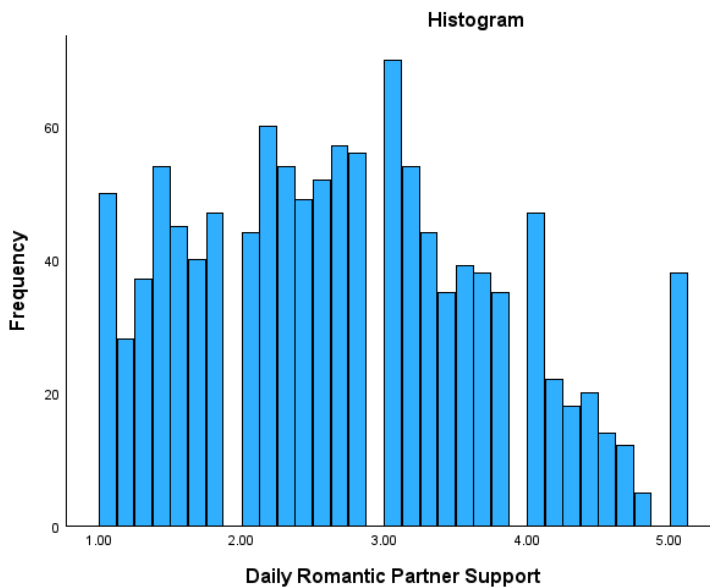

Histogram

Daily Romantic Partner Support. The available sample for the study consisted of 277 participants, with response percentages between 72.924 and 88.448%.

Romantic Partner Support	Mean	SD	Cronbach's α	Day	% of Responses*
	3.181	0.960	0.752	1	85.199%
				2	85.921%
				3	87.726%
				4	88.448%
				5	72.924%

*Total possible n=277

Additionally, each question of the daily sampling contained less than 5% missing data in

each item missing data in the questionnaire. This suggested that imputation was not

necessary, which is consistent with prior literature (Graham, 2009; Schafer & Graham,

2002).

The data were screened for outliers and normality, and none of the items exhibited

high skewness or kurtosis exceeding the cutoffs of -/+ 2.00 for skewness and -/+ 7.00 for

kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). Skewness values ranged from -0.095 to 0.425, and kurtosis

values ranged from -1.220 to -0.865. A Shapiro-Wik's test revealed that the data were

normally distributed (W =0.973, DF = 1164, p <0.000). The histogram also showed that

the data was not normally distributed but rather left skewed.


Daily Burnout

The available sample for the study consisted of 277 participants, with response

percentages between 72.924 and 88.448% for the morning sampling and between 72.924

and 87.726% for the evening sampling,

Daily Burnout	Day	% of Responses*	
		Morning	Evening
	1	85.199%	87.726%
	2	85.921%	85.921%
	3	87.726%	85.199%
	4	88.448%	72.924%
	5	72.924%	87.726%

*Total possible n=277

Additionally, each question of the daily sampling contained less than 5% missing data in

each item missing data in the questionnaire. This suggested that imputation was not

necessary, which is consistent with prior literature (Graham, 2009; Schafer & Graham,

2002).

The data were screened for outliers and normality, and none of the items exhibited

high skewness or kurtosis exceeding the cutoffs of -/+ 2.00 for skewness and -/+ 7.00 for

kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). The Skewness values were 0.598 for the morning sampling

and -0.572 for the evening sampling. Kurtosis values were -0.222 for the morning

sampling and -0.359 for the evening sampling. For both samplings, a Shapiro-Wik's test

revealed that the data were not normally distributed with the same values for both tests

(W =0.877, DF = 3263, p <0.000). The histogram also showed that the data was not

normally distributed but rather left skewed for both variables.
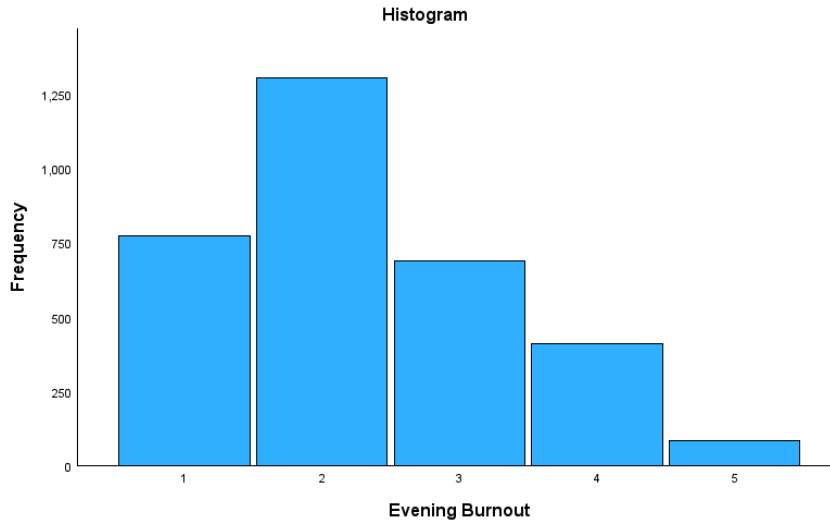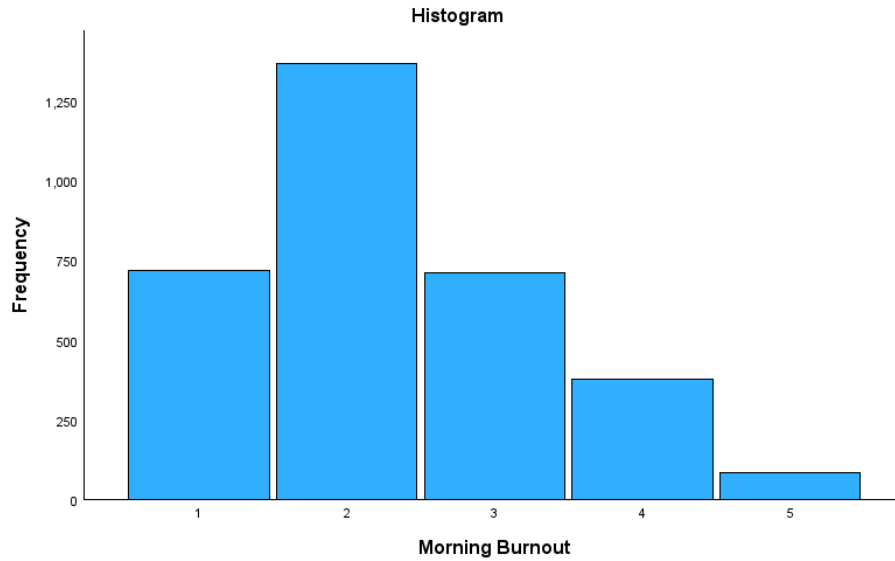
Recovery from Burnout.

The data were screened for outliers and normality, and none of the items exhibited high

skewness or kurtosis exceeding the cutoffs of -/+ 2.00 for skewness and -/+ 7.00 for

kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). We found a skewness value of -0.025 and a kurtosis value of

3.885. A Shapiro-Wik's test revealed that the data were not normally distributed (W

=0.743, DF = 3263, p <0.000). However, the histogram showed that the data appeared to

be normally distributed.

Histogram