WORKPLACE INCIVILITY IN THE CONTEXT OF HONOR CULTURE

by

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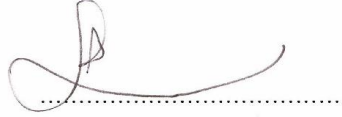Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

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Keywords: workplace incivility, honor culture, need threat, multilevel modelling,

experience sampling study, vignette study

The majority of research on workplace incivility has been conducted in the North American context, which is described as a dignity culture. In dignity cultures, individuals believe that they have an inherent worth that is determined by their adherence to their own standards of morality, decency and the like and therefore, cannot be decreased by others' opinions of or behaviors towards them. However, one may expect that the effect of workplace incivility will be different in honor cultures, where an individual's worth is highly contingent on others' approval and evaluation. This study investigated the effect of supervisor incivility and coworker incivility on basic needs (i.e. belongingness, control and self-esteem) and self-presentational behaviors of employees within an honor culture. Two research studies were conducted to test the proposed relationships. The first study was a daily diary study. In this study, the data was collected from 132 employees over a period of two-weeks and analyzed through multilevel modelling. The results indicated that daily supervisor incivility threatened daily belongingness, control and self-esteem needs of employees. Moreover, these negative effects became more pronounced for individuals with high honor orientation. Needs threats, in turn, differentially mediated the effects of workplace incivility on self-

presentational behaviors. Honor orientation acted as a first-stage moderator, increased the strength of these indirect effects. As a second study, a vignette experiment was conducted with 237 employees. This study focused specifically on the effects of supervisor incivility and primed honor via a word completion task. The results revealed that there may be similarities as well as differences in within- and between-person effects of workplace incivility. Overall, the findings of both studies suggested that workplace incivility and experienced need threats are likely to stimulate a self-protection mechanism in employees.

ÖZET

ONUR KÜLTÜRÜ BAĞLAMINDA İŞYERİ NEZAKETSİZLİĞİ

KIYMET DUYGU ERDAŞ

Doktora Tezi, Temmuz 2016

Danışman: Prof. Dr. S. Arzu Wasti

Anahtar Kelimeler: işyeri nezaketsizliği, onur kültürü, ihtiyaç tehdidi, çok düzeyli modelleme, deneyim örnekleme çalışması, senaryo deneyi

İşyeri nezaketsizliği alanındaki çalışmaların büyük çoğunluğu vakar kültürü olarak tanımlanan Kuzey Amerika'da gerçekleştirilmiştir. Vakar kültürlerinde, kişilerin değerlerini kendi tayin ettikleri standartlara uyum ile tespit ettikleri, dolayısıyla içsel değerlerinin başkalarının düşünce ve davranışları tarafından azaltılamayacağı görüşü hâkimdir. Oysaki bireyin değerinin başkalarından gördükleri onay ve değerlendirmelere fazlasıyla bağlı olduğu onur kültürlerinde işyeri nezaketsizliğinin etkilerinin daha farklı olması beklenebilir. Bu araştırma, amir ve çalışma arkadaşı nezaketsizliğinin çalışanların temel ihtiyaçları (aidiyet, kontrol ve benlik değeri) ve benlik-sunumu davranışları üzerindeki etkilerini onur kültürü bağlamında incelemiştir. Önerilen ilişkileri test etmek amacıyla iki çalışma düzenlenmiştir. İlk çalışma, iş yeri nezaketsizliğinin etkilerini günlük düzeyde değerlendiren bir deneyim örnekleme çalışmasıdır. Bu çalışmada 132 çalışandan iki hafta boyunca veri toplanmış ve bu veri çok düzeyli modelleme yöntemi ile analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, özellikle amir nezaketsizliğinin günlük aidiyet, kontrol ve benlik değeri ihtiyaçlarını tehdit ettiğini göstermektedir. Ayrıca, onur kültürü yönelimi yüksek olan bireyler için bu olumsuz etkilerin daha belirgin olduğu görülmektedir. Tehdit edilen bu ihtiyaçların ise, işyeri nezaketsizliğinin benlik-sunumu davranışları üzerindeki etkisinde farklı şekillerde aracı değişken rolü üstlendikleri görülmektedir. Onur kültürü yöneliminin

ise ilk-aşama düzenleyici değişken rolü alarak bu dolaylı etkilerin gücünü arttırdığı görülmektedir. İkinci çalışma olarak ise 237 çalışanın katılımıyla bir senaryo deneyi düzenlenmiştir. Bu çalışmada, amirin nezaketsiz davranışının etkileri üzerine odaklanılmış ve onur kavramı bir kelime tamamlama testi aracılığıyla tetiklenmiştir. Sonuçlar, işyeri nezaketsizliğinin kişi-içi ve kişiler-arası etkileri arasında benzerliklerin yanı sıra farklılıklar da olduğunu göstermektedir. Genel olarak, her iki çalışmanın sonuçları da işyeri nezaketsizliği ve ihtiyaç tehditlerinin çalışanlarda bir kendini koruma mekanizmasını tetikleyebileceğini göstermektedir.

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ANCOVA	Analysis of Covariance
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CI	Confidence Interval
DF	Degrees of Freedom
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
ICC	Intra-class Correlation Coefficient
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MANCOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Covariance
MFCA	Multilevel Confirmatory Factor Analysis
OCBs	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
OCBI	Organization Citizenship Behavior Directed at Individuals
OCBO	Organization Citizenship Behavior Directed at Organization
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index

1.

INTRODUCTION

"Disrespect of investigators pushed the head physician of Bolu Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Hospital to commit suicide. According to the claims of Turkish Medical Association and physician's family, investigators reprimanded head physician in front of the patients and their disrespectful behaviors eventually led him to suicide".

(Sabah, 7 August 2007).

"When the trains are passing by the station, we exchange greetings with the machinists. However, sometimes they do not greet me, at that moment you feel so inferior…" A Road Keeper at Railway Station

(Aljazeera Turk, 28 October, 2015)

Organizational scholars' interest in workplace incivility has mounted in recent years (e.g. Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013; Meier & Semmer, 2013; Porath & Pearson, 2012; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Whether it is in the form of reprimand or not greeting someone, research hitherto conducted has documented negative effects of workplace incivility on various outcomes such as performance (Porath & Erez, 2009), employee satisfaction (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001) and intent to remain (Griffin, 2010). However, the majority of studies on workplace incivility have been

conducted in North American context. This rather parochial approach indicates a possible gap in the literature. The experience of workplace incivility must be assessed relative to the cultural context it takes place since cultural mindsets determine the priorities of individuals and affect their thoughts, feelings and behaviors often unconsciously (Triandis, 1983).

Workplace incivility as a manifestation of lack of regard may be more important and influential for some people than others, specifically in a context where the value of an individual is socially conferred. Given the importance attributed to reputation within honor cultures, honor-oriented individuals are especially sensitive to social approval or disapproval of their behaviors (Rodriguez Mosquera, Manstead, & Fischer, 2002a). In this respect, cultural logics of honor may be especially relevant since even minor affronts may have serious consequences in honor cultures. The current investigation aims to understand the experience of workplace incivility in Turkey, which is characterized as an honor culture (Uskul, Cross, Sunbay, Gerçek-Swing, & Ataca, 2012). Hence, it provides an interesting contrast to the mainstream (largely North American) literature where the majority of studies reflect the values of a dignity culture. Dignity cultures are cultural contexts where the worth of individual is less contingent on others' evaluations or approval. According to dictates of dignity culture, the worth of an individual is inalienable so this intrinsic value cannot be taken away by other people. Put another way, unlike honor cultures, within dignity cultures the worth of an individual does not depend on approval or disapproval of others thereby not socially conferred (Kim, Cohen, & Au, 2010).

Past research on workplace incivility has usually been based on cross-sectional data so we know relatively little about the immediate psychological and motivational effects of workplace incivility. Recently scholars have called for more research that investigates the short-term effects of workplace incivility (Schilpzand, De Pater, & Erez, 2014). As an answer to this call, another contribution of this research is to investigate the effect of daily supervisor and daily coworker incivility on the daily motivation and behaviors of employees. Specifically, daily experienced incivility is expected to threaten belongingness, control and self-esteem needs of individuals within the same day. In general, individuals aim to satisfy their belongingness, control and self-esteem needs in their daily social interactions (Scott, Colquitt, Paddock, & Judge, 2010) however the social context sometimes may hinder the satisfaction of these needs (Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2009).

There are two different directions individuals can take when their basic needs are threatened (Vogel & Mitchel, in press). One possible response to need threats, based on social-exchange theory, may be engaging in destructive responses such as increase in counter-productive behaviors (Penney & Spector, 2005; Sakurai & Jex, 2012), instigated incivility (Blau & Andersson, 2005) and decrease in performance or helping behaviors (Porath & Erez, 2009).

Alternatively, one may also display self-presentational behaviors (Vogel & Mitchell, in press) that are likely to fortify or restore threatened needs by increasing one's relational value. Workplace incivility creates an identity threat (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), decreases one's social value and hurts the social image one wants to reflect in a particular situation so a convenient way of restoring or fortifying the threatened needs will be engaging in self-presentational behaviors which aim to create the desired image in the eyes of others. Impression management and self-presentational[1] concerns are especially likely to be relevant when the instigator is supervisor. Supervisors control the resources an employee values and employees strive to earn the approval and the appreciation of their supervisors. Responding with aggression as a form of self-defense (Vogel & Mitchell, in press) may increase the risk of retaliation, thereby leading to escalation of incivility spiral. Thus, especially when the instigator is the supervisor, the target may display self-presentational behaviors that are likely to increase his/her relational and social value.

Based on these literature gaps, main goals of this research may be summarized as follows:

- Using a daily diary method to examine the differential effects of daily supervisor and daily coworker incivility on threatening the basic needs of individuals, namely need for belonging, need for control and need for self-esteem.

- Related to the first goal, to investigate whether individuals employ behaviors such as impression management and organizational citizenship in order to protect, restore or fortify their threatened belongingness, control and self-esteem needs after experiencing workplace incivility.

- To find out whether individual honor orientation exacerbates the detrimental effects of supervisor and coworker incivility on daily belongingness, control and self-esteem needs

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[1] Impression management and self-presentation will be used interchangeably in this research.

and to examine whether it strengthens the proposed indirect effects of workplace incivility on self-presentational behaviors as a first stage moderator.

1.1. Outline of Dissertation

In the following sections, first I will provide a brief review of the workplace incivility research including its distinguishing characteristics, proposed antecedents, moderators, mediators and outcomes. Next, I will discuss the necessity of a cultural perspective with a special emphasis on cultural logics of honor, face and dignity. Then I will move on to discuss the specific effects of honor orientation as an individual difference variable on the experience of incivility and develop some hypotheses. In the third chapter, I will elucidate the diary study procedure and characteristics of the sample. I will follow this with the results of multilevel analysis. In the fourth chapter, I will present the procedures, sample characteristics and results of a vignette experiment. I will conclude with the summary and discussion of the results for Turkish workplace context in particular and extant workplace incivility literature in general.

2.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Workplace Mistreatment

The work context where individuals spend a remarkable amount of their time may be a fitting scene for displaying a wide array of behaviors that may have important consequences for individuals, organizations and society in general. While some of these behaviors are positive and desirable, others are negative and beyond the realms of acceptability (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006).

Negative workplace behaviors can range from intense forms of interpersonal mistreatment with clear intent such as violence and sexual harassment to less intense forms with an unclear intent such as workplace incivility. Yet, there is significant overlap among these different forms of mistreatment regarding their definitions as well as measurements (Hershcovis, 2011). Prominent scholars have different ideas about possible solutions to this concept proliferation problem. Hershcovis (2011) contends that a general concept of workplace aggression should be preferred and discriminating features of various mistreatment behaviors such as intent, intensity, frequency, perceived invisibility and perpetrator-victim relationship should be measured as moderators in related studies. Tepper

and Henle (2011), on the other hand, argue that different forms of mistreatment should be kept but their operationalization and measurement should be improved to discriminate among them. Accordingly, the authors argue that collapsing all these negative behaviors into one overarching construct may result in losing some very interesting yet subtle conceptual and theoretical distinctions. Properly defining the specific interpersonal mistreatment behavior with a special emphasis on its distinguishing characteristics such as severity, underlying intent and instigator; and using psychometrically and theoretically sound measures may help to alleviate construct overlap problem to a certain extent. To this end, in the following section, I will briefly discuss discriminating features and measurement techniques of the specific interpersonal mistreatment construct, namely workplace incivility, which is the focus of this research.

2.2. Workplace Incivility

Workplace incivility, which constitutes the motivation of this research, is a kind of interpersonal mistreatment. In their seminal article, Andersson and Pearson (1999 p. 457) define workplace incivility as "*a low intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others*". Common examples of incivility mentioned in the mainstream literature are taking credits for others' success, ignoring, belittling others, interrupting, using a condescending tone and making derogatory remarks or withholding information (Cortina, 2008; Cortina & Magley, 2009; Porath & Pearson, 2010).

Two characteristic features of incivility that distinguish it from other forms of mistreatment in the workplace are related to its intent and intensity. First of all, workplace incivility has ambiguous intent. An individual may behave uncivilly to harm an organization or an individual; or act uncivilly without intent. Intent underlying uncivil behavior may be ambiguous for the instigator, target and/or observers. Moreover, even if intention exists, the instigator of incivility can simply deny it by arguing that his behavior was misunderstood, or that the target shows hypersensitivity (Andersson & Pearson, 1999;

Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001). Secondly, workplace incivility is of a lower intensity. Compared to violence, aggression and bullying, incivility comprises of less intense behaviors which has *lower magnitude of force and lower negative charge* (Pearson et al., 2001).

Workplace incivility bears some resemblance to interactional justice as well. Interactional justice refers to the "*interpersonal treatment received during the enactment of organizational procedures*" (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997 p. 435). Workplace incivility, on the other hand, goes beyond formal procedural contexts and may be displayed by various instigators including supervisors and coworkers hence a broader concept in this respect (Penney & Spector, 2005).

Among various forms of mistreatment, studying workplace incivility in particular may be warranted for various reasons. According to the mainstream literature, workplace incivility is a prevalent phenomenon in the workplace. Specifically, it was documented that 71-79 % percent of U.S. employees from various industries encountered some form of workplace incivility in recent years (Cortina, 2008). Unlike other forms of deviant behaviors, workplace incivility thanks to its idiosyncratic characteristics (i.e. ambiguous intent and low intensity) may escape from close scrutiny of the management. Instigators of uncivil behaviors have the leverage since they can easily deny the intent of the behavior. For example, some people may use workplace incivility as a way of discrimination while still maintaining their egalitarian image (Cortina et al., 2011; Cortina, 2008). Moreover, workplace incivility may be subsumed under the category of *daily hassles* and constitute *a chronic low-key stressor*. Related to its ambiguous nature, individuals may have difficulty in finding an effective coping strategy to deal with daily uncivil behaviors. Consequently, workplace incivility as a low-key stressor may lead more harm, both psychologically and physically, compared to other major but time-limited stressors (Cortina, 2008). Considering its peculiar characteristics as well as its various negative effects, studying and understanding workplace incivility is of paramount importance. However, there is limited evidence regarding pervasiveness as well as construal of workplace incivility in different cultures. This study aims to fill this gap in the literature by examining the experience of workplace incivility in Turkish context.

In the mainstream literature, researchers have employed various scales to assess workplace incivility. For instance, Penney and Spector (2005) developed a hybrid workplace incivility measure consists of 43 items based on Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al. 2001), Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terror (Leymann, 1990) and Workplace Aggression Research Questionnaire (Neuman & Keashley, 2002). Blau and Andersson (2005), on the other hand, created an instigated incivility scale by just flipping the perspective that is referred such as making demeaning or derogatory remarks about someone, putting down others or being condescending to them in some way.

Another incivility scale, Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire (UWBQ) was developed by Martin and Hine (2005). UWBQ comprises 17 behaviors that load on four dimensions. The first dimension, hostility, consists of raising voice, using inappropriate speaking tone and rolling eyes. The privacy invasion dimension includes taking materials from one's desk, taking stuff without permission, interrupting one when he/she is on the phone and reading one's emails or faxes. The third dimension namely, exclusionary behavior comprises uncivil behaviors such as not consulting one about a decision that is of interest to him/her, not giving advance notice about canceled or rescheduled events, not communicating important information on purpose or being so slow in returning e-mails or phones. The last dimension is gossiping and it includes publicly discussing confidential information, making unkind remarks, talking about and gossiping behind one's back (Martin & Hine, 2005). Martin and Hine's work indicates that UWBQ has convergent validity; UWBQ is significantly correlated with perception of fair interpersonal treatment (Donovan, Drasgow & Munson, 1998) and WIS (Cortina et al., 2001). It also exhibits good concurrent validity; it predicts coworker satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, job withdrawal, work withdrawal, health satisfaction, psychological well-being and psychological distress. Not correlating with extrinsic organizational commitment indicates that UWBQ has also acceptable divergent (or discriminant) validity.

By far most frequently employed scale to assess incivility experiences of employees is Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS; Cortina et al., 2001). WIS is a unidimensional scale that measures the frequency of uncivil behaviors targeted at employees by their coworkers or leaders. These behaviors include making demeaning remarks, ignoring or excluding from professional camaraderie, putting one down, questioning one's professional judgment,

attempting to discuss personal matters, showing disinterest to one's opinions and addressing one unprofessionally (Cortina et al., 2001). The study of Cortina and her colleagues (2001) points out that WIS is internally consistent and has high convergent and concurrent validity. WIS displays high negative correlations with perceptions of just workplace relationships and predicts five components of job satisfaction (work, coworkers, supervisor, pay and benefits, and promotional opportunities) as well as job withdrawal and psychological wellbeing of employees. WIS scale has recently been revised by Cortina and her colleagues (2013); the new scale consists of 12 items and now also includes new items such as being interrupted, being targeted with anger outbursts and receiving hostile looks.

Both WIS (Cortina et al., 2001) and UWBQ (Martin & Hine, 2005) have internal consistency as well as adequate convergent, concurrent and discriminant validity. Martin and Hine (2005) recommend using of WIS if researchers need a brief and general measure of incivility and using of UWBQ if the aim of the study is to examine different facets of workplace incivility (i.e. hostility, privacy invasion, gossiping and exclusionary behavior).

2.2.1. Antecedents of Experienced Incivility

Researchers have hitherto examined various dispositional and situational antecedents of experienced workplace incivility. Milam, Spitzmueller and Penney (2009) argued that individuals who are low in agreeableness and high in neuroticism are more likely to be the targets of incivility because these characteristics may lead one to be perceived as provocative by others in the organization. Being overly adipose is another characteristic that was associated with being target of incivility; the study of Sliter and his colleagues showed that individuals who are overweight reported higher levels of incivility than healthy weight individuals (Sliter, Sliter, Withrow, & Jex, 2012).

Gender was also proposed as a factor that affects the experiences of workplace incivility. Cortina et al. (2001) indicate that women experience greater workplace incivility on average compared to men. Another recent study shows that target gender and race interact to predict the experience of workplace incivility. Accordingly, African American women are more likely to receive unfair treatment than African American men and whites

of both sexes thus selective incivility may constitute modern discrimination in the workplace (Cortina et al., 2013). The type of uncivil behaviors men and women instigate or experience may also vary. Lim and Teo (2009) examined a particular form of incivility called cyber incivility which does not involve face-to-face interactions, and includes "*communicative behavior exhibited in computer mediated interactions that violate workplace norms for mutual respect*" (p. 419). They indicated that employees who have male supervisors reported more active forms of cyber incivility such as being condescending, making hurtful comments or using derogatory remarks in emails while employees who have female supervisors mentioned more passive forms of cyber incivility such as using e-mail for time-sensitive messages, using e-mail for topics that entail face-to-face discussions or not returning to e-mails. Similarly, the exploratory study of Wasti, Erdaş, Cortina and Gümüştaş (2013) suggests that there are differences between uncivil behaviors reported by male and female employees. Specifically, the most frequently cited example of uncivil behavior by female employees was gossiping. More than of 50 percent of female participants reported gossiping as an example of uncivil behaviors. Following gossip, 32 percent of female participants reported ignoring. While 24 percent of female participants reported disrupting the work environment as an example uncivil behavior, none of the male employees mentioned this form of incivility. Disrupting the work environment includes behaviors such as creating tension by pouting or by not speaking, creating unrest in the work environment and disturbing people in the common environment (e.g., talking loudly on the phone). As for male employees, humiliating was the most frequently mentioned example of workplace incivility (32 %). Compared to male employees, only 8 percent of female employees cited humiliating as an example of workplace incivility. Following humiliating, 29 percent of male employees reported insulting and gossiping. Only 11 percent of male employees mentioned looking down as an example of uncivil behavior; however, 24 percent of female participants reported looking down as an uncivil workplace behavior.

2.2.2. Antecedents of Instigated Incivility

Situational or individual characteristics that lead to instigation of workplace incivility was another topic that captured attention of scholars. Meier and Semmer (2013) argued that employees behave uncivilly when their investment in the relationship with their coworkers or supervisors is not reciprocated. The lack of reciprocity causes anger which in turn leads to uncivil behaviors. Incorporating workplace incivility and conflict management literature, Trudel and Reio (2011) found that those who have integrating conflict management style are less likely to instigate workplace incivility while those who have dominating conflict management style are more likely to instigate workplace incivility. Accordingly, integrative conflict management aims to reach a win-win solution hence parties should act civilly and be concerned about each other's needs. On the other hand, dominating conflict management refers to a win-lose solution; and since people are not concerned about each other's needs or goals, they do not strive to be civil and nice in their interactions.

Another variable that may affect the experience or frequency of incivility is instigator status. Employees are more likely to receive uncivil treatment from their superiors followed by their coworkers and subordinates (Lim & Lee, 2011). It appears that superiors who have more resources and authority may abuse their power and subordinates may be more attentive or sensitive to uncivil behavior of their superiors.

Besides dispositional variables, situational or contextual variables may also affect the probability of incivility incidents. Walsh et al. (2012) emphasize the importance of civility norms in the workplace and developed a measure to evaluate the existence of these norms in the workplace. Civility norms questionnaire consists of 4 items: "*Rude behavior is not accepted by coworkers*", "*Angry outbursts are not tolerated by anyone in your unit/workgroup*", and "*Respectful treatment is the norm in your unit/work group*", and "*Your coworkers make sure everyone in your unit/workgroup is treated with respect*". The authors underlined that the behavior of the leader is critical in promoting incivility norms in the workplace (Walsh et al., 2012).

2.2.3. Outcomes of Workplace Incivility

A great number of research studies show that whatever the reasons underlying incivility, employees targeted for uncivil behaviors report less satisfaction with their jobs, supervisors, coworkers, pay and benefits or promotion opportunities and also experience psychological distress (Cortina et al., 2001; Lim & Lee, 2001).

Sakurai and Jex (2012) showed that coworker incivility is associated with decrease in work effort and increase in counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs). Although the authors did not examine the differential effects of various negative emotions such as anger or sadness, they showed that, in general, negative affect measured through job related affective well-being scale (JAWS; Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000) mediate the effect of coworker incivility on work effort and CWBs. Porath and Pearson (2012) conducted a survey study with MBA students to investigate emotional and behavioral reactions to workplace incivility. They found that perceived workplace incivility leads to anger, fear and sadness. As for behavioral reactions, anger was associated with more direct aggression towards the instigator, while fear was correlated with indirect aggression, exit and absenteeism; and sadness was associated with absenteeism. Workplace incivility increases the experience of negative affect (Zhou, Yan, Che, & Meier, 2015). When people experience incivility, they ruminate about the intention of the perpetrator or possible responses they should give; and they also worry about the threat of losing their social connections and all these factors result in feeling of negative emotions (Zhou et al., 2015). In their study with 522 U.S. employees, Bunk and Magley (2013) found workplace incivility was more likely to arouse anger and guilt rather than sadness and fear; they also showed that incivility leads to heightened emotionality and decreased optimism. Workplace incivility has negative relations with intention to remain within the organization. Griffin (2010) found that organizational level incivility which refers to the prevalence of uncivil behaviors throughout the workplace is negatively related to intention to remain,

Lim and Teo (2009) also showed that cyber incivility was negatively associated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction; and positively related to workplace deviance and intention to quit. Although not hypothesized a priori, the authors also investigated the differential effects of active (such as being condescending or making

hurtful comments) and passive (such as not returning to e-mails) forms of cyber incivility on work related attitudes and behaviors. They found that compared to passive cyber incivility, active and more direct forms of cyber incivility had stronger relationship with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to quit and workplace deviance.

The negative effects of incivility go beyond the target-instigator dyad. An online survey study conducted in U.S. indicates that witnesses of incivility experience negative emotionality. Specifically, if individuals witness incivility targeted at their same gender coworkers, they report more anger, demoralization, fear and anxiety based on reasons related to similarity-attraction theory (Miner & Eischeid, 2012). In another study, Porath and Erez (2009) showed that the creative performance and social behavior of the third parties are impaired by witnessing incivility. Surprisingly, the effect does not completely disappear even if witnesses are in a competitive work situation with the target. Moreover, deleterious effects of incivility transcend the boundaries of workplace. A recent study shows that the targets of incivility bring the stress they felt at work to home and therefore their relationships with their partners, children or parents suffer. Specifically marital satisfaction of both target and partner is impaired and family-to-work conflict of the target's partner increases (Ferguson, 2012).

The source of incivility may also have important effects on outcomes. In another study conducted in U.S., Adam and Webster (2013) found that customer, coworker and supervisor mistreatment have differential relationships with psychological stress. When each of the three sources of mistreatment was separately examined, they showed significant relations with psychological stress. However, when the effects of customer, coworker and supervisor mistreatment were simultaneously included in the same analysis, the effect of supervisor mistreatment showed no significant relationship with psychological distress. Contrary to the authors' expectation they found that coworker mistreatment had stronger relations with distress than the supervisor mistreatment (Adam & Webster, 2013). Post-hoc, they explained these unexpected findings with the availability (in terms of number of coworkers in the workplace, there are more coworkers than supervisors) and accessibility (compared to supervisors coworkers are easier to see around) of coworkers. For a complete analysis, the author notes that it may be prudent to simultaneously examine different sources of mistreatment in the same study (Adam & Webster, 2013). Regarding incivility

within a team context, in a recent study, Schilpzand, Leavitt, and Lim (2016) showed that experiencing incivility from a fellow team member leads to rumination, increased task-related stress and psychological withdrawal.

2.2.4. Mediators

Relatively few studies have tried to find out the mechanisms through which incivility affect various outcomes in the workplace (Giumetti et al., 2013). Miner-Rubino and Reed (2010) showed that workgroup incivility decreases organizational trust which subsequently mediates the relationship between work group incivility and job satisfaction, turnover intention and job burnout. The authors argued that when targeted with incivility from their fellow group members, targets become suspicious about other peoples' intentions.

The study of Taylor, Bedeian and Klumper (2012) showed that affective commitment mediates the effect of workplace incivility on citizenship performance. Employees who experience disrespectful treatment in the workplace reported less affective commitment to their organization along with low extra-role behavior. Giumetti and his colleagues (2013) showed that after experiencing incivility via email, employees felt higher negative affect and lower levels of energy. Moreover, participants had low performance in math tasks and lower engagement in uncivil condition than supportive condition and energy level mediated this relationship. Authors explained their findings based on the conservation of resources theory, according to which experiencing stressful work events such as incivility decrease individual's emotional and cognitive resources because the person would deplete his/her resources and energy by overthinking his/her feelings and the rejection that he/she experienced. Chen, Ferris, Kwan, Yan, Zhou and Hong (2013) argued that workplace incivility leads to disengagement from work role which in turn decreases task performance. Accordingly, for targets of incivility, work role would cease to be a source of self-enhancement and employees will no longer be motivated to display high level of performance in order to satisfy their desire for positive self-view.

Drawing from the Conservation of Resources Theory, Sliter, Sliter and Jex (2012) argued that both customer incivility and coworker incivility are likely to deplete cognitive, emotional and social resources of employees. This depletion of resources will result in

decreased sales performance and increased withdrawal behaviors (i.e. absenteeism, tardiness). Their findings indicate that although there is a strong positive relation between coworker incivility and absenteeism; there is no significant relationship between coworker incivility and tardiness. In a post-host discussion, the authors argued that employees do not come to work late in response to incivility because showing up late is an uncivil behavior in itself and coworkers may respond with further incivility. In other words, employees may refrain from being late to avoid commencing an incivility spiral. They also found that coworker incivility had no main effect on sales performance but the effect of coworker incivility-customer incivility interaction was significant such that there was a significant negative relation between coworker incivility and sales performance when customer incivility is high. Porath and Pearson (2012) showed that employees who feel anger after uncivil treatment display aggressive behaviors unless the instigator has higher status. When the instigator is of higher status than the target, the target is more likely to feel fear and then engage in displaced aggression against others or indirect aggression toward the instigator. The authors also found that targets who feel fear are the ones that are most likely to be absent from work.

2.2.5. Moderators

Scholars have also examined certain variables that moderate the relationship between incivility and various outcomes. Griffin (2010) showed that organizational or group level incivility moderates the relationship between individual level incivility and intent to remain. She argued that when organizational level incivility is low, the negative relationship between individual level incivility and intent to remain will be stronger because the individual will feel isolated. Supporting this argument, in a recent study, Schilipzand and her colleagues (2016) showed that experiencing incivility with another target attenuates detrimental effects of incivility; that is victims of shared incivility experience less rumination or task-related stress and engage in less withdrawal behaviors.

Sakurai and Jex (2012) found that supervisory support moderates the effect of coworker incivility on work effort. Specifically, for employees who have high supervisory support, the effect of coworker incivility on work effort weakens because supervisory

support creates an obligation to reciprocate positive treatment. According to another study, family support exacerbates the negative relationship between workplace incivility and employee wellbeing (Lim & Lee, 2011). The authors discussed that the advice of family may create tension and prove to be ineffective so family support may sometimes worsen the negative effects of stressful events. Relative status was also examined as a moderator such that the effect of sadness and fear on withdrawal behaviors (i.e. exit and absenteeism) increases when the target of incivility has lower status than the instigator (Porath & Pearson, 2012).

Time can also be an important factor when studying incivility. Meier and Gross (2015) examined the effect of supervisor incivility on instigated incivility towards supervisor through an interaction-record diary study and found no support for the proposed relation. However, when they conducted an additional analysis with a subset of their data, they found that supervisor incivility in a previous interaction is likely to lead to instigated incivility in the next interaction if the time lag between two interactions is short. Moreover they found that state exhaustion moderates this relationship. Accordingly if individuals are targeted with supervisor incivility when they feel exhausted, they are more likely to respond with instigated incivility towards supervisor (Meier & Gross, 2015). Because their self-regulatory capacities are impaired, targets cannot exert self-control and engage in anti-social behaviors (Meier & Gross, 2015).

Miner-Rubino and Reed (2010) showed that group regard moderated the link between workgroup incivility and organizational trust such that the negative relationship between workgroup incivility and organizational trust was stronger when group members have low group regard compared to members who have high group regard. The authors discuss that although members with high group regard may notice uncivil behavior of other group members, they may be more tolerant of incivility due to attributing less malicious intention.

Incivility involves the violation of mutual respect norms. However, Montgomery, Kane and Vance (2004) underlined that even within the same organization; the opinions of people may vary with regards to content of these norms. Specifically, the authors argued that gender and race may be determining factors in this respect. In their study, participant watched a video and evaluated the appropriateness of a behavior directed towards an African-American woman. The authors observed that females assessed the behavior as

more inappropriate than males and concluded that the threshold of uncivil behavior vary between males and females. Consequently, assessments of participants were affected from whether they share a similar social identity with the target in terms of race and gender.

As this brief literature review shows, most of the research cited above was conducted largely in the North American context. However, this may represent a rather parochial view. In this study, by taking a cultural perspective, I intend to explore how workplace incivility is experienced in the Turkish culture.

2.2.6. The need for a cultural perspective

Culture is "*the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes one group or category of people from another*" (Hofstede, 2001 p. 9), hence it affects how people think, feel or act. As Triandis aptly pointed out thirty years ago:

"Culture operates at such a deep level that people are not aware of its influences. It results in unexamined patterns of thought that seem so natural that most theories of social behavior fail to take them into account. As a result many aspects of organization theories produced in one culture may be inadequate for other cultures" (Triandis, 1983 p. 139 cited in Boyacıgiller & Adler, 1991).

Due to potential cultural differences, organizational scholars should be prudent about transferring scientific constructs or methodologies across nations and they should be wary of variability in the phenomenon of interest resulting from contextual differences (Rousseau & Fried, 2001). For example, Sanchez-Burks (2002) indicates that there are cultural differences in people's approaches to relationships in the workplace although the dominant view reflects the American workways and the characteristics of what he labels Protestant Relational Ideology (PRI). According to PRI, relational and affective issues belong to the non-work domain and are not welcomed within the workplace. However, in most cultures, people are particularly sensitive to relational concerns in all life domains including the workplace. As a result, it is of paramount importance that scholars are aware of American exceptionalism (Sanchez-Burks, 2002). [2]

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[2] This exceptionalism or cross-cultural anomaly about not giving so much importance to affective or relational concerns is attributed to Protestant Relational Ideology which is affected from ascetic Calvinism prevalent in particular geographic areas; this connection to Calvinism is used to explain not only cross-cultural differences (U.S. versus China, Mexico and

The prevalence of independence, freedom of choice and the post-materialist world view in Western societies affect the very questions that are asked in the mainstream organizational literature (Gelfand, Leslie, & Fehr, 2008). In that respect, a cultural perspective may enable us to ask important questions that remain unexplored thereby making a significant theoretical contribution to the mainstream literature. Since Hofstede's (1984) seminal research on cultural dimensions, numerous indigenous and cross-cultural studies have revealed the significant influence of culture as an independent variable or a moderator on constructs ranging from motivation, leadership, justice and negotiation to organizational commitment (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). Indeed, a culture-sensitive perspective has helped to identify boundary conditions of mainstream theories and to refine existing concepts. Looking from a different cultural perspective may offer a new way of understanding and assessing a phenomenon (Chen, Leung, & Chen, 2009).

2.2.7. Incivility and culture

Workplace incivility indicates a deviation from accepted social norms. A natural corollary to this definition will be that the societal culture in which incivility takes place is likely to affect the construal as well as possible effects of incivility. Incivility is not an overt-stressor and intention behind it is ambiguous so what is regarded as uncivil is likely to be affected from the perception of an individual (Sliter, Sliter, & Jex, 2012). To begin with, civility or uncivility of a particular action is determined by comparing it with expectations or commonly-held beliefs in that specific culture thus the scope of incivility as well as perceived severity of uncivil behaviors may vary across cultures. More importantly, disrespectful or uncivil treatment may have different connotations in various cultures. Specifically, some cultures may attribute greater value than others to the level of respect or disrespect an individual receives from others while determining his/her social worth (Leung & Cohen, 2011; Rodriguez Mosquera, Manstead, & Fischer, 2002b). This relative

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Korea) but also within-cultural differences (European-Americans versus Mexican Americans) (Sanchez-Burks, 2005, p.296).

importance given to being treated with respect is likely to affect psychological as well as behavioral reactions to workplace incivility.

To understand the relationship between workplace incivility and culture, cultural logics of face, honor and dignity may be especially relevant. Cultural logics create a pattern of shared scripts, behaviors and practices around a central theme thereby establishing a logical consistency and coherence for the people living in a particular culture (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Cultural logics may vary across countries as well as between individuals. I will consider the cultural logics of face, honor and dignity while studying workplace incivility. These cultural logics primarily differ in their prioritizing of internal and external evaluations of the self (Kim, Cohen, & Au, 2010). In dignity cultures, individuals are construed to be autonomous and independent, and therefore, the self-worth of a person is inherent, i.e. not based on opinions of other people. Since the self is defined by reference to self-standards, individuals are relatively invulnerable to affronts; this mindset is also apparent in the motto of "*stick and stones may break my bones, but names will never hurt me*".[3]

In face cultures, the opinions and sentiments of other people gain importance because face should be claimed from others (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Face refers to "*respectability and/or deference which a person can claim for himself from others, by virtue of the relative position he occupies in his social network and the degree to which he is judged to have functioned adequately in that position as well as acceptably in his general conduct*" (Ho, 1976 p. 883). Hierarchy, humility and harmony are three important aspects of face cultures.

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[3]One may argue that internal vs. external evaluation of self in dignity and face cultures bears a strong resemblance to autonomous vs. controlled motivation discussed under self-determination theory. Although these concepts may be related to a certain extent, they are different, for instance internal evaluation in dignity cultures signals being independent and not relying on others, while autonomy discussed under self-determination theory (SDT) is concerned with "being volitional, or endorsing one's goals and actions" (Chirkov, Ryan, & Willness, 2005 p. 425). SDT is a theory of human motivation which discriminates between autonomous versus controlled motivation. SDT is concerned with the motivation underlying the behaviors of individuals, specifically it examines to what extent the behavior of an individual is self-determined (Deci & Ryan, 2002). SDT focuses on different types of behavioral regulations ranging from external regulation and introjection to identification and integration. Cultural orientations or values indicate certain socially constructed meanings or practices; autonomous versus controlled regulation may help to understand to what extent individuals internalize cultural values and how this internalization may affect their behavioral choices (Chirkov et al. 2005; Chirkov, 2007; Sheldon, Elliot, Ryan, Chirkov, Kim, Wu et al., 2004). Related studies show that internalization of cultural values may vary across people in a particular culture hence; applied to internalization of cultural logics, individuals may display culturally appropriate behaviors for different reasons within face, honor or dignity cultures (Chirkov et al., 2005; Chirkov, 2007). We may argue that one may engage in culturally appropriate behaviors or pursue culturally salient goals (such as being an honorable person) to avoid punishment, to get rewards (external regulation), to gain approval (introjected regulation), to avoid guilt or shame (integrated regulation) or lastly to do something that is personally important (identified regulation) (Chirkov et al., 2005; Chirkov, 2007).

These 3 Hs of face cultures are influential on determining the appropriate behavior in related situations (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Specifically, in line with the tenets of Confucian philosophy, to maintain harmony one has to fulfill role obligations and meet role requirements (Heine, 2001). Relationships and associated roles connect people to each other. These relationships are embedded within a stable hierarchy and individual has a particular place and a set of obligations or duties linked to that role. Displaying behaviors that do not fit one's role may cause one to lose face (Heine, 2001). A corollary of the stable hierarchical contexts within face cultures is that some people have more face than others. Individuals are expected to defer to hierarchy; display humility and refrain from acclaiming more status than others are willing to accord them. Otherwise they may disrupt the harmony (Kim et al., 2010; Kim & Cohen, 2010).

Like face, honor is also a concept that should be socially conferred (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Honor refers to "*the value of a person in his own eyes but also in the eyes of his society. It is his estimation of his own worth, his claim to pride, but it is also the acknowledgement of that claim, his excellence recognized by his society, his right to pride* (Pitt-Rivers, 1965 p. 21). Honor and face are similar in terms of dependence on others; however, they differ in their reaction to misconduct. In face cultures, punishment by superiors is preferred because direct punishment of the victim is regarded as disruptive and inappropriate. In honor cultures, on the other hand, direct retribution of the victim is required. In honor cultures, there are strong reciprocity norms which may facilitate the escalation of misconducts. Contrary to the hierarchical context of face cultures, honor cultures are associated with a competitive environment of equals where people can use challenge or competition to gain reputation. In face cultures, due to characteristics such as admitting your place in the hierarchy and maintaining harmony; resignation, to a certain extent, takes place when encountered with public judgment (Kim et al., 2010; Leung & Cohen, 2011). In honor cultures, people should be assertive and courageous to deal with competition or conflicts.

Interestingly, politeness and violence coexist in honor cultures. The duality of politeness and violence may seem counter-intuitive at first sight; however, it is the threat of violence that leads to politeness. In other words, politeness, hospitality and violence go hand-in-hand in honor cultures because people of honor culture fear the prospect of

escalating violence if they offend others and politeness is a proper means of preventing long spirals of revenge (Cohen, Vandello, Puente, & Rantilla, 1999; Cohen & Vandello, 2004). Cohen and his colleagues (1999) support this argument with a number of experiments they conducted in the United States. In one of their studies, they showed that although Southerners (who are assumed to have honor culture) did not show anger to an annoying confederate at the beginning; after a certain threshold, they gave an abrupt and more severe reaction than Northerners. The authors evinced that although the South is characterized as the friendliest and helpful part of the United States, the civility and politeness norms do not prevent people from engaging in violence when it is required.

In a recent study, drawing on cultural logics of face, honor and dignity, Severance and her colleagues (2013) investigated the structure of aggression across cultures and emphasized that the perception of aggressive actions are socially constructed, that is, affected by cultural orientations. They used a comprehensive list of negative behaviors including hitting someone, damaging one's property, pushing, stealing, threatening, insulting, yelling, using an aggressive voice tone, interrupting, making angry gestures, excluding, ruining one's work, insulting one's family and gossiping. It is apparent that some of these behaviors may be regarded as uncivil. Undergraduate students from the United States, Pakistan, Israel and Japan compared aggressive behaviors based on their similarities and rated them along some target and mechanism related items. The results of Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) analysis indicated that there are emic as well as etic dimensions of aggression. Specifically, damage to self-worth and direct versus indirect aggression emerged as universal dimensions of aggression. However, physical versus verbal dimension of aggression only occurred in Pakistan and Japan, and infringement to personal resources dimension was identified only in Israel and the United States. One dimension, the degree of threat, emerged only in Pakistan which is characterized as an honor culture. Degree of threat is about "*the extent to which an aggressive act may damage a victim via either physical or emotional pain*" (Severance et al., 2013 p. 855). Verbal aggression was perceived as especially threatening in Pakistan because as authors aptly mentioned, in honor cultures statements of violent intent through verbal aggression may be conceived as a promise or obligation, not just a spurious threat. The study by Severance and her colleagues shows that the dimensions or criteria individuals use to evaluate or

categorize aggression vary across cultures and the cultural logics of honor, face, and dignity may be helpful to explain this variance.

People in honor cultures ascertain their social image by looking at the respectful or disrespectful behaviors of others towards them. Respect is a very important norm within cultures of honor (Leung & Cohen, 2011; Severance et al., 2013) and incivility, which involves deviation from respect norms which may have serious consequences in honor cultures. In a related study, Miner, Kelley, Karns, and Smittick (under review) argued that males from the U.S. South and the U.S. North may be differentially affected from workplace incivility. Specifically, they claimed that due to culture of honor, males from the U.S. South would feel more demoralized after incivility and engage in more aggression after experiencing incivility. They tested their hypotheses via an on-line survey study conducted in the restaurant industry and found support for the hypothesized relationships. However, their results must be evaluated with caution as they used region as a proxy for honor culture and did not directly measure honor values thereby neglecting any within-culture variance in honor values. As a second limitation, their sample did not include any female employees.

With the notable exception of Uskul and her colleagues' recent studies (e.g., Uskul et al., 2012; Cross et al., 2014; Cross, Uskul, Gercek-Swing, Alozkan, & Ataca, 2013), the majority of research regarding honor cultures has been conducted in the U.S. South where honor values coincide with the cultural orientation of individualism. In such contexts, conceptions of honor are affected by values that give precedence to autonomy and independence. However, in collectivistic countries such as Turkey, conceptions of honor emphasize interdependence and include behaviors or attributes of in-group members such as relatives or close others (Rodriguez Mosquera, Manstead, & Fischer, 2002b; Uskul et al., 2012) so the conception of honor is relative rather than absolute (Rodriguez Mosquera et al., 2002b). Wasti et al. (2013) investigated the content of workplace incivility in Turkey, where honor culture values coincide with collectivism. Compared to uncivil behaviors identified in the mainstream literature (Cortina et al. 2001; Martin & Hine, 2005), they found some significant differences in the construal of workplace incivility in the Turkish culture. To begin with, Turkish employees came up with more examples of non-verbal uncivil behaviors such as ignoring, ostracizing, disrupting the work environment, not

greeting a colleague and slamming the door. These non-verbal and less confrontational forms of incivility are in line with the characteristics of a context delineated with multiplex and harmonious relationships.

Another interesting finding of Wasti and her colleagues (2013) was that Turkish employees referred to uncivil behaviors related to the performance of in-role tasks such as misleading about work related matters, giving unconstructive feedback and assigning blame. Uncivil behaviors related to in-role performance can also be subsumed under inconspicuous forms of incivility which do not directly damage harmony. In their second study conducted with students in the business school, the results of multidimensional scaling analysis suggested that Turks cognitively map uncivil behaviors along two dimensions namely, work-related versus non-work related and conspicuous versus inconspicuous. Accordingly, people differentiate work-related uncivil behaviors such as appropriating a colleague's ideas and interrupting one during meeting from non-work related incivility such as gossiping and interfering with private life. Turkish people also discriminate between conspicuous forms of incivility such as humiliating and making condescending remarks; and inconspicuous forms of incivility such as ignoring and not greeting. In line with high power distance values, their results also showed a perceived difference between uncivil behaviors of coworkers and supervisors (Wasti et al., 2013). In another words, Turkish employees consider power relationships when evaluating workplace incivility. Discriminating uncivil behaviors based on the source of uncivil behavior makes sense since in high power distance countries such as Turkey; people in positions of authority have strong influence on the lives of subordinates.

Culture may affect the construal as well as the effects of workplace incivility. Based on the research documenting the importance of culture, in the following section, I will develop my hypotheses with a context-sensitive approach.

2.3. Current Study and Hypothesis Development

Identity is "*the subjective concept of oneself as a person*" (Vignoles, Regalia, Manzi, Golledge, & Scabini, 2006 p. 309); it is an inclusive concept involving individual,

relational and group levels of self-presentation. Identity refers to a subjective psychological experience that is simultaneously shaped and affected by cognitive, affective and social interaction processes (Vignoles et al., 2006). A significant source of identity validation, in this respect, is the treatment of others to the individual (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). Concordantly, Andersson and Pearson (1999), in their seminal article, noted that workplace incivility has potential to create an identity threat. Identity threat can be defined as *"any action by another party that challenges, calls into question, or diminishes a person's sense of competence, dignity, or self-worth"* (Aquino & Douglas, 2003 p. 196). Disrespectful treatment of others may create an identity threat because uncivil and disrespectful treatment communicates that the target is not a moral or worthy individual who deserves respect, attention and fair treatment (Aquino & Douglas, 2003).

By casting doubt on one's sense of self-worth and positive identity, workplace incivility may thwart the achievement of some basic needs of individual, namely need for belonging, need for control and need for self-esteem. As Baumeister and Leary (1995 p. 497) aptly argued *"human beings have a pervasive drive to form and maintain at least a minimum quantity of lasting, positive, and significant interpersonal relationships"*. Indeed, according to belongingness theory, one of the most important drives of people is to form and maintain interpersonal relationships. The need to belong is expected to be found in every culture although the intensity and the ways to satisfy it may vary among different cultures (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Workplace incivility, i.e., disrespectful treatment in the form of ignorance, belittling or humiliating signals that one is not accepted by others so may be expected to threaten the belongingness need.

Another important motive for humans is their need to control their environment (White, 1959). Workplace incivility is ambiguous with respect to intentions underlying the behaviors (Cortina, 2008; Cortina et al., 2001); and many of the behaviors subsumed under workplace incivility are usually unclear about the intentionality or hostility such as doubting one's judgment on a matter over which she or he has responsibility (Ferris, Yan, Lim, Chen, & Fatimah, in press). This uncertainty in terms of harm and intention may create feelings of anxiety (Ferris et al., in press) and a lack of control for the individual; thus workplace incivility is also likely to threaten the control needs of people.

The pursuit of self-esteem or feeling good about oneself is also accepted as a fundamental human need (Allport, 1955, Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993, Leary, 1999; Maslow, 1968). Basically self-esteem refers to an individual's assessment about his/her competencies (Rosenberg, 1965). In fact, self-esteem is a multifaceted construct meaning that it may be relevant in different self-related areas (Gardner & Pierce, 2011) including the work domain. Self-esteem within an organizational context is referred as organization-based self-esteem. Pierce and his colleagues (1989, p.625), define organization-based self-esteem as *the degree to which an individual believes him/herself to be capable, significant and worthy as an organizational member*". It mirrors employee's self-evaluation regarding how important, competent or capable he/she is as an organization member. An employee with high organization-based self-esteem believes that he/she is counted, makes a difference and is trusted within his/her organization (Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

Satisfaction of the self-esteem need is closely related with one's quality of relationships with others. As stated in sociometer theory, self-esteem functions as a psychological meter that appraises and monitors one's quality of relationship with others (Leary, 1999; Leary & Downs, 1995; Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995). Accordingly, the sociometer constantly evaluate to what extent others consider their relationship with the target as important and valuable. When one's relational value decreases, the sociometer regards this as a threat and stimulates the individual to cope with it. Any treatment that signals low relational value decreases state self-esteem while any treatment that signals high relational value increases state self-esteem (Leary, 1999; Leary, Haupt, Strausser, & Chokel, 1998). By maintaining or enhancing self-esteem, people consider that they also boost their relational value in the eyes of others (Leary, 1999). Since it is a monitor for relational evaluation, *self-esteem is sensitive to real or potential reactions of other people* (Leary, 1999 p. 34). The events such as failures or criticisms that decrease self-esteem are also the events that have potential to decrease one's relational evaluation (Leary, 1999). Whether in the form of ignorance, exclusion or humiliation, uncivil treatment to the target implies that one is not a valuable relational partner and that he/she is not a trusted, accepted and essential member of the workgroup. Based on these arguments following hypothesis are proposed:

Hypothesis 1. Daily supervisor incivility is positively related to daily belongingness threat (H1a), daily control threat (H1b) and daily self-esteem threat (H1c).

Hypothesis 2. Daily coworker incivility is positively related to daily belongingness threat (H2a), daily control threat (H2b) and daily self-esteem threat (H2c).

Incivility may come from different sources including supervisors and coworkers. However our knowledge regarding the correlates, antecedents and outcomes of incivility in relation to different sources is rather limited (Schilpzand et al., 2014). The relative status of the instigator vis-à-vis the target gains importance not only in determining the proper response to interpersonal mistreatment (Porath, Overbeck, & Pearson, 2008) but it may also affect emotional and motivational consequences of workplace incivility. People may be more concerned hence attribute more importance to the treatment of their supervisors since their treatment provides information about the status of the individual within the work group (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Group-value theory (Lind & Tyler, 1988) may help to understand the effects of supervisor's uncivil and disrespectful treatment on the basic needs of employees. Group-value theory proposes that people have tendencies to belong to social groups and they are attentive to signs or symbols that give information about their relative standings or status within a group. Accordingly, one's social standing or status would be enhanced if he/she is treated with respect by a person in a position of authority. On the other hand, disrespectful and impolite treatment by a person in a position of authority may be especially threatening since it signals that one is not a respected and valued full member of the group (Tyler & Lind, 1992) so I propose the following hypothesis regarding the differential effects of supervisor and coworker incivility on daily need threats:

Hypothesis 3. Daily supervisor incivility has stronger positive relationship with daily belongingness threat, control threat and self-esteem threat than daily coworker incivility.

Compared to dignity cultures, people in honor cultures have a heightened need to be valued and approved by other people. Their self-worth is more contingent on the approval and disapproval of others (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001). People of dignity cultures, on the other hand, believe that one's worth cannot be determined by others hence their construal of

worth reflects "*freedom from external constraints*". Kim and his colleagues (Kim & Cohen, 2010; Kim, Cohen & Au, 2010) argue that dignity cultures may be regarded as a specific kind of individualistic culture namely, Tocquevillian individualism which reflects:

"*A kind of inertness or detachment from others- with the individualist less affected by judgments arising from another person's imagination...In becoming self-centered, he or she moved away from a dependence on worldly praise and a concern for another's social position*" (Dworkin, 1996 p. 175 cited in Kim & Cohen, 2010).

Concern for autonomy and agency leads and determines behaviors of people in dignity cultures. Desire to maintain their sovereignty may require disregarding others' negative or positive evaluations of the self and not taking their ideas as a determinant of self-worth (Kim et al., 2010). Honor-oriented people, however, are expected to be vigilant and sensitive to uncivil behaviors that are likely to hurt their social image because respectful treatment of others is a necessary condition to both maintain personal relationships and develop new ones. Therefore, the effect of uncivil behaviors on thwarted needs will be more pronounced for honor-oriented individuals:

Hypothesis 4. Individual honor orientation moderates the relationships of daily supervisor incivility with daily belongingness threat, daily control threat and daily self-esteem threat such that the relationship between daily supervisor incivility and daily need threats will be stronger when the honor orientation of an individual is high.

Hypothesis 5. Individual honor orientation moderates the relationships of daily coworker incivility with daily belongingness threat, daily control threat and daily self-esteem threat such that the relationship between daily coworker incivility and daily need threats will be stronger when the honor orientation of an individual is high.

When targeted with interpersonal mistreatment such as workplace incivility, individuals should decide how to react (Porath & Pearson, 2012). Aggression is one of the most studied responses to interpersonal mistreatment in this respect. The study of Leary and his colleagues on the link between rejection and aggression may help to understand why aggression is regarded as a proper response to mistreatment. Based on a comprehensive literature review, Leary, Twenge and Quinlivan (2006) mentioned different motives that lead people to give aggressive responses. Accordingly, victims may respond

with aggression to ease the pain and frustration they experience, to reaffirm their social standing, control and self-esteem or to take revenge thereby restoring equity. In addition to aggression, one may also respond to mistreatment with avoidance and withdrawal. Indeed, when they become targets of mistreatment, victims may engage in various forms of withdrawal. More specifically, they may display exit-related withdrawal behaviors and leave their organization. Alternatively, although they do not physically leave their organizations, they may display work-related withdrawal behaviors such as lateness and absenteeism (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2004). Similarly, they may also engage in psychological withdrawal, that is individual becomes psychologically or mentally alienated from the work (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

Workplace incivility threatens the basic needs of humans and creates a disequilibrium which has to be repaired and restored in order to go back to an equilibrium state. Individuals may choose among a number of alternative behaviors to restore this balance (Richman & Leary, 2009). Although retaliation or aggression is the most frequently cited response to mistreatment (Porath & Pearson, 2012; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012), when considered in the context of need threat as well as identity threat, there may be alternative, possibly indirect ways of restoring the thwarted needs. In their theoretical paper, regarding possible reactions to rejection, Richman and Leary (2009) discuss three categories of responses, namely relationship-promoting responses, aggressive and anti-social responses; and lastly, withdrawal and avoidance responses. Accordingly, people who are rejected may engage in behaviors that are likely to increase their relational value and probability of acceptance such as increasing performance or displaying cooperative behaviors. In an experimental study, Williams, Cheung and Choi (2000) showed that exposure to ostracism increased conformity of individuals; in particular, ostracized individuals agreed more with the incorrect answers of their partners compared to others who are not ostracized[4]. This experiment was an online study and 213 participants from fourteen different countries participated in the research; majority of participants was from U.S. (59%) and Australia (32%). In another experimental study, Jamieson, Harkins and Williams (2010) showed that when ostracized participants knew that their performance on a cognitive task will be

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[4] Ostracism refers to one's perception of being ignored and excluded by others, and it is a kind of interpersonal mistreatment just like incivility. Although workplace incivility includes behaviors such as ignoring and excluding, it may be regarded as a broader concept than ostracism. Still, studies on workplace ostracism may help to better evaluate possible responses to workplace incivility.

evaluated by people who rejected them, they increased their performance on a cognitive ability task. Moreover, the need to belong, that is their motivation to affiliate with others, mediated this relationship.

Regarding the repertoire of responses people may prefer as a reaction to mistreatment and associated self-esteem threat, in a recent study on abusive supervision, Vogel and Mitchell (in press) argued that decreased self-esteem can motivate two kinds of behaviors, namely, self-destructive behaviors and self-presentational behaviors. The authors found that victims of abusive supervision engage in façade, which is a kind of self-presentational behavior that give the impression that one is sharing the values of organization, and ingratiation (i.e. an impression management behavior aims to appear as likeable) to increase their self-esteem and relational worth.

Based on these theoretical arguments, I argue that supervisor and coworker incivility may motivate impression management or self-presentational behaviors via increasing belongingness, control and self-esteem threats. Specifically, I argue that on days they experienced workplace incivility, employees may be more likely to engage in self-presentational behaviors that will fortify their thwarted needs, repair their damaged identities and increase their relational worth.

Goffman was one of the first people who discussed the theory of impression management. In in his seminal book titled "*Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*" published in 1959, he argued that social interaction may be considered as a theater and people are the actors who play various roles on the stage. Since his pioneering study, researchers have examined the impression management in various contexts and have offered elaborate definitions. Leary and Kowalski (1990, p. 34) defined impression management as "*the process by which individuals attempt to control the impressions others form of them*". Tedeschi and Riess (1981, p. 3) argued that impression management refers to "*any behavior by a person that has the purpose of controlling or manipulating the attributions and impressions formed of that person by others*". Similarly, Jones and Pitmann (1982, p. 233) stated that impression management behaviors are those that aim to "*elicit or shape others' attributions of the actor's dispositions*". What is common in all these definitions is the underlying motivation of impression management that is to affect attributions made by other people about the individual (Wayne & Liden, 1995).

By using impression management behaviors, employees strive to affect the perception others have of them and align impressions other people have of them with their desired images (Wayne & Liden, 1995). The impressions people make affect how others perceive, evaluate and treat them as well as their evaluations about themselves. A number of research studies show that impression management behaviors indeed influence employee's performance rating and his/her likeability in the eyes of supervisor (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006). People want to create certain images because the impressions they make affect how other people perceive and treat them (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). A favorable image in the eyes of others may bring respect, promotion and rewards while an unfavorable image leads to damaged reputation (Kacmar & Tucker, 2016). In this regard, employees may have short-term or long-term goals in their minds while displaying impression management behaviors (Wayne & Liden, 1995). For instance, an employee may do a favor to his/her supervisor because, as a short-term goal, he/she wants to take the afternoon off or as a long term goal, he/she desires to receive a better performance evaluation, promotion or compensation (Wayne & Liden, 1995).

People constantly monitor their environment to evaluate the impressions other people make of them and this evaluation usually take place in a *preattentive* or nonconscious level (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Any event that threatens one's positive identity stimulates him/her to take actions in order to restore it (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). Drawing from this approach, uncivil treatment of others communicates that peoples' impression of the target is not aligned with his/her desired positive identity that he/she wants to reflect in a particular social context. Employees may engage in different forms of self-presentational behaviors to prove to others that they are a valuable member of the work group thereby fortify their thwarted needs.

Jones and Pitman (1982) proposed different forms of impression management behaviors each of which increases the individual's control and influence in his/her environment. First one of these is exemplification. Through exemplification, individual desires to reflect qualities such as integrity, self-sacrifice and moral worthiness. Showing his/her moral worthiness, the exemplifier may arouse feelings of guilt in the target person. By presenting an image of honest, generous and self-sacrificing individual, the exemplifier signals that he/she deserves support of others (Jones & Pitman, 1982). Exemplifiers may

come to work early, stay late or volunteer for difficult tasks so that others know how hardworking they are. The exemplifier wants others to know that he/she works in the weekend or without a day-off for months so they do their advertisement (Rosenfeld et al. 2002). By using exemplification, one may garner the respect and admiration of others (Lee, Quigley, Nesler, Corbett, & Tedeschi, 1999). Especially in the context of supervisor-subordinate relationships, the attributes of competence, morality and responsibility gain importance; these are the characteristics one wants to reflect in this specific relationship context to achieve approval, recognition and acceptance (Leary & Allen, 2011). Based on these arguments, I propose that in order to restore their thwarted needs on a day they are targeted with workplace incivility; employees will display more exemplification behaviors than they did on a regular day. In line with the requirements of the contemporary mediation model (Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Chen et al., 2013), I propose the following relations:

Hypothesis 6. Daily belongingness threat (Ha6), daily control threat (H6b) and daily self-esteem threat (H6c) mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily exemplification.

Hypothesis 7. Daily belongingness threat (H7a), daily control threat (H7b) and daily self-esteem threat (H7c) mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily exemplification.

Another impression management tactic through which employees can restore their threatened needs is self-promotion. By engaging in self-promotion, an individual wants to reflect an image of competence in the form of general intelligence or a specific skill (Jones & Pitman, 1982). By using self-promotion, one tries to direct attention to his/her accomplishments so that he/she will be regarded as a competent and successful person (Rosenfeld et al., 2002). Self-promotion may restore threatened needs because being competent or to be seen as competent means you deserve respect. Self-promotion may share some qualities of ingratiation and intimidation in that being competent may lead to be liked and respected for your good qualities, and to a certain extent competent individuals are regarded as intimidating. However, there are also some differences as self-promotion requires being active and somehow aggressive, such that if one wants to be regarded as

competent by his/her boss, he/she must goes out of his/her way by saying or doing something. Ingratiation, on the other hand, can also be passive such as engaging in nonverbal acts like smiling or deferring to another person (Rosenfeld et al., 2002). Moreover, self-promotion will be more likely when there is opportunity to publicly impress a higher-status target (Rosenfeld et al., 2002). Based on these, I argue that engaging in behaviors that will promote one's abilities, competences and achievements may help to restore one's threatened needs after experiencing workplace incivility in a particular day so I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8. Daily belongingness threat (H8a), daily control threat (H8b) and daily self-esteem (H8c) threat mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily self-promotion.

Hypothesis 9. Daily belongingness threat (H9a), daily control threat (H9b) and daily self-esteem (H9c) threat mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily self-promotion.

Another self-presentational behavior employees may engage in order to restore their needs after experiencing workplace incivility is intimidation. Intimidation is a self-presentational behavior that aims to convey the image of a dangerous person (Jones & Pitman, 1982). Through intimidation, employee wants to create fear by signaling that he/she has the power to create pain or any kind of discomfort if she/he desires (Jones & Pitman, 1982). Jones and Pitman (1982) argue that the concept of threat is central in the discussion of intimidation; the threat signaled through intimidation does not need to be overt but may be vague or implicit. The intimidator communicates to other people that when he/she is annoyed, he/she may be vengeful and may display irrational or unpredictable behaviors. The intimidator enhances his/her reputation at work via creating a dangerous identity and communicates to others that one's threats or warnings should be taken seriously or negative consequences will follow (Rosenfeld et al., 2002).

Uncivil behaviors may be perceived as status challenges because through uncivil behavior the instigator implies that the victim is inferior to him/her (Porath et al., 2008). After experiencing workplace incivility, engaging in intimidation not only enable reaffirming one's identity, but also helps to deter future uncivil treatment of coworkers

(Aquino & Douglas, 2003). Showing intimidating behaviors towards a supervisor is not likely since supervisors control outcomes valued by individuals such as distribution of rewards or punishment in the organization, and direct aggression towards supervisor after an uncivil act will jeopardize the probability of obtaining valued outcomes (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Porath & Pearson, 2012). When the instigator has higher status than the target, due to concerns regarding punishment or retaliation one may direct his/her attention to a less powerful person (Marcus-Newhall, Pedersen, Carlson, & Miller, 2000). Thus employees may also be more likely to engage in intimidating behaviors towards their coworkers following uncivil behavior of their supervisors thereby restoring their threatened needs and showing both to themselves and others that they are worthy of respect.

Hypothesis 10. Daily belongingness threat (H10a), daily control threat (H10b) and daily self-esteem (H10c) threat mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily intimidation.

Hypothesis 11. Daily belongingness threat (H11a), daily control threat (H11b) and daily self-esteem threat (H11c) mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily intimidation.

Another behavior employees may display to restore their threatened needs is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). When the concept of OCB first emerged, scholars argued that employees display OCB due to social exchange and reciprocation related concerns and motivation. In his seminal article titled "*A Reappraisal and Reinterpretation of the Satisfaction-Causes-Performance Hypothesis*", Organ (1977) argued that the reason of inconsistent results regarding job satisfaction-performance relationship may stem from the narrow conceptualization of performance. Based on social exchange and reciprocity norms, it is argued that employees feel obligated to reciprocate fair treatment and rewards they received; however due to technological or work constraints, they cannot always use their objective role performance to this end. As a result, they engage in other spontaneous and desirable behaviors such as attending to work regularly, showing compliance or obeying the rules (Organ, 1977). After Organ's inspiring work, researchers (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) started to examine

different dimensions of performance other than objective role performance. In one of these studies, Bateman and Organ (1983) first used the concept of organizational citizenship behavior with reference to behaviors that are beyond the formal job requirements. These behaviors refer to the spontaneous and innovative behaviors, which are beyond formal role requirements and are vital for effective functioning of organizations (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Later, Organ (1988, p. 4) defined organizational citizenship behavior as "*individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization*". Although OCB is defined as discretionary behaviors beyond formal job requirements, some researchers (see Morrison, 1994 for a detailed argument) argued that the boundary between task performance and OCB may not be so clear-cut. Turnipseed and Wilson (2009) emphasized that employees are likely to regard majority of organizational citizenship behavior as part of their formal job requirements.

In one of the leading studies regarding the dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) identified two different kind of organizational citizenship behavior as a result of semi-structured interviews conducted with 67 managers. The first dimension which consisted of behaviors such helping coworkers who have heavy work-loads or assisting orientation of new employees was called altruism. The other dimension was named as generalized compliance and included behaviors such as punctuality and not wasting time. In a nutshell, generalized compliance is about being a good soldier and good citizen who act as an exemplar (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Organ (1988), in a later study proposed a five dimensional model by adding civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship dimensions and renaming the generalized compliance as conscientiousness. Civic virtue refers to an employee's participating in governance process of organization in a responsible and constructive way. Sportsmanship is about tolerating inconveniences and being keen to accept changes or obstacles without complaining. Courtesy consists of behaviors that aim to prevent possible problems or conflicts in the workplace such as informing coworkers in advance about a decision that may affect or complicate their works (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006).

In subsequent work, Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed a two-factor model for OCB based on targets: organizational citizenship behavior directed at individuals (OCBI)

consists of behaviors that provide specific assistance and help to certain individuals such as "taking a personal interest in other employees", "helping others who have heavy workloads" and "assisting supervisor with his/her work (when not asked). On the other hand, organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization (OCBO) includes behaviors such as "not taking undeserved breaks" "above the norm attendance at work", or "adhering to informal rules devised to maintain order"; these behaviors generally directly benefit organization rather than specific individuals (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Although initially based on a social exchange perspective, scholars have later argued that, in line with the tenets of functional approach, people may engage in organizational citizenship behaviors for various motives (Rioux & Penner, 2001). According to functional approach, human behavior serves a purpose; specifically the goals and needs of people guide or stimulate a particular behavior. Thus, people may perform the same behavior for different purposes and they may display a behavior for multiple reasons or motives (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Rioux and Penner (2001) argued that people may engage in OCB for three different motives. First one is called organizational concern (OC) motive. Basically individuals engage in OCB because they want to express their commitment in and concern for their organization. The second motive is a prosocial motive which states that individuals may choose to show OCB because they have an urge to be helpful and maintain positive social relationships. The last one is impression management motive and accordingly people may engage in OCB for self-presentation purposes; particularly in order to avoid creating a bad image (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Therefore, OCB may serve as *"means to different ends"*, for instance, it may help an employee to achieve recognition (Folger, 1993, p.242) and a favorable social image. To be more precise, some employees may engage in OCB for impression management purposes; they may defend organization policies, choose to work instead of taking a break or volunteer for extra work in order to create an image of a good soldier, (Bolino et al. 2006). Considering that employees who engage in OCB take better performance evaluations (Wayne & Ferris, 1990, Wayne & Kacmar, 1991) and more liked by their supervisors (Bolino et al., 2006), I expect that some employees may choose to display OCB to restore their needs.

Hypothesis 12. Daily belongingness threat (H12a), daily control threat (H12b) and daily self-esteem threat (H12c) mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBO.

Hypothesis 13. Daily belongingness threat (H13a), daily control threat (H13b) and daily self-esteem threat (H13c) mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily OCBO.

Hypothesis 14. Daily belongingness threat (H14a), daily control threat (H14b) and daily self-esteem threat (14c) mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBI.

Hypothesis 15. Daily belongingness threat (H15a), daily control threat (H15b) and daily self-esteem threat (H15c) mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily OCBI.

Relationships with particular individuals such as supervisors may be especially valuable so individuals may be more motivated to increase their social worth and restore their image within this context. Supervisors control the outcomes desired by employees such as *pay, promotion and access to important social networks* (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies 2001). Moreover, the resources such as status (Foa & Foa, 1980) exchanged between an employee and a supervisor may be regarded as more significant than those exchanged between an individual and his/her coworker. Consequently, the more individual is dependent on the target for valuable outcomes the more motived he/she will be to engage in impression management behaviors (Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Kacmar & Carlson, 1999). Drawing from this approach, I also expect that indirect effect of supervisor incivility on exemplification self-promotion and OCBO via belongingness, control and self-esteem threat may be stronger than those of coworker incivility.

As previously discussed, cultural orientations in general and honor orientation in particular are likely to influence motivational as well as behavioral consequences of workplace incivility because the meaning and importance attributed to respectful and disrespectful treatment of others varies across honor and dignity cultures. Indeed, personal worth is important in both honor and dignity cultures but the role of others' treatment and

approval in determining personal worth gain more importance in honor cultures than dignity cultures (Rodriguez Mosquera, Manstead, & Fischer, 2000). Within dignity cultures, one's personal value is regarded as inherent and inalienable (Leung & Cohen, 2011) so respectful or disrespectful treatment by others is not likely to detract from one's personal worth, however within honor cultures disrespectful treatment of others are likely to be more detrimental due to honor-oriented individuals' heightened need for a positive social image and approval of others (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001). Therefore I argued that the relationship between workplace incivility and need threats (i.e. belongingness, control and self-esteem threats) will be stronger for individuals who have high honor orientation.

In honor cultures, social esteem of an individual has significant influence on his/her personal worth (Rodriguez Mosquera, Manstead, & Fischer, 2000) and people attribute great importance to their social image (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Indeed, it is argued that "*honor is a cultural expression of a concern for social image*" (Rodriguez Mosquera, Uskul, & Cross, 2011, p. 405). Honor, in fact, has both external and internal components, that is an internal concern for honor guides one's behavior and lead him/her to engage in honorable acts and refrain from dishonorable ones (Rodriguez Mosquera et al., 2002b). However, social recognition and approval of others are main concerns for honor-oriented individuals. Moreover, being an honorable person is only possible if other people accept an individual's honor claims (Rodriguez Mosquera et al., 2002b). Disrespectful behaviors in the form of incivility may signal one's claim for honor is not accepted by others and may trigger restore behavior. Although majority of research have focused on the link between insult and aggression in honor cultures (Cohen, Nisbett, Bowdle, & Schwarz, 1996), there is also a number of research which shows that honor-oriented people refrain from aggressive response or argumentation unless the annoyances becomes persistent therefore can no longer be denied. Otherwise honor-oriented people are likely to be constructive and cooperative, even more so than those in dignity cultures (Harinck, Shafa, Ellemers, & Beersma, 2013). Furthermore, as I previously argued, an important characteristic that differentiate honor cultures from others is the coexistence of politeness and violence norms within honor cultures (Cohen et al., 1999). Honor-oriented people are more likely to avoid a dangerous confrontation with another person because when a conflict escalates and becomes open, honor-oriented people have more to lose (Harinck et al., 2013).

Based on these arguments, I propose the following moderated mediated relationships:

Hypothesis 16. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily exemplification via daily belongingness threat (H16a), daily control threat (H16b) and daily self-esteem threat (H16c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

Hypothesis 17. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily exemplification via daily belongingness threat (H17a), daily control threat (H17b) and daily self-esteem threat (H17c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

Hypothesis 18. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily self-promotion via daily belongingness threat (H18a), daily control threat (H18b) and daily self-esteem threat (H18c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

Hypothesis 19. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily self-promotion via daily belongingness threat (H19a), daily control threat (H19b) and daily self-esteem threat (H19c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

Hypothesis 20. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily intimidation via daily belongingness threat (H20a), daily control threat (20b) and daily self-esteem threat (H20c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

Hypothesis 21. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily intimidation via (H21a) daily belongingness threat, daily control threat (21b) and daily self-esteem threat (21c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

Hypothesis 22. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBO via daily belongingness threat (H22a), daily control threat (H22b) and daily self-esteem threat (H22c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

Hypothesis 23. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily OCBO via daily belongingness threat (H23a), daily control threat (H23b) and daily self-esteem threat (H23c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

Hypothesis 24. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBI via daily belongingness threat (H24a), daily control threat (H24b) and daily self-esteem threat (H24c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

Hypothesis 25. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily OCBI via daily belongingness threat (H25a), daily control threat (H25b) and daily self-esteem threat (H25c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.

The proposed research model is depicted in the Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Research Model

	Honor Orientation	

Person-level

(Between)

- -

Day-level

(Within)

Daily Incivility

Daily Supervisor Incivility

Daily Coworker Incivility

Daily Need Threat

Daily Belongingness Threat

Daily Control Threat

Daily Self-Esteem Threat

**Daily Impression
Management Behaviors**

Daily Exemplification

Daily Self-promotion

Daily Intimidation

**Daily Organization
Citizenship Behaviors**

Daily Organization
Citizenship Behavior Directed
at Organization

Daily Organization
Citizenship Behavior Directed
at Individuals

3.

DAILY DIARY STUDY

3.1. Research Strategy and Design

I chose to conduct a diary study to investigate workplace incivility in its natural context. Although the majority of research examines the implications of workplace incivility by referring to a time frame of months or even years, workplace incivility is also likely to have important short-term consequences (Schilpzand et al., 2014). It may be important to examine the effects of workplace incivility within the same day because as Meier and Gross (2015) aptly argued, after-work leisure time and night may dissipate the effects of daily stressors such as incivility, making it difficult to observe its true effects even in the next day.

Diary method can be argued to have numerous advantages over standard survey design. Specifically, in retrospective approaches, there may be recall problems or participants may distort the truth with the aim of creating a consistent narrative. This problem may decrease substantially in a diary study since the time elapsed between experiencing and accounting of incivility incident decreases. Furthermore, thanks to within-subjects design, effects of some extraneous factors may be controlled and the validity of the results may increase. Lastly, it is also possible to portray temporal dynamics in diary studies (Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003; Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010).

Before the main daily diary study, a pilot study was conducted to ensure the diary protocol was clear and straightforward to the participants. To this end, 10 employees from various industries including banking, hospitality, manufacturing and consulting completed daily surveys for a week. At the end of the week, participants evaluated how easy it was to understand the daily surveys and how burdensome the completion of daily surveys was. Participants were also encouraged to provide any other feedback or suggestions regarding the study. The pilot study also provided information regarding how long it takes to complete the daily surveys. Based on the feedback of participants, I made small modifications (in instructions or in translation of some words) in the final version of the daily survey.

3.2. Sample Characteristics and Procedure

237 employees from various sectors were contacted through personal and professional networks and invited to take part in the diary study. To be qualified for the study, participants had to work at a full-time job for at least six months and to have at least a high school degree. Before the diary phase, participants first asked to complete a one-time questionnaire that assessed demographic, personality and organizational variables. Participants completed an informed consent before the pre-diary survey and the study procedure was approved by the Review Board of the Sabancı University. Out of 237 employees to whom the research invitation sent, 153 completed the initial pre-diary survey thereby yielding a response rate of 65%. At least three days later after completing the initial survey, participants started a two-week period during which they completed daily surveys which were sent to their emails at 16.30 p.m. every day. At 7.00 p.m. a reminder email was sent to those participants who had not completed the daily survey by then. Two-weeks is regarded an appropriate time frame to understand people's everyday life (Wheeler & Reis, 1991). To ensure that participants followed the diary protocol, daily surveys were accessible only between 16.30 p.m. and 03.00 a.m. In experience sampling studies, it is important to maintain motivation of participants in order to increase retention (Christensen, Barrett, Bliss-Moreau, Lebo, & Kaschub, 2003). I sent weekly emails to remind

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participants the importance of their contribution and accurate responding to ensure cooperation. No other incentives were offered prior or during the study; however, upon completion, as a token of appreciation, a sapling donation was made to TEMA (The Turkish Foundation for Combating Soil Erosion for Reforestation and the Protection of Natural Habitats) in their name.

Out of 153 who filled out the pre-diary survey, 132 continued with the daily diary stage of the research. I compared those who participated in diary stage with those who did not in terms of age, work experience, education and gender. Participants who took part in the daily diary stage were significantly older ($M = 33.95$ $SD = 7.51$) and had more work experience (M = 10.54, $SD = 7.54$) than the ones who did not ($M = 29$, $SD = 5.23$ for age and $M = 5.67$ $SD = 4.79$ for work experience). However there were no significant differences between two groups in terms of gender ($\chi^2(1) = .49$, p > .05) and education ($\chi^2(3) = 2.52$, p > .05).

The final data set for the diary phase was consisted of 132 individual and 1051 daily surveys out of a possible 1320. Females constituted 58.3% of the sample. The age of the sample ranged from 20 to 57 years with a mean age of 34.02. In terms of the highest degree earned, 4.5 % had high school diploma, 53.8 % had bachelor's degree, 40.2 % had master's degree and 1.5 % had a doctorate degree. Participants had an average work experience of 10.65 years ($SD = 7.49$) and 53.8 percent had a supervisory position. Characteristics of the sample are summarized in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1
Characteristics of the Sample

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentage %
Gender	Female	77	58.3
	Male	55	41.7
Education	High school degree	6	4.5
	Bachelor's degree	71	53.8
	Master's degree	53	40.2
	Doctorate degree	2	1.5
Ownership structure of the employee's company	Single owner	16	12.1
	Two partners (family members)	10	7.6
	Two partners (not family members)	9	6.8
	More than two partners (family members)	21	15.9
	More than two partners (at least one not family member)	35	26.5
	Holding	41	31.1
Capital structure of the employee's company	100% local	74	56.1
	100% foreign	21	15.9
	Local and foreign partnership	37	28

3.3. Measures

In line with other diary studies (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Vogel & Mitchell, in press), I used shortened measures for several of my variables to reduce fatigue and participant burden (Reis & Gable, 2000). Unless indicated, all measures were translated from English to Turkish by using a translation-back translation procedure. First, I translated related scales to Turkish then another doctoral student back-translated these scales to English. After that, advisor of this dissertation compared Turkish and English versions of the scales, and the final versions were determined accordingly.

3.3.1. Dependent Variables

All dependent measures were measured by using 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Daily Impression Management: To measure exemplification, self-promotion and intimidation, I used the impression management scale developed by Bolino and Turnley (1999). The impression management scale was adapted to Turkish by Basım, Tatar and Şahin (2006). I slightly modified the items so that they would be meaningful for use in daily work context.

Daily Exemplification: To measure exemplification, I used two items of the exemplification subscale of the impression management scale (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Two items that I used in daily scale were "I stayed at work late so people will know I am hard working" and "I tried to appear busy even at times when things were slower".

Daily Self-promotion: Daily self-promotion behaviors were assessed with three items of the self-promotion subscale (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). The three items were "I made people aware of my talents and qualifications", "I made people aware of my accomplishments", "I let others know that I am valuable to the organization".

Daily Intimidation: To measure intimidation, I used four items from the intimidation subscale of the impression management scale (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Sample items are "I let others know that I can make things difficult for them if they push me too far" and "I dealt strongly or aggressively with coworkers who interfered in my business".

Daily Organizational Citizenship Behavior: To measure organizational citizenship behavior, I used the scale developed by Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, and Hulin (2009). I chose to use this specific organizational behavior scale because Dalal and his colleagues used this scale to separately assess within-person variations in daily organizational citizenship behaviors directed at individuals and directed at organization.

Daily Organizational Citizenship Behavior Directed at Individuals: Daily organizational citizenship behaviors directed at individuals were measured with five items (Dalal et al.,

2009). Sample items are "I went out of my way to be nice to my supervisor/a coworker" and "I tried to help my supervisor/a coworker".

Daily Organizational Citizenship Behavior Directed at Organization: Daily organizational citizenship behavior directed at organization was measured with three items. The items were, "I volunteered for additional work tasks", "I chose to work rather than to take a break". "I went above and beyond what was required for the work task".

3.3.2. Independent Variables

Daily Supervisor Incivility and Daily coworker incivility: Daily workplace incivility was measured using Cortina and her colleagues' (2013) 12-items workplace incivility scale. The twelve items were presented in daily survey twice and participants completed the workplace incivility scale for their supervisor and coworkers separately; i.e. they were asked to check each uncivil behavior their supervisor or coworker displayed on that specific day. The indexes of supervisor incivility and coworker incivility were calculated by summing the corresponding workplace incivility items.

3.3.3. Mediators

Daily Need Threats: I measured daily belongingness, daily control and daily self-esteem with scales previously used by Ferris, Brown, Berry and Lian (2008). Ferris and his colleagues modified the belongingness and control need scales developed by van Beest and William's (2006) and adapted the organization-based self-esteem scale developed by Van Dyne and Pierce (2004). Need threats were measured by using 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Extremely) for belongingness and control threats; and 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) for self-esteem threat.

Daily Belongingness Threat: Five items were used to assess belongingness threat. Sample items are "I felt "disconnected" at work, "I felt rejected at work" and "I felt like an outsider at work".

Daily Control Threat: Five items measured control threat. Sample items are "I felt powerless at work", "I felt I do not have the control over the course of the workday and "I felt I am unable to influence the action of others at work".

Daily Self-esteem Threat: Daily self-esteem was also assessed with five items. Sample items are "I make a difference around here" and "I count around here".

3.3.4. Moderators

Individual honor orientation: I used the social status/respect dimension of the honor-values scale (Cross et al., 2014) to measure honor orientation. Participants indicated to what extent eight items reflecting honor features such as "to feel valued by society", "to be highly regarded by others" or "to be respectable in society" are important for them by using a 5-point Likert scale (1= not at all, 5= extremely).

3.3.5. Control Variables

Previous studies (e.g. Bateman & Organ, 1983; LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002) showed that job satisfaction and daily affect may have mediating roles especially in predicting OCB. In order to demonstrate incremental predictive utility of my proposed mediating mechanism (Ferris et al., 2012), I controlled for daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect in my analyses.

Daily Job satisfaction: In order to obtain an overall measure of daily job satisfaction a single-item measure of job satisfaction was used. This single item was "*Taking everything into consideration, how did you feel about your job today*?" Participants answered this question by using a five-point Likert scale (1= extremely dissatisfied, 5= extremely satisfied) A number of studies (Dolbier, Webster, McCalister, Mallon, & Steinhardt, 2005; Nagy, 2002; Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997; Wanous & Hudy, 2001) revealed that the single-item measure of job satisfaction has acceptable reliability. These studies used correction for attenuation formula to estimate reliability and evaluated the correlation

between single-item measure of job satisfaction and a multiple-item job satisfaction measure. The single-item job satisfaction demonstrated adequate psychometric qualities and is a viable option when a short measure is required due to possible fatigue and time commitment problems (Dolbier et al., 2005).

Daily Positive-Negative Affect: To evaluate daily positive and negative affect, I used the short form of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Mackinnon et al., 1999). Participants were asked to evaluate to what extent they felt "*inspired, alert, excited, enthusiastic, determined, afraid, upset, nervous, scared and distress*" at work that day.

In daily event studies, repeatedly answering the same questions about a specific event may change the way people experience the event, and may lead to alter their perception or their behavior, in other words, a reactivity problem may occur (Reis & Gable, 2000). I took some precautions in order to decrease measurement reactivity. First, I randomized the order of scales that were sent to participants every day. Second, I also added some positive and support related incidents along with incivility incidents hence decreasing the possibility of measurement reactivity.

3.4. Some Preliminary Analyses

Before hypothesis testing, I conducted some preliminary analyses. First, I calculated total attrition rate. The total attrition rate at the end of the study was 35.6%. The percentage of participants who completed less than three daily surveys was 14.4 %. Attrition in experience sampling study is expected but it is important to show that attrition rate is not systematically related to any of the variables of interest (Stone, Kessler, & Haythomthwatte, 1991). I conducted several analyses to see whether the number of surveys participants responded affected any of my variables of interest. I included the number of surveys as a predictor for each of my variables. Since I was testing for multiple effects, I used a Bonferroni correction to set my alpha level (.05/number of variables = .004). Bonferroni corrections are used when making multiple atheoretical comparisons to guard

against Type 1 errors (Ferris, Spence, Brown & Heller, 2012). The results showed that the number of surveys participants completed was unrelated to belongingness threat ($\gamma_{10} = .01$, ns[5]), control threat ($\gamma_{10} = .01$, ns), self-esteem threat ($\gamma_{10} = .01$, ns), positive affect ($\gamma_{10} = .009$, ns), job satisfaction ($\gamma_{10} = .006$, ns), OCBI ($\gamma_{10} = .005$, ns), OCBO ($\gamma_{10} = -.02$, ns), self-promotion ($\gamma_{10} = .009$, ns), exemplification ($\gamma_{10} = -.004$, ns), intimidation ($\gamma_{10} = -.03$, ns), average need threat ($\gamma_{10} = .003$, ns) and individual honor orientation ($\gamma_{10} = .05$, ns).

The frequency and type of all uncivil behaviors reported by participant during data collection period are presented in Table 3.2. Findings indicate that participants reported more supervisor incivility ($N = 263$) than coworker incivility ($N = 140$). Among 263 uncivil behaviors of supervisors, the most frequently reported one was "ignored or failed to speak to you" ($N = 58$, 22.05%) which is followed by "paid little attention to your statements or showed little interest in your opinion" ($N = 46$, 17.49%), and "doubted your judgment on a matter over which you had responsibility ($N = 46$, 17.49%). As for uncivil behaviors of coworkers ($N = 140$), "paid little attention to your statements or showed little interest in your opinion" was the most frequently stated type of uncivil behavior ($N = 28$, 20%). "Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you had responsibility ($N = 23$, 16.43%) and "ignoring you or failing to speak to you" ($N = 19$, 13.57%) were the second and third most frequently reported uncivil behaviors of coworkers respectively. To examine whether there was a significant difference in the average number of daily uncivil behaviors reported by males and females, I conducted an independent-samples t-test. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between males ($M = .34$, $SD = .65$ for supervisor incivility, $M = .22$, $SD = .58$ for coworker incivility) and females ($M = .32$ $SD = .57$ supervisor incivility, $M = .14$, $SD = .26$ for coworker incivility) in terms of the average number of daily supervisor and daily coworker incivility incidents they reported ($t(130) = -.170$, $p = .865$ for supervisor incivility, $t(130) = -1.05$, $p = .296$).

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[5] Not significant

Table 3.2
Frequency of Uncivil Behaviors Reported by Participants

Uncivil Behaviors	Supervisor	Coworker	Total	Percentage
1.Paid little attention to your statements or showed little interest in your opinion	46 (17.49%)	28 (20%)	74	18.36%
2.Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you had responsibility	46(17.49%)	23 (16.43%)	69	17.12%
3.Gave you hostile looks, stares, or snares	11(4.18%)	6 (4.29%)	17	4.22%
4.Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately	17(6.46%)	15(10.71%)	32	7.94%
5.Interrupted or "spoke over" you	24 (9.13%)	18 (12.86%)	42	10.42%
6.Rated you lower than you deserved on an evaluation	23 (8.75%)	7(5%)	30	7.44%
7.Yelled, shouted, or swore at you	6 (2.28%)	5 (3.57%)	11	2.73%
8. Made insulting or disrespectful remarks about you	6 (2.28%)	4 (2.86%)	10	2.48%
9. Ignored you or failed to speak to you (e.g. gave you "the silent treatment"	58 (22.05%)	19 (13.57%)	77	19.11%
10. Accused you of incompetence	12 (4.56%)	1 (.07%)	13	3.23%
11. Targeted you with anger outbursts or "temper tantrums"	10(3.80%)	6 (4.29%)	16	3.97%
12. Made jokes at your expense	4 (1.52%)	8 (5.71%)	12	2.98%
Total	263	140	403	

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities and correlations for all variables are presented in Table 3.3. I computed correlations among daily variables by running group-centered single predictor equations in hierarchical multivariate linear modelling. Since the related program does not provide standardized coefficients, I calculated the standardized coefficients manually with the following formula: *(estimated coefficient X standard deviation of the predictor variable)/standard deviation of the outcome variable* (Nezlek, 2012). Following the procedure used in the majority of diary studies (Illies, Kenny, & Scott, 2011; Ferris et al., 2012), for correlations between variables at day level and variables at person level I took the average of the within-person variables and used them to calculate Pearson's correlation coefficients.

Table 3.3

Means, Standard Deviations, Within- and Between- Person Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Day-level variables										
1.Supervisor Incivility	.25	.78	-							
2.Coworker Incivility	.13	.46	.04	-						
3.Belongingness Threat	1.55	.66	.33***	.12***	(.85)					
4.Control Threat	1.94	.80	.31***	.06	.61***					
5.Self-esteem Threat	2.13	.74	.19***	.05	.32***	.28***	(.95)			
6. Job Satisfaction	3.37	1.03	-.19***	-.07*	-.35***	-.40***	-.46***			
7.Positive Affect	2.91	.86	-.12***	-.02	-.21***	-.18***	-.38***	.47***	(.86)	
8.Self-promotion	2.90	.94	-.04	-.04	-.13***	-.11***	-.25***	.26***	.33***	(.86)
9.Exemplification	1.67	.77	.02	.02	.11***	.05	.03	-.04	-.02	.14**
10.Intimidation	1.87	.84	.07*	.08*	.10**	.08*	.003	.02	.03	.18***
11.OCBI	3.42	.73	-.09***	-.006	-.22***	-.17***	-.34***	.30***	.36***	.45***
12.OCBO	2.86	.89	.03	-.01	-.03	-.05	-.20***	.22***	.31***	.44***
Person-level variables										
13.Honor Orientation	3.89	.62	.08	.13	-.12	.02	-.08	.09	-.11	.26*
14.Age	33.95	7.51	-.04	-.07	-.08	-.06	-.16	.10	.14	-.19*
15.Job Experience	10.57	7.51	-.05	-.06	-.10	-.09	-.20*	.13	.13	-.19*
16. Education	3.87	.60	-.05	.003	.07	.06	.18*	-.15	.02	.02
17.Gender	.58	.49	-.02	-.09	-.22*	-.15	-.10	.07	-.04	.06

Note: Gender: 1 = Female, 0 = Male

Table 3.3 Cont'd
Means, Standard Deviations, Within- and Between- Person Correlations

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Day-level variables									
9.Exemplification	(.63)								
10.Intimidation	.29***	(.85)							
11.OCBI	.08*	.09*	(.79)						
12.OCBO	.16**	.23***	.39***	(.66)					
Person-level variables									
13.Honor Orientation	.22*	.20*	.12	.18*	(.88)				
14.Age	-.35**	-.22*	-.08	-.19*	-.20*	-			
15.Job Experience	-.34**	-.19*	-.05	-.16	-.20*	.95*	-		
16. Education	.02	-.11	.04	-.06	-.09	.01	-.10	-	
17.Gender	.02	.03	.15	-.04	-.05	-.09	-.05	-.05	-

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

Cronbach's alphas for day-level variables are the mean internal consistencies averaged across all days.

In order to calculate correlations of person-level variables with day-level variables, day-level variables were aggregated across days.

3.5. Multilevel confirmatory factor analysis

Since diary data has a hierarchical structure where days are nested within individuals, I conducted a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (MCFA). In repeated measure designs like diary studies, same individual provides multiple records so observations violate the independence assumption. Furthermore, both within and between individual sources contributes to the variance of the item ratings. If standard factor analysis is used for hierarchically structured data, it may result in biased estimates and standard errors (Dyer, Hanges, & Hall, 2005; Reise, Ventura, Nuechterlein, & Kim, 2005). MCFA models factor structure for within and between level separately and control for interdependence among observations.

Muthén (1994) recommends a multi-step procedure to conduct MCFA. Following his recommendations, in the first step, I conducted a conventional CFA. In this step, the nested structure of data is ignored so parameter estimates and fit structure may be biased especially if there is substantial between-group variation in data. Regarding this, in the second step, I calculated a unique type of intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC), namely Muthén's ICC to find out whether my data call for multilevel analysis. Unlike WABA and η^2, Muthén's ICC assumes random level effects rather than fixed level effects (Dyer et al., 2005). Specifically, assuming random level effects, Muthén's ICC is estimated by a ratio of the maximum likelihood estimates of the latent within and between variance (Dyer et al., 2005). ICC may take values between 0 and 1. When the between-individual variation increases, so does the ICC value; in other words, high values signals that the results will be biased if the multilevel nature of data is not taken into account (Dyer et al, 2005). In addition to ICCs, I also estimated the design effect because Muthén (1999) argues that what is really important is not the size of the ICC but the size of the design effect. Design effect is a function of ICC and average cluster size; and is calculated with the following formula: (1 + (average cluster size -1)* ICC). Clustering in the data should be taken into account if the design effect is greater than 2 (Muthén, 1999). If the multilevel analysis seems appropriate, the third step requires analyzing pooled-within covariance matrix. To this end, first, pooled-within covariance matrix is created and then this matrix is used as input in the following analysis. Removing between individual differences, this procedure allows

analyzing within-person factor structure only (Dyer et al, 2005). In the final step, MCFA is conducted and the model fit is assessed.

Table 3.4
Model Fit for a Priori Single and Multilevel Models of Need Threat (Belongingness, Control and Self-esteem threat)

Model	χ^2	Df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Three-Factor						
Total CFA	400.551	87	0.97	0.96	0.06	0.04
Pooled-within CFA	176.88	87	0.98	0.98	0.03	0.03
MCFA	365.390	174	0.96	0.95	0.03	W=0.03 B=0.08
One-Factor						
Total CFA	3751.96	90	0.64	0.58	0.20	0.18
Pooled-within CFA	1922.58	90	0.65	0.60	0.14	0.14
MCFA	3306.38	180	0.36	0.25	0.13	W=0.16 B=0.26

I conducted separate MCFA for each of the daily variables. For belongingness, control and self-esteem threat, CFA was carried out to determine whether a three-factor model provided an acceptable fit to data at both within- and between-level. The results are presented in Table 3.4. I followed the recommended steps of multilevel factor analysis for both one-factor and three-factor models for need threat measures. First, I carried out a traditional CFA; chi-square values were 3751.96 ($df = 90$, $p < .001$) and 400.551 ($df = 87$, $p < .001$), for one-factor and three-factor models, respectively. However, as previously mentioned, traditional CFA ignores multilevel nature of data hence may be misleading. Next, I calculated item level ICCs to assess the amount of between-level variance. ICCs for belongingness threat items range from .31 to .40 with an average of .35, ICCs for control threat items are between .37 and .44 with an average of .40 and lastly ICCs for self-esteem threat range from .54 to .58 with average of .56. These ICCs as well as the design effect values indicate a substantial amount of between level variance so the hierarchical nature of data should not be ignored. These ICC values as well as design effects are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5
Standardized Loadings of Three-factor Structure, ICCs, and Size of the Design Effect for Need Threat Items

Items	Standardized Items				Muthén's ICC	Size of Design Effect
	Total CFA	Pooled-Within CFA	MCFA Within	MCFA Between		
Belongingness threat						
Belongingness threat item 1	.73	.59	.59	.93	.31	3.17
Belongingness threat item 2	.75	.68	.69	.92	.31	3.14
Belongingness threat item 3	.76	.65	.66	.95	.33	3.32
Belongingness threat item 4	.71	.52	.52	.94	.38	3.66
Belongingness threat item 5	.70	.60	.60	.80	.40	3.76
Control threat						
Control threat item 1	.68	.67	.68	.75	.38	3.67
Control threat item 2	.79	.61	.61	.93	.44	4.07
Control threat item 3	.70	.47	.47	.97	.40	3.80
Control threat item 4	.71	.50	.50	.98	.37	3.58
Control threat item 5	.71	.53	.53	.92	.43	3.97
Self-esteem threat						
Self-esteem threat item 1	.89	.78	.78	.96	.54	4.77
Self-esteem threat item 2	.90	.78	.78	.98	.54	4.76
Self-esteem threat item 3	.93	.84	.84	.99	.58	5.04
Self-esteem threat item 4	.90	.81	.81	.98	.56	4.93
Self-esteem threat item 5	.81	.72	.72	.87	.58	5.02

In the following step, I partitioned the total correlation matrix into within and between components and performed CFA by using the pooled within correlation matrix only. Chi-square values for pooled within CFA are 1922.50 ($df = 90$, $p < .001$) and 176.88 ($df = 87$, $p < .001$) for one- and three-factor models respectively. For three-factor model CFI, TLI, RMSE and SRMR values indicate a reasonable fit of model to data. In the last step, I took the multilevel nature of data into consideration and conducted a MCFA. According to MCFA, chi-square was 365.390 for three-factor model ($df = 174$, $p < .001$) and 3306.38 ($df = 180$, $p < .001$) for one-factor model. In order to compare one-factor and three-factor multilevel models, I conducted a chi-square difference test. Specifically, first I computed the difference test scaling correction by using the following formula $c_d = (d_0 * c_0 - d_1 * c_1)/(d_0 - d_1)$ where d_0 is the degrees of freedom in the nested model, d_1 is the degrees of freedom in the comparison model, c_0 is the degrees of freedom in the nested model and c_1 is the degrees of freedom in the comparison model. Then I calculated the Satorra-Bentler

scaled chi-square difference test as follows: $TR_d * c_0 = (T_0 * c_0 - T_1 * c_1 -)/cd$ where T_0 and T_1 are the chi-square values for nested and comparison models respectively. Accordingly, the improvement in fit statistics of the three-factor model over one-factor model is highly significant ($\Delta\chi^2(6, N=1051)= 324.72$, $p < .001$). Fit indices indicate a reasonably good fit for the model. Given that the SRMR value was .03 for within-level and .08 for between-level, the fit of within-level may be considered better than between-level.

For impression management including self-promotion, exemplification and intimidation, I conducted CFA to determine whether a three-factor model provides an acceptable fit to data at both within- and between-levels. Traditional CFA, pooled-within CFA and MCFA results for impression management is presented Table 3.6.

Table 3.6
Model Fit for a Priori Single and Multilevel Models of Impression Management

	χ^2	Df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Three-factor						
Total CFA	70.64	24	.99	.98	.04	.03
Pooled-within CFA	38.63	24	.99	.99	.02	.02
MCFA	82.72	48	.98	.97	.03	W=.02 B=.05
One-factor						
Total CFA	1337.86	27	.66	.54	.22	.12
Pooled-within CFA	570.05	27	.63	.50	.14	.11
MCFA	813.26	54	.53	.37	.12	W=.11 B=.18

In the first step, I conducted a traditional CFA; chi-square value for three-factor model was 70.640 ($df = 24$, $p < .001$) and it was 1337.86 ($df = 27$, $p < .001$) for one-factor model. In the second stage, I estimated item level ICCs. These estimates are presented in Table 3.7. ICCs of self-promotion items were .41, .42 and .43 with an average of .42. For exemplification items ICCs were .42 and .53 with an average of 0.47. Lastly, for intimidation items, ICCs ranged from 3.99 to 4.10 with average of 4.05. I also calculated the design effects and as it can be seen in Table 3.7, all design effect values are above the benchmark of 2. ICCs and design effect values indicate a substantial amount of between person variance which warrants multilevel analysis.

Table 3.7
Standardized Loadings of Three-factor Structure, ICCs, and Size of the Design Effect for Impression Management Items

	Standardized items				Muthén's ICC	Size of Design Effect
	Total CFA	Pooled-Within CFA	MCFA Within	MCFA Between		
Self-promotion						
Self-promotion item 1	.82	.67	.67	.99	.41	3.87
Self-promotion item 2	.80	.67	.67	.96	.42	3.89
Self-promotion item 3	.83	.66	.66	.99	.43	4.02
Exemplification						
Exemplification item 1	.66	.45	.45	.92	.42	3.89
Exemplification item 2	.68	.53	.53	.75	.53	4.68
Intimidation						
Intimidation item 1	.77	.60	.60	.93	.44	4.05
Intimidation item 2	.79	.66	.66	.92	.45	4.10
Intimidation item 3	.70	.52	.52	.89	.44	4.07
Intimidation item 4	.81	.65	.65	.99	.43	3.99

In the third step, I performed CFA by using the pooled within correlation matrix only. Chi-square values for pooled within CFA were 570.05 ($df = 27$, p < .001) and 38.63 ($df = 24$, $p < .05$) for one- and three-factor models respectively. For the three-factor model CFI, TLI, RMSE and SRMR values indicate a good fit of model to data. Finally, I moved to MCFA. According to MCFA, chi-square was 82.72 ($df = 48$, $p < .05$) for three-factor model and 813.26 ($df = 54$, $p < .001$) for one-factor model. In order to compare one-factor and three-factor multilevel models, I conducted a chi-square difference test; and the improvement in fit statistics of the three-factor model over one-factor model was highly significant ($\Delta\chi^2(6, N= 1051) = 616.42, p < .001$). Fit indices indicate a reasonably good fit for the model both for within (SRMR = .02) and between levels (SRMR= .05). All items have significant loadings on their respective factors ($p < .001$).

For OCBs, I carried out a CFA to determine whether a two-factor model has an acceptable fit to data at both within- and between-levels. The results of traditional CFA, pooled-within CFA and MCFA are presented in Table 3.8. Chi-square value of traditional CFA for one-factor model was 299.50 ($df = 20$, $p < .001$) and it was 119.06 ($df = 19$, $p < .001$) for three factor model.

Table 3.8
Model Fit for a Priori Single and Multilevel Models of OCB

	χ^2	Df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Two-factor						
Total CFA	119.06	19	.96	.94	.07	.04
Pooled-within CFA	68.65	19	.96	.94	.05	.04
MCFA	94.89	38	.95	.93	.04	W=.04 B=.07
One-factor						
Total CFA	299.50	20	.88	.83	.12	.06
Pooled-within CFA	119.01	20	.92	.88	.07	.05
MCFA	176.27	40	.88	.83	.06	W=.05 B=.10

In the next step, I checked for between-group variance, ICCs for OCBI items range from .24 to .35 with an average of .28, ICCs for OCBO items are .39, .41 and .47 with an average of .42, design effect values for all items are above the benchmark of 2. These values are presented in Table 3.9 and indicate a substantial amount of between-person variance. In the next step, I performed CFA using the pooled within correlation matrix only. Chi-square values for pooled within CFA are 119.01 ($df = 20$, $p < .001$) and 68.65 ($df = 19$, $p < .001$) for one- and two-factor models respectively. For two-factor model, CFI, TLI, RMSE and SRMR values indicate a reasonable fit of model to data Finally, I conducted a MCFA. According to MCFA, chi-square was 94.89 ($df = 38$, $p < .001$) for two-factor model and 176.27 ($df = 40$, $p < .001$) for one-factor model. The improvement in fit statistics of the two-factor model over the one-factor model is highly significant ($\Delta\chi^2(2, N=1051) = 81.38$, $p < .001$). Fit indices indicate a reasonably good fit for the model. Considering SRMR of .04 for within- and .07 for between-, the fit of level-1 was better than level-2. Table 3.9 which displays standardized factor loadings show that all items are loaded significantly on their respective factors ($p < .001$).

Table 3.9

Standardized Loadings of Two-factor Structure, ICCs, and Size of the Design Effect for OCB Items

| | Standardized items | | | | | |
	Total CFA	Pooled-Within CFA	MCFA Within	MCFA Between	Muthén's ICC	Size of Design Effect
OCBI						
OCBI item 1	.71	.67	.67	.83	.24	2.66
OCBI item 2	.70	.58	.57	.95	.29	3.04
OCBI item 3	.62	.56	.57	.78	.24	2.66
OCBI item 4	.68	.58	.59	.81	.30	3.05
OCBI item 5	.61	.46	.45	.86	.35	3.44
OCBO						
OCBO item 1	.57	.45	.45	.70	.41	3.83
OCBO item 2	.80	.63	.63	.99	.39	3.68
OCBO item 3	.54	.39	.39	.66	.47	4.27

For the control variable, daily positive affect, I also conducted a CFA to assess whether a one-factor model provides an acceptable fit to data at both within- and between-levels. The results of traditional CFA, pooled-within CFA and MCFA are presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10

Model Fit for a Priori Single and Multilevel Models of Positive Affect

	χ^2	*Df*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
One-factor						
Total CFA	36.28	5	.99	.97	.08	.02
Pooled-within CFA	12.91	5	.99	.99	.04	.02
MCFA	29.54	10	.98	.96	.04	W=.02 B= .05

In the first step, I conducted a traditional CFA; chi-square value for the model was 36.28 ($df = 5$, $p < .001$). In the second stage, I estimated item level ICCs. ICCs of PA items were .36, .40, .40, .41 and .34 with an average of 0.38. I also calculated the design effects and as it can be seen in Table 3.11, all design effect values are above the benchmark of 2. ICCs and design effect values indicate a substantial amount of between person variance which warrants multilevel analysis. In the third step, I performed CFA by using the pooled within correlation matrix only. Chi-square value for pooled within CFA was 12.91 ($df = 5$, $p < .05$). CFI, TLI, RMSE and SRMR values indicate a good fit of model to data. Finally, I

conducted a MCFA and chi-square was 29.54 (*df* = 10, *p* < .05) for the model. Fit indices indicate a reasonably good fit for the model both for within-level (SRMR = .02) and between-level (SRMR = .05). All items have significant loadings on their respective factors (*p* < .001).

Table 3.11
Standardized Loadings of Three-factor Structure, ICCs, and Size of the Design Effect for Positive Affect Items

| | Standardized items | | | | | |
	Total CFA	Pooled-Within CFA	MCFA Within	MCFA Between	Muthén's ICC	Size of Design Effect
Positive Affect						
PA item 1	.75	.63	.63	.95	0.36	3.49
PA item 2	.83	.73	.73	.99	0.40	3.76
PA item 3	.65	.56	.56	.77	0.40	3.80
PA item 4	.82	.72	.72	.94	0.41	3.85
PA item 5	.65	.56	.56	.79	0.34	3.38

Lastly, the control variable job satisfaction consists of single item so I did not conduct a factor analysis for this variable; however I calculated ICC and design effect. The result shows that ICC for daily job satisfaction was .39 and design effect was calculated as 3.72 indicating a substantial amount of between person variance which warrants multilevel analysis.

For individual honor orientation, which is a person-level construct, I conducted an ordinary CFA to ensure the unidimensionality of the scale. Maximum likelihood estimation was used to test the hypothesized structure. The results are reported in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12
Honor Orientation CFA

	χ^2	*Df*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Low CI	Up CI	SRMR
Honor orientation								
One-factor	39.27	20	.96	.95	.079	.041	.116	.037

The fit indices indicate a reasonably good fit; CFA and TLI is .96 and .95 respectively. SRMR (.037) is below the cut-off value of .05. RMSE is also within the

acceptable range which is below the cut-off value of .08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; MacCallum, Browne, Sugawara, & Hazuki, 1996) and 90% confidence interval involves the value of .05 (CI [.04, .12]). As it can be seen in Table 3.13, all items significantly load on their respective factors.

Table 3.13
Standardized and Unstandardized Factor Loadings of Individual Honor Orientation

	Unstandardized Factor Loadings	Standardized Factor Loadings	S.E.	p-value
Honor orientation item 1	1.00	.72	.045	.000
Honor orientation item 2	.94	.65	.053	.000
Honor orientation item 3	1.16	.71	.046	.000
Honor orientation item 4	1.10	.75	.042	.000
Honor orientation item 5	1.26	.79	.037	.000
Honor orientation item 6	1.22	.78	.038	.000
Honor orientation item 7	1.42	.69	.048	.000
Honor orientation item 8	1.04	.56	.061	.000

3.6. Hypothesis Testing

All hypotheses were tested using MPlus 6.00 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2010). I used MLR estimator in my analyses because MLR has robust standard errors and its chi-square test is robust to non-normality and non-independence of observations (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2010; Yuan & Hayashi, 2005; Heck & Thomas, 2015).

Hypothesis 1 predicted that on days when employees experienced more supervisor incivility they will feel more belongingness (1a), control (1b) and self-esteem threat (1c) while Hypothesis 2 predicted that on days when employees experienced more coworker incivility they will feel more belongingness (2a), control (2b) and self-esteem threat (2c). In order to test these hypotheses, first, I group-mean centered supervisor and coworker incivility which means that the predictor scores were centered relative to each individual's mean score on the related variable across time. Since group-mean centering eliminates between-person variance, the estimates reflect only intra-individual variation so it eliminates potential confounds (Enders & Tofighi, 2007). At this stage, I specified no level-

2 predictors. The results presented in Table 3.14 indicated that daily supervisor incivility was positively related to daily belongingness threat (γ = .21, *p* < .001, 95% CI [.11, .31]), daily control threat (γ = .22, p < .001, 95% CI [.15, .29]) and daily self-esteem threat (γ = .12, *p* < .001, 95% CI [.06, .17]). On the other hand, coworker incivility was not significantly related to control (γ = .06, *p* = .123, 95% CI [-.02, .13]) and self-esteem threat (γ = .04, *p* = .101, 95% CI [-.008, .09]) but it was positively related to belongingness threat (γ = .12, *p* < .01, 95% CI [.05, .18]). Hypothesis 1a, 1b and 1c were supported while Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

Table 3.14
Effects of Daily Supervisor Incivility and Daily Coworker Incivility on Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat, Daily Self-Esteem Threat

	Estimate	*SE*	Standardized Estimate	*p*-value	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper
Belongingness threat						
Intercept	1.55	.04		.000	1.46	1.63
Supervisor Incivility	.21	.05	.30	.000	.11	.31
Coworker Incivility	.12	.03	.10	.001	.05	.18
Control Threat						
Intercept	1.94	.06		.000	1.83	2.05
Supervisor Incivility	.22	.04	.28	.000	.15	.29
Coworker Incivility	.06	.04	.04	.123	-.02	.13
Self-Esteem Threat						
Intercept	2.14	.06		.000	2.04	2.25
Supervisor Incivility	.12	.03	.17	.000	.06	.17
Coworker Incivility	.04	.03	.04	.101	-.008	.09

Hypothesis 3 proposed that daily supervisor incivility has stronger positive relationship with daily belongingness threat, control threat and self-esteem threat than daily coworker incivility. In order to examine whether the relationship of daily supervisor incivility with daily belongingness, control and self-esteem threats are significantly different from daily coworker incivility's relationship with these outcomes, I built a new model by constraining the related paths from predictors, namely daily supervisor incivility and daily coworker incivility, to outcomes to be equal. Then I conducted a Satorro-Bentler Chi-Square difference test; and compared this constrained model with the previous unconstrained model. The results indicated that unconstrained model fit the data

significantly better than the constrained one ($\Delta\chi^2_{(3)}$= 19.96, p < .001) so this analysis reveals that the path estimates from daily supervisor incivility to daily need threats are significantly different from the path estimates from daily coworker incivility to need threats.

Hypothesis 4 stated that individual honor orientation moderates the relationships of daily supervisor incivility with daily belongingness threat (H4a), daily control threat (H4b) and daily self-esteem threat (H4c) such that the relationship between daily supervisor incivility and these daily need threats will be stronger when honor orientation of an individual is high. Similarly, Hypothesis 5 proposed that individual honor orientation moderates the relationships of daily coworker incivility with daily belongingness threat (H5a), daily control threat (H5b) and daily self-esteem threat (H5c) such that the relationship between daily coworker incivility and daily need threats will be stronger when honor orientation of an individual is high. Before testing the proposed cross-level interactions between daily incivility and honor orientation, I checked whether any of the demographic variables had significant relationships with daily belongingness, control and self-esteem threats. To this end, I grand-mean centered demographic variables and added them as level-2 predictors. The results show that age (γ = .000, p = .981 CI [.-03, 03]) and job experience (γ = -.008, p = .615, 95% CI [-.04, .02]) were not significantly related to belongingness threat. However, the effect of gender was significant in that females felt less belongingness threat than males on an average day (γ = -.24, p = .010, 95% CI [-.42, -.06]). Similarly, neither age (γ = .01, p = .489 CI [-.03, .05]) nor job experience (γ = -.02, p = .298, 95% CI [-.06, .02]) had significant relations with control threat but gender was significantly related to control threat; specifically females felt less control threat on an average day (γ = -.23, p = .04, 95% CI [-.45, -.01]). Finally, age (γ = .03, p = .243, 95% CI [-.02, .07]) and gender (γ = -.12, p = .282, 95% CI [-.33, .10]) had no significant relationships with self-esteem threat while the relationship between job experience and daily self-esteem threat was marginally significant (γ = -.04, p = .051, 95% CI [-.08, .000]). Specifically, employees who have high job experience felt less self-esteem threat on an average day. In the analyses that include cross-level interactions, I included demographic variables with significant effects as control variables.

After I checked the effect of demographic variables, for the completeness of my analysis I also examined whether the variances of slopes are significant. However, one should note that many prominent researchers (Lesa Hoffman, April 29 personal communication; Jonathan Templin April 10 personal communication) argue that statistically significant slope-variance is not a necessary condition that should be met in order to test theoretically based cross-level interactions. If cross-level interactions were based on theoretical arguments before looking at data, Snijders and Bosker (1999, p. 82) state that "*the researcher is then led to estimate and test the cross-level interaction effect irrespective of whether a random slope variance was found*". Moreover, Monte Carlo studies show that required power to detect a significant random slope may be high (Hoffman & Templin, 2011) so they are not always reliable. LaHuis and Ferguson (2009, p. 429) note that "*it appears that the significance tests for slope variance components do not always reflect what is happening in terms of how Level-2 variables relate to the slope. This suggests that these tests may not be useful in determining when significant cross-level interactions are possible*". Based on these arguments, I tested my cross-level interactions irrespective of significant slope variances. Still, I present the results regarding the significance of slope variances as follows; the slope variance of supervisor incivility-belongingness threat was statistically significant (.034, $p = .001$) while the slope variance of supervisor incivility-control threat (.013, $p = .061$) and supervisor incivility-daily self-esteem threat were marginally significant (.007, $p = .079$). Slope variances of coworker incivility-belongingness threat (.002, $p = .838$), coworker incivility-control threat (.002, $p = .860$), and coworker incivility-self-esteem threat were not statistically significant (.001, $p = .999$).

After these preliminary analyses, I moved to test Hypotheses 4 and 5 which propose cross-level interactions of daily supervisor incivility and daily coworker incivility with individual honor orientation. First, I centered incivility variables at the group mean and individual honor orientation, which is my level-2 moderator, at the grand mean. I also added gender and job experience as control variables.[6] I am interested in whether a within person relationship (i.e. within-person slope) varies as a function of a between-person

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[6] For the model parsimony, in the analyses that specify cross-level interactions, I controlled for the effects of demographic variables which have significant relations with my variables of interest. For instance, I controlled for the effect of gender and job experience but since age was not significantly related to need threats and did not change the significance of results, I did not include it as a control variable in the final model.

variable and centering within-person predictors at the group mean and between-person predictors at the grand-mean will help me to obtain unbiased estimates of the within-group slopes (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). Lisa Hoffman (personal communication, April 29 2015) stated that when testing cross-level interactions, it is safer to keep non-significant random slope variance unless there is a convergence problem. Similarly, Tom Snijders (personal communication, April 30 2015) noted that fixing the slopes may lead to dubious standard errors for the cross-level interactions. Therefore, first I run the model with random slope variances but the model had convergence problems so I fixed only the variance of the non-significant coworker incivility slopes to 0.

Table 3.15 presents the results of the analysis. The results indicate that the between-person variable honor orientation moderates the within-person paths from daily supervisor incivility to daily belongingness threat ($\gamma = .17$, $p = .011$, 95% CI [.04, .30]), daily control threat ($\gamma = .16$, $p = .006$, 95% CI [.05, .28]), and daily self-esteem threat ($\gamma = .10$, $p = .019$, 95% CI [.02, .18]). Cross-level interaction of daily coworker incivility- individual honor orientation was significant for daily control threat ($\gamma = .10$, $p = .042$, 95% CI [.003, .19]) but not significant for daily belongingness ($\gamma = -.05$, $p = .477$, 95% CI [-.18, .08]) and daily self-esteem threat ($\gamma = .04$, $p = .325$, 95% CI [-.04, .13]). To explore the form of significant cross-level interactions, I conducted simple slope tests and plotted cross-level interactions against the conditional values of honor orientation, specifically 1 standard deviation above and 1 standard deviation below the mean (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003).

The results of the simple slope test are also presented in Table 3.15. Simple slope tests reveal that the relationship between daily supervisor incivility and daily belongingness threat was stronger when honor orientation of an individual was high ($\gamma = .32$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.19, .43]) than when individual honor orientation was low ($\gamma = .10$, $p = .031$, 95% CI [.009, .20]). Therefore, Hypothesis 4a was supported. Similarly, the relationship of daily supervisor incivility with daily control threat was stronger when individual honor orientation was high ($\gamma = .31$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.21, .43]) compared to it was low ($\gamma = .12$, $p = .017$, 95% CI [.02, .22]). Hypothesis 4b was supported. Lastly, the relationship between daily supervisor incivility and daily self-esteem threat was not significant when honor orientation of an individual was low ($\gamma = .06$, $p = .162$, 95% CI [-.02, 14]). However, when

individual honor orientation was high ($\gamma = .19$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.12, .25]), the relationship became significant so Hypothesis 4c was supported.

Table 3.15

Honor Orientation as the Between-person Moderator of Daily Incivility-Daily Need Threat Paths

	Estimate	SE	p-value	95% Confidence Interval	
Daily Incivility-Belongingness Threat				Lower	Upper
Person-level moderator: Honor Orientation					
Intercept	1.55	.04	.000	1.46	1.63
Supervisor Incivility	.21	.03	.000	.14	.28
Coworker Incivility	.11	.03	.001	.05	.17
Honor Orientation	-.12	.08	.116	-.28	.03
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.17	.07	.011	.04	.30
-1SD Honor Orientation	.10	.05	.031	.009	.20
+1SD Honor Orientation	.32	.06	.000	.19	.43
Coworker Incivility*Honor Orientation	-.05	.06	.477	-.18	.08
Daily Incivility-Control Threat					
Intercept	1.94	.06	.000	1.82	2.05
Supervisor Incivility	.22	.03	.000	.17	.27
Coworker Incivility	.05	.04	.166	-.03	.12
Honor Orientation	-.02	.11	.832	-.24	.19
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.16	.06	.006	.05	.28
-1SD Honor Orientation	.12	.04	.017	.02	.22
+1SD Honor Orientation	.31	.05	.000	.21	.43
Coworker Incivility*Honor Orientation	.10	.05	.042	.003	.19
-1SD Honor Orientation	-.03	.04	.510	-.11	.05
+1SD Honor Orientation	.13	.06	.036	.008	.24
Daily Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat					
Intercept	2.14	.05	.000	2.04	2.49
Supervisor Incivility	.12	.03	.000	.07	.18
Coworker Incivility	.04	.03	.119	-.01	.09
Honor Orientation	-.14	.10	.143	-.33	.05
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.10	.04	.019	.02	.18
-1SD Honor Orientation	.06	.04	.162	-.02	.14
+1SD Honor Orientation	.19	.03	.000	.12	.25
Coworker Incivility*Honor Orientation	.04	.04	.325	-.04	.13

Figure 3.1 and 3.2 also clearly show that employees who score high on honor orientation felt more belongingness and control threat than those who score low on honor orientation.

Figure 3.1
Cross-level Interaction between Daily Supervisor Incivility and Individual Honor
Orientation on Predicting Daily Belongingness Threat
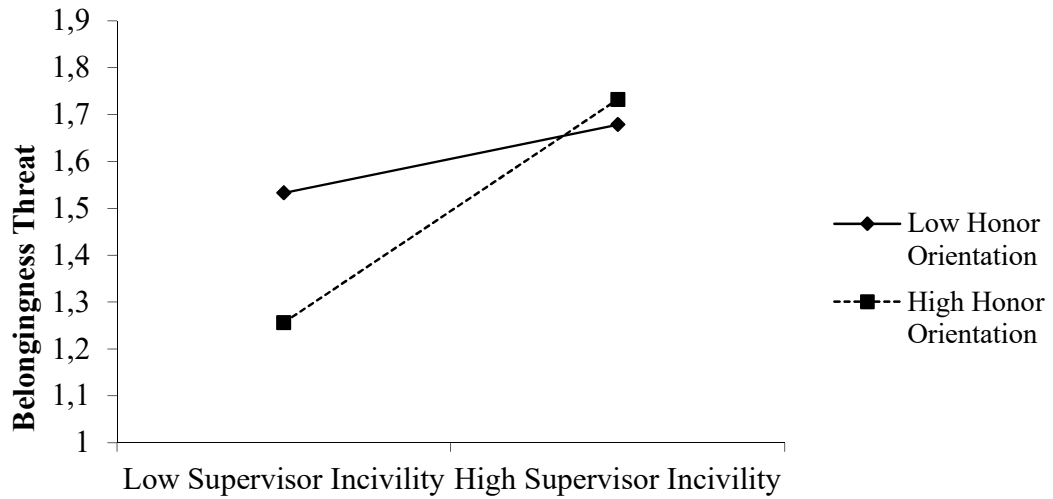
Figure 3.2
Cross-level Interaction between Daily Supervisor Incivility and Individual Honor
Orientation on Predicting Daily Control Threat
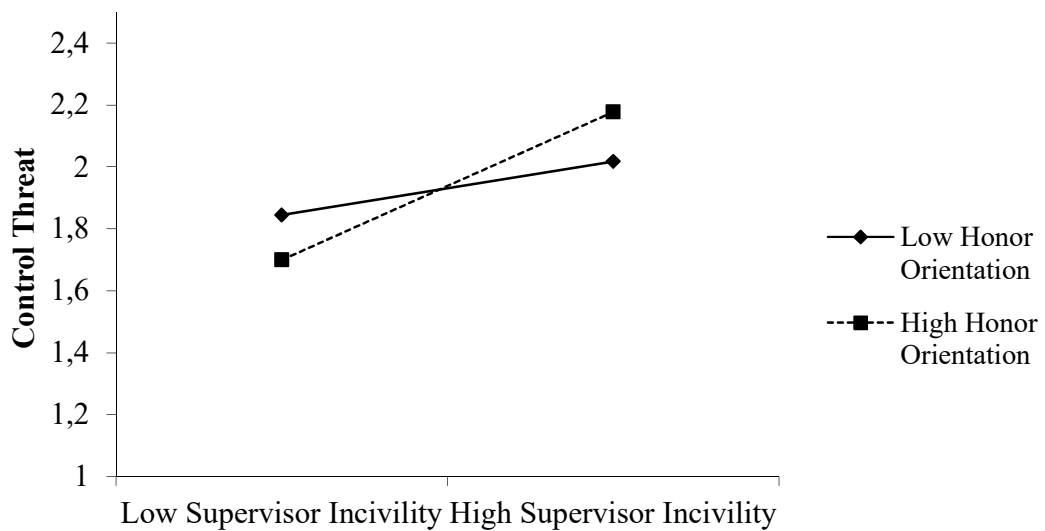
Figure 3.3 reveals that the relationship between daily supervisor incivility and daily self-esteem threat was not significant when honor orientation of an individual was low However when individual honor orientation was high the relationship became significant.

Figure 3.3

Cross-level Interaction between Daily Supervisor Incivility and Individual Honor Orientation on Predicting Daily Self-esteem Threat
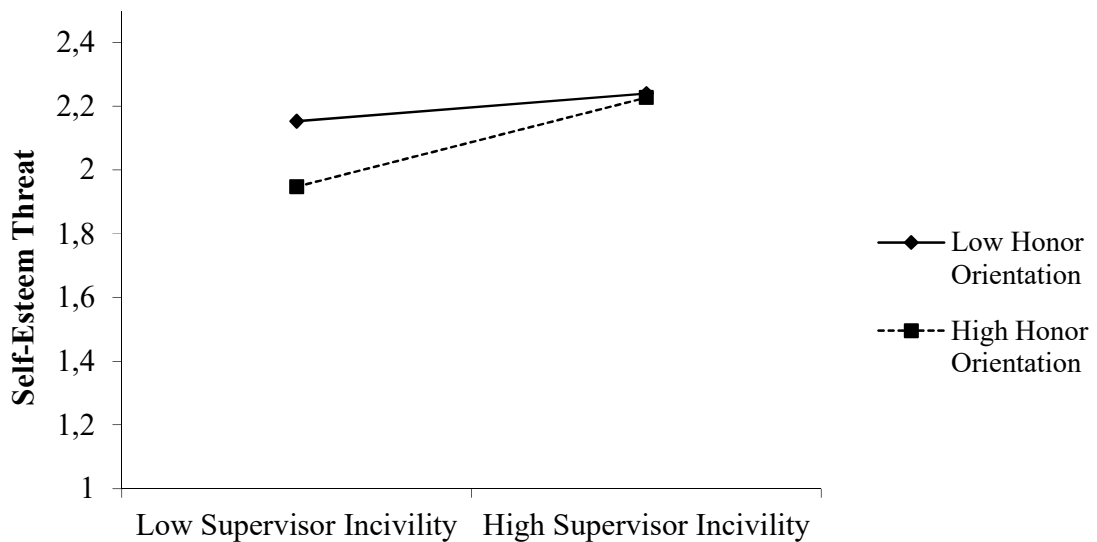
Simple slope test indicates that although the relationship between daily coworker incivility and daily control threat was not significant when honor orientation was low ($\gamma = -.03$, $p = .510$, 95% CI [-.11, .05]); the relationship becomes significant when honor orientation is high ($\gamma = .13$, $p = .036$, 95% CI [-.008, .24]). The pattern shown in Figure 3.4 indicates that Hypothesis 5b was supported.

Figure 3.4
Cross-level Interaction of Daily Coworker Incivility and Individual Honor Orientation on
Predicting Daily Control Threat
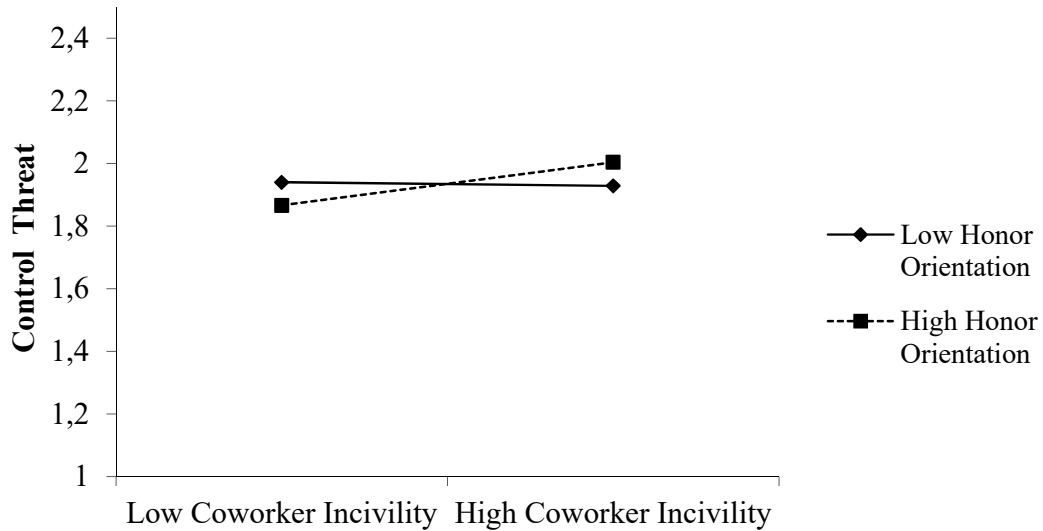
Before testing proposed multilevel mediation hypotheses, I examined direct relations between need threats and dependent variables. First, I checked whether daily belongingness, control and self-esteem threats have positive relationships with exemplification. I group-mean centered daily need threats to examine only intra-individual variation. The results of the analysis presented in Table 3.16 revealed that daily belongingness threat had a significant positive relation with exemplification ($\gamma = .14$, $p = .005$, 95% CI [.04, .23]), however, neither control threat ($\gamma = -.03$, p =. 516, 95% CI [-.11, .06]) nor self-esteem threat ($\gamma = -.01$, $p = .809$, 95% CI [-.10, .08]) showed significant relations with daily exemplification.

Table 3.16
Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily
Self-esteem Threat with Exemplification

	Estimate	S.E.	Standardized estimate	p-value	95% CI Low	High
Exemplification						
Intercept	1.68	.05		.000	1.57	1.78
Job satisfaction	-.003	.03	-.004	.928	-.06	.06
Positive affect	-.003	.03	-.003	.949	-.08	.08
Belongingness Threat	.14	.05	.12	.005	.04	.23
Control Threat	-.03	.04	-.03	.516	-.11	.06
Self-Esteem Threat	-.01	.04	-.009	.809	-.10	.08

Then, I examined the effect need threats on self-promotion. I controlled for the effects of daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect.[7] Again, I group-mean centered need threat variables as well as daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect. The results are presented in Table 3.17.

Table 3.17
Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily
Self-esteem Threat with Self-Promotion

	Estimate	*SE*	Standardized estimate	*p*-value	95% CI Lower	Upper
Self-promotion						
Intercept	2.89	.06		.000	2.76	3.01
Job satisfaction	.07	.03	.08	.014	.02	.13
Positive affect	.26	.04	.23	.000	.18	.33
Belongingness Threat	-.02	.06	-.01	.786	-.14	.10
Control Threat	.009	.06	.007	.878	-.11	.12
Self-Esteem Threat	-.16	.06	-.11	.009	-.28	-.04

The results revealed that control variables, namely daily job satisfaction (γ = .07, *p* =.014, 95% CI [.02, .13]) and daily positive affect (γ = .26, *p* = .000, 95% CI [.18, .33]) had significant positive relations with daily self-promotion. Daily self-esteem threat (γ = -.16, *p*

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[7] In a preliminary analysis, I checked whether daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect had significant effects on any of the dependent variables. If they showed significant relations with a particular dependent variable, I controlled for the effects of these variables in all subsequent analyses however, if they have no significant effects, for the sake of parsimony, I excluded them from the related models.

=.009, 95% CI [-.28, -.04]) had a significant negative relationship with daily self-promotion, however neither daily belongingness threat (γ = -.02, p =.786, 95% CI [-.14, .10]) nor daily control threat (γ = .009, p =.878, 95% CI [-.11, 12]) had significant relations with self-promotion. Consequently, there was a significant relationship between self-esteem threat and self-promotion albeit in opposite direction than predicted.

As for intimidation, again I group-mean centered daily belongingness, control, and self-esteem threats and added them as Level-1 predictors. The results showed that only daily belongingness threat was significantly related to daily intimidation (γ = .11, p =.048, 95% CI [.001, .23]). On the other hand, neither daily control threat (γ = .03, p = .509, 95% CI [-.06, .13]) nor daily self-esteem threat (γ = -.05, p = .317, 95% CI [-.14, .04]) were significantly related to daily intimidation. The results are presented in Table 3.18.

Table 3.18
Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with Intimidation

	Estimate	*SE*	Standardized estimate	*p*-value	95% CI Lower	Upper
Intimidation						
Intercept	1.89	.06		.000	1.78	2.00
Belongingness Threat	.11	.06	.10	.048	.001	.23
Control Threat	.03	.05	.03	.509	-.06	.13
Self-Esteem Threat	-.05	.05	-.04	.317	-.14	.04

To test within-person relations between need threats and OCBO, I group-mean centered need threat variables along with control variables of daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect. The results presented in Table 3.19 indicated that controlling for daily job satisfaction and positive affect, daily belongingness threat had a significant positive relation with OCBO (γ = .11, p = .024, 95% CI [.01, .20]). Daily control threat was not significantly related to OCBO (γ = .008, p = .875, 95% CI [-.09, .11]) but daily self-esteem threat, albeit in opposite direction than predicted, was significantly related to OCBO (γ = -.13 p = .03, 95% CI [-.25, -.01]).

Table 3.19
Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily
Self-esteem Threat with OCBO

	Estimate	S.E.	Standardized estimate	p-value	95% CI Low	High
OCBO						
Intercept	2.87	.06		.000	2.75	2.99
Job satisfaction	.06	.03	.08	.046	.001	.12
Positive affect	.25	.04	.24	.000	.17	.32
Belongingness Threat	.11	.05	.08	.024	.01	.20
Control Threat	.008	.05	.007	.875	-.09	.11
Self-Esteem Threat	-.13	.06	.09	.030	-.25	-.01

Next, I examined the direct effects of need threats on OCBI. I group-mean centered need threat variables as well as daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect. The results are presented in Table 3.20. After controlling for daily job satisfaction ($\gamma = .05$, $p = .035$, 95% CI [.004, .10]) and daily positive affect ($\gamma = .21$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.13, .29]), both daily belongingness threat ($\gamma = -.11$, $p = .020$, 95% CI [-.20, -.02]) and daily self-esteem threat ($\gamma = -.24$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [-.36, -.12]) had significant negative relationships with organizational citizenship behavior directed at individuals. However, daily control threat was not significantly related to OCBI ($\gamma = .005$, $p = .937$, 95% CI [-.11, .12]). The results of the analysis indicated that belongingness threat-OCBI path and self-esteem threat-OCBI path were significant albeit in opposite direction than I proposed.

Table 3.20
Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily
Self-esteem Threat with OCBI

	Estimate	S.E.	Standardized estimate	p-value	95% CI Low	High
OCBI						
Intercept	3.42	.05		.000	3.33	3.51
Job satisfaction	.05	.03	.07	.035	.004	.10
Positive affect	.21	.04	.22	.000	.13	.29
Belongingness Threat	-.11	.05	-.09	.020	-.20	-.02
Control Threat	.005	.06	.004	.937	-.11	.12
Self-Esteem Threat	-.24	.06	-.18	.000	-.36	-.12

3.6.1. Multilevel Mediation

Hypothesis 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 predicted multilevel mediation relationships; in order to assess these relationships, I adopted the multilevel structural equation modeling approach proposed by Preacher and his colleagues.

Preacher and his colleagues (2010) note that standard multilevel modeling (MLM) procedures to assess mediation may introduce bias because they do not separate between-group and within-group effects. Specifically, MLM provides a single mean slope estimate that combines both within- and between-group effects. For this reason, MLM is very likely to produce biased estimates of indirect effects for both levels. In other words, if the within effect of a level-1 variable differs from the between effect, this single conflated slope estimate will misrepresent the data regardless of the level researcher wants to make inferences. More specifically, if the within effect is smaller than between effect, downward bias will emerge; if the within effect is greater than between effect than upward bias will emerge in the conflated effect. A common procedure to deal with the problem of conflation in MLM is to group-mean center Level-1 variables and then to include group means as Level-2 predictors in the analysis (Kreft & de Leeuw, 1998; Snijders & Bosker, 1999); this approach is called *unconflated multilevel modeling (UMM) approach*. Although the effect of X on Y is not conflated into a single estimate anymore, UMM is still problematic in the respect that adding group mean just serve as a proxy and does not totally eliminate all possible problems; for instance between-group effect of the predictor can still be biased especially if the ICCs are low and cluster sizes are small (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010).

To overcome limitations associated with MLM, Preacher and his colleagues (2010) introduced multilevel structural equation modeling approach (MSEM). MSEM decompose each observed variable into its latent within and between components thereby produce unbiased estimates of indirect effect. MSEM is the current gold standard for conducting multilevel mediation analysis (Manegold, 2014). For these reasons, I chose to conduct my multilevel mediation analyses by using MSEM approach.

Hypothesis 6 proposed that (a) daily belongingness, (b) daily control, and (c) daily self-esteem threat will mediate the relationship between daily supervisor incivility and

exemplification. As it can be seen in Table 3.21, the results showed that the indirect effect of supervisor incivility via belongingness threat was .03 and significant (p =.012). 95% confidence interval for the estimated effect was [.006, .05] and did not include zero. This finding provided support for Hypothesis 6a.

Table 3.21

Multilevel Multiple Mediation Models for Daily Incivility-Exemplification Path

	Estimate	SE	p-value	95% CI Lower	Upper
Daily Incivility- Belongingness Threat-Exemplification					
Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.20	.05	.000	.11	.30
Coworker Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.12	.04	.001	.05	.19
Belongingness Threat-Exemplification	.14	.05	.004	.05	.23
Supervisor Incivility-Exemplification	-.007	.03	.821	-.07	.05
Within Indirect Effect	.03	.01	.012	.006	.05
Coworker Incivility-Exemplification	.005	.04	.881	-.07	.08
Within Indirect Effect	.02	.007	.024	.002	.03
Daily Incivility-Control Threat-Exemplification					
Supervisor Incivility-Control Threat	.21	.04	.000	.14	.28
Coworker Incivility-Control Threat	.05	.04	.119	-.01	.12
Control Threat-Exemplification	-.02	.04	.644	-.10	.06
Supervisor Incivility-Exemplification	-.007	.03	.821	-.07	.05
Within Indirect Effect	-.004	.009	.640	-.02	.01
Coworker Incivility-Exemplification	.005	.04	.881	-.07	.08
Within Indirect Effect	-.001	.002	.646	-.006	.004
Daily Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat-Exemplification					
Supervisor Incivility-Self-esteem Threat	.11	.03	.000	.06	.17
Coworker Incivility-Self-esteem Threat	.04	.03	.098	-.008	.10
Self-Esteem Threat-Exemplification	-.009	.04	.845	-.10	.08
Supervisor Incivility-Exemplification	-.007	.03	.821	-.07	.05
Within Indirect Effect	-.001	.005	.846	-.01	.009
Coworker Incivility-Exemplification	.005	.04	.881	-.07	.08
Within Indirect Effect	.000	.002	.849	-.004	.004

On the other hand, neither daily control threat (-.004, p = .640, 95% CI [-.02, .01]) nor daily self-esteem threat (-.001, p = .846, 95% CI [-.01, .009]) significantly mediated the effects of daily supervisor incivility on daily exemplification. Hypothesis 6b and 6c were not supported. Hypothesis 7 predicted that (a) daily belongingness, (b) daily control and (c) daily self-esteem threat will mediate the relationship between daily coworker incivility and daily exemplification. Indirect effect via daily belongingness was .02 and significant (p = .024), 95% confidence interval was [.002, .03] and did not include zero. Therefore Hypothesis 7a was supported. However, indirect effect via daily control threat (-.001, p = .646, 95% CI [-.006, .004]) and daily self-esteem threat (.000, p = .849, 95% CI [-.004, .004]) were not significant. Consequently, Hypotheses 7b and 7c were not supported.

Hypothesis 8 stated that (a) daily belongingness threat (b) daily control threat and (c) daily self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily self-promotion. To test these indirect effects, I included daily job satisfaction (γ = .08, p = .008, 95% CI [.02, .14]) and daily positive affect (γ = .25, p = .000, 95% CI [.18, .32]) as Level-1 control variables. Table 3.22 shows the results of path analysis with multiple mediators. The results indicate that daily belongingness threat (-.004, p = .728, 95% CI [-.03, .02]) and daily control threat (.001, p = .908, 95% CI [-.02, .03]) did not significantly mediate the effects of supervisor incivility on self-promotion. Hypotheses 8a and 8b were not supported. However, indirect effect of supervisor incivility on self-promotion via daily self-esteem threat was significant albeit in opposite direction than I predicted (-.02, p = .028, 95% CI [-.04, -.002]) so Hypothesis 8 was also not supported. Hypothesis 9 posited that (a) daily belongingness threat (b) daily control threat (c) daily self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of daily coworker incivility on daily self-promotion. Contrary to my prediction, within-individual indirect effects of coworker incivility on self-promotion via belongingness threat (-.002, p = .730, 95% CI [-.02, .01]), control threat (.000, p = .908, 95% CI [-.006, .006]) and self-esteem threat (-.007, p = .161, 95% CI [-.02, .003]) were not significant. Hypotheses 9a, 9b, 9c were not supported.

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Table 3.22
Multilevel Multiple Mediation Models for Daily Incivility-Self-Promotion Paths

	Estimate	SE	p-value	95 % CI Lower	Upper
Daily Incivility- Belongingness Threat-Self-promotion					
Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.21	.05	.000	.11	.31
Coworker Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.11	.04	.001	.05	.18
Belongingness Threat-Self-promotion	-.02	.06	.729	-.14	.09
Supervisor Incivility-Self-promotion	.03	.04	.502	-.05	.10
Within Indirect Effect	-.004	.01	.728	-.03	.02
Coworker Incivility-Self-promotion	-.04	.05	.437	-.13	.06
Within Indirect Effect	-.002	.007	.730	-.02	.01
Daily Incivility- Control Threat-Self-promotion					
Supervisor Incivility-Control Threat	.22	.04	.000	.14	.29
Coworker Incivility-Control Threat	.05	.04	.126	-.02	.12
Control Threat- Self-promotion	.007	.06	.907	-.11	.12
Supervisor Incivility- Self-promotion	.03	.04	.502	-.05	.10
Within Indirect Effect	.001	.01	.908	-.02	.03
Coworker Incivility- Self-promotion	-.04	.05	.437	-.13	.06
Within Indirect Effect	.000	.003	.908	-.006	.006
Daily Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat-Self-promotion					
Supervisor Incivility-Self-esteem Threat	.12	.03	.000	.06	.17
Coworker Incivility-Self-esteem Threat	.04	.03	.122	-.01	.09
Self-Esteem Threat- Self-promotion	-.17	.06	.008	-.29	-.04
Supervisor Incivility- Self-promotion	.03	.04	.502	-.05	.10
Within Indirect Effect	-.02	.009	.028	-.04	-.002
Coworker Incivility- Self-promotion	-.04	.05	.437	-.13	.06
Within Indirect Effect	-.007	.005	.161	-.02	.003

Hypothesis 10 predicted that (a) daily belongingness threat (b) daily control threat and (c) daily self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of supervisor incivility on intimidation. The results of path analysis with multiple mediators can be seen in Table 3.23. The results showed that indirect effects of daily supervisor incivility on intimidation were not mediated via daily belongingness threat (.02, $p = .156$, 95% CI [-.006, .04]), control threat (.006, $p = .594$, 95% CI [-.02, .03]) or self-esteem threat (-.005, $p = .314$, 95% CI [-.02, .005]). Thus,

Hypotheses 10a, 10b and 10c were not supported. Hypothesis 11 argued that (a) belongingness threat, (b) control threat and (c) self-esteem threat mediate the effect of coworker incivility on intimidation. However, the results show that the indirect effect of coworker incivility on intimidation was not mediated via belongingness threat (.01, p = .166, 95% CI [-.004, .02]) control threat (.001, p = .592, 95% CI [-.004, .007]) or self-esteem threat (-.002, p = .359, 95% CI [-.007, .002]). Hypotheses 11a, 11b and 11c were not supported.

Table 3.23
Multilevel Multiple Mediation Models for Daily Incivility-Intimidation Path

				95% CI	
	Estimate	*SE*	*p*-value	Lower	Upper
Daily Incivility-Belongingness Threat-Intimidation					
Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.20	.05	.000	.11	.30
Coworker Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.12	.04	.001	.05	.19
Belongingness Threat-Intimidation	.08	.05	.14	-.03	.19
Supervisor Incivility-Intimidation	.04	.03	.13	-.01	.09
Within Indirect Effect	.02	.01	.156	-.006	.04
Coworker Incivility-Intimidation	.09	.05	.078	-.01	.19
Within Indirect Effect	.01	.007	.166	-.004	.02
Daily Incivility-Control Threat-Intimidation					
Supervisor Incivility-Control Threat	.21	.04	.000	.14	.28
Coworker Incivility-Control Threat	.05	.04	.126	-.02	.12
Control Threat-Intimidation	.03	.05	.585	-.07	.12
Supervisor Incivility-Intimidation	.04	.03	.125	-.01	.09
Within Indirect Effect	.006	.01	.594	-.02	.03
Coworker Incivility-Intimidation	.09	.05	.078	-.01	.19
Within Indirect Effect	.001	.003	.592	-.004	.007
Daily Incivility- Self-esteem Threat-Intimidation					
Supervisor Incivility-Self-esteem Threat	.11	.03	.000	.06	.17
Coworker Incivility-Self-esteem Threat	.04	.03	.097	-.02	.10
Self-esteem Threat-Intimidation	-.05	.05	.291	-.14	.04
Supervisor Incivility-Intimidation	.04	.03	.125	-.01	.09
Within Indirect Effect	-.005	.005	.314	-.02	.005
Coworker Incivility-Intimidation	.09	.05	.078	-.01	.19
Within Indirect Effect	-.002	.002	.359	-.007	.002

Hypothesis 12 stated that (a) daily belongingness threat (b) daily control threat and (c) daily self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of daily supervisor incivility on OCBO. The result of the path analysis with multiple mediators is presented in Table 3.24.

Table 3.24
Multilevel Multiple Mediator Model for Supervisor Incivility- OCBO Paths

				95% CI	
	Estimate	*SE*	*p*-value	Lower	Upper
Daily Incivility- Belongingness Threat-OCBO					
Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.21	.05	.000	.11	.31
Coworker Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.11	.03	.001	.05	.18
Job satisfaction- OCBO	.07	.03	.029	.007	.13
Positive affect- OCBO	.24	.04	.000	.18	.31
Belongingness Threat-OCBO	.09	.05	.057	-.002	.17
Supervisor Incivility-OCBO	.06	.03	.047	.001	.11
Within Indirect Effect	.02	.01	.094	-.003	.04
Coworker Incivility-OCBO	-.02	.04	.678	-.09	.06
Within Indirect Effect	.01	.006	.096	-.002	.02
Daily Incivility-Control Threat-OCBO					
Supervisor Incivility- Control Threat	.22	.04	.000	.14	.29
Coworker Incivility-Control Threat	.05	.04	.122	-.01	.12
Control Threat-OCBO	-.001	.05	.986	-.10	.10
Supervisor Incivility-OCBO	.06	.03	.047	-.001	.11
Within Indirect Effect	.000	.01	.986	-.02	.02
Coworker Incivility-OCBO	-.02	.04	.678	-.09	.06
Within Indirect Effect	.000	.003	.986	-.005	.005
Daily Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat-OCBO					
Supervisor Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat	.11	.03	.000	.05	.17
Coworker Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat	.05	.03	.086	-.01	.12
Self-Esteem Threat-OCBO	-.14	.06	.024	-.26	-.02
Supervisor Incivility-OCBO	.06	.03	.047	.001	.11
Within Indirect Effect	-.02	.008	.072	-.03	.001
Coworker Incivility-OCBO	-.02	.04	.704	-.09	.06
Within Indirect Effect	-.006	.005	.180	-.02	.003

Although marginally significant, daily belongingness threat (.02, p = .094, 95% CI [-.003, 04]) mediated the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on OCBO. Hypothesis 12a was marginally supported. However, daily control threat (.000, p = .986, 95% CI [-.02, .02]) did not significantly mediate the effect of supervisor incivility on OCBO. The results also indicated that the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility via self-esteem threat on OCBO (-.02, p = .072, 95% CI [-.03, 001]) was marginally significant albeit in opposite direction than predicted. Hypotheses 12b, 12c were not supported. Hypothesis 13 proposed that (a) daily belongingness, (b) daily control threat and (c) daily self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of daily coworker incivility on OCBO. The results show that the indirect of effects coworker incivility on OCBO via daily belongingness threat (.01, p = .096, 95% CI [-.002, .02]) was marginally significant so Hypothesis 13a was marginally supported. However, indirect effects of coworker incivility via daily control threat (.000, p = .986, 95% CI [-.005, .005]) and daily self-esteem threat (-.006, p = .180, 95% CI [-.02, .003]) were not significant so Hypotheses 13b and 13c were not supported.

Hypothesis 14 proposed that (a) daily belongingness threat (b) daily control threat and (c) daily self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of supervisor incivility on OCBI. Results presented in Table 3.25 showed that daily belongingness threat significantly mediated the indirect effects of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBI (-.02, p = .023, 95% CI [-.05, -.003]) however the result was in opposite direction than predicted. The indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBI through control threat was not significant (.001, p = 944, 95% CI [-.02, .03]). Lastly, daily self-esteem threat significantly mediated the effects of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBI (-.03, p = .011, 95% CI [-.05, -.006]) but in the opposite direction than predicted. Therefore, Hypotheses 14a, 14b, 14c were not supported. Hypothesis 15 predicted that (a) daily belongingness threat, (b) daily control threat and (c) daily self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of coworker incivility on OCBI. Results indicated that daily belongingness threat significantly mediated the effect of coworker incivility on OCBI (-.01, p = .035, 95% CI [-.03, -.001]). Indirect effect of coworker incivility was not mediated through control threat (.000, p = .944, 95% CI [-.006, .006]). Similarly, daily self-esteem threat did not mediate the effect of daily coworker incivility on OCBI (-.01, p = .121, 95% CI [-.02, .003]). Therefore, Hypotheses 15a, 15b and 15c were not supported.

Table 3.25
Multilevel Multiple Mediation Models for Daily Incivility-OCBI Paths

	Estimate	Standard Error	*p*-value	95% CI Lower	Upper
Daily Incivility- Belongingness Threat-OCBI					
Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.21	.05	.000	.11	.31
Coworker Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.12	.03	.001	.05	.18
Job satisfaction- OCBI	.06	.03	.024	.008	.11
Positive affect-OCBI	.20	.04	.000	.13	.28
Belongingness Threat-OCBI	-.12	.05	.010	-.21	-.03
Supervisor Incivility-OCBI	.004	.03	.909	-.06	.07
Within Indirect Effect	-.02	.01	.023	-.05	-.003
Coworker Incivility-OCBI	.03	.04	.411	-.04	.11
Within Indirect Effect	-.01	.006	.035	-.03	-.001
Daily Incivility-Control Threat-OCBI					
Supervisor Incivility- Control Threat	.22	.04	.000	.14	.29
Coworker Incivility-Control Threat	.05	.04	.124	-.02	.12
Control Threat-OCBI	.004	.06	.944	-.11	.12
Supervisor Incivility-OCBI	.004	.03	.909	-.06	.07
Within Indirect Effect	.001	.013	.944	-.02	.03
Coworker Incivility-OCBI	.03	.04	.411	-.04	.11
Within Indirect Effect	.000	.003	.944	-.006	.006
Daily Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat-OCBI					
Supervisor Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat	.11	.03	.000	.05	.17
Coworker Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat	.05	.03	.088	-.007	.098
Self-Esteem Threat-OCBI	-.24	.06	.000	-.36	-.12
Supervisor Incivility-OCBI	.004	.03	.909	-.06	.07
Within Indirect Effect	-.03	.01	.011	-.05	-.006
Coworker Incivility-OCBI	.03	.04	.411	-.04	.11
Within Indirect Effect	-.01	.007	.121	-.02	.003

3.6.2. Moderated Mediation Models

Hypotheses 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24 and 25 proposed moderated mediation relationships. The moderation and multilevel mediation analysis I conducted provided some initial evidence for some of the proposed multilevel moderation models. Now, I will directly test the moderated mediation hypotheses, following the methods outlined by Bauer, Preacher and Gil (2006). Accordingly, I adopted a *simultaneous modelling approach* for moderated mediation analysis (Bauer et al., 2006). I included model constraints in order to test the moderated indirect effect at the one standard deviation below the mean and one standard deviation above the mean. For instance, at the +1 *SD* above the mean included the following calculation: the slope of the mediator on the predictor (at the within level) + the slope of the mediator on the moderator (at the between level)* +1 *SD* above the mean of the moderator* the slope of the outcome variable on the mediator (at the within level).

Cross-level moderation analysis showed that the effect of daily supervisor incivility-individual honor orientation on exemplification was significant. Moreover, within-person multilevel mediation analysis indicated that daily supervisor incivility had an indirect effect on exemplification via belongingness threat. Now, in the following multilevel moderated mediation analysis, I added individual honor orientation as a first-stage moderator and investigated whether it moderates the indirect effect of supervisor incivility on exemplification through belongingness threat. Since previous exploratory analysis indicated that gender had significant effect on belongingness threat, I also controlled for the effect of gender. As a direct test of the proposed moderated mediation relationship, I examined the significance of conditional indirect effects of supervisor incivility on exemplification through belongingness threat at higher (+1SD) and lower (-1SD) levels of individual honor orientation. The results are presented in Table 3.26. The results of the analysis showed that the indirect effect was stronger at high level of honor orientation (γ= .04 p = .007, 95% CI = [.01, .07]) and weaker at low level of honor orientation (γ= .02 p = .025, 95% CI = [.002, .033]). Hypothesis 16a was supported. I did not include daily control and self-esteem threats in the table since they were not significant mediators. Therefore, Hypotheses 16b and 16c were not supported. Similarly, although belongingness threat was a significant intervening variable in the relationship between coworker incivility and exemplification;

multilevel moderation analysis indicated that cross-level interaction of coworker incivility-individual honor orientation on belongingness threat was not significant. Similarly, neither daily control threat nor daily self-esteem threat were significant intervening variables between daily coworker incivility and exemplification; and individual honor orientation did not change the significance of these indirect effects. Therefore, I did not include these estimates in the final moderated mediation model for exemplification. Consequently, Hypotheses 17a, 17b and 17c were not supported.

Table 3.26

Moderated Mediation for Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat-Exemplification

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Lower	Upper
Supervisor Incivility- Belongingness Threat-Exemplification					
First-stage Moderator: Honor Orientation					
Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.22	.03	.000	.16	.29
Honor Orientation-Belongingness Threat	-.14	.07	.067	-.28	.009
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.13	.07	.039	.006	.26
Belongingness Threat-Exemplification	.13	.04	.002	.05	.21
Supervisor Incivility-Exemplification	-.007	.03	.818	-.07	.05
Honor orientation-Exemplification	.17	.09	.052	-.001	.34
-1 SD Within Indirect Effect	.02	.008	.025	.002	.033
+1 SD Within Indirect Effect	.04	.014	.007	.01	.07

Hypotheses 18 and 19 proposed that individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effects of daily supervisor and coworker incivility on self-promotion via daily belongingness (a), self-esteem (b) and control threats (c). Multilevel moderation analysis revealed that cross-level interaction of daily supervisor incivility-individual honor orientation was significant. Self-esteem threat was also a significant intervening variable between daily supervisor incivility and daily self-promotion. I examined the significance of conditional indirect effects of daily supervisor incivility on self-promotion via self-esteem threat at high (+1SD) and low (-1SD) levels of honor orientation. Previous exploratory analysis indicated that job experience had significant effect on daily self-esteem, while daily positive affect and daily job satisfaction had significant relations with daily self-

promotion. Therefore, I controlled for effect of job experience at level-2 and daily job satisfaction and positive affect at level-1. The results are presented in Table 3.27. The indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on self-promotion via self-esteem threat was significant at high level of honor orientation (γ= -.03, p = .009, 95% CI = [-.05, -.008]) but not significant at low levels of honor orientation (γ= -.01, p = .147, 95% CI = [-.03, .004]). There was a significant moderated mediation effect but it was in the opposite direction than I proposed so Hypothesis 18c was not supported. Moreover, neither daily belongingness threat nor daily control threat was a significant mediator for the proposed relationship between supervisor incivility and self-promotion. Still, I controlled the significance of moderated mediation effects with these mediators. However, none of them reached significance; therefore I did not include them in the final model. Hypotheses 18a and 18b were not supported.

Table 3.27
Moderated Mediation for Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat-Self-promotion

				95% CI	
	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	Lower	Upper
Supervisor Incivility- Self-esteem Threat-Self-Promotion					
First-stage Moderator: Honor Orientation					
Supervisor Incivility-Self-esteem Threat	.13	.03	.000	.07	.19
Honor Orientation-Self-esteem Threat	-.11	.10	.231	-.30	.07
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.10	.05	.042	.003	.19
Self-esteem Threat-Self-Promotion	-.17	.06	.005	-.28	-.05
Supervisor Incivility-Self-Promotion	.03	.04	.434	-.04	.10
Honor orientation-Self-Promotion	.30	.11	.005	.13	.54
-1 SD Within Indirect Effect	-.01	.008	.147	-.03	.004
+1 SD Within Indirect Effect	-.03	.012	.009	-.05	-.008

Daily coworker incivility was not significantly related to daily self-esteem threat and cross-level interaction of daily coworker incivility-individual honor orientation was not significant. Moreover, neither control threat nor belongingness threat significantly mediated the effect of coworker incivility on self-promotion; and individual honor orientation did not change the significance of these proposed indirect effects. Therefore, these effects were not

included in the final moderated mediation model and consequently Hypotheses 19a, 19b and 19c were not supported.

Hypotheses 20 and 21 stated that individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effects of daily supervisor and coworker incivility on intimidation. The results of the main effect analysis indicated that belongingness threat had a significant direct effect on intimidation. Although within-person multiple mediation model for intimidation did not detect a significant indirect effect of supervisor incivility via belongingness threat, given that cross-level interaction of daily supervisor incivility-individual honor orientation was significant for belongingness threat, I still tested the moderated mediation model for intimidation by adding individual honor orientation as a first-stage moderator. As a direct test of proposed moderated mediation relationship, I examined the significance of conditional indirect effects of supervisor incivility on intimidation through belongingness threat at high (+1SD) and low (-1SD) levels of honor orientation. Since gender was significantly related to belongingness threat, I again controlled for the effect of this variable. The results of the analysis showed that the indirect effect was stronger and marginally significant at high levels of honor orientation (γ = .03 p = .055, 95% CI = [-.001, .04]) and not significant at low levels of honor orientation (γ = .01 p = .130, 95% CI = [-.004, .03]). Since the p-value is slightly higher than .05 (p = .055) Hypothesis 20a was marginally supported. I did not include the results for control threat and self-esteem threat because they were not significant mediators and individual honor orientation did not change the significance of the results. Therefore, Hypotheses 20b and 20c were not supported. Similarly, coworker incivility and individual honor orientation interaction had no significant effect on daily belongingness or self-esteem threat. The moderated mediation effect of coworker incivility on intimidation via control threat was also not significant hence these insignificant results were not included in the final moderated mediation model for intimidation. Consequently, Hypotheses 21a, 21b, 21c were also not supported.

Table 3.28

Moderated Mediation for Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat-Intimidation

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	Lower	Upper
				95% CI	
Supervisor Incivility- Belongingness Threat-Intimidation					
First-stage Moderator: Honor Orientation					
Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.22	.03	.000	.16	.29
Honor Orientation-Belongingness Threat	-.14	.07	.067	-.28	.009
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.13	.07	.039	.006	.26
Belongingness Threat-Intimidation	.10	.05	.053	-.001	.192
Supervisor Incivility-Intimidation	.04	.03	.092	-.007	.094
Honor orientation-Intimidation	.25	.10	.011	.06	.43
-1 SD Within Indirect Effect	.01	.008	.130	-.004	.028
+1 SD Within Indirect Effect	.03	.02	.055	-.001	.042

Hypotheses 22 and 23 argued that individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effects of daily supervisor incivility and coworker incivility on daily OCBO. The results of the main effect analysis revealed that belongingness threat had significant and positive relations with OCBO while self-esteem threat had significant and negative effect on OCBO. Within-person multilevel mediation analysis showed that indirect effect of supervisor incivility and coworker incivility on OCBO via belongingness threat and self-esteem threat were marginally significant. Therefore, I wanted to investigate the significance of conditional indirect effects of supervisor incivility on OCBO via belongingness threat and self-esteem threat at high (+1SD) and low (-1SD) levels of honor orientation. Table 3.29 presents the results of the moderated mediation analysis for OCBO. I controlled for the effects of daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect at level-1 and I controlled for the effect of gender at Level-2. The results of the analysis show that the indirect effect of supervisor incivility via belongingness threat was stronger at high level of honor orientation (γ = .025, p = .063, 95% CI = [-.001, .051]) and weaker at low level of honor orientation (γ = .01 p = .098, 95% CI = [-.002, .022]); these effects were marginally significant (p < .10). Therefore, Hypothesis 22a was marginally supported. Indirect effect via daily self-esteem threat was marginally significant at high level of honor orientation (γ = -.025, p = .052, 95% CI = [-.05, .000]) but not significant at low level of honor

orientation ($\gamma = -.01$ $p = .160$, 95% CI = [-.024, .004]). Since the effect was in the opposite direction than I predicted, Hypothesis 22c was not supported. Control threat was not a significant mediator so it was not included in the final model. Consequently, Hypothesis 22b was also not supported.

Table 3.29

Moderated Mediation for Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat-OCBO and Supervisor Incivility-Self-esteem Threat OCBO

				95% CI	
	Estimate	S.E.	*p*-value	Lower	Upper
Supervisor Incivility- Belongingness Threat-OCBO					
First-stage Moderator: Honor Orientation					
Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.21	.04	.000	.14	.28
Honor Orientation-Belongingness Threat	-.13	.07	.08	-.28	.02
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.15	.06	.019	.02	.27
Belongingness Threat-OCBO	.08	.04	.040	.004	.16
Supervisor Incivility-OCBO	.06	.03	.028	.007	.12
Honor orientation-OCBO	.19	.10	.048	.002	.38
-1 SD Within Indirect Effect	.010	.006	.098	-.002	.022
+1 SD Within Indirect Effect	.025	.01	.063	-.001	.051
Supervisor Incivility- Self-esteem Threat-OCBO					
First-stage Moderator: Honor Orientation					
Supervisor Incivility-Self-esteem Threat	.13	.03	.000	.07	.19
Honor Orientation-Self-esteem Threat	-.11	.10	.252	-.30	.08
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.09	.05	.078	-.01	.18
Self-Esteem Threat-OCBO	-.14	.06	.027	-.25	-.02
Supervisor Incivility-OCBO	.06	.03	.028	.007	.12
Honor orientation-OCBO	.19	.10	.048	.002	.38
-1 SD Within Indirect Effect	-.01	.007	.160	-.024	.004
+1 SD Within Indirect Effect	-.025	.013	.052	-.05	.000

Cross-level moderation analysis revealed that the effects of daily coworker incivility and individual honor orientation interaction on belongingness threat and self-esteem threat were not significant. Therefore, these estimates were not included in the final moderated mediation test for OCBO and Hypotheses 23a, 23b and 23c were not supported.

Hypotheses 24 and 25 proposed that individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of supervisor and coworker incivility on OCBI. Within-person mediation and multilevel moderation analyses showed that both daily self-esteem threat and daily belongingness threat significantly mediated the effects of supervisor incivility on OCBI and honor orientation was a significant moderator for both supervisor incivility-belongingness threat and supervisor incivility-self-esteem threat relationships. Although not in the hypothesized directions, I still investigated the significance of conditional indirect effects of supervisor incivility on OCBI via belongingness threat and self-esteem threat at high (+1SD) and low (-1SD) levels of honor orientation. I controlled for the effects of daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect at level-1 and I controlled for the effect of gender at Level-2 since they had significant effects on the variables of interest. The results of the analysis showed that the indirect effect of supervisor incivility via belongingness threat was stronger at high level of honor orientation (γ= -.034, p = .017, 95% CI = [-.06, -.006]) and weaker at low levels of honor orientation (γ= -.015, p = .059, 95% CI = [-.03, .001]). Similarly, indirect effect via daily self-esteem threat was stronger at high level of honor orientation (γ= -.045, p = .002, 95% CI = [-.07, -.016]); weaker and marginally significant at low level of honor orientation (γ= -.018 p = .083, 95% CI = [-.04, -.002]). Although significant, these relationships were in the opposite direction than I predicted so Hypotheses 24a and 24c were not supported. Daily control threat was not a significant mediator for the daily supervisor incivility and daily OCBI relationship; moderated mediation relation was also not significant hence it was not included in the final model. Consequently, Hypothesis 24b was not supported. Cross-level interaction of coworker incivility-individual honor orientation was not significant for belongingness threat or self-esteem threat. Although, the effect of this interaction term on control threat was significant, the indirect effect of coworker incivility on OCBI via control threat was not significant and individual honor orientation as a first-stage moderator did not significantly affect these indirect effects. Therefore, these estimates were also not included in the final multilevel moderated mediation for OCBI. Hypotheses 25a, 25b and 25c were not supported. The final moderated mediation model for OCBI is presented in Table 3.30.

Table 3.30

Moderated Mediation for Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat-OCBI and Supervisor Incivility-Self-esteem Threat OCBI

	Estimate	S.E.	*p*-value	CI Lower	CI Upper
Supervisor Incivility- Belongingness Threat-OCBI					
First-stage Moderator: Honor Orientation					
Supervisor Incivility-Belongingness Threat	.22	.03	.000	.15	.28
Honor Orientation-Belongingness Threat	-.13	.08	.076	-.28	.01
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.14	.06	.029	.01	.27
Belongingness Threat-OCBI	-.11	.04	.011	-.20	-.03
Supervisor Incivility-OCBI	.01	.03	.751	-.05	.07
Honor orientation-OCBI	-.13	.08	.076	-.01	.28
-1 SD Within Indirect Effect	-.015	.008	.059	-.03	.001
+1 SD Within Indirect Effect	-.034	.014	.017	-.06	-.006
Supervisor Incivility- Self-esteem Threat-OCBI					
First-stage Moderator: Honor Orientation					
Supervisor Incivility-Self-esteem Threat	.13	.03	.000	.08	.19
Honor Orientation-Self-esteem Threat	-.11	.10	.264	-.29	.08
Supervisor Incivility*Honor Orientation	.09	.05	.047	.001	.18
Self-Esteem Threat-OCBI	-.24	.06	.000	-.36	-.12
Supervisor Incivility-OCBI	.01	.03	.751	-.05	.07
Honor orientation-OCBI	.05	.03	.038	-.01	.28
-1 SD Within Indirect Effect	-.018	.01	.083	-.04	.002
+1 SD Within Indirect Effect	-.045	.02	.002	-.07	-.016

3.6.3. Additional Exploratory Analyses

In addition to the hypothesized relationships, I conducted a number of additional exploratory analyses. First, I checked whether gender moderates the daily incivility and the daily need threat paths. The results for daily supervisor incivility-daily need threat paths are presented in the Table 3.31.

Table 3.31
Gender as a Moderator of Supervisor Incivility-Need Threat Paths

	Estimate	SE	p-value	95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Daily Incivility-Belongingness Threat					
Person-level moderator: Gender					
Intercept	1.68	.07	.000	1.54	1.83
Supervisor Incivility	.17	.06	.007	.05	.29
Coworker Incivility	.12	.03	.000	.05	.18
Gender	-.23	.09	.009	-.41	-.06
Supervisor Incivility*Gender	.06	.08	.434	-.09	.22
Daily Incivility-Control Threat					
Person-level moderator: Gender					
Intercept	2.06	.08	.000	1.91	2.22
Supervisor Incivility	.10	.04	.023	.01	.19
Coworker Incivility	.05	.03	.111	-.01	.12
Gender	-.22	.11	.049	-.43	-.001
Supervisor Incivility*Gender	.19	.06	.001	.07	.31
Daily Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat					
Person-level moderator: Gender					
Intercept	2.21	.09	.000	2.04	2.38
Supervisor Incivility	.04	.04	.318	-.04	.13
Coworker Incivility	.04	.03	.080	-.005	.09
Gender	-.12	.11	.298	-.34	.10
Supervisor Incivility*Gender	.13	.05	.017	.02	.23

The analysis revealed that gender did not moderate the within-individual relations between supervisor incivility and belongingness threat (γ = .06, p = .434, 95% CI, [-.09, .22]); however it affected the within-individual relationships between daily supervisor incivility and daily control threat (γ = .19, p =.001, 95% CI [.07, .31]); and between daily supervisor incivility and daily self-esteem threat (γ = .13, p = .017, 95% CI, [.02, .23]). Accordingly, the within-individual relationships of daily supervisor incivility-daily control threat and daily supervisor incivility-daily self-esteem threat were significantly stronger for females than it is for males. The results for coworker incivility-need threat paths are presented in the Table 3.32. The analysis revealed that gender did not moderate the within-individual relations between daily coworker incivility and daily belongingness threat (γ = .02, p = .814, CI, [-.14, .18], daily coworker incivility and daily control threat (γ = .05, p

=.388, CI [-.07, .17]) and daily coworker incivility and daily self-esteem threat (γ = -.08, *p* = .172, CI, [-.20, .04]).

Table 3.32
Gender as a Moderator of Coworker Incivility-Need Threat Paths

	Estimate	S.E	p-value	95% Confidence Interval	
Daily Incivility-Belongingness Threat				Low	High
Person-level moderator: Gender					
Intercept	1.68	.07	.000	1.54	1.83
Supervisor Incivility	.21	.05	.000	.11	.31
Coworker Incivility	.10	.05	.040	.005	.20
Gender	-.23	.09	.009	-.41	-.06
Coworker Incivility*Gender	.02	.08	.814	-.14	.18
Daily Incivility-Control Threat					
Person-level moderator: Gender					
Intercept	2.06	.08	.000	1.91	2.22
Supervisor Incivility	.22	.04	.000	.15	.29
Coworker Incivility	.03	.05	.601	-.08	.13
Gender	-.22	.11	.050	-.43	.000
Coworker Incivility*Gender	.05	.06	.388	-.07	.17
Daily Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat					
Person-level moderator: Honor Orientation					
Intercept					
Supervisor Incivility	.11	.01	.000	.09	.14
Coworker Incivility	.09	.05	.072	-.008	.18
Gender	-.12	.03	.000	-.18	-.05
Coworker Incivility*Gender	-.08	.06	.172	-.20	.04

I also checked whether three-way interaction of supervisor incivility-gender-individual honor orientation has significant effects on need threats. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 3.33.

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Table 3.33
Effect of Daily Incivility-Gender-Honor Orientation Interaction on Need Threats

	Estimate	SE	p-value	95% Confidence Interval	
Daily Incivility-Belongingness Threat				Low	High
Person-level moderators: Honor Orientation and Gender					
Intercept	1.68	.07	.000	1.54	1.83
Supervisor Incivility	.16	.06	.006	.05	.28
Coworker Incivility	.11	.03	.000	.05	.17
Gender	-.24	.09	.007	-.42	-.07
Honor Orientation	-.26	.13	.043	-.52	-.009
Supervisor Incivility*Gender	.04	.07	.553	-.10	.18
Gender*Honor Orientation	.26	.16	.092	-.04	.56
Supervisor Incivility*Gender* Honor Orientation	.13	.09	.140	-.04	.30
Daily Incivility-Control Threat					
Intercept	2.07	.08	.000	1.91	2.21
Supervisor Incivility	.10	.04	.010	.02	.17
Coworker Incivility	.05	.04	.138	-.02	.12
Gender	-.22	.11	.042	-.44	-.008
Honor Orientation	-.19	.14	.195	-.47	.10
Supervisor Incivility*Gender	.16	.06	.004	.05	.27
Gender*Honor Orientation	.29	.19	.130	-.09	.67
Supervisor Incivility*Gender*Honor Orientation	.13	.08	.115	-.03	.30
Daily Incivility-Self-Esteem Threat					
Intercept	2.22	.09	.000	2.05	2.38
Supervisor Incivility	.04	.04	.337	-.04	.12
Coworker Incivility	.04	.03	.082	-.006	.09
Gender	-.13	.11	.258	-.34	.09
Honor Orientation	-.29	.16	.07	-.61	.03
Supervisor Incivility*Gender	.12	.05	.021	.02	.23
Gender*Honor Orientation	.32	.19	.105	-.07	.70
Supervisor Incivility*Gender*Honor Orientation	.01	.05	.851	-.09	.11

In order calculate the effect of three way interaction, first I grand-mean centered individual honor orientation. Then, I created an interaction term that involves grand-mean centered individual honor orientation and gender. In the following analysis, I included the interaction term of individual honor orientation and gender as a predictor of supervisor

incivility-need threat slopes. However, as it can be seen in Table 3.33, none of the three way interactions was significant.

It is argued that uncivil behavior of high status members may be perceived more legitimate than the uncivil behavior of low status members (Porath et al., 2008). Turkey is a high power distance country; one may suspect that when targeted with supervisor incivility, employees who have high power distance orientation may feel less threatened than the ones who have low power distance orientation. Therefore, I wanted to examine the possible moderating effect of individual power distance orientation[8] on daily supervisor incivility and daily need threat paths. To test this, I grand-mean centered and added power distance as a level-2 predictor along with individual honor orientation. The results indicated that power distance did not significantly moderate supervisor incivility-belongingness threat path (γ = -.02, p = .706, 95% CI [-.13, .09]), supervisor incivility-control threat path (γ= -.07, p =.255, 95% CI [-.18, .05]) and supervisor incivility-self-esteem threat path (γ = -.01, p = .760, 95% CI [-.09, .07]).

I also investigated whether gender moderated the daily belongingness threat-exemplification, daily control threat-exemplification and daily self-esteem threat-exemplification paths. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 3.34. The results indicated that cross-level interaction of belongingness threat-gender was marginally significant. Accordingly the within-person relation between belongingness threat-exemplification were weaker for females compared to males (γ = -.16, p = .086, 95% CI [-.34, .02]). However, gender as a level-2 variable did not significantly moderate the daily control threat-exemplification (γ = .06, p = .427, 95% CI [-.10, .22]) and self-esteem threat-exemplification (γ = -.07, p = .542, 95% CI [-.28, .15]) paths.

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[8] I used the scale developed by Early and Erez (1997). The results of the exploratory factor analysis indicated that one of the eight items were problematic. Remaining seven items loaded on a single factor and explained 44% of total variance. Cronbach alpha estimate for this measure was .78.

Table 3.34
Gender as the Moderator of the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat-Exemplification, Daily Control Threat-Exemplification, Daily Self-Esteem Threat-Exemplification

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
Exemplification					
Intercept	1.63	.07	.000	1.49	1.77
Belongingness Threat	.25	.07	.000	.11	.38
Control Threat	-.06	.06	.305	-.17	.05
Self-Esteem Threat	.03	.08	.704	-.13	.20
Gender	.08	.10	.423	-.12	.29
Belongingness Threat*Gender	-.16	.09	.086	-.34	.02
Control Threat*Gender	.06	.08	.427	-.10	.22
Self-esteem Threat*Gender	-.07	.11	.542	-.28	.15

I also checked whether gender as level-2 predictor moderates the within-person relations of daily belongingness threat-self-promotion, daily control threat-self-promotion and daily self-esteem threat-exemplification paths. The results are presented in Table 3.35. The cross-level interaction terms of daily control threat-gender was marginally significant (γ = -.20, p = .094, 95% CI [-.43, .03]), while interaction terms for daily belongingness threat-gender (γ = -.14, p = .269, 95% CI [-.39, .11]) and daily self-esteem threat-gender (γ = .10, p = .433, 95% CI [-.15, .35]) were not significant.

Table 3.35
Gender Moderating the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with Self-Promotion

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
Self-promotion					
Intercept	2.83	.09	.000	2.65	3.01
Belongingness Threat	.007	.09	.935	-.17	.18
Control Threat	.10	.12	.433	-.09	.28
Self-Esteem Threat	-.35	.10	.000	-.53	-.16
Gender	.10	.13	.450	-.15	.35
Belongingness Threat*Gender	-.14	.13	.269	-.39	.11
Control Threat*Gender	-.20	.12	.094	-.43	.03
Self-esteem Threat*Gender	.10	.12	.433	-.15	.35

Next, I examined whether gender significantly affected daily belongingness threat-intimidation, daily control threat-intimidation and daily self-esteem threat-intimidation paths. As it can be seen in Table 3.36, none of the cross-level interactions was significant.

Table 3.36
Gender Moderating the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with Intimidation

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
Intimidation					
Intercept	1.88	.09	.000	1.71	2.05
Belongingness Threat	.21	.09	.021	.03	.38
Control Threat	.08	.06	.203	-.04	.19
Self-Esteem Threat	-.02	.07	.824	-.15	.12
Gender	.02	.12	.838	-.21	.25
Belongingness Threat*Gender	-.16	.11	.160	-.37	.06
Control Threat*Gender	-.08	.09	.395	-.26	.10
Self-esteem Threat*Gender	-.02	.10	.866	-.20	.17

Table 3.37
Gender Moderating the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with OCBI

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
OCBI					
Intercept	3.33	.07	.000	3.20	3.47
Belongingness Threat	-.17	.07	.023	-.31	-.02
Control Threat	.12	.08	.149	-.04	.283
Self-Esteem Threat	-.23	.07	.001	-.36	-.09
Gender	.15	.09	.100	-.03	.33
Belongingness Threat*Gender	.04	.09	.685	-.15	.22
Control Threat*Gender	-.21	.10	.038	-.41	-.01
Self-esteem Threat*Gender	-.12	.11	.284	-.33	.10

Table 3.37 shows that, gender did not significantly affect within person relations of daily belongingness threat-OCBI ($\gamma = .04$, $p = .685$, 95% CI [-.15, .22]) and daily self-esteem threat-OCBI ($\gamma = -.12$, $p = .284$, 95% CI [-.33, .10]) but the cross-level interaction of control threat and gender was significant ($\gamma = -.21$, $p = .038$, 95% CI [-.41, .01]). Accordingly, there was a negative and significant relationship between daily control threat and OCBI for females. Lastly, gender as a level-2 predictor did not significantly moderate

daily belongingness threat-OCBO (γ = -.009, p = .934, 95% CI [-.22, .20]), control threat-OCBO (γ = -.16, p = .154, 95% CI [-.37, .06]) or self-esteem threat-OCBO paths (γ = .02, p = .847, 95% CI [-.21, .25]). The results are presented in Table 3.38.

Table 3.38
Gender Moderating the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with OCBO

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
OCBO					
Intercept	2.90	.08	.000	2.75	3.05
Belongingness Threat	.08	.07	.268	-.06	.22
Control Threat	.05	.09	.549	-.12	.22
Self-Esteem Threat	-.28	.09	.001	-.45	-.11
Gender	-.05	.12	.683	-.28	.18
Belongingness Threat*Gender	-.009	.11	.934	-.22	.20
Control Threat*Gender	-.16	.11	.154	-.37	.06
Self-esteem Threat*Gender	.02	.12	.847	-.21	.25

Although I already controlled for the effect daily job satisfaction and daily positive effect on dependent variables, as an exploratory analysis, I also checked whether daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect mediate the effects of daily supervisor incivility and daily coworker incivility on dependent variables. While direct effects of daily supervisor incivility (γ = -.20, p =.000, 95% CI = [-.27,-.13]) and daily coworker incivility (γ = -.13, p =.032, 95% CI = [-.24,-.01] on job satisfaction were significant, daily job satisfaction did not significantly mediate the indirect effects of daily supervisor incivility (γ = .000, p =.886, 95% CI = [-.01, .01]) and daily coworker incivility (γ = .000, p =.893, 95% CI = [-.007, .007]) on exemplification. Similarly, daily positive affect did not significantly mediate the effects of daily supervisor incivility (γ = .000, p =.886, 95% CI = [-.006, .006) and daily coworker incivility (γ= .000, p =.893, 95% CI = [-.001, .001]) on exemplification. The results also showed that daily job satisfaction (γ= -.015, p =.026, 95% CI = [-.03, -.002]) and positive affect (γ= -.02, p =.002, 95% CI = [-.04, -.009) mediated the effects of daily supervisor incivility on self-promotion but neither job satisfaction (γ= -.01, p =.109, 95% CI = [-.02, .002]) nor daily positive affect (γ= -.004, p =.715, 95% CI = [-.03, .02) did mediate the effects of daily coworker incivility on daily self-promotion. Daily job

satisfaction and daily positive affect also did not significantly mediate the effects of daily supervisor incivility (γ= -.007, p =.206, 95% CI = [-.02,.004]) and daily coworker incivility (γ=-.005, p =.266, 95% CI = [-.01, .004]) on daily intimidation; similarly daily positive affect also did not significantly mediate the effects of daily supervisor incivility (γ= -.003, p =.350, 95% CI = [-.01,.003]) and daily coworker incivility (γ= -.001, p =.727, 95% CI = [-.004, .003]) on intimidation. Daily job satisfaction (γ =-.01 p = .04, 95% CI = [-.03,-.001]) and positive affect also significantly mediated the effect of supervisor incivility on OCBO (γ = -.02 p =.002, 95% CI = [-.04,-.009]). On the other hand, the indirect effects of daily coworker incivility on daily OCBO via daily job satisfaction (γ = .008 p = .121, 95% CI = [-.02, .002]) and daily positive affect (γ= -.004 p = .724, 95% CI = [-.03, .02]) were not significant.

I also checked the possibility of second-stage moderation with individual honor orientation. First, I examined whether gender, age and job experience have significant relationships with any of the dependent variables (i.e. exemplification, self-promotion, intimidation, OCBI and OCBO). The results show that age (γ = -.03, p = .233, 95% CI [-.07, .02]), gender (γ = .05, p = .631, 95% CI [-.14, .24]) and job experience (γ = -.002, p = .913, 95% CI [-.04, .04]) have no significant relationship with exemplification. Similarly age (γ = -.01, p = .553, 95% CI [-.06, .03]), gender (γ = .08, p = .528, 95% CI [-.17, .33]) and job experience (γ = -.005, p = .846, 95% CI [-.05, .04]) did not significantly predict self-promotion. Age (γ = -.04, p = .157, 95% CI [-.08, .01]), gender (γ = -.01, p = .904, 95% CI [-.24, .22]) and job experience (γ = .02, p = .518, 95% CI [-.03, .06]) also have no significant relations with intimidation. The effects of age (γ = -.02, p = .373, 95% CI [-.05, .02]), gender (γ = .14, p = .140, 95% CI [-.04, .31]) and job experience (γ = .01, p =.465, 95% CI [-.02, .05]) were also not significant for OCBI. The relationship between age and OCBO was marginally significant (γ = -.04, p = .07, 95% CI [-.08, .003]); accordingly older employees engaged in less OCBO than younger employees; however, neither gender (γ = -.09, p = .438, 95% CI [-.31, .13]) nor job experience (γ = .02, p = .394, 95% CI [-.02, .06]) has any significant effect on OCBO.

Table 3.39
The Relationships between Demographic Variables and Outcome Variables

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	95% CI High
Exemplification					
Intercept	3.42	.04	.000	1.58	1.78
Level-2 predictors					
Age	-.03	.02	.233	-.07	.02
Gender	.05	.10	.631	-.14	.24
Job experience	-.002	.02	.913	-.04	.04
Self-promotion					
Intercept	2.90	.06	.000	2.77	3.02
Level-2 predictors					
Age	-.01	.02	.553	-.06	.03
Gender	.08	.13	.528	-.17	.33
Job experience	-.005	.02	.846	-.05	.04
Intimidation					
Intercept	1.89	.06	.000	1.78	2.00
Level-2 predictors					
Age	-.04	.02	.157	-.08	.01
Gender	-.01	.12	.904	-.24	.22
Job experience	.02	.02	.518	-.03	.06
OCBI					
Intercept	3.42	.04	.000	3.33	3.51
Level-2 predictors					
Age	-.02	.02	.373	-.05	.02
Gender	.14	.09	.140	-.04	.31
Job experience	.01	.02	.465	-.02	.05
OCBO					
Level-2 predictors					
Intercept	2.87	.06	.000	2.76	2.98
Age	-.04	.02	.070	-.08	.003
Gender	-.09	.11	.438	-.31	.13
Job experience	.02	.02	.394	-.02	.06

Before second-stage moderation analysis, I also controlled whether variances of the slopes are significant. Variances of belongingness threat-exemplification (.001, $p = .930$, 95% CI [-.03, .04.]), control-threat-exemplification (.015, $p = .502$, 95% CI [-.03, .06]) and self-esteem threat-exemplification (.074, $p = .141$, 95% CI [-.02, .17]) were not statistically significant. However, due to aforementioned reasons, when testing cross-level interactions, I did not fixed the variances of the slopes to zero. I group-mean centered Level-1 variables daily belongingness, control and self-esteem threats; and grand-mean centered individual

honor-orientation. The results of this analysis which is presented in Table 3.40 revealed that individual honor orientation did not significantly moderate belongingness threat-exemplification path (γ = .05, p = .556, 95% CI [-.11, .20]), control threat-exemplification path (γ = -.03, p = .750, 95% CI [-.20, .14]), or self-esteem threat-exemplification path (γ = -.008, p = .930, 95% CI [-.20, .18]).

Table 3.40

Honor Orientation Moderating the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with Exemplification

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
Exemplification					
Intercept	1.68	.05	.000	1.57	1.78
Belongingness Threat	.15	.05	.005	.05	.25
Control Threat	-.02	.04	.620	-.10	.06
Self-Esteem Threat	-.008	.05	.899	-.11	.09
Honor Orientation	.17	.09	.052	-.001	.34
Belongingness Threat*Honor Orientation	.05	.08	.556	-.11	.20
Control Threat*Honor Orientation	-.03	.09	.750	-.20	.14
Self-esteem Threat*Honor Orientation	-.008	.10	.930	-.20	.18

For the dependent variable of self-promotion, before examining individual honor orientation as a Level-2 moderator, again I checked whether the variances of the slopes are significant. The variances of belongingness threat-self-promotion slope (.04, p = .155, 95% CI [-.01, .09]), control threat-self-promotion slope (.05, p = .104, 95% CI [-.01, .11]) and self-esteem threat-self-promotion slope (.05, p=.338, 95% CI [-.06, .16]) were not significant yet I did not fixed the slopes in the following analysis. I group-mean centered daily belongingness, control and self-esteem threats and grand-mean centered individual honor orientation. The results showed that the cross-level interactions of belongingness threat-honor orientation (γ = .05, p = .605, 95% CI [-.14, .24]), control threat-honor orientation (γ = -.11, p = .294, 95% CI [-.31, .09]), and self-esteem threat and honor orientation (γ = .04, p = .894, 95% CI [-.19, .22]) were not significant. The results are presented in Table 3.41.

Table 3.41
Honor Orientation Moderating the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat,
Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with Self-promotion

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
Self-promotion					
Intercept	2.89	.06	.000	2.77	3.01
Belongingness Threat	-.07	.06	.265	-.20	.05
Control Threat	-.01	.06	.824	-.13	.11
Self-Esteem Threat	-.30	.06	.000	-.41	-.17
Honor Orientation	.33	.11	.003	.11	.54
Belongingness Threat*Honor Orientation	.05	.10	.605	-.14	.24
Control Threat*Honor Orientation	-.11	.10	.294	-.31	.09
Self-esteem Threat*Honor Orientation	.04	.11	.894	-.19	.22

For intimidation, first I again examined the significance of the slope variances. The variances of belongingness threat-intimidation slope (.033, p = .213, 95% CI [-.02, .09]), control threat-intimidation slope (.023, p = .216, 95% CI [-.01, .06]) and self-esteem threat-intimidation slope (.04, p = .374, 95% CI [-.05, .12]) were not significant.

Table 3.42
Honor Orientation Moderating the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat,
Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with Intimidation

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
Intimidation					
Intercept	1.89	.06	.000	1.78	2.00
Belongingness Threat	.12	.06	.036	.008	.23
Control Threat	.04	.05	.405	-.05	.13
Self-Esteem Threat	-.02	.05	.670	-.12	.08
Honor Orientation	.24	.10	.012	.05	.43
Belongingness Threat*Honor Orientation	.06	.10	.524	-.13	.25
Control Threat*Honor Orientation	-.13	.09	.162	-.31	.05
Self-esteem Threat*Honor Orientation	-07	.09	.445	-.25	.11

I grand-mean centered individual honor orientation and added it as level-2 predictor along with group-mean centered need threats; individual honor orientation did not moderate the any of the need threat-self-promotion paths and this is evidenced by the lack of

significance for the cross-level interaction terms of daily belongingness threat-gender (γ = .06, p = .524, 95% CI [-.13, .25]), daily control threat-gender (γ = -.13, p = .162, 95% CI [-.31, .05]) and daily self-esteem threat-gender (γ = -.07, p = .445, 95% CI [-.25, .11]).

As for the OCBI, the variances of belongingness threat-OCBI slope (.007, p = .201, 95% CI [-.06, .08]) was not significant however the variances of control threat-OCBI slope (.06, p = .023, CI [.008, 11]) and self-esteem threat-OCBI slope (.08, p = .003, 95% CI [.03, .14]) were significant. Cross-level interactions of daily belongingness threat-individual honor orientation (γ = .10, p = .173, 95% CI [-.04 .24]), daily control threat-individual honor orientation (γ = -.06, p = .481, 95% CI [-.23, .11]) and daily self-esteem threat-individual honor orientation (γ = .03, p = .677, 95% CI [-.12, .19]) were not significant.

Table 3.43
Honor Orientation Moderating the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with OCBI

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
OCBI					
Intercept	3.42	.04	.000	3.33	3.51
Belongingness Threat	-.14	.04	.001	-.23	-.06
Control Threat	-.002	.05	.973	-.10	.10
Self-Esteem Threat	-.29	.06	.000	-.41	-.18
Honor Orientation	.12	.08	.139	-.04	.28
Belongingness Threat*Honor Orientation	.10	.07	.173	-.04	.24
Control Threat*Honor Orientation	-.06	.09	.481	-.23	.11
Self-esteem Threat*Honor Orientation	.03	.08	.677	-.12	.19

None of these cross-level interactions was significant so individual honor orientation did not moderate the within-individual relations between daily need threats and OCBI. The result of this analysis is presented in Table 3.43.

Lastly, for the OCBO, the variances of belongingness threat-OCBO slope (.006, p = .883, 95% CI [-.07, .08]) and the variance of control threat-OCBO slope (.05, p = .124, 95% CI [-.01, .12]) were not significant while the self-esteem threat-OCBO slope (.05, p = .082, 95% CI [-.006, .10]) was marginally significant. Regarding the cross-level interactions between daily need threats and individual honor orientation, the results of the analysis reveal that interaction term of belongingness threat-individual honor orientation (γ = .13, p = .099, 95% CI [-.03, .29]) was marginally significant while the interaction

between control threat and honor orientation was significant (γ = -.19, p = .036, 95% CI [-.37, -.01]) however daily self-esteem threat-honor orientation interaction (γ = .00, p = .999, 95% CI [-.17, .17]) was not significant. The results are presented in Table 3.44.

Table 3.44
Honor Orientation Moderating the Within-Person Relations of Daily Belongingness Threat, Daily Control Threat and Daily Self-esteem Threat with OCBO

	Estimate	S.E.	p-value	95% CI Low	High
OCBO					
Intercept	2.87	.06	.000	2.76	2.99
Belongingness Threat	.08	.05	.149	-.03	.18
Control Threat	-.03	.05	.524	-.14	.07
Self-Esteem Threat	-.27	.06	.000	-.38	-.16
Honor Orientation	.18	.10	.060	-.008	.37
Belongingness Threat*Honor Orientation	.13	.08	.099	-.03	.29
-1 SD Honor Orientation	-.008	.06	.855	-.12	.10
+1 SD Honor Orientation	.16	.09	.063	-.009	.32
Control Threat*Honor Orientation	-.19	.09	.036	-.37	-.01
-1 SD Honor Orientation	.09	.08	.314	-.08	.25
+1 SD Honor Orientation	-.15	.07	.031	-.29	-.01
Self-esteem Threat*Honor Orientation	.00	.09	.999	-.17	.17

I conducted simple slope tests for the significant interactions; simple slope tests reveal that the relationship between belongingness threat and OCBO was marginally significant when honor orientation is high (γ = .16, p = .063, 95% CI [-.009, .32]) but not when it is low (γ = -.008, p = .855, 95% CI [-.12, .10]). Similarly, the negative relation between control threat and OCBO is significant when honor orientation is high (γ = -.15, p = .031, 95% CI [-.29, -.01]) but not when it is low (γ = .09, p = .314, 95% CI [-.08, .25]).

The results of the hypotheses testing for daily diary study are summarized in Table 3.45.

Table 3.45
Summary of the Results of the Hypothesis Testing

HYPOTHESES	Result	Explanation
Hypothesis 1. Daily supervisor incivility is positively related to daily belongingness threat (H1a), daily control threat (H1b) and daily self-esteem threat (H1c).	Supported	Daily supervisor incivility were significantly and positively related to belongingness threat , control threat and self-esteem threat
Hypothesis 2. Daily coworker Incivility is positively related to daily belongingness threat (H2a), daily control threat (H2b) and daily self-esteem threat (H2c).	Supported (H2a)

Not supported (H2b, H2c) | Daily coworker incivility was significantly related only with belongingness threat |
| Hypothesis 3. Daily supervisor incivility has stronger positive relationship with daily belongingness threat, control threat and self-esteem threat than daily coworker incivility. | Supported | Daily supervisor incivility had significantly stronger relationships with need threats than daily coworker incivility |
| *Moderator: Individual Honor Orientation* | | |
| Hypothesis 4. Individual honor orientation moderates the relationships of daily supervisor incivility with daily belongingness threat (H4a), daily control threat (H4b) and daily self-esteem threat (H4c) such that the relationship between daily supervisor incivility and these daily need threats will be stronger when honor orientation of an individual is high. | Supported | The relationship between daily supervisor incivility and daily belongingness threat was significantly stronger at high levels of individual honor orientation than it is at low levels of honor orientation

The relationship between daily supervisor incivility and control threat was significant and stronger at high levels of honor orientation but not significant at low levels of honor orientation

The relationship between daily supervisor incivility and self-esteem threat was significant and stronger at high levels of honor orientation but not significant at low level of honor orientation |

Table 3.45
Summary of the Results of the Hypothesis Testing (Cont'd)

HYPOTHESES	Result	Explanation
Hypothesis 5. Individual honor orientation moderates the relationships of daily coworker incivility with daily belongingness threat (H5a), daily control threat (H5b) and daily self-esteem threat (H5c) such that the relationship between daily coworker incivility and daily need threats will be stronger when honor orientation of an individual is high.	Supported (H5b) Not supported (H5a, H5c)	The relationship between daily coworker incivility and control threat was significant and stronger at high levels of honor orientation but not significant at low level of honor orientation
DAILY INCIVILITY, DAILY NEED THREAT, and DAILY EXEMPLIFICATION		
Hypothesis 6. Daily belongingness threat (H6a), daily control threat (H6b) and daily self-esteem threat (H6c) mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily exemplification.	Supported (H6a) Not supported (H6b, H6c)	Only belongingness threat significantly mediated the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility
Hypothesis 7. Daily belongingness threat (H7a), daily control threat (H7b) and daily self-esteem threat (H7c) mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily exemplification.	Supported (H7a) Not supported (H7b, H7c)	Only belongingness threat significantly mediated the positive effect of daily coworker incivility
DAILY INCIVILITY- DAILY NEED THREAT-DAILY SELF PROMOTION		
Hypothesis 8. Daily belongingness threat (H8a), daily control threat (H8b) and daily self-esteem (H8c) threat mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily self-promotion.	Not supported	Controlling for daily job satisfaction and daily positive affect, only daily self-esteem mediated the effect of supervisor incivility on self-promotion; however, indirect effect was negative rather than positive
Hypothesis 9. Daily belongingness threat (H9a), daily control threat (H9b) and daily self-esteem (H9c) threat mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily self-promotion.	Not supported	Coworker incivility had no indirect effect on self-promotion mediated via belongingness, control or self-esteem threat

Table 3.45
Summary of the Results of the Hypothesis Testing (Cont'd)

HYPOTHESES	Result	Explanation
DAILY INCIVILITY- DAILY NEED THREAT-DAILY INTIMIDATION		
Hypothesis 10. Daily belongingness threat (H10a), daily control threat (H10b) and daily self-esteem (H10c) threat mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily intimidation.	Not supported	Indirect effect of supervisor incivility on intimidation via belongingness, control and self-esteem threat was not significant
Hypothesis 11. Daily belongingness threat (H11a), daily control threat (H11b) and daily self-esteem threat (H11c) mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily intimidation.	Not supported	Indirect effect of coworker incivility on intimidation via belongingness, control and self-esteem threat was not significant
DAILY SUPERVISOR INCIVILITY-DAILY NEED THREATS-DAILY OCBO		
Hypothesis 12. Daily belongingness threat (H12a), daily control threat (H12b) and daily self-esteem threat (H12c) mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBO.	Marginally supported (H12a) Not supported (H12b, H12c)	Only indirect effect of supervisor incivility on OCBO via belongingness threat was marginally significant
Hypothesis 13. Daily belongingness threat (H13a), daily control threat (H13b) and daily self-esteem threat (H13c) mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily OCBO.	Marginally supported (H13a) Not supported (H13b, H13c)	Only indirect effect of coworker incivility on OCBO via belongingness threat was marginally significant
DAILY SUPERVISOR INCIVILITY-DAILY NEED THREAT-DAILY OCBI		
Hypothesis 14. Daily belongingness threat (H14a), daily control threat (H14b) and daily self-esteem threat (H14c) mediate the positive effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBI.	Not supported	Indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on OCBI via belongingness and self-esteem threat was significant albeit in opposite direction
Hypothesis 15. Daily belongingness threat (H15a), daily control threat (H15b) and daily self-esteem threat (H15c) mediate the positive effect of daily coworker incivility on daily OCBI.	Not supported	Indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on OCBI via belongingness threat was significant albeit in opposite direction

Table 3.45
Summary of the Results of the Hypothesis Testing (Cont'd)

HYPOTHESES	Result	Explanation
MODERATED MEDIATION HYPOTHESES		
First stage Moderator: Individual Honor Orientation		
Hypothesis 16. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily exemplification via daily belongingness threat (16a), daily control threat (16b) and daily self-esteem threat (H16c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation	Supported (16a)

Not supported (H16b, H16c) | Indirect effect of supervisor incivility on exemplification via belongingness threat was significantly stronger at high levels of honor orientation, and although still significant weaker at low levels of honor orientation |
Hypothesis 17. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily exemplification via daily belongingness threat (H17a), daily control threat (H17b) and daily self-esteem threat (H17c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.	Not supported	Individual honor orientation did not moderate the indirect effect of coworker incivility on exemplification via belongingness, control or self-esteem threats
Hypothesis 18. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily self-promotion via daily belongingness threat (H18a), daily control threat (H18b) and daily self-esteem threat (H18c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.	Not supported	Negative indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily self-promotion via self-esteem threat was significant at high levels of honor orientation but not at low levels of honor orientation
Hypothesis 19. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily self-promotion via daily belongingness threat (H19a), daily control threat (H19b) and daily self-esteem threat (H19c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.	Not supported	Individual honor orientation did not moderate the indirect effect of coworker incivility on self-promotion via belongingness, control and self-esteem threats

Table 3.45
Summary of the Results of the Hypothesis Testing (Cont'd)

HYPOTHESES	Result	Explanation
MODERATED MEDIATION HYPOTHESES		
First stage Moderator: Individual Honor Orientation		
Hypothesis 20. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily intimidation via daily belongingness threat (H20a), daily control threat (20b) and daily self-esteem threat (H20c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.	Marginally Supported (20a) Not supported (H20b, H20c)	Indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily intimidation via belongingness threat was marginally significant at high levels of honor orientation but not significant at low levels of honor orientation
Hypothesis 21. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily intimidation via (H21a) daily belongingness threat, daily control threat (21b) and daily self-esteem threat (21c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.	Not supported	Individual honor orientation did not moderate the indirect effect of coworker incivility on intimidation via belongingness, control and self-esteem threats
Hypothesis 22. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBO via daily belongingness threat (H22a), daily control threat (H22b) and daily self-esteem threat (H22c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.	Marginally supported (H22a) Not supported (H22b, H22c)	Indirect effect of supervisor incivility on OCBO via belongingness threat was stronger at high level of honor orientation and weaker at low level of honor orientation Negative indirect effect of supervisor incivility on OCBO via self-esteem threat was stronger at high level of honor orientation, and weaker and also non-significant at low level of honor orientation

Table 3.45
Summary of the Results of the Hypothesis Testing (Cont'd)

HYPOTHESES	Result	Explanation
MODERATED MEDIATION HYPOTHESES		
First stage Moderator: Individual Honor Orientation		
Hypothesis 23. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily OCBO via daily belongingness threat (H23a), daily control threat (H23b) and daily self-esteem threat (H23c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.	Not supported	Individual honor orientation did not moderate the indirect effect of coworker incivility on OCBO via belongingness, control and self-esteem threats
Hypothesis 24. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBI via daily belongingness threat (H24a), daily control threat (H24b) and daily self-esteem threat (H24c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation.	Not supported	Negative indirect effect of supervisor incivility on OCBI via belongingness threat was stronger at high levels of honor orientation, while weaker and marginally significant at low levels of honor orientation

Negative indirect effect of supervisor incivility on OCBI via self-esteem threat was stronger and significant at high levels of honor orientation, while weaker and marginally significant at low levels of honor orientation |
| Hypothesis 25. Individual honor orientation moderates the indirect effect of daily coworker incivility on daily OCBI via daily belongingness threat (H25a), daily control threat (H25b) and daily self-esteem threat (H25c) such that the indirect effect becomes stronger for employees who are high on honor orientation compared to employees who are low on honor orientation. | Not supported | Individual honor orientation did not moderate the indirect effect of coworker incivility on OCBI via belongingness, control and self-esteem threats |

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3.7. Discussion

Previous studies have investigated various antecedents and outcomes of workplace incivility yet there has been scarcity of research regarding the relatively short-term effects of workplace incivility (Schilpzand et al., 2014). However, since workplace incivility is subsumed under daily hassles in the workplace (Cortina et al., 2001), examining its effects within a particular workday may be especially warranted. Drawing from this approach, I conducted a daily diary study to investigate workplace incivility's relatively short-term psychological and behavioral effects on day-to-day basis.

All individuals have some basic psychological needs such as belongingness, control and self-esteem needs that should be satisfied in order to have a healthy and peaceful life (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). Because achievement of these needs considered as highly valued goals, even on a day-to-day basis, individuals strive to make progress toward satisfaction of these needs (Scott, Colquitt, Paddock, & Judge, 2010). In this study, I argued that workplace incivility as an identity threat (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Ferris et al., 2009) will hinder the achievement of these goals i.e. threaten the daily belongingness, control and self-esteem needs. The results of this study supported these hypotheses, that is, on days they experienced workplace incivility employees reported more belongingness, control and self-esteem threats compared to other days. Moreover, I also found that the negative effects of supervisor incivility are more pronounced than those of coworker incivility. Daily supervisor incivility increased all three need threats experienced within a day while coworker incivility increased only belongingness threat. This finding is in line with the arguments which propose that the status of the instigator influence the outcomes of mistreatment behaviors (Aquino et al., 2001). Especially the treatment of an authority figure is regarded as an important sign that provides information about one's relative social standing (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

In addition to within-person relationships between workplace incivility and need threats, the results of this study also indicated that cultural values may affect the strength of the proposed relationships. Cross-level moderation analysis showed that the effect of daily workplace incivility varies across levels of individual honor orientation. Simple slope

analysis as well as interaction plots supported the hypotheses, which proposed that individuals who have high honor orientation will feel more belongingness, control and self-esteem threats on days they were targeted with supervisor incivility. Although the within-person main effect of coworker incivility on control threat was not significant, cross-level interactions showed that this relationship was significant for individuals who have high honor orientation. Given the importance attributed to respectful treatment of others in determining personal worth for honor-oriented individuals (Leung & Cohen, 2011; Severance et al., 2013) these relationships between workplace incivility and need threats are not surprising. Overall, these cross-level moderation effects indicate that the effects of incivility are not equal for everyone and incivility is perceived as more threatening by honor-oriented people than others. This may have important practical implications considering the increasing number of multicultural workforce.

By linking workplace incivility to threats of belonging, control, and self-esteem in the context of identity threat, I argued that employees will be motivated to restore their threatened needs and to maintain their positive identity after experiencing workplace incivility. Specifically, I hypothesized that employees will engage in impression management (i.e., exemplification, self-promotion, intimidation) or OCB behaviors in order to boost their thwarted needs and maintain their positive identity after experiencing workplace incivility. Tests of these indirect relationships among workplace incivility, need threats and self-presentational behaviors showed that the effects of each need threat on impression management and OCBs are different from each other. The results indicated that employees who experienced supervisor and coworker incivility felt their belongingness need threatened, which in turn led them to increase exemplification behaviors they displayed on a day. However, neither daily control threat nor daily self-esteem threat were significantly related to exemplification. On the other hand, self-esteem threat was the only need threat that was significantly related to self-promotion but the relationship was in the opposite direction than I predicted. That is, employees who experienced supervisor incivility felt their self-esteem need threatened, which in turn led them to decrease self-promotion behaviors. Contrary to my predictions, daily belongingness, control and self-esteem threats experienced after workplace incivility did not significantly influence intimidation behaviors. As for OCBO, the results were pretty interesting. I observed that

belongingness threat experienced due to supervisor and coworker incivility led employees to increase daily OCBO while self-esteem threat they felt led them to decrease OCBO. The effects of belongingness threat and self-esteem threat on OCBI were in the opposite direction than I proposed. That is, employees who experienced supervisor incivility felt their belongingness and self-esteem needs threatened, which in turn led them to decrease OCBI they performed on that day.

Multilevel moderated mediation analyses showed that honor orientation, as an individual difference variable affected the strength and even significance of the proposed indirect effects of daily workplace incivility. Specifically, employees with high honor orientation experienced more belongingness threat after supervisor incivility and in turn displayed more exemplification behaviors than employees with low honor orientation. Only employees who score high on honor orientation decreased their self-promotion behaviors due to self-esteem threat they felt after supervisor incivility. Again, individual honor orientation exacerbated the negative effect of supervisor incivility on belongingness need; and only for employees with high honor orientation, belongingness need threat was a significant mediator of the effects of supervisor incivility on intimidation. Similarly, belongingness threat was a more powerful mediator of the effects of supervisor incivility on OCBO for employees with high honor orientation. Moreover, self-esteem threat did not significantly mediate the effect of supervisor incivility on OCBO for employees with low honor orientation. Lastly, only for employees with high honor orientation, belongingness and self-esteem threats significantly mediated the negative effects of supervisor incivility on OCBI. These findings indicate that especially the psychological and behavioral effects of supervisor incivility are conditional on individual honor orientation. The results of the hypothesis testing are summarized in Table 3.45.

Overall, the results of daily diary study revealed that the uncivil behavior of an authority figure was considered particularly upsetting and threatening. My second study which is a vignette experiment is designed to investigate the effect of supervisor incivility on immediate psychological reactions, motivations as well as behaviors of employees. By means of a different research design, this second study aims to extend the findings of diary study. Every research method has their strengths and weaknesses, thanks to triangulation, weaknesses of one method may be compensated with the strengths of another to a certain

degree (Jick, 1979). To use different research methods in combination for the study of the same phenomenon may increase confidence that the results are valid and not methodological artifacts (Bouchard, 1976; Jick, 1979).

In the following section the details of the vignette experiment, that is research aim and hypotheses, research design and procedure as well as sample characteristics and results of hypothesis testing, will be discussed.

4.

VIGNETTE EXPERIMENT

4.1. Research Aim and Hypotheses

My second study, which is a vignette experiment, aims to extend the findings of the first study in various ways. First of all, unlike the first study which measured workplace incivility as a formative construct composed of various forms of workplace incivility, the current study focuses on a particular form of workplace incivility, namely personal insult. As previously argued workplace incivility can take various forms ranging from inconspicuous forms of ignoring or excluding someone to relatively conspicuous forms of insulting and humiliating. Some scholars note that different forms of mistreatment may not be equivalent; for instance behaviors such as ostracism that involves an act of omission may be regarded as antithetical to aggressive behaviors that include acts of commission (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). Therefore, different forms of mistreatment may lead to different outcomes. Based on this argument, this study aims to examine whether the proposed relationships between workplace incivility, need threats and impression management behaviors will extend to a situation where a particular form of workplace incivility rather than an aggregate form of workplace incivility is considered. Moreover, uncivil behaviors that involve a certain degree of personal insult such as "making insulting or disrespectful remarks about employee" or "accusing employee of incompetence" had

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relatively low frequencies in the daily diary study and its implications may be underrepresented. To overcome this limitation, in this study I will focus on the effect of this specific form of incivility, namely making insulting remarks.

Throughout this research, the importance of culture in general and honor orientation in particular was frequently emphasized. In the first study, honor orientation was treated as an individual difference variable and was evaluated with an explicit measure. This second study, on the other hand, aims to experimentally manipulate honor through priming. Priming typically involves making a particular construct temporarily salient and accessible (Oyserman & Lee, 2007). Experimentally manipulating cultural mindsets of individuals through priming is considered an effective way of examining the relationship between culture and the variable of interest in a research (Suh, Diener, & Updegraff, 2008) since random assignment to cultural primes ensures high internal validity. Consequently, rather than measuring explicit honor orientation this study will use a supraliminal priming method to make honor mindset more accessible for individuals. In the first study by using a within-person research design, I showed that daily workplace incivility threatened basic needs of individuals and affected their impression management and organizational citizenship behaviors on daily basis. Moreover, I also found that the proposed effects are more pronounced when the instigator is supervisor compared to coworker. Now with a between-person research design, I will try to replicate the observed relationships between supervisor incivility, need threats and impression management behaviors.

Another aim of this study is to investigate whether the proposed effects of incivility will be similar when experienced online. Majority of research on workplace incivility focuses on incivility experienced during face-to-face interactions however recently scholars began to argue that incivility may also be experienced online (Park, Fritz, & Jex, in press; Giumetti, Hatfield, Scisko, Schroede, Muth, & Kowalski, 2013; Lim & Teo, 2009). Online or cyber incivility denotes to *"communicative behaviors that are displayed in the context of email interactions and that violate workplace norms for mutual respect"* (Lim, Teo, & Chin, 2008 p.1). Studying cyber workplace incivility may be warranted for a number of reasons. First, considering rapid developments in information and communication technologies, incivility experienced through emails may be more prevalent in today's modern workplaces (Giumetti et al., 2013). In fact, after face-to-face communication,

email is the second most used way of communicating with supervisors (Lim & Chin, 2006). Moreover, since there is no contextual or social cue one may observe during email interactions and no opportunity for an interactive feedback, negative effects of cyber incivility may be more pronounced than face to face interactions (Lim et al., 2008). Despite the increasing importance of cyber incivility, the number of studies that examine incivility in an online context is rather limited (Giumetti et al., 2013). This study also aims to extend and test the proposed relationships in the context of cyber incivility.

Lastly, my diary study enabled me to examine the within-individual processes and relationships. However the magnitude as well as the form of the relationship may be different across within-person and between-person designs (Curran & Bauer, 2011). This study also aims to examine the validity of the proposed relationships by using a between-subject design. The specific hypotheses that will be tested in this study can be stated as follows:

H1a: Individuals who receive uncivil (versus negative or neutral) online performance feedback will report higher levels of belongingness threat

H1b: Individuals who receive uncivil (versus negative or neutral) online performance feedback will report higher levels of self-esteem threat

H2a: Individuals who are primed with honor before receiving uncivil online performance feedback will report higher levels of belongingness threat than individuals who are not primed with honor

H2b: Individuals who are primed with honor before receiving uncivil online performance feedback will report higher levels of self-esteem threat than individuals who are not primed with honor

H3a: Belongingness threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on exemplification and the indirect effect will be stronger for individuals who are primed with honor

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H3b: Self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on exemplification and the indirect effect will be stronger for individuals who are primed with honor

H4a: Belongingness threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on self-promotion and the indirect effect will be stronger for individuals who are primed with honor

H4b: Self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on self-promotion and the indirect effect will be stronger for individuals who are primed with honor

H5a: Belongingness threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on aggressiveness and the indirect effect will be stronger for individuals who are primed with honor

H5b: Self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on aggressiveness and the indirect effect will be stronger for individuals who are primed with honor

Visual representation of the proposed research model is presented in Figure 4.1. In order to test these hypotheses, I conducted a vignette experiment which may be especially conducive to study cyber incivility. In the following section the details of this research design will be discussed.

Figure 4.1
Research Model of Vignette Experiment Study

Honor Prime

Supervisor Incivility

Need Threat

Belongingness Threat

Self-esteem Threat

Behaviors

Exemplification

Self-promotion

Aggressiveness
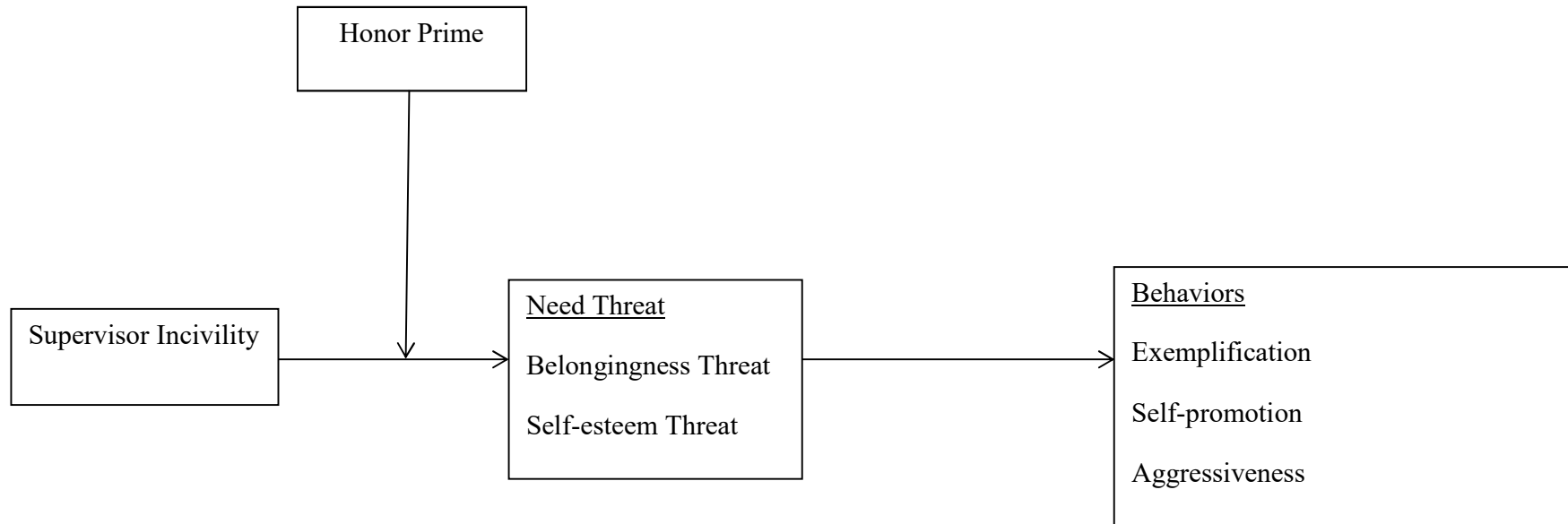
4.2. Research Strategy and Design

Vignettes may be defined as "*stories about individuals and situations which make reference to important points in the study of perceptions, beliefs and attitudes*" (Hughes, 1998 p. 381); they consist of "*short carefully constructed descriptions of a person, object, or situation representing a systematic combination of characteristics*" (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010, p. 128). Vignettes may be used to understand how people interpret behaviors or events in relation to situational contexts and other important variables; they may also help to find out peoples' judgment in moral dilemmas or their sensitive experiences (Barter & Renold, 1999).

In order to test my hypotheses, I chose to conduct a vignette experiment because an experimental vignette not only brings advantages of a classic experiment such as manipulation of variables of interest, control of extraneous factors and random assignment of individuals to conditions but also provides a baseline story thereby enhances contextual realism (Raaijmakers, Vermeulen, Meeus, & Zietsma, 2015). Due to controlling extraneous or confounding factors, a vignette experiment may be a powerful tool for making causal arguments regarding judgments of people (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010). In the following section, I will present the details of my experimental vignette procedure.

4.2.1. Procedure

The study was a 3 (online performance feedback: uncivil versus negative versus neutral) x 2 (word prime: honor-related versus neutral word completion) between-subject factorial design, and participants were randomly assigned to one of the six conditions. The study was ostensibly designed to evaluate the efficiency of online communication tools (such as emails, WhatsApp, online calendars) with a special emphasis on their frequent use in modern workplaces.

At the beginning of the study, participants were told that:

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"In modern workplaces, majority of daily correspondences and even routine performance evaluations take place online and this study aims to evaluate the efficiency of this online form of communication".

After this brief explanation of the research aim, participants filled out the consent form and they answered a number of demographic questions such as their gender, age and education and also some work-related questions regarding their current organization, job experience and job position. Participants also answered two bogus questions regarding their use of online communication tools. Specifically, they were asked how frequently they use their cellphones/tablets/computers to send or read emails, instant messages or arrange their online calendars in a regular day. After demographic questions, the word prime (honor-related versus neutral word completion) was introduced:

Word prime: I used a word completion task to prime honor. To what extent an individual is aware of the priming material varies between subliminal and supraliminal priming tasks. Unlike subliminal priming, in supraliminal priming, the individual is cognizant of the task used for priming (Bargh & Chartrand, 2000). Priming through word completion may be regarded as a kind of conscious or supraliminal priming in which the participant is aware of the priming material (Bargh & Chartrand, 2000).

In order to come up with honor related words to prime honor; I consulted to various sources. To begin with, I looked at the synonyms of the honor concept in a Turkish dictionary (Bargh & Chartrand, 2000). Then I reviewed the related studies in the literature. In one of these studies, Ijzerman and Cohen (2011) increased the salience of honor via a word completion prime. Specifically, in their study participants in the honor prime condition completed words such as r_spect, ins_lt, or d_fend while the participant in the neutral condition complete the words such as s_lad, comp_ter, or b_ok.[9] However, the study of Ijzerman and Cohen (2011) was conducted in American context and the words they used may not adequately represent honor phenomenon in Turkey. Uskul and her colleagues have conducted a number of prominent studies regarding honor culture in the context of Turkey (Cross et al., 2014; Cross, Uskul, Gercek-Swing, Alozkan & Ataca, 2013b, Uskul, Cross, Gercek-Swing, Sunbay & Ataca, 2012; Uskul et al., 2015; Uskul et

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[9] I contacted with the authors and obtained the complete list of the words for both honor and neutral primes they used in their study.

al., 2014) therefore I also examined their studies to come up with honor-related words in Turkish context. Consequently, I used the words reputation, respectability, slander, insult, chastity (namus), personal dignity (haysiyet) and a synonym of honor (şeref) to prime honor.

A pilot study was conducted to evaluate whether the word completion task could successfully prime honor. 61 undergraduate business students participated in the study. 47.5% percent of the participants was female (N = 29) and average age was 22.40 (SD = 3.09). Participants first completed the word completion task and then they completed the honor orientation scale (Cross et al., 2013). The results show that on average, participants in the honor prime condition (*M* = 5.79, *SD* = .78, 95% confidence interval = [5.51, 6.07]) reported higher honor orientation than did participants in the control condition (*M* = 5.12, *SD* = 1.43, 95% confidence interval = [4.62, 5.58]). This difference was significant *t*(59)= 2.23 *p* = .029. I also calculated the effect size with the following formula r $= \sqrt{\frac{t^2}{t^2+df}}$ (Rosenthal, 1991; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2005, Field, 2005); the effect size for the word prime was .28 which represents a medium effect size (Cohen, 1988).

Incivility manipulation: After the word prime (honor-related versus neutral word completion), participants were provided with some background information regarding their role in the study, they were asked to imagine themselves in a particular situation and answer the questions accordingly (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010). Specifically, they were instructed to read the following explanation carefully and imagine themselves in the following role:

"*You have worked in a consulting company for two years. Currently, you are working on a project for a customer named ANKA Hotels which is going through a restructuring process. This project is managed by one of the senior managers whose name is Deniz Altun. You also have two coworkers, Ekin and Ufuk who work in the same project with you*".

Subsequent to this short background information, participants were told that in the following section, they would receive some emails within this particular role as a project assistant and that they were supposed to read and reply to these emails as in a standard work day. Then they were provided with the following information:

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"Your project manager had requested everyone to prepare a report that would include some ideas about ANKA project. You had been working on this report for two weeks. Last night, in the end, you completed your report and sent it to your project manager. Today you received following email from your project manager"

The performance feedback manipulation (uncivil vs. negative vs. neutral) was introduced in the first email sent by the project manager. This email ostensibly included the project manager's evaluation of the project assistant's ideas about this new project (i.e. ANKA Project).

One important point for the validity of the results obtained in a vignette study is that stories should be realistic, plausible and relevant for the participants. I took a number of steps in order to increase realism and validity. First of all, I created the uncivil, negative and neutral performance feedback conditions drawing from the insights that we gained in a previous qualitative study (Wasti & Erdas, 2015), where we had conducted semi-structured interviews with 25 employees who occupy different positions such as vice president, accounting officer, nurse and administrative assistant in various sectors including health, education, manufacturing and automotive. In this interview study, participants provided real examples of uncivil behaviors they experienced in the workplace. One important finding of that study was that when the criticism takes the form of personal insult rather than focusing on a task specific issue or problem, it is perceived as highly uncivil, offensive and honor-damaging (Wasti & Erdas, 2015). In light of these findings, I wrote the uncivil, negative and neutral feedback emails.

As a preliminary check for realism, I showed the uncivil, negative and neutral feedback emails to fellow PhD students who have work experience and to a number of employees who work in a full-time job. I asked them to assess to what extent these emails are clear and realistic. I also wanted them to evaluate how rude and negative each feedback is. I made some minor changes based on their comments. I also conducted a pilot study to check for the effectiveness of the incivility manipulation. Participants were 138 MBA students of a private university. 34.8 % were female and average age was 21.5 ($SD = 1.22$). Participants were randomly assigned to one of the three conditions (uncivil vs. negative vs. neutral feedback). After reading the related feedback, participants assessed to what extent the feedback was "respectful", "kind" and "rude". To determine whether incivility

manipulation created the intended effects, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted.

Adjectives used for manipulation check had high bivariate correlations and exploratory factor analysis results also showed that these adjectives together explain the 75% of the variance in the common factor. Therefore, a composite incivility score was created to have a more reliable measure than a single item; this composite measure used as dependent variable in the following analysis. The results show that manipulation had a significant effect ($M_{uncivil}$ = 3.52, $SD_{uncivil}$ = 1.11, $M_{negative}$ = 2.62, $SD_{negative}$ = .85, $M_{neutral}$ = 2.51, $SD_{neutral}$ = .92 F (2,135) = 14.99, p <.001, η^2= .18). Planned comparisons indicated that uncivil feedback is assessed as significantly more uncivil than negative feedback (p < .001, 95% CI = [.42, 1.38]) and neutral feedback (p < .001, 95% CI = [.54, 1.49]).

In the final version of the manipulations, emails in all conditions started with the sentence of "*Hi, I examined your report about the project*". Then, the manipulation was introduced. The uncivil feedback condition involved a subtle and sarcastic personal insult:
"*Your ideas do not even seem related to this project. I wonder whether you are an expert in creating problems rather than solving them*"

The negative feedback condition entailed a negative but relatively constructive and task-focused criticism.

"*Your ideas do not seem satisfactory or sufficient for this project. You need to work more on your ideas*"

Lastly, neutral feedback did not involve an overtly positive or negative feedback:

"*Some of your ideas can be appropriate for this project. We will talk more about this issue later*"

The remaining part of the email was the same for all conditions. Specifically, the project manager said the following:

"…By the way, in tomorrow's meeting, we have to make a presentation about our previous projects to our customer, ANKA Hotels. We have not decided whether you, Ekin or Ufuk would make the presentation. So, who is doing it?"

After participants read the project manager's email, they were asked to write a response to the project manager. Specifically, they were told that it was not possible to talk to other team mates and they should write a response to the project manager as soon as possible. Three dependent variables (i.e. exemplification, self-promotion, aggression) of the study were coded from these responses participants sent to the project manager. Later in this section, I will give more information about the coding process.

4.2.2. Sample Characteristics of the Main Study

A total of 1231 employees were contacted via a snowball sampling method and invited to take part in the study. The average response rate was 24 %; this respond rate is similar to other studies that use email surveys (Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004). The final sample consists of 273 individuals[10] employed in various jobs such as human resources specialist, sales representative, quality control manager and technician and in different sectors including hospitality, manufacturing, banking, research and development, construction, pharmaceutical, legal services, consulting and catering. Almost half of the participants were female (N = 125, 45.8%), their average age was 34.19 (SD = 7.27); 4.4 % was high-school graduate, 55.7 % had bachelor degree, 38.1% had master's degree and 1.8% had doctorate degree. Their average work experience was 11.10 (SD = 7.51).

4.2.3. Measures

Measures used in the study are listed below. Research instruments that are originally in English were adapted to Turkish via translation-back-translation procedure. First, I

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[10] 293 participants completed the study however 20 were excluded from further analysis. Specifically, preliminary data screening showed that two participants did not carefully respond questions in the study so their data were removed. 18 participants indicated that currently they do not have a full-time job so their data were also removed so the final sample consists of 273 individuals.

translated related scales to Turkish and then another doctoral student back-translated the same scales to English. After that advisor of this dissertation compared Turkish and English versions of the scales and final versions were determined accordingly.

Manipulation check for incivility: Participants were asked to indicate on a 5-point scale (1= not at all, 5= extremely) the degree to which the email they received from the project manager is respectful (reverse coded), rude and civil (reverse-coded). Cronbach alpha reliability estimate for this measure was calculated as .88.

Manipulation check for honor prime: After word completion task, a short version of social status/respect dimension of honor-values scale (Cross et al., 2014) was used to check whether the manipulation of honor orientation was successful. Participants indicated to what extent five items reflecting honor features such as "*to feel valued by society*", "*to be highly regarded by others*" or "*to be respectable in society*" are important for them by using a 7-point Likert scale (1= not at all, 7= extremely). Cronbach alpha reliability estimate of this scale was calculated as .89.

Self-esteem threat: After participants read the project manager's email, their state self-esteem was assessed by using 12 items from the state self-esteem scale developed by Heatherton and Polivy (1991). All items were answered using a 5-point scale (1= not at all, 5= extremely). Sample items are "*I feel good about myself*", "*I feel inferior to others at this moment*" and "*I feel concerned about the impression I am making*". Cronbach alpha reliability estimate for this measure was .94. [11]

Belongingness threat: Belongingness threat was evaluated with two items. Participants indicated to what extent they feel "*rejected*" and "*ostracized*" after receiving the email from their supervisors. Cronbach alpha reliability estimate for this measure was calculated as .80.

Exemplification, Self-promotion, Aggressiveness: In their roles as project assistants, participants were instructed to reply their project managers' email. Three behavioral outcomes of the study were coded from the emails all participants wrote to their project managers.

Two independent coders who were blind to the hypotheses of the study evaluated the replies participants wrote to their supervisors. Coders were told that they will read a

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[11] This reliability estimate was based on 9 items because the results of the factor analysis, which will be presented later in this section, showed that 3 reverse-scored items were problematic.

number of emails each of which is written by a different research participant. They were provided with the same background information given to participants regarding the specific role participants assumed during the study. Then they were instructed to code the emails by using the coding items presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1
Coding Items for Participant Email

Category	Coding Items	Scale
Exemplification	To what extent does the employee emphasize the effort and hard work he/she showed for the report?	1(not at all)-5(extremely)
Self-promotion	To what extent the participant has an assertive/self-promotive attitude?	1(not at all)-5(extremely)
Aggressiveness	To what extent is the tone of the email is aggressive?	1(not at all)-5(extremely)

The first item raters evaluated was related to exemplification behaviors. Specifically, using a 5-point scale (1=not at all, 5=extremely), raters evaluated to what extent participant emphasized the hard work and effort he/she put to prepare the report. Second, raters evaluated the assertive and self-promotive tone in the email by using the 5-point scale. Third item raters assessed was the aggressiveness of the participant. Raters evaluated the aggressive tone in the participant's email by using a 5-point scale (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

In order to assess interrater reliability, I used *ICC* which is one of the most frequently used statistics to estimate interrater reliability for ordinal, interval and ratio variables. *ICC* has different variants and the appropriate *ICC* must be chosen based on the qualities of the particular study and the type of agreement researcher wants to evaluate (Hallgren, 2012). First, since two coders rated each of the cases in my study, I chose two-way *ICC* over one-way *ICC* because one-way *ICC* is used when there are randomly sampled different coders for each case. Second, since I wanted to use the average rating of raters for hypothesis testing, I calculated the average *ICC* rather than single *ICC*. Consequently, I chose *ICC(2)* to evaluate inter-rater reliability. Regarding cut-off values of *ICC*, Cicchetti (1994) states that values less than .40 are considered as poor; values between .40-59 as fair, values between .60-.74 as good; and values between.75-1 as excellent. *ICC(2)* for exemplification

was calculated as .76, *p* < .001, 95% CI [.70, .81]. *ICC(2)* for self-promotion was in acceptable range (.66, *p* < .001, 95% CI [56, 73]). *ICC(2)* for aggressiveness was calculated as .67, *p* < .001, 95% CI [.58, .74]. Since all *ICC*s were in the acceptable range; the average ratings for the variables were used in the following analysis.

Awareness and attention check questions: Following suggestions of Bargh and Chartrand (2000), I did an awareness check for priming task trough "*funnel debriefing*". Specifically, I included a number of questions at the end of the study to find out any suspicion. I asked to participants to state the purpose of the study and also explain whether there was anything not clear about the study.

Moreover, to check whether participants paid attention to the vignette experiment and carefully read the instructions, I included an email ostensibly sent by one of the coworkers in the project, which asked for a simple confirmation of a meeting. After the participants confirmed the meeting, in the following page, they responded two questions about the sender of the email and subject of the email as an attention check.

4.2.4. Results: Exploratory Factor Analysis

Since I used a shortened version of the state self-esteem scale developed by Heatherton and Polivy (1991) to measure self-esteem threat, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis with Principal Axis Factoring with Oblique Rotation to examine the factor structure of the scale. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) indicated that three reverse-scored items were problematic and loaded on a separate factor so they were deleted from the analysis. Remaining 9 factors load on a single factor which explains 63.76% of the variance and all item loadings are greater than .72. Coefficient alpha reliability estimate of this final measure was .94. Table 4.2 presents the results of the exploratory factor analysis for self-esteem threat.

Table 4.2
Exploratory Factor Analysis for Self-Esteem Threat Measure

Item	Factor loadings
I feel like I am not doing well	.86
I feel concerned about the impression I am making	.84
I feel frustrated/rattled about my performance	.84
I am worried about looking foolish	.82
I feel self-conscious	.80
I feel inferiors to others at this moment	.80
I am worried about what other people think of me	.76
I feel displeased with myself	.74
I am worried about whether I am regarded as a success or failure	.72
Variance Explained (%)	63.76

The social image/respect subscale was used as manipulation check for honor prime. This subscale was a shortened version of the original subscale[12] so an EFA with principle axis factoring (oblique rotation) was conducted to determine its factor structure. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 4.3. A single factor explained 70.17 % of the variance and all items significantly loaded on a single factor.

Table 4.3
Exploratory Factor Analysis for Individual Honor Orientation

Items	Individual Honor orientation
To be respectable in society	.86
To feel valued by society	.84
To be highly regarded by others	.83
To be appreciated by others	.83
To reach a certain status in society	.83
Variance Explained (%)	70.17

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[12] Items for the shortened subscale were chosen based on personal communication with the authors of the original scale.

4.2.5. Results: Manipulation checks

To determine whether experimental manipulation of incivility created the intended effect, I conducted a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the feedback type (incivility vs. negative vs. neutral feedback) and word prime (honor-related-neutral related word completion) as independent variables and the previously mentioned composite measure of incivility (i.e. evaluations regarding rudeness, incivility, and disrespectfulness) as dependent variable.

Figure 4.2
Incivility Manipulation Check
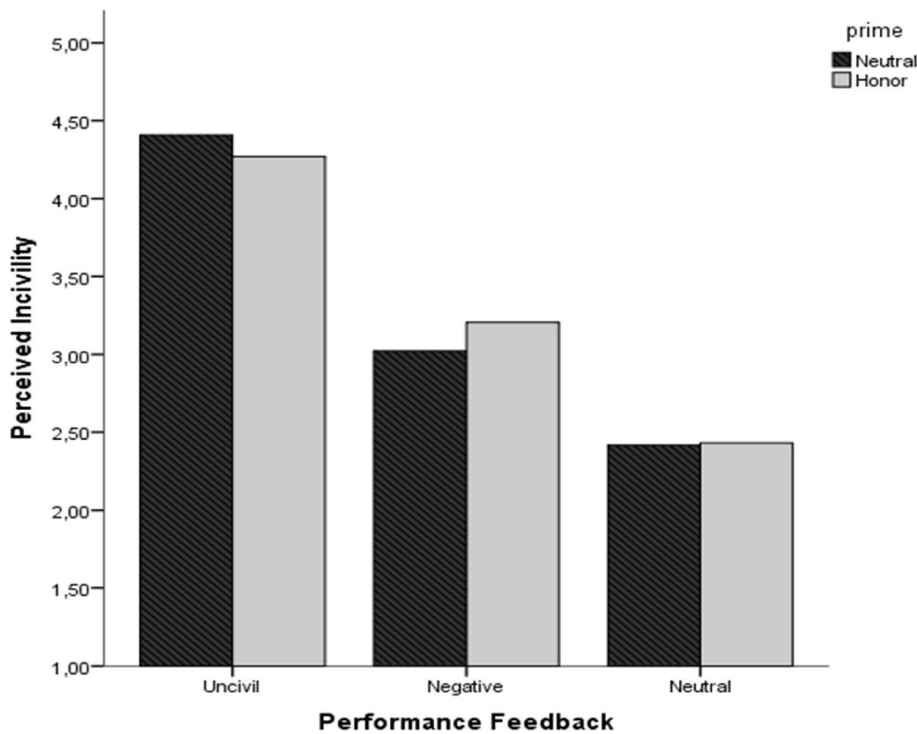
A significant main effect for incivility confirmed the expected manipulation effects ($M_{uncivil}$ = 4.34, $SD_{uncivil}$= .77, $M_{negative}$ = 3.11, $SD_{negative}$= 1.09, $M_{neutral}$ = 2.42, $SD_{neutral}$= .87, F (2,267) = 104.416, $p < .001$, η^2= .44). Planned contrasts indicated that uncivil feedback condition was perceived as significantly more uncivil than negative ($p <$ 001, 95% CI [.95, 1.50] and neutral feedback conditions ($p < .001$, 95% CI [1.65, 2.18]).

Neither the main effect of prime (F (1,267) = .032, p = .857, η^2= .000) nor the effect of performance feedback X word prime interaction was significant (F (2,267) = 1.128, p = .512, η^2= .003). Visual depiction of the mean perceived incivility across six conditions is presented in Figure 4.2.

In order to check whether I could successfully prime honor, I used word prime (i.e. honor-related versus neutral word completion) as independent variable and explicit measure of honor orientation as dependent variable and conducted an ANOVA. The results indicated that participants in the honor prime condition reported lower explicit honor orientation than the participants in the neutral condition (M_{honor} = 5.32, SD_{honor} = 1.09, $M_{neutral}$ = 5.71, $SD_{neutral}$ = 1.01, F (1, 271) = 9.506, p = .002, η^2= .03). I checked whether the effect of word prime on explicit honor orientation varies between males and females by adding an interaction term of gender x word prime. The interaction term was not significant F (1, 273) = 1.692, p = .194, η^2= .006. Although the lower endorsement of the explicit honor orientation measure raises the possibility that the word prime may not have created the intended effect, I will still investigate its effects on the proposed relationships because scoring low on explicit honor orientation does not eliminate the possibility that honor prime had somehow stimulated honor mindset. In other words, honor prime may have created a reactance which manifested itself in the explicit measurement of honor orientation but its implicit and subconscious effects may be intact. Consequently, honor prime may still influence the proposed relationships. In the following analysis, I will try to elaborate more on this issue.

Table 4.4

Means (M) Standard deviations (*SD*) and Correlations among Variables

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Gender	-	-	-							
2.Supervisory Position	-	-	-.25**	-						
3.Job experience	11.10	7.51	-.20**	.33**	-					
4.Belongingness Threat	2.37	1.21	-.05	.17**	.10	(.80)				
5.Self-esteem Threat	2.44	1.00	.04	.09	-.03	.67**	(.94)			
6.Exemplification	1.33	.81	-.10	.12*	.11	.28**	.19**	(.76)		
7.Self-promotion	1.94	1.04	-.17**	.04	.16*	.01	-.02	.19**	(.66)	
8.Aggressiveness	1.45	.82	-.13*	.10	.10	.24**	.14*	.57**	.15*	(.67)

Notes: Reliabilities are on the diagonal; for exemplification, self-promotion and aggressiveness ICC (2) values for interrater agreement are reported. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Gender: Female = 1, Male = 0.

Supervisory position is a dummy variable indicating whether the participant has a supervisory role.

4.2.6. Hypothesis Testing

Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among the study variables are presented in Table 4.4. I tested my hypothesis through a series of multivariate analysis of variance (MANCOVA) and univariate analysis of covariance analysis (ANCOVA). MANCOVA is applied when there are several dependent variables and it protects against inflated Type I error rate resulting from multiple tests of more than one dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). MANCOVA gives an overall F and significance level for the difference among the groups regarding how much they differ on the combination of dependent variables; these dependent variables are usually related such as different measures of the same construct (Aron & Aron, 2003). Significant MANCOVA are usually followed up with univariate ANCOVAs (Field, 2004). Both MANCOVA and ANCOVA allow controlling the effect of extraneous factors and these variables that are held constant are called "*covariate*". Through controlling the effect of covariates, they provide "*adjusted means*" from which the effects of covariates are removed. In all of my analysis, to account for the heterogeneity of the sample, I controlled for the effect of gender, job experience and position of the employee.

Hypotheses 1a and 1b stated that individuals who receive uncivil (versus negative or neutral) online performance feedback will report higher levels of belongingness and self-esteem threat, respectively. Hypothesis 1c and 1d proposed that these proposed effects of uncivil performance feedback (versus negative or neutral) on belongingness threat and self-esteem threat would be stronger for individuals who are primed with honor. In order to test these first group of hypotheses, a 3 x 2 between subject MANCOVA was performed on two dependent variables namely, self-esteem threat and belongingness threat. Independent variables were the performance feedback (uncivil vs. negative vs. neutral) and word prime (honor-related vs. neutral word completion). The overall model showed that the effect of feedback type on self-esteem threat and belongingness threat was significant (Wilks' Lambda = .766, $F(4, 526) = 19.315$, $p < .001$) . However, neither the main effect of the word prime (Wilks' Lambda = .998, $F(2, 263) = .315$, $p = .730$) nor the effect of word prime x performance feedback interaction (Wilks' Lambda = .997, $F(4, 526) = .192$, $p = .943$) on self-esteem threat and belongingness threat was significant.

Table 4.5
Univariate and Multivariate Results of Belongingness Threat and Self-esteem Threat

| Variables | Multivariate F | Belongingness Threat | | Self-Esteem Threat | |
		Univariate F	η^2	Univariate F	η^2
Job experience	4.745*	1.929	.006	9.238**	.028
Supervisory position	2.087	3.985*	.012	2.428	.007
Gender	1.624	.542	.002	3.103	.009
Performance Feedback	19.315***	35.013***	.202	30.533***	.185
Word Prime	.315	.462	.001	.545	.002
Word Prime X Performance Feedback	.192	.017	.000	.291	.002

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

I followed up the MANCOVA with separate ANCOVAs for belongingness threat and self-esteem threat. Of the control variables only supervisory position had a significant effect on belongingness threat. Accordingly participants who occupy supervisory positions felt significantly more belongingness threat than those who are not in supervisory position $F(1,264) = 3.985$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .012$. There was a significant main effect of performance feedback on belongingness threat controlling for gender, job experience and supervisory position, $F(2,264) = 35.013$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .20$. Planned contrasts revealed that participant in the uncivil condition ($M_{uncivil}= 3.03$, SD $= 1.16$) felt significantly more belongingness threat compared to those in the negative condition ($M_{negative}= 2.47$, $SD = 1.15$; $M_{difference}= .554$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.230, .878] and the neutral condition ($M_{neutral}= 1.64$, $SD = .90$) ($M_{difference}= 1.386$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.057, 1.715]). Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was supported. However, both the main effect of word prime ($F(1,264) = .462$, *ns,* $\eta^2 = .001$) and the interaction of word prime x performance feedback type ($F(2,264) = .017$, *ns,* $\eta^2 = .000$) failed to reach significance so Hypothesis 1c was not supported. Adjusted and unadjusted means for word prime x performance feedback interaction is shown in Table 4.6

Table 4.6

Adjusted and Unadjusted Mean Belongingness Threat for Performance Feedback and Word Prime

Performance Feedback	Word Prime	Unadjusted Mean	SD	N	Adjusted Mean	95% CI Interval	
						Low	High
Uncivil	Honor	2.98	1.20	43	3.00	2.66	3.33
	Neutral	3.05	1.13	49	3.06	2.75	3.37
	Total	3.02	1.16	92	3.03	2.80	3.26
Negative	Honor	2.39	1.10	42	2.41	2.09	2.74
	Neutral	2.54	1.21	43	2.53	2.21	2.86
	Total	2.47	1.15	85	2.47	2.24	2.70
Neutral	Honor	1.65	.95	48	1.60	1.29	1.92
	Neutral	1.68	.84	48	1.68	1.37	1.99
	Total	1.66	.90	96	1.64	1.42	1.86

ANCOVA results for self-esteem threat showed that among control variables only job experience yielded a significant effect on self-esteem threat; those who had high experience tend to report less self-esteem threat ($F(1,264) = 9.238$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .028$) but neither gender ($F(1,264) = 3.103$, $p = .079$, $\eta^2 = .009$) nor supervisory position ($F(1,264) = 2.428$, $p = .120$, $\eta^2 = .007$) yielded a significant effect. Controlling for the effects of gender, job experience and supervisory position, performance feedback type had a significant main effect on self-esteem threat, $F(2,273) = 30.533$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .19$. Planned comparisons revealed that participants in the uncivil feedback condition reported more self-esteem threat than those in the negative ($M_{difference} = .330$, $p = .018$, 95% CI [.057, .604], 2.915 and 2.585 are adjusted means for the uncivil and negative conditions respectively) and the neutral conditions ($M_{difference} = 1.07$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.793, 1.348], 2.915 and 1.844 are adjusted means for uncivil and neutral conditions respectively). Hypothesis 1b was supported. Neither the main effect of word prime $F(1,273) = .545$, $p = .461$) nor the interaction of word prime x feedback type had significant effects on self-esteem threat ($F(2,273) = .291$, $p = .748$). Consequently Hypothesis 1d was not supported. Adjusted and unadjusted mean self-esteem threat for word prime x feedback type interaction is displayed in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Adjusted and Unadjusted Mean Self-esteem Threat for Performance Feedback and Word Prime

Performance Feedback	Word Prime	Unadjusted Mean	SD	N	Adjusted Mean	95% CI Interval	
						Low	High
Uncivil	Honor	2.85	.97	43	2.93	2.66	3.21
	Neutral	2.84	.92	49	2.90	2.64	3.15
	Total	2.84	.94	92	2.92	2.72	3.11
Negative	Honor	2.49	.97	42	2.51	2.24	2.77
	Neutral	2.66	1.02	43	2.66	2.39	2.93
	Total	2.58	.99	85	2.58	2.39	2.78
Neutral	Honor	1.90	.83	48	1.78	1.51	2.04
	Neutral	1.93	.82	48	1.91	1.65	2.17
	Total	1.92	.82	96	1.84	1.66	2.03

4.2.7. Mediation Analysis with Multicategorical Independent Variable

As Hayes and Preacher (2014) aptly argued in their recent article, the literature on statistical mediation analysis largely concentrates on models that involve continuous or dichotomous independent variables. Until recently, there was a lack of guidance for testing mediation models which have multicategorical independent variables. Researchers hitherto resorted to different methods in order to test such models. Some used a version of the causal steps method of Baron and Kenny (1986) and argued that mediation effect exists if group differences found in ANOVA disappear after mediator is controlled for. Others conducted mediation analysis by using the manipulation check as independent variable since it is a continuous variable. Still others treated multicategorical variables as interval data and used traditional regression based methods to test for mediation. Lastly, some others transformed multicategorical data into a dichotomous variable by disregarding some groups (Hayes & Preacher, 2014).

Recently, Hayes and Preacher (2014) offered a general linear modelling approach in order to calculate direct and indirect effects when the independent variable is multicategorical. Their approach based on the fact that if k-1 number of groups is created, mean differences can be calculated within a general linear model. This will produce a

model mathematically equivalent to ANOVA but also provide mean differences on mediator and dependent variables for k-1 groups. Consequently, model, parameter estimates or fit statistics will have all the information regarding how k-1 groups differ from each other. Following their suggestions, I created dummy variables for my experimental conditions and calculated the relative indirect effects.

As for statistical inference with respect to relative indirect effects, I chose the asymmetric bootstrap confidence interval over the causal steps approach of Baron and Kenny (1986) and the product-of-coefficients approach also known as Sobel test. Causal step approach is considered outdated and criticized in many respects. First of all, it has quite low power, hence is less likely to detect an existing indirect effect. More importantly, the causal steps approach does not directly calculate the indirect effect. Rather the indirect effect is inferred from testing a number of hypotheses such as the independent variable should have a significant relation with the intervening variable (i.e. mediator) and in turn the intervening variable should have a significant relationship with the dependent variable etc. Unlike the causal steps approach, the product-of-coefficients approach or Sobel test directly quantifies and tests the significance of the indirect effect through calculating a *p*-value. This *p*-value is estimated with respect to a standard normal distribution and tests whether the indirect effect is significantly different from zero. Related to this point, Sobel test has an important problem, namely it assumes that the sampling distribution of indirect effect is normal. However, indirect effect is likely to be asymmetric so a procedure that does not have this assumption of normality should be preferred instead of Sobel test to detect indirect effect. In this respect, the bootstrap procedure will be the proper choice with its high power and acceptable control for Type-1 error rate (Hayes, 2009). In the bootstrapping method, repeated samplings from the data set are used to calculate indirect effect. Specifically, this resampling procedure is reiterated thousand times (or more) and "*an empirical approximation of the sampling distribution of indirect effect*" is constructed and then used for building confidence intervals for the indirect effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Consequently, bootstrapping is a nonparametric resampling procedure and it does not have the assumption regarding the normality of the sampling distribution of indirect effect.

In order to test my mediation hypotheses, I chose bootstrapping approach over causal steps and the product-of-coefficients approach. I tested the indirect effect of incivility via belongingness and self-esteem threat with a bootstrapping approach with 1000 iterations. I preferred the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval instead of the percentile bootstrap confidence interval because the former provides corrected percentiles which are adjusted through comparing the mediated effect in the original sample to the median of the mediation effect obtained via bootstrapping (MacKinnon, 2008). I conducted my analysis using both PROCESS macro developed by Andrew F. Hayes and Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2008-2010). Since there is no significant difference in the results, I report the results of Mplus. Moreover the results of previous analyses indicated that the effects of word prime x performance feedback on belongingness threat and self-esteem threat are not significant, which means that there is no first-stage moderation so in the following section, I only report the results of the proposed mediation effects.

4.2.8. Results for Mediation Analysis

The independent variable in the vignette experiment has three categories namely uncivil, negative and neutral feedbacks so I constructed dummy variables (by assigning values of 0 and 1) in order to test its indirect effect. For a variable which has three categories, two dummy variables should be included in the analysis, the category or group that is excluded serves as the reference group. In the model, estimates regarding group differences indicate differences compared to this reference group. Specifically, when I include the dummy variables of uncivil and negative conditions to the model, neutral condition which is omitted serves as the reference category. Similarly, if I add the uncivil and neutral conditions to the analysis, the negative condition becomes the reference group. Because negative and neutral conditions are my control groups, I compared the relative indirect effect of uncivil feedback to the neutral and negative conditions in separate mediation analyses by each time assigning one control group as the reference category. Consequently, the indirect effect in the presence of categorical variables can be regarded as estimation of *"relative indirect effect"* (Hayes & Preacher, 2014).

Hypothesis 3 stated that belongingness threat mediates the effect of uncivil feedback (versus negative and neutral feedback) on exemplification. First, I constructed a model which takes the neutral feedback group as the reference group. I controlled for the effect of gender, job experience and supervisory position along with the honor prime. The result of this analysis is presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8
Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Neutral Feedback on Exemplification via Belongingness Threat

	B	SE	p- value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Belongingness Threat	.28	.14	.040	.01	.55
Gender-Belongingness Threat	.10	.14	.456	-.16	.37
Job Experience-Belongingness Threat	-.01	.01	.172	-.03	.005
Uncivil Feedback-Belongingness Threat	1.39	.16	.000	1.08	1.69
Negative Feedback-Belongingness Threat	.83	.16	.000	.51	1.14
Honor Prime-Belongingness Threat	-.09	.13	.496	-.36	.16
Supervisory Position-Exemplification	.05	.11	.648	-.15	.25
Gender-Exemplification	-.05	.09	.614	-.22	.13
Job Experience-Exemplification	-.001	.008	.909	-.02	.02
Belongingness Threat-Exemplification	.09	.05	.044	.003	.18
Uncivil Feedback-Exemplification	.61	.13	.000	.37	.88
Negative Feedback-Exemplification	.18	.08	.025	.03	.34
Honor Prime-Exemplification	.10	.09	.285	-.09	.27
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to neutral feedback via belongingness threat	.13	.07	<.05	.009	.27

The results indicated that belongingness threat had a significant and positive effect on exemplification (b = .09, p = .044; bias-corrected bootstrapped 95 % CI [.003, .18]. As expected, those assigned to uncivil feedback condition displayed .13 units more exemplification than those in neutral feedback condition as a result of the positive effect of incivility on belongingness threat which in turn increased exemplification (p = < .05, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95 % CI [.009, .27]).

In the second model, I chose the negative feedback group as the reference category. The result of this analysis is presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9
Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Negative Feedback on Exemplification via Belongingness Threat

| | *B* | *SE* | *p-*value | Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval | |
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Belongingness Threat	.28	.14	.040	.01	.55
Gender-Belongingness Threat	.10	.14	.456	-.16	.37
Job Experience-Belongingness Threat	-.01	.01	.172	-.03	.005
Uncivil Feedback-Belongingness Threat	.55	.17	.001	.20	.90
Neutral Feedback-Belongingness Threat	-.83	.16	.000	-1.14	-.52
Honor Prime-Belongingness Threat	-.09	.13	.496	-.36	.16
Supervisory Position-Exemplification	.05	.11	.648	-.15	.25
Gender-Exemplification	-.05	.09	.614	-.22	.13
Job Experience-Exemplification	-.001	.008	.909	-.02	.02
Belongingness Threat-Exemplification	.09	.05	.044	.003	.18
Uncivil Feedback-Exemplification	.43	.14	.003	.16	.75
Neutral Feedback-Exemplification	-.18	.08	.025	-.34	-.03
Honor Prime-Exemplification	.10	.09	.285	-.09	.27
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to negative feedback via belongingness threat	.05	.03	<.05	.006	.14

The results revealed that compared to those in negative feedback group, participants in the uncivil feedback group had .05 units higher exemplification as a result of the positive effect of incivility on belongingness threat which in turn led to more exemplification ($p <$ .05, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [.006, .14]). The results of these two analyses supported Hypothesis 3a.

Hypothesis 3b stated that self-esteem threat mediates the positive effect of uncivil feedback (versus neutral and negative feedback) on exemplification. I constructed two models in order to test for the mediator role of self-esteem threat. First, I took the neutral feedback group as the reference category, the results indicated that difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback (versus neutral feedback) on exemplification via self-esteem

threat was not significant ($b = .05$, $p > .05$, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI = [-.05, .17]). The results are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10
Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Neutral Feedback on Exemplification via Self-esteem Threat

	B	SE	p-value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.110	-.04	.41
Gender-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.099	-.03	.42
Job Experience-Self-esteem Threat	-.03	.008	.002	-.04	-.01
Uncivil Feedback-Self-esteem Threat	1.06	.13	.000	.79	1.30
Negative Feedback-Self-esteem Threat	.74	.13	.000	.50	1.01
Honor Prime-Self-esteem Threat	-.08	.11	.467	-.32	.12
Supervisory Position-Exemplification	.07	.10	.523	-.12	.27
Gender-Exemplification	-.04	.09	.628	-.23	.13
Job Experience-Exemplification	-.001	.008	.895	-.02	.02
Self-esteem Threat-Exemplification	.05	.05	.398	-.05	.16
Uncivil Feedback-Exemplification	.69	.13	.000	.44	.95
Negative Feedback-Exemplification	.22	.08	.004	.07	.37
Honor Prime-Exemplification	.10	.09	.307	-.10	27
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to neutral condition	.05	.06	>.05	-.05	.17

In the second model, I chose the negative feedback group as the reference category. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 4.11. Similar to the previous model, the difference between the uncivil feedback group and negative feedback group regarding the indirect effect of supervisor incivility on exemplification via self-esteem threat was not statistically significant ($b = .02$, $p > .05$, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.01, .08]. Consequently, Hypothesis 3b was not supported.

Table 4.11

Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Negative Feedback on Exemplification via Self-esteem Threat

	B	SE	p-value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.110	.04	.41
Gender-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.099	-.03	.42
Job Experience-Self-esteem Threat	-.03	.003	.002	-.04	-.01
Uncivil Feedback-Self-esteem Threat	.32	.14	.023	.05	.61
Neutral Feedback-Self-esteem Threat	-.74	.13	.000	-1.01	-.50
Honor Prime-Self-esteem Threat	-.08	.11	.467	-.32	.12
Supervisory Position-Exemplification	.07	.10	.523	-.12	.27
Gender-Exemplification	-.04	.09	.628	-.23	.13
Job Experience-Exemplification	-.001	.008	.895	-.02	.02
Self-esteem Threat-Exemplification	.05	.05	.398	-.05	.16
Uncivil Feedback-Exemplification	.47	.14	.001	.19	.75
Neutral Feedback-Exemplification	-.22	.08	.004	-.37	-.07
Honor Prime-Exemplification	.10	.09	.307	-.12	.27
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to neutral condition	.02	.02	>.05	-.01	.08

Hypothesis 4a proposed that belongingness threat mediated the effect of uncivil feedback (versus negative and neutral feedback) on self-promotion. Again, I tested this hypothesis by constructing two models. In the first model, the neutral feedback type was the reference group, the results of this analysis is presented in Table 4.12. The results showed that the relationship between belongingness threat and self-promotion was not significant (b = -.02, p = .806; bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.14, .09]. Therefore, the relative indirect effect of uncivil feedback versus neutral feedback on self-promotion via belongingness threat was also not statistically significant (b = -.02, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.21, .12]).

Table 4.12

Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Neutral Feedback on Self-Promotion via Belongingness Threat

	B	SE	p-value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Belongingness Threat	.28	.14	.040	.01	.55
Gender-Belongingness Threat	.10	.14	.456	-.16	.37
Job Experience-Belongingness Threat	-.01	.01	.172	-.03	.005
Uncivil Feedback-Belongingness Threat	1.39	.16	.000	1.08	1.69
Negative Feedback-Belongingness Threat	.83	.16	.000	.51	1.14
Honor Prime-Belongingness Threat	-.09	.13	.496	-.36	.16
Supervisory Position-Self-promotion	-.09	.14	.505	-.39	.17
Gender-Self-promotion	-.31	.13	.020	-.56	-.04
Job Experience-Self-promotion	.02	.01	.065	-.001	.04
Belongingness Threat-Self-promotion	-.02	.06	.806	-.14	.09
Uncivil Feedback- Self-promotion	.09	.21	.652	-.31	.50
Negative Feedback- Self-promotion	-.03	.16	.839	-.35	.29
Honor Prime- Self-promotion	.06	.13	.662	-.21	.30
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to neutral condition	-.02	.09	>.05	-.21	.12

When the negative feedback condition was assigned to the reference category to test for the relative indirect effect of the uncivil feedback (versus negative feedback) on self-promotion via belongingness threat, bias-corrected 95% confidence interval [-.09, .05] again included zero so the indirect effect was deemed to be insignificant (<.05). The results are presented in 4.13. According to the results of these two analyses, Hypothesis 4a was not supported.

Table 4.13

Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Negative Feedback on Self-Promotion via Belongingness Threat

	B	SE	p-value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Belongingness Threat	.28	.14	.040	.01	.55
Gender-Belongingness Threat	.10	.14	.456	-.16	.37
Job Experience-Belongingness Threat	-.01	.01	.172	-.03	.005
Uncivil Feedback-Belongingness Threat	.55	.17	.001	.20	.90
Neutral Feedback-Belongingness Threat	-.83	.16	.000	-1.14	-.52
Honor Prime-Belongingness Threat	-.09	.13	.496	-.36	.16
Supervisory Position-Self-promotion	-.09	.14	.505	-.39	.16
Gender-Self-promotion	-.31	.13	.020	-.56	-.04
Job Experience-Self-promotion	.02	.01	.065	-.001	.04
Belongingness Threat-Self-promotion	-.02	.06	.806	-.14	.09
Uncivil Feedback- Self-promotion	.13	.17	.450	-.20	.45
Neutral Feedback- Self-promotion	.03	.16	.839	-.29	.35
Honor Prime- Self-promotion	.06	.13	.662	-.21	.30
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to negative feedback	-.008	.05	>.05	-.09	.05

Hypothesis 4b stated that self-esteem threat mediates the effect of uncivil feedback (versus neutral and negative feedback) on self-promotion. To test for the indirect effect of uncivil feedback on self-promotion via self-esteem threat, first I assigned the neutral group to the reference category. As Table 4.14 shows, the results indicated that self-esteem threat was not significantly related self-promotion (b = -.02, p = .787, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.18, .15]. Relative indirect effect of the uncivil feedback versus the neutral feedback on self-promotion through self-esteem threat was also not statistically significant (b = -.02, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.21, .15]).

Table 4.14

Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Neutral Feedback on Self-Promotion via Self-esteem Threat

	B	*SE*	*p*-value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.110	-.04	.41
Gender- Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.099	-.03	.42
Job Experience- Self-esteem Threat	-.03	.008	.002	-.04	-.01
Uncivil Feedback- Self-esteem Threat	1.06	.13	.000	.79	1.30
Negative Feedback- Self-esteem Threat	.74	.13	.000	.50	1.01
Honor Prime- Self-esteem Threat	-.08	.11	.467	-.32	.12
Supervisory Position-Self-promotion	-.09	.14	.498	-.38	.16
Gender-Self-promotion	-.30	.14	.024	-.56	-.04
Job Experience-Self-promotion	.02	.01	.078	-.002	.04
Self-esteem Threat-Self-promotion	-.02	.08	.787	-.18	.15
Uncivil Feedback- Self-promotion	.10	.21	.650	-.33	.52
Negative Feedback- Self-promotion	-.03	.17	.862	-.35	.31
Honor Prime- Self-promotion	.06	.13	.666	-.22	.29
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to neutral condition	-.02	.09	> .05	-.21	.15

When the negative feedback was assigned to the reference category, test for the relative indirect effect of the uncivil feedback on self-promotion via self-esteem threat in comparison to the negative feedback group again was not statistically significant ($b = -.007$, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.08, .05]. The results are presented in Table 4.15. Consequently, Hypothesis 4b was not supported.

Table 4.15

Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Negative Feedback on Self-Promotion via Self-esteem Threat

	B	SE	p-value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.110	-.04	.41
Gender- Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.099	-.03	.42
Job Experience- Self-esteem Threat	-.03	.008	.002	-.04	-.01
Uncivil Feedback- Self-esteem Threat	.32	.14	.023	.05	.61
Neutral Feedback- Self-esteem Threat	-.74	.13	.000	-1.01	-.50
Honor Prime- Self-esteem Threat	-.08	.11	.467	-.32	.12
Supervisory Position-Self-promotion	-.09	.14	.498	-.38	.16
Gender-Self-promotion	-.30	.14	.024	-.56	-.04
Job Experience-Self-promotion	.02	.01	.078	-.002	.04
Self-esteem Threat-Self-promotion	-.02	.08	.787	-.18	.15
Uncivil Feedback- Self-promotion	.13	.17	.457	-.20	.46
Neutral Feedback- Self-promotion	.03	.17	.861	-.31	.35
Honor Prime- Self-promotion	.06	.13	.666	-.22	.29
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to negative condition	-.007	.03	> .05	-.08	.05

Hypothesis 5a proposed that belongingness threat mediates the effect of uncivil feedback (versus neutral and negative) on aggression. To investigate the mediator role of belongingness threat in the relationship between incivility and aggression, first I created a model in which the neutral group was excluded from the analysis as the reference group. The results are presented in Table 4.16. The results indicated that the effect of belongingness threat on aggression was not significant (b = .08, p = .132, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.03, .17]. Therefore, the relative indirect effect of being in the uncivil feedback condition compared to the neutral condition on aggression through belongingness threat was also not significant since the bias-corrected 95% confidence interval included zero (-.04, .24).

Table 4.16

Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Neutral Feedback on Aggression via
Belongingness Threat

| | B | SE | p-value | Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval | |
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Belongingness Threat	.28	.14	.040	.01	.55
Gender-Belongingness Threat	.10	.14	.456	-.16	.37
Job Experience-Belongingness Threat	-.01	.01	.172	-.03	.005
Uncivil Feedback-Belongingness Threat	1.39	.16	.000	1.08	1.69
Negative Feedback-Belongingness Threat	.83	.16	.000	.51	1.14
Honor Prime-Belongingness Threat	-.09	.13	.496	-.36	.16
Supervisory Position-Aggression	.03	.10	.779	.01	.55
Gender- Aggression	-.11	.09	.253	-.16	.37
Job Experience- Aggression	-.002	.009	.834	-.03	.005
Belongingness Threat-Aggression	.08	.05	.137	-.03	.17
Uncivil Feedback- Aggression	.57	.13	.000	.33	.84
Negative Feedback- Aggression	.22	.10	.031	.03	.44
Honor Prime- Aggression	.13	.10	.175	-.08	.31
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to neutral condition	.10	.07	> .05	-.04	.24

In the second model, the negative feedback group was the reference category. The results are presented in Table 4.17. Again the relative indirect effect of uncivil feedback versus negative feedback on aggression via belongingness threat was not statistically significant (bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.01, .12]). Consequently, Hypothesis 5a was not supported.

Table 4.17

Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Negative Feedback on Aggression via Belongingness Threat

	B	SE	p-value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Belongingness Threat	.28	.14	.040	.01	.55
Gender-Belongingness Threat	.10	.14	.456	-.16	.37
Job Experience-Belongingness Threat	-.01	.01	.172	-.03	.005
Uncivil Feedback-Belongingness Threat	.55	.17	.001	.20	.90
Neutral Feedback-Belongingness Threat	-.83	.16	.000	-1.14	-.52
Honor Prime-Belongingness Threat	-.09	.13	.496	-.36	.16
Supervisory Position-Aggression	.03	.10	.779	-.16	.24
Gender- Aggression	-.11	.09	.253	-.27	.08
Job Experience- Aggression	-.002	.009	.834	-.02	.02
Belongingness Threat-Aggression	.08	.05	.137	-.03	.17
Uncivil Feedback- Aggression	.35	.14	.013	.06	.62
Neutral Feedback- Aggression	-.22	.10	.031	-.44	-.03
Honor Prime- Aggression	.13	.10	.175	-.08	.31
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to negative feedback	.04	.03	> .05	-.01	.12

Hypothesis 5b proposed that self-esteem threat mediate the effect of uncivil feedback (versus neutral and negative) on aggression. In order to test indirect effect of the uncivil feedback condition on aggression via self-esteem threat, again I constructed two models. In the first model, I chose the neutral group as the reference category. As it is shown in Table 4.18, the results indicated that self-esteem threat was not significantly related to aggression ($b = .01$, $p = .848$, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.10, .15]. Again, the effect of being in the uncivil condition on aggression via self-esteem threat compared to being in the neutral condition was not statistically significant ($b = .01$, $p > .10$, bias-corrected bootstrapped 95% CI [-.11, .15].

Table 4.18
Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Neutral Feedback on Aggression via Self-esteem Threat

	B	SE	p-value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.110	-.04	.41
Gender-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.099	-.03	.42
Job Experience-Self-esteem Threat	-.03	.008	.002	-.04	-.01
Uncivil Feedback-Self-esteem Threat	1.06	.13	.000	.79	1.30
Negative Feedback-Self-esteem Threat	.74	.13	.000	.50	1.01
Honor Prime-Self-esteem Threat	-.08	.11	.467	-.32	.12
Supervisory Position-Aggression	.05	.10	.632	-.14	.25
Gender- Aggression	-.10	.09	.283	-.29	.09
Job Experience- Aggression	-.003	.009	.766	-.02	.01
Self-esteem Threat-Aggression	.01	.06	.848	-.10	.15
Uncivil Feedback- Aggression	.66	.14	.000	.39	.93
Negative Feedback- Aggression	.27	.10	.006	.09	.48
Honor Prime- Aggression	.13	.10	.194	-.08	.30
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to neutral condition	.01	.07	> .05	-.11	.15

In the second model, the negative feedback group was the reference category. The result of this analysis is presented in Table 4.19. Using negative feedback group as the reference group, the results showed that relative indirect effect of uncivil feedback (versus negative feedback) on aggression through self-esteem threat was not significant (bias-corrected bootstrap 95 % CI [-.03, .06]). Consequently, Hypothesis 5b was not supported.

Table 4.19

Indirect Effect of Uncivil Feedback versus Negative Feedback on Aggression via Self-esteem Threat

	B	SE	p-value	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval	
				Low	High
Supervisory Position-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.110	-.04	.41
Gender-Self-esteem Threat	.19	.12	.099	-.03	.42
Job Experience-Self-esteem Threat	-.03	.008	.002	-.04	-.01
Uncivil Feedback-Self-esteem Threat	.32	.14	.023	.05	.61
Neutral Feedback-Self-esteem Threat	-.74	.13	.000	-1.01	-.50
Honor Prime-Self-esteem Threat	-.08	.11	.467	-.32	.12
Supervisory Position-Aggression	.05	.10	.632	-.14	.25
Gender- Aggression	-.10	.09	.283	-.29	.09
Job Experience- Aggression	-.003	.009	.767	-.02	.01
Self-esteem Threat-Aggression	.01	.06	.848	-.10	.15
Uncivil Feedback- Aggression	.39	.14	.006	.10	.65
Neutral Feedback- Aggression	-.27	.10	.006	-.48	-.09
Honor Prime- Aggression	.13	.10	.194	-.08	.30
Difference in indirect effect of uncivil feedback compared to negative condition	.004	.02	>.05	-.03	.06

4.2.9. Additional Exploratory Analysis

Although I did not specify any hypothesis about the direct effects of performance feedback (uncivil vs. negative vs. neutral) and word prime (honor related vs. neutral word completion) on behavioral measures (i.e. exemplification, self-promotion, aggressiveness), I conducted some exploratory analysis to assess these direct relationships. To this end, at the first stage, I conducted a MANCOVA with exemplification, self-promotion and aggressiveness variables. Overall model that represents the main effect of feedback type on three dependent variables was significant (Wilks' Lambda = .835, $F(6, 524) = 8.245$, $p = .001$). Although the main of effect of word prime (Wilks' Lambda = .992, $F(3, 262) = .716$, $p = .543$) on the three dependent variables were not significant, the interaction of word

prime x feedback type (Wilks' Lambda = .953, $F(6,524)$ = 2.145, p = .047) showed significant effects on dependent variables.

Table 4.20
Univariate and Multivariate Results of Behavioral Measures: Exemplification, Self-promotion and Aggression

Variables	Multivariate F	Exemplification Univariate F	η^2	Self-promotion Univariate F	η^2	Aggression Univariate F	η^2
Job experience	1.398	.076	.000	3.686†	.013	.205	.000
Supervisory position	.389	.532	.002	.412	.002	.276	.000
Gender	1.275	.001	.000	3.572†	.013	.214	.000
Feedback type	8.245***	21.209***	.133	.383	.003	16.881***	.108
Prime	.716	.948	.003	.298	.001	1.922	.006
Prime X Condition	2.145*	2.757†	.017	2.215	.016	3.199*	.021

†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Separate ANCOVAs (performance feedback: uncivil vs. negative vs. neutral x word prime: honor-related vs. neutral word completion) were conducted on exemplification, self-promotion and aggressiveness controlling for job experience, gender and supervisory position. Control variables of job experience $(F(1,264)$ = .076 , p = .783 , η^2= .000), supervisory position $(F(1,264)$ = .532 , p = .466 , η^2= .002) and gender $(F(1,264)$ = .001, p = .970 , η^2= .000) had no significant effects on exemplification. On the other hand, the main effect of feedback type on exemplification was significant $(F(2,264)$ = 21.209 , p = .000 , η^2= .13). Planned contrast indicated that participants in the uncivil condition displayed significantly more exemplification compared to both the negative $(M_{difference}$= .497, p = .000, 95% CI [.270, .724], 1.752 and 1.255 are adjusted means for uncivil and negative conditions respectively) and the neutral conditions $(M_{difference}$= .750, p = .000, 95% CI [.520, .981], 1.752 and 1.002 are adjusted means for the uncivil and negative conditions, respectively). While the main effect of word prime on exemplification was not significant $(F(1,264)$ = .948., p = .331 , η^2 = .003 .), the effect of word prime x feedback type interaction was marginally significant $(F(2,264)$ = 2.757, p = .065 , η^2 = .017).

Planned contrasts for word prime x feedback type interaction revealed that participants in the uncivil feedback-honor-related word completion condition (i.e. participants who were primed with honor and then received uncivil feedback) displayed significantly more exemplification compared to participants in uncivil feedback-neutral word completion condition ($M_{difference}$= .388, p = .015, 95% CI [.075, .700], 1.946 and 1.559 are adjusted means for uncivil feedback-honor prime and uncivil feedback- neutral prime conditions respectively). Adjusted and unadjusted means are presented in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21
Adjusted and Unadjusted Mean Exemplification for Feedback Type-Prime Interaction

Feedback Type	Prime	Unadjusted Mean	*SD*	N	Adjusted Mean	95% CI Interval	
						Low	High
Uncivil	Honor	1.95	1.26	43	1.95	1.71	2.18
	Neutral	1.56	.97	49	1.56	1.34	1.77
	Total	1.75	1.13	92	1.75	1.59	1.91
Negative	Honor	1.19	.57	42	1.20	.97	1.42
	Neutral	1.31	.75	43	1.32	1.09	1.54
	Total	1.25	.67	85	1.26	1.10	1.42
Neutral	Honor	1.00	.00	48	1.00	.79	1.22
	Neutral	1.00	.00	48	1.00	.78	1.22
	Total	1.00	.00	96	1.00	.85	1.16

Interaction plot that visualizes marginally significant word prime x feedback type interaction for exemplification is presented in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3

Feedback Type-Honor Prime Interaction Predicting Exemplification
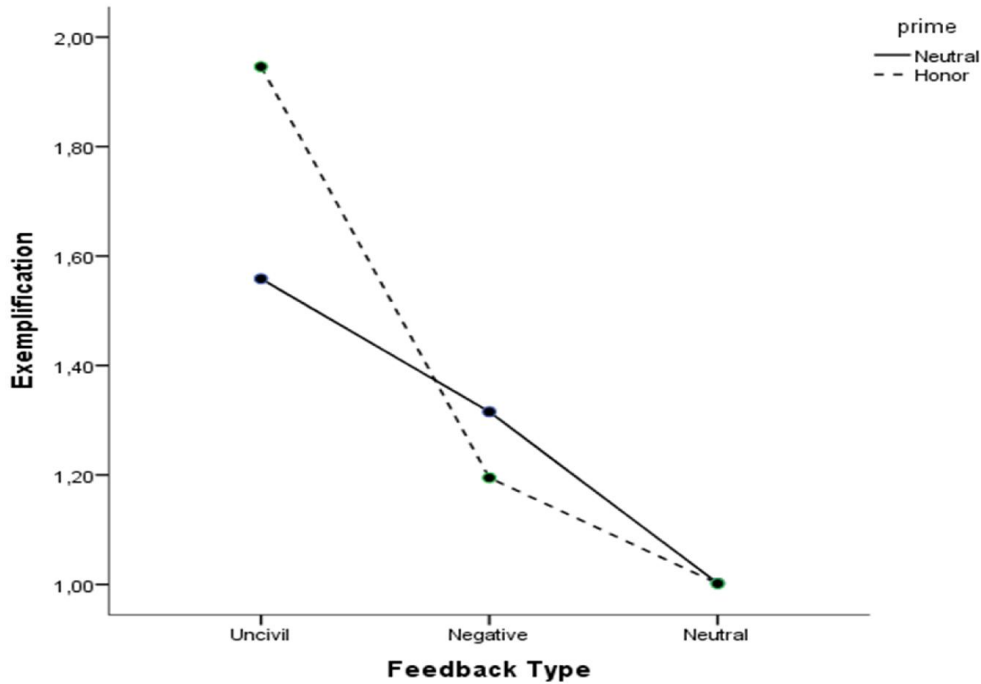
The results of the ANCOVA revealed that neither the main effects of feedback type and word prime nor the effect of word prime-feedback type interaction on self-promotion was significant. Therefore, I have not conducted any mean comparison analysis for this outcome. An ANCOVA (feedback type: uncivil vs. negative vs. neutral x word prime: honor-related vs. neutral word completion) was conducted on aggression controlling for gender, job experience and supervisory position. Control variables gender $(F(1,264) = .214,$ $p = .644$, $\eta^2 = .000$), job experience $(F(1,264) = .205, p = .651, \eta^2 = .000)$ and supervisory position $(F(1,264) = .276, p = .600, \eta^2 = .000)$ had no significant effects on aggression. The main effect of feedback type on aggression was significant $(F(2,264) = 16.881, p = .000,$ $\eta^2 = .108)$. Planned contrasts indicated that participants in the uncivil condition displayed significantly more aggression compared to those in the negative $(M_{difference} = .414, p =$ .001, 95% CI [.180, .647], 1.831 and 1.417 are adjusted means for the uncivil feedback and the negative feedback conditions, respectively) and neutral condition $(M_{difference} =$

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.696, p = .000., 95% CI [.459, .932], 1.831 and 1.135 are adjusted means for the uncivil feedback and the neutral feedback conditions, respectively). The main effect the word prime on aggressiveness was not significant *(F(1,264) = 1.922, p = .167, η^2= .006)* but the word prime x feedback type interaction was significant *(F(1,264) = 3.199, p = .042, $\square^2$= .023).* Planned comparisons indicated that honor primed participants in the uncivil feedback condition had significantly higher aggressiveness scores than participants in the uncivil feedback-neutral word completion condition ($M_{difference}$= .452, p = .006, 95% CI [.130, .773], 1.605 and 2.057 are adjusted means for the uncivil feedback and the negative feedback conditions, respectively). Adjusted and unadjusted means are presented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22
Adjusted and Unadjusted Mean Aggression for Three Types of Feedback

Feedback Type	Prime	Unadjusted Mean	S.D	N	Adjusted Mean	95% CI Interval	
						Low	High
Uncivil	Honor	2.07	1.21	43	2.06	1.81	2.30
	Neutral	1.60	.84	49	1.60	1.38	1.82
	Total	1.82	1.05	92	1.83	1.66	1.99
Negative	Honor	1.44	.77	42	1.44	1.21	1.68
	Neutral	1.38	.83	43	1.39	1.16	1.62
	Total	1.41	.79	85	1.42	1.25	1.58
Neutral	Honor	1.07	.18	48	1.07	.85	1.30
	Neutral	1.20	.38	48	1.19	.97	1.41
	Total	1.14	.30	96	1.13	.97	1.29

The visual representation of word prime x feedback type interaction for aggressiveness is presented in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4

Feedback Type-Honor Prime Interaction Predicting Aggressiveness
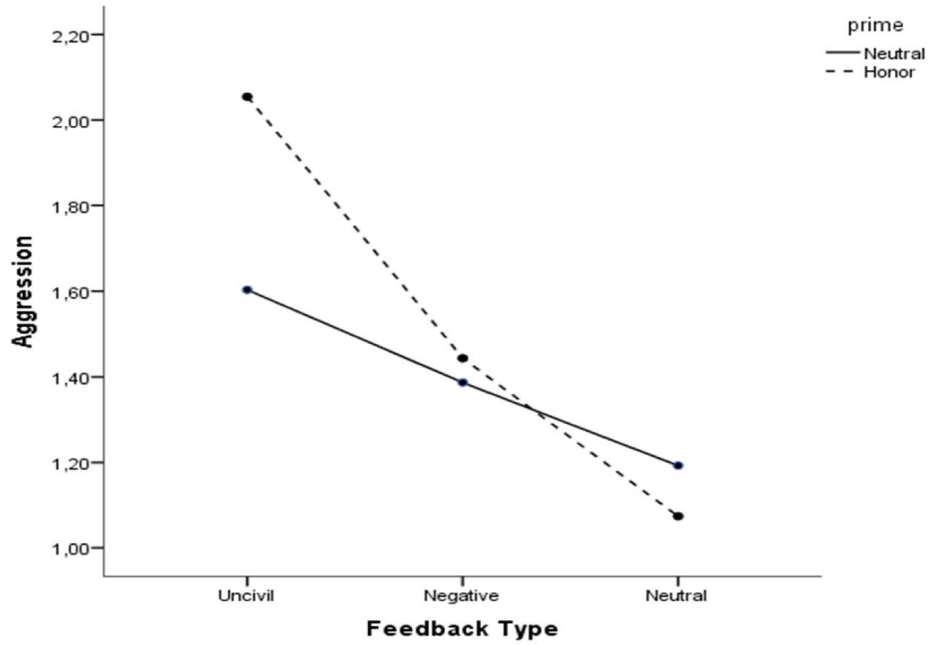
The results of the hypothesis testing for vignette experiment study are summarized in Table 4.23

Table 4.23

Summary of the Results of the Hypothesis Testing

HYPOTHESES	Results
H1a: Individuals who receive uncivil (versus negative or neutral) online performance feedback will report higher levels of belongingness threat	Supported
H1b: Individuals who receive uncivil (versus negative or neutral) online performance feedback will report higher levels of self-esteem threat.	Supported
H1c: Individuals who are primed with honor before receiving uncivil online performance feedback will report higher levels of belongingness threat than individuals who are not primed with honor	Not supported
H1d: Individuals who are primed with honor before receiving uncivil online performance feedback will report higher levels of self-esteem threat than individuals who are not primed with honor	Not supported
H3a: Belongingness threat will mediate the positive effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on exemplification	Supported
H3b: Self-esteem threat will mediate the positive effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on exemplification	Not supported
H4a: Belongingness threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on self-promotion	Not supported
H4b: Self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on self-promotion	Not supported
H5a: Belongingness threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on aggression	Not supported
H5b: Self-esteem threat will mediate the effect of uncivil online performance feedback (versus negative and neutral) on aggression	Not supported

5.1.8. Discussion

With this vignette experiment, I tried to replicate and extend the findings of daily diary study. Specifically, I focused on supervisor incivility and investigated its immediate effects on belongingness and self-esteem threats. The results indicated that supervisor incivility, as predicted, increased belongingness and self-esteem threats. In this study, I also tried to prime honor with a word-completion task rather than measuring it with an explicit scale. However, I observed that participants primed with honor reported less explicit honor orientation than the participants in the neutral condition (i.e., neutral-related word completion condition). This finding may be interpreted in several ways. First of all, honor prime may have created a contrast or so-called reverse priming effect (Glaser & Banaji, 1999). Scholars argue that under some conditions, priming stimuli may lead to form judgments that contrast with the prime (Laran, Dalton, & Anrade, 2010). For instance, Smeesters, Warlop, Avermaet, Corneille and Yzerbyt (2003) argue that dispositional factors may influence the effectiveness of prime. In their study, the authors observed that morality prime reduced rather than increase cooperative behavior especially for people with proself orientations.

Turkey is characterized as an honor culture so honor priming may have created a kind of reactance for honor-oriented individuals. Partially related with this unexpected effect of word prime, the effect of the honor prime-performance feedback interaction on belongingness and self-esteem threat were not significant. However, I should also note that the results of additional exploratory analyses indicated that the effect of honor prime-performance feedback interaction on aggression was significant; and the effect of interaction variable on exemplification was marginally significant. One explanation is that honor prime may have created a reactance or denial effect that manifests itself in explicit but not in implicit measurements. Unlike self-esteem threat and belongingness threat, exemplification and aggression were coded from qualitative answers of participants; hence, may be regarded as a kind of implicit rather than explicit measure. Consequently, subconscious effect of honor prime may be effective and is likely to appear in implicit measures. Of course, this is just a post-hoc explanation and it needs further investigation.

Since the effect of honor prime-performance feedback interaction was not significant, I could not test for the moderated mediation but I investigated the indirect effects of uncivil feedback condition (versus negative or neutral) on exemplification, self-promotion and aggression. The results of mediation analyses indicated that belongingness threat but not self-esteem threat significantly mediated the effect of incivility on exemplification. Neither belongingness threat nor self-esteem threat significantly mediated the effect of uncivil feedback (versus negative or neutral) on self-promotion and aggressiveness. However, the results of additional exploratory analysis revealed that main effect or direct effect of performance feedback (uncivil vs. negative vs. neutral) was significant. Accordingly, participants in the uncivil feedback condition displayed significantly more aggression compared to the negative and neutral feedback conditions. On the other hand, the main effect of performance feedback or the effect of word prime-performance feedback interaction on self-promotion was not significant.

In the following section, I will elaborate more on the results of both daily diary and vignette experiment studies.

5.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Mainstream literature on workplace incivility is largely based on studies conducted in the North American context. The North American context is described as a dignity culture in which each individual has an inherent worth that cannot be granted or taken away by others (Kim et al., 2010; Leung & Cohen, 2011). This study is one of the first studies that investigate the psychological, motivational as well as behavioral consequences of workplace incivility within an honor culture where social esteem is of particular significance (Rodriguez Mosquera et al., 2000). To have honor means being respected by others (Rodriguez Mosquera et al., 2002b) so it is expected that the effects of uncivil behaviors on people who have a high concern for gaining approval and esteem of others will be different than its effects on people who think one's personal worth is inalienable and cannot be diminished by the disrespectful treatment of others. Consequently, this study aimed to contribute to the workplace incivility literature by taking a culture-sensitive perspective and examining the role of honor in the proposed relationships among workplace incivility, need threats and self-presentational behaviors.

This research also answered recent calls in workplace incivility literature with regards to investigating the relatively short-term effects of incivility (Schilpzand et al., 2014). With

two proper research designs, namely daily diary study and a vignette experiment, which alleviated the recall problems associated with retrospective approaches and enabled me to focus on day-to-day interactions, this research contributed to the literature with regards to unveiling short-term consequences of workplace incivility. This research considered workplace incivility as an identity threat, which questions or decreases a person's sense of self-worth (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Ferris et al., 2009) and investigated the effects of workplace incivility on belongingness, control and self-esteem needs. Although the effects of mistreatment have been investigated in the context of ostracism, there is no research that has investigated the effects of supervisor and coworker incivility on need threats. Related to this, another contribution of this research was to investigate whether the effects of workplace incivility on these psychological needs would vary according to the source of incivility. Our knowledge regarding the processes underlying the effects of workplace incivility and its effects by source is still limited (Schilpzand et al., 2014) and some of the existing studies produced contradictory results. While some studies found that there is no significant difference in the outcomes of incivility instigated by authority figures or peers (Porath & Erez, 2007; Porath & Erez, 2009), other studies found significant differences (Caza & Cortina, 2007; Oore et al., 2010). By studying the effects of supervisor and coworker incivility in their natural contexts (i.e. in day to day interactions), this study aimed to unravel the processes underlying the effects of workplace incivility instigated by different sources.

Finally, another contribution is that while majority of research studies on workplace mistreatment, in general, and workplace incivility, in particular, have focused on deviant behavioral responses based on social exchange theory or conservation of resources theory, this research investigated whether targets will choose to display self-presentational behaviors in order to restore their thwarted needs. I conducted a daily diary study and a vignette experiment in order to test the proposed relationships. In this section, first I will discuss the results of these two studies, compare their findings, discuss the meaning of the expected as well as unexpected findings. Then I will deliberate on the limitations, future directions as well as practical implications of this research.

5.1. The Direct Effects of Workplace Incivility on Belongingness, Control and Self-esteem Threats

The results of both the daily diary and the vignette experiment studies provided support for the proposition that workplace incivility threatens basic needs (i.e. belongingness, control, self-esteem) of individuals. This result is consistent with the identity threat perspective (Ferris et al., 2009; Aquino & Douglas, 2003). All individuals want to see themselves as valuable, capable or competent actors and disrespectful treatment in the form of workplace incivility damages one's sense of positive identity and self-worth (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). This perceived identity threat, in turn, manifests itself in threatened belongingness, control and self-esteem needs. Uncivil treatment signals that one is not an accepted (i.e., belongingness threat) and valuable (i.e., self-esteem threat) member of the group and leads to feelings of powerlessness (i.e., control threat). The finding in the daily diary study, which indicated that the effects of daily supervisor incivility on basic need threats are more pronounced than coworker incivility, also fits the identity threat perspective. Specifically, the results revealed that supervisor incivility threatens all three needs while coworker incivility threatens only belongingness needs. This finding also makes sense when it is considered in the context group-value model, which is originally proposed as an alternative explanation for the effects of procedural justice. People desire to be members of social groups (such as family, work group etc.) because being member of a group is psychologically rewarding for them; that is group membership provides self-validation as well as emotional or material resources to people (Tyler, 1989). The main point is that people give high importance to their standing within a particular group therefore they are sensitive to cues that provide information about their relative standing. The treatment of an authority constitutes an important source in this respect (Tyler, 1989). When they are targeted with disrespect by an authority, employees think that they are considered as a low-status and worthless member of the group (Tyler, Degoey, & Smith, 1996). Not surprisingly, the negative effects become more pronounced when the instigator is superior compared to coworker.

This finding regarding the amplification of the negative effects when the instigator is superior may seem counter-intuitive at first. Turkey is characterized as a high power

distance country and unequal distribution of power is accepted in such cultures (Hofstede, 2001). One may argue that employees with high power distance orientation may be more tolerant of uncivil behavior of supervisors due to their *reverence* to their superiors (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009). However, the results of the exploratory analysis I conducted, which investigated the moderator role of power distance orientation as an individual level variable in the relationship between supervisor incivility and need threats suggested otherwise. The results of this analysis revealed that having high power distance orientation did not mitigate the effects of supervisor incivility on need threats. Supporting this finding, in their meta-analysis study on the effects of organizational justice, Lia and Cropanzano (2009) argued that the prominence of relational or collective self-concept and the associated need for belonging and maintaining harmonious relationships may increase the importance of justice perceptions for East Asians. Similarly, Turkey is also a collectivistic country (Hofstede, 2001) where the relational self is highly salient so the uncivil treatment of supervisor is likely to be highly important as a cue of one's relative social standing (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Moreover, findings of GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) may also help to understand these ostensibly contradicting results. GLOBE is a research program that examines culture and leadership in 61 countries. GLOBE project measured cultural values in terms of both "*what it is*" and "*what it should be*". Results regarding power distance orientation revealed that Turkish employees accept the presence of high power distance values considering the current practices, common behaviors etc. (power distance "what it is" value= 5.57), however they also think that existing situation should change and power distance should decrease (power distance "what it should be" value = 2.41) (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Based on these findings and arguments regarding the importance of relational concerns, Turkish employees may be more than likely to be sensitive and vigilant to the disrespectful and insensitive behaviors of their superiors.

In an attempt to understand possible cultural differences in psychological or behavioral effects of workplace incivility, this study investigated the influence of an individual-level moderator, namely, honor orientation in proposed relationships. The results of the daily diary study showed that honor orientation moderates the within-person relationships between daily supervisor incivility and need threats; such that this relationship

is stronger when individual honor orientation is high. This result is not surprising given that self-worth is so intertwined with social recognition within honor cultures (Pitt-Rivers, 1965). To be respected and approved by others is a precondition for maintaining honor (Rodriguez Mosquera et al., 2002b). Any event such as incivility that jeopardizes one's claim to honor is likely to be perceived highly threatening.

In daily diary study, I measured honor orientation as an individual difference variable with an explicit measure while in vignette experiment I tried to prime honor via word completion task. The results indicated that the effects of supervisor incivility on belongingness and self-esteem threat did not vary between individuals who were primed with honor and those who are not primed with honor. This discrepancy may be related to the differences in research designs. In the daily diary study, I investigated within-person relations; that is whether a particular person felt more need threat on days he/she experienced incivility and whether individual honor orientation affected the strength of these within-person or day-level relationships. On the other hand, in the vignette experiment I examined between-person differences; that is whether there are any differences in felt need threat between people who experienced or not experienced workplace incivility and whether priming with honor via a word completion task affected the strength of these between-person relationships. Indeed, scholars such as Reis and Gable (2000) underline that the nature of relationships among the variables at within-level may be different than the relationships among the same variables at between-level. For instance, Emmons (1991) did not find a moderating effect of personal striving on the relationship between daily events and reactions of people at the between-level however within-person analysis detected significant interactions. Another possible explanation regarding this contradicting result may come from the anxiety literature. Accordingly, anxiety creating events are immediately followed by a suppression of the threat so when measured immediately no effect on anxiety is detected; however, after particular delay anxious thoughts become hyper-accessible (Nash, McGregor, & Prentice, 2011). In the vignette experiment the measurement of the need threats were more immediate compared to daily diary study, which measured the need threats at the end of the day; it may be that the effect of honor orientation becomes apparent after a suppression period has passed.

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Although not hypothesized, as an exploratory analysis I investigated whether gender moderated the proposed relationship between daily incivility and need threats. I found that females reported more daily control threat and daily self-esteem threat than males on days they experienced supervisor incivility. Women are regarded as more relationship oriented and are associated with communal characteristics such as interpersonal sensitivity and sensibility while men are defined with more agentic characteristics such as assertiveness, dominance and aggressiveness (Eagley, 1987; Eagley & Crowley, 1986). Thus, one possibility is that women may be more sensitive to problems in their social relationships and affected more adversely from them. Another possibility is that males in line with their associated gender roles (Shimanoff, 2009), may be less likely to express their feelings of powerlessness (i.e., control threat) or insignificance (i.e., self-esteem threat) in comparison to women. In this respect, males may have engaged in a kind of emotion management considering culturally appropriate display rules (Simon & Nath, 2004). As an exploratory analysis, I also checked whether cross-level interaction of daily incivility-individual level honor orientation varied between males and females; however, I did not find any significant three-way interaction. This finding indicated that the effect of supervisor incivility on belongingness, control and self-esteem needs and the effect of coworker incivility on control needs were conditional on individual honor orientation irrespective of participant gender. However, one should note that this was just a post-hoc analysis and this research may lack required power to detect a significant three-way interaction. In fact, Heo and Leon (2010) note that the required sample size to detect three-way interactions is actually fourfold of the sample size required for detecting two-way interactions.

5.2. The Indirect Effects of Workplace Incivility via Belongingness, Control and Self-esteem Threats

I discussed that workplace incivility will be regarded as an identity threat and will threaten belongingness, control and self-esteem needs of employees. I further proposed that since these need threats will create disequilibrium, employees will engage in behaviors that will restore the equilibrium and satisfy their thwarted needs. In the following sections I will

discuss these indirect effects of supervisor and coworker incivility on these behaviors, namely exemplification, self-promotion and intimidation.

5.2.1. The Indirect effects of Workplace Incivility on Exemplification

I argued that one possible behavior that will restore thwarted needs is exemplification behaviors. Specifically, I proposed that need threats will mediate the indirect effects of supervisor and coworker incivility on exemplification. In the daily diary study, neither the daily control threat nor the daily self-esteem threat was significantly related to daily exemplification. However, I found that there is a significant positive relationship between daily belongingness threat and daily exemplification. As hypothesized, daily belongingness threat mediated the indirect effect of both daily supervisor incivility and daily coworker incivility on exemplification. The results of the vignette experiment also supported that belongingness threat mediated the effect of supervisor incivility on exemplification. Therefore, the proposed relationship was supported in both within and between-person designs. These findings are in line with the studies which show that people engage in behaviors that will increase their probability of acceptance or their relational value to regain their sense of belonging subsequent to an event that threatens this need. In their experimental study, Williams and his colleagues (2000) showed that after participants were ostracized during a virtual ball tossing game and experienced belongingness threat, they displayed increased conformity behaviors (i.e. agreeing on the decision made by his/her partner) in a subsequent task in order to restore belongingness needs. Similarly, Williams and Sommer (1997) found that ostracized females displayed social compensation behaviors and increased their effort to regain their sense of belonging afterwards. Extending these previous studies, this study showed that exemplification as a self-presentational strategy may also be used to restore belongingness needs of employees after an identity threatening event such as workplace incivility. Both the results obtained in diary study and the findings of vignette experiment supported this proposition. By displaying exemplification, employees tried to reflect attributes associated with a good employee such as hardworking and responsible thereby regaining their sense of belonging after experiencing workplace incivility. Besides restoring thwarted needs, exemplification may also help to prevent future

uncivil treatment and further belongingness threat. Responsible employee image created by means of exemplification may provide a kind of protection to the employee (Kacmar & Tucker, 2016). In other words, a hard-working and dedicated employee image may discourage supervisor or coworkers from displaying further uncivil treatment to the individual.

The results of daily diary study also indicated that the indirect effect of supervisor incivility on exemplification was conditional on the values of individual honor-orientation. As expected, the indirect effect of supervisor incivility on exemplification via belongingness threat was stronger at high levels of individual honor orientation. Honor orientation, as a first-stage moderator, exacerbated the negative effects of supervisor incivility on belongingness threat and belongingness threat, in turn, increased the exemplification behaviors. These results support the arguments which state that honor-oriented people are highly concerned about their social esteem (Rodriguez Mosquera et al., 2000). Honor is defined as a social psychological concept such that honor cannot be maintained, lost or enhanced without the presence of other people (Uskul, Oyserman, & Schwarz, 2010). Therefore, honor-oriented people are particularly vigilant to disrespectful treatment of others (Cross et al., 2013). In the vignette experiment, although marginally significant, I also observed that honor-primed individuals engaged in more exemplification after supervisor incivility. This result may be explained with an important characteristic of the honor construct in that honor has multiple components. Being honorable means to have social respect and good reputation; and it also means to be a virtuous actor with qualities such as integrity and morality (Uskul et al., 2015). In this respect, honor-primed people after supervisor incivility may be more motivated to reflect qualities that are associated with a good and moral actor via exemplification. Moreover, as I previously emphasized, exemplification behavior may also help preventing future uncivil treatment which may be especially important for people with honor mindset. To be more precise by creating an image of a diligent, dedicated and committed employee as a reaction to incivility, an employee is likely to prevent a possible escalation of incivility hence further damage to honor.

5.2.2. The Indirect Effects of Workplace Incivility on Self-promotion

In the daily diary study I found that neither daily belongingness threat nor daily control threat had any effects on daily self-promotion behavior; however self-esteem threat was significantly related to self-promotion albeit in opposite direction than I predicted. Self-esteem threat, therefore, was the only significant mediator of the negative indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on self-promotion. To put another way, the results of daily diary study indicated that on days when an employee felt self-esteem threat as a result of supervisor incivility, they engaged in less self-promotion behavior. Since daily coworker incivility had no significant effect on daily self-esteem, it also had no significant indirect effect on self-promotion via self-esteem. Moreover, the results of multilevel moderated mediation analysis indicated that indirect effect of supervisor incivility on self-promotion was significant only at high level of honor orientation. For low honor-oriented people, self-esteem threat was not an intervening variable in the relationship between supervisor incivility and self-promotion. This finding points out the importance of other's disrespectful treatment in determining one's self-worth for an honor-oriented individual even in the context of workplace. Implications of individual honor orientation within the workplace have not been studied before; however, these findings indicate that for honor-oriented people, disrespectful treatment of supervisor leads to feeling of unimportance and insignificance as an organizational actor.

Reflecting the image of a competent and successful employee via self-promotion (Jones & Pitman, 1982; Rosenfeld et al., 2002) may be expected to help a person to gain respect and admiration of others hence to restore threatened needs. However, as I previously argued in hypothesis development section, self-promotion requires one to be active and aggressive so it may be regarded as an approach-oriented response in this respect. Yet, as a response to self-esteem threat, one may engage in an approach-oriented response that will increase his/her worth or an avoidance-oriented response that will prevent further worth loss (Crocker & Park, 2004; Park, 2010). It is likely that people refrained from self-promotion behaviors because it was perceived as risky and could even lead to more uncivil behaviors. Self-promotion may be seen as a double-edge sword, instead of increasing respect and relational value of an individual, it may also lead one to be

perceived as conceited (Jones & Pitman, 1982). In other words, self-promotion carries a certain amount of risk. In a recent study, Scopelliti, Loewenstein, and Vosgerau (2015) argued that self-promotion may bring negative rather than positive outcomes if it is perceived as bragging. Jones and Pitman (1982) also underlined that self-promotion may lead to resentment and jealousy of one's coworkers and it may even be perceived as intimidating. For these reasons, individuals may want to refrain from this impression management behavior, which is likely to backfire.

Moreover, individuals may also feel that they do not have resources to engage in an assertive behavior such as self-promotion. Kane and Montgomery (1998) proposed that work events that decrease one's respect and dignity are likely to commence a disempowerment process. This disempowerment process impairs motivation, cooperation, commitment or innovation of an employee. Drawing from this, self-esteem threat experienced via supervisor incivility may have started a similar kind of disempowerment process and prevented the person from engaging in an approach oriented and assertive behavior such as self-promotion.

A recent study by Fragale and Grant (2015) may offer another explanation for decrease in self-promotion. My operationalization of self-promotion focused solely on agentic characteristics like competence or intelligence and I argued that promotion of these characteristics may help to increase one status and relationship value in the group. However, Fragale and Grant (2015) emphasize that status may be increased only if other people grant it to the individual; in this respect, self-promotion of agentic characteristics should be combined with the promotion of communion characteristics such as friendly, good natured etc. In a collectivistic culture such as Turkey (Hofstede, 2001), promotion of communion characteristics rather than agentic characteristic that highlight independence may be regarded as more relevant to restore thwarted needs and reestablish one's status in the group. Studies of Kurman (2001, 2003) on difference in self-enhancement tendencies of individualistic and collectivistic countries indirectly support this explanation. Kurman (2001) found that collectivists are likely to enhance communal traits such as honesty, cooperation and generosity much more than the agentic traits such as intelligence and sociability. In this regard, he underlined that personal success is not the only source of self-esteem. Related to this, I should also note that Turkey is characterized with honor

collectivism that is behaviors of close others such as family members can damage or enhance one's honor (Uskul et al., 2010). Consequently, an honor-oriented individual may also restore his/her self-esteem by emphasizing the success or good qualities of his/her close group members.

As an exploratory analysis, I also checked whether there are differences between males and females in terms of their daily self-promotion endeavors. In the literature, it is argued that self-promotion may bring unfavorable outcomes especially for females (Rudman, 1998) because aggressiveness and assertiveness underlying self-promotion contradict with the traditional gender role associated with females (Eagley & Crowley, 1986; Eagley, 1987). Females are supposed to carry "communal" characteristics such as friendly and concerned for others while men are supposed to have "agentic" characteristics such as assertive and independent. Supporting this argument, Singh, Kumra, and Vinnicombe (2002) both in a qualitative study and in a survey study showed that women preferred high performance and commitment over self-promotion strategies to increase their visibility in the eyes of their superiors. Similarly, Rudman (1998) argued that due to *feminine modesty effect*, females prefer modesty and humility over self-promotion especially in public situations. In the vignette experiment, I observed that females were less likely to display self-promotion behavior than men controlling for the effect of performance feedback and the honor prime. However, in the daily diary research, neither the main effect of gender nor daily self-esteem-gender interaction was significant. I should also note that unlike the daily diary study, in the vignette experiment I detected no indirect effect of supervisor incivility on self-promotion via belongingness threat or self-esteem threat. One possible reason for this result may be related with the specific context of the study. To be more precise, in the diary study, employees reported their behaviors in relation to their on-going and face to face relationships. In the vignette experiment, on the other hand, there was a private interaction that takes place online rather than face-to-face so there was no audience. Indeed, Rosenfeld and his colleagues (2002) argue that self-promotion concerns will be more relevant when there was an opportunity to publicly impress a target. Consequently, self-promotion may not be relevant in an online-context.

5.2.3. The Indirect Effects of Workplace Incivility on Intimidation and Aggression

Both intimidation and aggression may be used to portray a forceful and tenacious image. In the daily diary study, I found that only daily belongingness threat was significantly related to intimidation. However, neither the effect of daily supervisor incivility nor the effect coworker incivility was significantly mediated via belongingness threat. The results of exploratory analysis, on the other hand, showed that daily supervisor incivility and daily coworker incivility had significant direct effects on daily intimidation. Similarly, in vignette experiment, I observed that there was a main effect of supervisor incivility on aggressive tone used in the email but detected no indirect effect mediated via belongingness or self-esteem threats. As an explanation to these findings, some scholars argue that emotions rather than need threats act as mediators in the relationship between incivility and aggression. Porath and Pearson (2012) indicated that incivility may evoke various feelings such as anger, sadness and fear; and appraisal tendency associated with a particular feeling determines the response. Accordingly, anger leads a person to engage in direct aggression while fear result in more indirect aggression. There are also a number of studies in the social exclusion literature which show that ostracism and rejection may result in aggression. Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, and Stucke (2001) manipulated social exclusion by either telling people that they would have a lonely life or other people rejected them. She found that after social exclusion, people gave more negative feedback to a person who insulted them; showed aggression towards the instigator or to a third party by exposing him/her to an aversive voice. Similarly, in a series of experimental studies, Twenge and Campbell (2003) showed that following social rejection, people experienced feelings of anger, they engaged in direct aggression towards the one who rejected them and also engaged in displaced aggression toward innocent third parties.

Existence of these main effects may also indicate that intimidation may have other functions in addition to restoring thwarted needs. Specifically, individuals who experience supervisor or coworker incivility may display intimidation and other aggressive behaviors to deter future uncivilities. In other words, through reflecting the image of a dangerous person (Jones & Pitman, 1982; Rosenfeld et al., 2002), one may want to preclude possible uncivil actions of his/her coworkers in the future. Intimidation in this respect will have a

symbolic function similar to the functions discussed in the general aggression literature (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). Tedeschi, Smith, and Brown, (1974) argue that aggression may be regarded as a kind of coercive action. For instance, in the context of vignette experiment, writing an email in aggressive tone may be used to indicate supervisor's unfavorable evaluation is not accepted so signaling to the other party that it should be withdrawn (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996).

In daily diary study, moderated mediation analysis indicated that the indirect effect of supervisor incivility on intimidation via belongingness threat was marginally significant at high levels of honor orientation but not significant at low levels of honor orientation. Although restoring belongingness threat via aggressive and intimidating behaviors may seem counterintuitive at first sight, intimidation or aggression in general may increase one's feeling of superiority and dominance after he/she experienced an identity threat (Baumeister et al., 1996). My findings are also in line with the findings of Thau, Aquino and Poortvliet (2007). These authors showed that employees whose desired level of coworker belonging is below the actual level of coworker belonging engage in more interpersonally harmful behaviors. They argued that long-term effects of these aggressive and harmful behaviors may be self-defeating and may lead to even more social isolation. The results of exploratory analysis in vignette experiment revealed that participants primed with honor used a more aggressive tone when responding to uncivil feedback. Script theories of aggression discussed by Warburton, Williams, Cairns (2006) in the context of ostracism may shed light on these findings. Accordingly, there are some scripts and schemas in people's minds regarding the appropriateness or effectiveness of certain behavioral responses. Some events may act as triggers and activate goals and actions associated with that event. For instance, if one has a script that connects incivility and aggression, in this case, incivility may trigger aggressive responses rather automatically hence this process takes place with little consciousness. An honor-oriented person is likely to have this kind of script or schema associated with incivility-aggressiveness link. Supporting this preposition, in three experimental studies, Cohen and his colleagues (1996) showed that after an insult, honor-oriented people become cognitively and psychologically primed for aggression which is manifested by increase in testosterone levels. Intimidation may also be especially important for honor-oriented individuals to signal others that one is

capable of creating pain and discomfort if he/she desires (Jones & Pitman 1982; Rosenfeld et al., 2002). Therefore, intimidation may also be used proactively as a deterrent.

5.2.4. The Indirect Effects of Workplace Incivility on OCBI and OCBO

I proposed that when their needs are thwarted via daily workplace incivility, employees may also engage in OCBs to positively affect their impressions in the eyes of others. Results regarding the direct effect of daily need threats on daily OCBO indicated that while belongingness threat had significant and positive relations with OCBO, self-esteem threat had significant but negative relationships with it. Multiple mediation models revealed that the positive indirect effect of supervisor and coworker incivility on OCBO via belongingness threat was marginally significant. Similarly, the negative indirect of supervisor incivility on OCBO via self-esteem threat was also marginally significant. Moreover, the results of multilevel moderated mediation analysis showed that both the positive indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility on daily OCBO via belongingness threat and the negative indirect effect of daily supervisor incivility via daily self-esteem threat were stronger when individual honor orientation is high compared to low. Behaviors subsumed under OCBO such as volunteering for extra works or not taking additional breaks may be considered as behaviors that a dedicated and moral employee has to display and portraying the image of a good soldier is likely to restore belongingness need. Honor-oriented people felt more belongingness threat as a result of supervisor incivility therefore it makes sense that they are more willing to increase and maintain their relational worth via displaying OCBO. The most interesting point of all these findings is that belongingness threat and self-esteem threat had opposite effects on OCBO, which indicates a possible incongruity in restoring different needs. Due to their threatened belongingness need, people may desire to increase their relational value by portraying the image of a good soldier but also because of their decreased self-esteem they may also want to refrain from OCBO. One possible explanation is that when self-esteem is more thwarted self-defensive motives (Vogel & Mitchell, in press) prevail and people refrain from displaying any discretionary positive behaviors. Whichever motive, that is to restore belongingness need or self-esteem need, prevail is likely to determine whether OCBO will increase or decrease.

As for daily OCBI, both daily belongingness and daily self-esteem threats had significant and negative relations with this behavior. Although I argued that there may be positive indirect effects of incivility on OCBI via need threats, multiple mediation analysis indicated that belongingness threat and self-esteem threat significantly mediated negative rather than positive effects of both supervisor and coworker incivility on OCBI. Moreover, belongingness and self-esteem threat were intervening variables in the relationship between supervisor incivility and OCBI only when individual honor orientation is high but not when individual honor orientation is low.

Upon first inspection, these findings appears contradicting with the other studies which showed that when their belongingness needs are thwarted, individuals display more prosocial behaviors (Leary, Twenge, & Quinlivan, 2006), increase conformity (Williams & Sommer, 1997), contribute more to group task and showed increased attention to social information (Gardner, Pickett, & Brewer, 2000; Pickett, Gardner, & Knowles, 2004) therefore engage in behaviors that are likely to increase their possibility of acceptance. However, there is a possible explanation for this. Just like self-promotion, OCBI behaviors are also require one to be active to display approach and promotion-oriented behaviors. If people become more prevention or avoidance oriented after need threats, they will be less likely to engage in behaviors they perceived risky. For instance, one of the daily OCBI behaviors that I used was "*went out of my way to include my supervisor/coworker in a conversation*". In this case, if one's effort to start a conversation is rejected, this rejection is likely to lead more belongingness threat. Consequently, there is a certain amount of risk one should be willing to take when engaging in OCBI.

Romantic relationship literature may help to explain the negative effect of self-esteem on OCBs. In the context of romantic relationships, Murray, Derrick, Leder, and Holmes (2008) argue that restoring belongingness or self-esteem needs may require a certain degree of risk-taking therefore risk regulation system of a person plays an important role in determining the appropriate response to the event. Accordingly, any situation that involves a risk triggers two competing goals, namely seeking for connection and protection for rejection goals. If rejection hurts more than the connectedness satisfy and self-protection goals prevails then one will be more likely to engage in avoidance rather than approach behaviors. Indirect evidence to this proposition comes from the study of Molden and his

colleagues. Molden, Lucas, Gardner, Dean, and Knowles, (2009) showed that when there is an explicit rejection, people see no opportunity to reestablish connection therefore respond with prevention-oriented behaviors such as withdrawal and avoidance. However, if they think that they were just ignored, not explicitly rejected, so there is an opportunity of social reconnection, they engage in promotion-oriented behaviors. In case of explicit rejection people become more focused on avoiding further rejection hence refrain from any kind of risky behaviors that will lead to further rejection. Similarly, in a series of experiments, Maner, DeWall, Baumeister, and Schaller (2007) showed that excluded participants (who felt belongingness threat) has a greater desire to work with others, had more positive impressions about new interaction partners and allocated more rewards to these partners. However, when an individual's fear of negative social evaluation is high, these positive effects disappeared. Victims of exclusion who have high fear of negative social evaluation allocated less rewards and made less positive evaluations of their partners. Consequently, one should feel safe and invulnerable to engage in approach oriented behaviors that will satisfy his/her needs and goals. In the context of OCB, for instance when one approaches the other for offering help or making a conversation, she/he also takes the risk of being rejected or criticized and if he/she thinks that there is a risk of further rejection he/she is likely to withdraw. Moreover, honor orientation of an individual may also increase the importance of avoiding risky situations. Cross and her colleagues (2014), examined the concept of honor in Turkey with a prototype approach and found that participants frequently emphasized behaviors one should not display to be an honorable person. The authors speculated that honor-oriented people may have a regulatory focus that emphasizes avoiding negative behaviors that will likely to cause honor loss. Based on these approaches, it is likely that honor-oriented people who felt belongingness and self-esteem threats after workplace incivility refrain from any action that has potential to lead further need threat.

I should also note that control threat was not a significant mediator for any of the proposed relationships. This may have different reasons; one possible explanation is that restoring belongingness and self-esteem needs may gain precedence over restoring control needs. Another possible explanation is that the self-presentational behaviors that I specifically examined may not be perceived as viable means of restoring or maintaining control need. For instance, Baruch, O'Creevy, Hind and Vigoda-Gadot (2004) also failed to

find a significant relationship between control need and job performance. The behaviors that meet or restore control need in the workplace should be investigated in the future studies.

Overall, the results of this research showed that even if employees have a motive to restore their threatened needs and increase their social esteem, they do not always engage in behaviors that will directly restore their needs. Because some of these self-presentational behaviors such as self-promotion or OCBI may be risky and lead further need threat instead of restoring them.

5.3. Possible Limitations and Future Research Implications

As with all empirical studies, this research also has a number of limitations. First of all, constructs were measured using self-reports. Therefore, both the daily diary and the vignette experiment may be criticized due to problems associated with self-report measurement such as common method bias or social desirability bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). When a common source is used for both for predictors and outcomes, inflated correlations may be obtained for instance, due to consistency effects (i.e. participant's searching for similarities across questions and trying to provide consistent answers to them) (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Yet, I should note that since I am interested in how motivation and cognition of employee affects his/her goal-directed behaviors, the separation of predictor and criterion variables were not ideal. For instance, measuring impression management endeavors from the perspective of supervisor or coworker would change the criterion variable to the perceived impression management of an employee. However, if the impression management is successfully employed, it should not be evaluated as impression management. Moreover, for the daily diary study collecting data from both coworkers and supervisors would be very burdensome for participants.

Regarding biases such as social-desirability and acquiescence in daily diary studies, Beal and Weiss (2003) underline that the analysis of relationships at the within-level via multilevel approach alleviates the possible negative effects of these problems. However, since employees are asked to respond to the same questions every day for two weeks, one may also argue that there is a probability of measurement reactivity (Beal & Weiss, 2003).

Yet, Barta, Tennen, and Litt (2012) stressed that measurement reactivity is most likely to be a problem when only a single behavior is observed. Accordingly, focusing on a single behavior may increase its salience and increase the participant's awareness of factors that cause that behavior (Barta et al., 2012). To deal with measurement reactivity in the daily diary research, I measured the supportive behaviors of supervisors and coworkers in addition to their uncivil behaviors. Moreover, daily surveys, included questions regarding emotions, needs and behaviors; therefore, I strived to limit the effect of measurement reactivity. Attrition is also a frequently encountered problem for all kind of longitudinal research designs including experience-sampling or diary studies (Christensen, Barrett, Bliss-Moreau, Lebo, & Kaschub, 2003). In order to decrease attrition, participants' contribution to science was emphasized. I underlined the importance of their contribution for the management and organization field at the beginning of the study and reiterated it several times during data collection period. I also investigated whether the number of daily surveys completed by participants systematically influenced any of the variables of interest; however, I detected no significant relation.

Although two weeks is considered an appropriate time frame to understand the daily lives of individuals (Wheeler & Reis, 1991), extending the time frame in future studies may bring a number of advantages. Hershcovis and Reich (2013) emphasized that the effects of deviant behaviors that include an act of omission may be different than the behaviors that involves an act of commission. If the time frame is extended, effect of different forms of uncivil behaviors may be compared in this regard. Moreover, in the time frame of two weeks, employees reported less coworker incivility than supervisor incivility; in multilevel modelling this situation created some convergence problems and forced me to fix the slopes of coworker incivility. Snijders (personal communication, 30 April 2016) noted that fixing the slope variance to zero can make standard errors of interaction terms dubious so replication of these findings in daily diary designs, which collect data for three or four weeks may be useful. Another limitation of the daily diary research is that the reliability for daily exemplification and daily OCBO was below the .70 threshold (Nunnally, 1978). However, I should note that for scales which do not have many items, reliability estimates above .60 is deemed acceptable (Loewenthal, 2001). Moreover, in the vignette experiment, I evaluated exemplification with a totally different measure, namely two raters coded the

emails written by participants for evidence of exemplification. The findings obtained in vignette study supported the results of the diary study. Still, there is need for future studies that use different measures to investigate the proposed relationships.

In the daily diary study, there was no randomization and the measurement of predictors, mediators and outcomes were not temporally separated. All these drawbacks associated generally with all non-experimental studies (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002) preclude making causal inferences. Through using a daily diary study and multilevel mediation models, I tried to unveil psychological processes that link experience of incivility to different behavioral outcomes. As aptly noted by Shrout and Bolger (2002), although non-experimental mediation does not allow making causal inferences, it enables to find out the most plausible mediation patterns therefore provide information about possible underlying mechanisms. In order to account for the effect of some extraneous factors, I also controlled for daily affective states and daily job satisfaction of employee. Experimental and non-experimental, all methods have their strengths and weakness, triangulation using two or more research design is useful to increase confidence in results (Jick, 1979). Therefore, in addition to the daily diary study which has a within-person design, I also conducted a between-person vignette experiment study to increase my confidence as well as external validity of my results. However, before reaching to firm conclusions, it is important to conduct within-subject experimental studies. Although criticized by some scholars due to confoundedness it is likely to introduce (see Charness, Gneezy, & Kuhn, 2012), within-subject experimental studies still may be appropriate to extend the validity of results obtained in daily diary research. Similarly, in terms of impression management tactics, conducting experiments that evaluate the effectiveness of self-presentational endeavors from the view of the actor and the target simultaneously may also be a proper avenue.

Although the daily diary study allowed to eliminate retrospection bias associated with cross-sectional studies to a certain extent, it may still be fruitful to conduct event-based diary studies in which the time elapsed between events and the reporting of attitudes or behaviors to the event are relatively close. Event-based diary studies which evaluate incivility incident from the view of the target as well as the instigator may also prove interesting. Moreover, such designs may also permit the investigation of relationship-

specific moderators. For instance, uncivil behavior of a supervisor with whom an employee has high leader-member exchange quality and high trust may not have the same effect with experiencing incivility from a supervisor whom an employee does not trust. Drawing from this, relationship-specific moderators may influence attributions, which in turn may affect psychological and behavioral responses to incivility. For instance, a survey study Burton, Taylor, and Barber (2014) showed that external, internal and relational attributions for abusive supervision affect aggression and citizenship behaviors via their effects on interactional justice judgments. High relationship quality may exacerbate or alleviate the negative effects of incivility. On the one hand, since the intention and hostility underlying workplace incivility is ambiguous; an employee with high trust and respect to his/her supervisor may give him/her the benefit of doubt (i.e., attribute his/her behavior to external factors such workload, stress etc.) and may not be offended by his/her act. On the other hand, the same employee may also regard his/her supervisor's act as a breach of psychological contract and a kind of betrayal therefore may be affected even more negatively.

My second study was an experimental vignette study. Vignette studies are usually criticized on the grounds that they are not realistic so they cannot be generalizable to real life (Hughes & Huby, 2002). My vignette experiment, however, involved situations in which a person is treated uncivilly in the context of an email interaction and many scholar nowadays argue that incivility may be experienced in the context of online communication (Park, Fritz, & Jex, in press; Giumetti, Hatfield, Scisko, Schroede, Muth, & Kowalski, 2013; Lim & Teo, 2009, Lim et al., 2008). When creating the emails, I benefited from an interview study that we conducted with employees thereby I tried to come up with realistic emails that are likely to be received in the work context. I also asked a number of employees to evaluate how realistic the emails are. Moreover, in the roles they assumed, participants actually wrote answers to their supervisors thereby I tried to increase their involvement in the process. Aguinis and Bradley (2014) stress that one way to increase realism is to increase participants' immersion in the process. Although I strived to follow their advice to a certain extent, future studies may also benefit from the use of vignettes that involve videos, audios, pictures which may help to improve realism of the study.

The results of both the daily diary and the experimental vignette studies indicate that it may be fruitful to investigate other individual as well as situational moderators of the proposed relationships in future studies. Self-monitoring may be a proper candidate in this regard. Self-monitoring theory postulates that people differ in their ability and concern for expressive control. High self-monitors are very attentive to social and interpersonal cues and may regulate their self-presentation in line with situationally appropriate public images (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). On the other hand, public behaviors of low self-monitors reflect their own feelings and inclinations rather than situational appropriateness of their expressive behavior (Ganstead & Synder, 2000). Future studies may investigate whether the indirect effect of supervisor and coworker incivility on impression management behavior via need threats are stronger for high self-monitors.

As previously argued, people may give either self-destructive or constructive responses to events that threaten their needs; a possible moderator of this relationship may be work role centrality. Work centrality refers to "*individual beliefs regarding the degree of importance that work plays in their lives*" (Walsh & Gordon, 2008, p. 46). People with high work centrality attach greater importance to their work role so negative effects of workplace incivility on needs may be aggravated for these people. However, since these people closely identify with their work roles (Bal & Kooij, 2011); they may also be more likely to restore their threatened work identity and needs by displaying self-presentational behaviors or OCBs rather than responding with destructive behaviors. This proposed relationship indeed makes more sense from the perspective of contingencies of self-worth (Crocker, Brook, Niiya, & VillaCorta, 2006). When one's self-worth is highly contingent on his/her work role, than he/she may be more likely to engage in goal-directed behaviors that are likely to restore these identity. Moreover, situational variables such as organizational justice climate or perceived political climate (Drory, 1993) may also influence the behaviors people will chose to restore their needs.

In this research, I examined impression management and organizational citizenship behaviors and argued that this kind of assertive self-presentational behaviors may be used to restore thwarted needs and identities of individuals. However, rather than resorting to behavioral restoration tactics which aim to change one's image in the eyes of others, employees who experience workplace incivility and feel need threat may also employ some

defensive adaptations such as denying the threat, undermining the importance of the threat, or reconstructing the threat as a learning opportunity (Sherman & Cohen, 2006). Still, another way of dealing with these threats may be self-affirmation in another unrelated domain. According to self-affirmation theory (Steele, 1988), people want to maintain their self-integrity and self-worth. When they encounter with an event that threatens their self-integrity, affirmation of the self in another domain may function as an alternative way of dealing with the threat. For instance, after experiencing incivility, one may focus on his/her values and roles as a family member or a friend.

Last but not least, the results regarding the moderating role of honor orientation indicates that conducting cross-cultural studies that will allow direct comparison of the proposed relationships between dignity and honor cultures may also be interesting. Related to this issue, in my vignette experiment I tried to prime honor with word completion task however unlike the results in my pilot study, I found that participants who were primed with honor reported less explicit honor orientation. Explicit honor measure may not be an ideal tool to check for the effectiveness of honor prime. In future studies, preferably implicit measures of honor should be used for this purpose. For instance, Imura, Burkley and Brown (2014) developed an implicit measure of honor orientation based on the affect misattribution procedure in which they present participants a number of Chinese pictographs after honor and dishonor related words and ask them to evaluate the pleasantness and unpleasantness of the pictograph. A similar method may also be used to evaluate the effectiveness of honor prime. Another possibility as I previously argued, honor prime may have created a kind of reactance (Glaser & Banaji, 1999; Laran, Dalton, & Andrade, 2010) for honor-oriented people in Turkey. To thoroughly understand the effectiveness of priming, cross-cultural studies should be conducted. A comparative cross-cultural study between a dignity culture and an honor culture may enable us to investigate possible differences in effectiveness of the prime.

5.4. Practical Implications

"*Civility costs nothing but buys everything*"

Mary Worthley Montagu

The results of this study hold some practical implications for organizations in general and supervisors in particular. Due to increasing levels of stress, competition and pressure in daily work life, supervisors may argue that they do not have time "*to be nice*" (Pearson & Porath, 2005). However, the findings of this research indicate that it will be prudent to be so. These findings show that not only severe forms of mistreatment but also relatively mild forms of mistreatment in the form of incivility may have significant negative effects on employees' daily motivation and behaviors. Especially supervisor incivility, more than coworker incivility, threatens some very basic needs of employees on a daily basis. Considering the significance employees attached to their day-to-day interactions with their supervisors, supervisors may also have the power to positively influence motivation and behaviors of their subordinates. By just being polite and displaying civil behaviors such as greeting, listening and not ignoring their employees, supervisors may increase the self-worth of their employees and therefore increase their positive work-role behaviors. By means of civility, supervisors also likely to increase their own social worth in that individuals who are perceived as civil are also perceived as more competent and warm; these are important characteristics associated with a good leader (Porath, Gerbasi, & Schorch, 2015). Civil behaviors of supervisors may also foster a general civility climate prevalent in the workplace. To be more precise, since supervisors have a great influence on their subordinates, they are also likely to be perceived as role models and their behaviors will be mimicked by others in the organization.

With increasing globalization, the number of employees with multicultural backgrounds increases. Although this cultural diversity provides many benefits to organizations, it also introduces new challenges, especially for supervisors. The findings of this study reveal that the effects of workplace incivility are not equal for everyone. People from honor cultures such as Turkey are more vigilant against any action that is likely to damage their honor and decrease their social value. Related to this, honor-oriented people

feel more offended by uncivil behavior of others. Therefore, supervisors should be aware of the importance honor-oriented people attribute to respectful treatment and social approval. Although after experiencing incivility, individuals may become motivated to restore their needs in affiliative ways, the findings of this study reveals that they usually display self-defensive and self-protection related behaviors probably to prevent further damage in their social esteem. These behavioral effects also become more pronounced for honor-oriented people so although victims of incivility want to restore their social image, they also have hesitations because they do not feel safe and secure. This may have important implications for organizations because if employees do not feel psychologically safe, they will refrain from any action that is likely to direct attention to them. This risk-aversive and self-protective attitude is likely to decrease creativity, innovation and knowledge-sharing in organizations because these are the positive behaviors employees will display only if they know that they will not be humiliated, ignored and rejected because of their ideas. Besides even if employees want to engage in some behaviors to restore their threatened needs immediately after incivility, one should note that incivility and resulting need threats may be expected to lead depression, withdrawal and alienation from work in the long term. Moreover, both organizations and supervisors should also be aware that after experiencing incivility and associated need threats employees are likely to allocate their emotional and cognitive resources to eliminate these threats, therefore employees' performance especially in jobs that require cognitive skills are likely to be hampered. More importantly, these negative effects do not necessarily depend on a conscious choice of an individual. Erez, Porath and Foulk (research in progress) underlined that incivility may lead to automatic bodily reactions such as increase in heart rate and activation of nervous system, that is attention of the target subconsciously focuses on survival.

Due to its low-intensity and ambiguous nature, organizations may not easily discern the problem of incivility. However, considering its negative psychological and behavioral effects, not only supervisors but also human resources departments should take active role in promoting civility cultures. Determining the standards for appropriate code of conduct in the workplace and increasing the awareness of incivility by means of trainings and seminars may be helpful. Besides prevention-oriented measures, there are also some organization wide interventions such as CREW (Civility, Respect, and Engagement at

Work) to deal with existing problems of incivility. There are a number of studies (Leiter, Laschinger, Day & Oore, 2011, Osatuke, Moore, Ward, Dyrenforth, & Belton, 2009) which showed that CREW intervention proved to be useful in promoting civility culture in the workplace. As a long-term investment, companies may also establish a specific division employees may resort to if they are treated with disrespect. Additionally, 360-performance evaluations may include evaluations regarding the civility and respect of coworkers as well as supervisors. These evaluations may also enable instigators to become aware of their wrong behaviors and its possible effects on the targets if they engage in uncivil behaviors unintentionally. Relatedly, it is also important for organizations to create organizational climates that foster open-communication. Uncivil behaviors are likely to escalate into aggression if people do not try to solve their problems at an early stage. At this point, I also have to emphasize that honor-oriented people may be unwilling to show their discontent at the initial stage of a conflict (Cohen et al., 1999). In line with the tenets of their cultural logics, they hide their anger and refrain from any direct confrontation at first, however, this suppression results in an abrupt explosion at a critical point and after that point conflict escalates so quickly (Cohen et al., 1999). Therefore, practitioners must be aware of these cultural differences and act accordingly in the solutions of conflict.

Human resource is one of the most valuable assets of organization so it is important to have motivated and happy employees who are not only physically but also psychologically present at work (Katz & Kahn, 1978). The results of this research indicate that treating with respect and dignity may be a costless way of achieving this end.

Informed Consent Form (Used in Daily Diary Study)

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU: İşyerinde Kişiler Arası İlişkiler

Bu araştırma projesinin amacı çalışanların gün içerisinde ast, üst ya da denkleri ile olan etkileşimlerini incelemektir. 18 yaşından küçük iseniz bu çalışmaya katılamazsınız. Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllüdür. Çalışmaya katılmamanızın ya da ortasında ayrılmanızın size herhangi bir yaptırımı olmayacaktır.

Proje iki aşamadan oluşmaktadır. Bugün tamamlayacağınız ilk aşamada sizden bireysel ya da örgütsel değişkenlerle ilgili bazı ölçekleri ve belirli demografik soruları yanıtlamanızı rica ediyoruz. Bu anketi tamamlamak yaklaşık 15 dakika sürecektir. Gelecek hafta başlayacak olan ikinci aşamada ise 10 iş günü boyunca her akşam saat 16.00'da size gönderilen anket linkine tıklayarak o gün iş yerinde yaşadığınız etkileşimler, hisleriniz ve davranışlarınıza yönelik bazı soruları yanıtlamanızı rica edeceğiz. Günlük olarak katılacağınız anketi tamamlamak yaklaşık 7 dakika sürmektedir.

Bu çalışmaya katılarak ülkemizde yapılan bilimsel bir araştırmaya çok değerli bir katkınız olacaktır. Araştırmamız çalıştığınız kurumla ilişkili değildir ve araştırmaya katılıp katılmama kararınızın çalışma hayatınıza herhangi bir etkisi olmayacaktır.

Katılımcıların kişisel bilgileri kanunlar çerçevesinde tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Bilgiler kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır. Gizliliği sağlamak amacıyla bilgiler katılımcıların ismi yerine kendilerine atanan numara ile saklanacaktır. Bilgiler araştırmacının şifreli bilgisayarında tutulacaktır. Sonuçların yayınlanması durumunda kimliğiniz tamamiyle gizli kalacaktır.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Sabancı Üniversitesi Yönetim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nden K. Duygu Erdaş (duyguerdas@sabanciuniv.edu, (535) 4174341) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz. Hak ihlali olduğunu düşünüyorsanız Sabancı Üniversitesi Araştırma ve Lisansüstü Politikalar Direktörü Volkan Özgüz'e (vozguz@sabanciuniv.edu, (216) 483 9834) başvurabilirsiniz. Bu formun kopyası istediğiniz takdirde size verilecektir.

Katılımcı Onayı
Araştırma ile ilgili yukarıda belirtilen hususları okudum ve anladım. Bana bu onam formunun kopyasının istersem bana verilebileceğini biliyorum. Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman bırakabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Appendix B

Scales Used in Daily Diary Study

Daily Supervisor Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2013)

Bugün **AMİRİNİZ** size aşağıdaki davranışlardan hangilerini gösterdi? **BİRDEN FAZLA SEÇENEĞİ** işaretleyebilirsiniz.

☐ Söylediklerinize dikkatini vermedi, fikirlerinizle ilgilenmedi

☐ Sorumluluğunuz olan bir konuda yargınızdan şüphe etti

☐ Size düşmanca, küçük gören bakışlar attı

☐ Size profesyonel olmayan biçimde hitap etti

☐ Sözünüzü kesti

☐ Bir değerlendirmede size hak ettiğinizden daha düşük değerlendirdi

☐ Size bağırdı

☐ Hakkınızda aşağılayıcı, saygısız ifadeler kullandı

☐ Sizi görmezden geldi, sizinle konuşmadı

☐ Sizi işinin ehli olmamakla suçladı

☐ Size kızdı/öfkeyle patladı

☐ Sizinle alay etti

Daily Coworker Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2013)

Bugün **ÇALIŞMA ARKADAŞINIZ** size aşağıdaki davranışlardan hangilerini gösterdi? **BİRDEN FAZLA SEÇENEĞİ** işaretleyebilirsiniz.

☐ Söylediklerinize dikkatini vermedi, fikirlerinizle ilgilenmedi

☐ Sorumluluğunuz olan bir konuda yargınızdan şüphe etti

☐ Size düşmanca, küçük gören bakışlar attı

☐ Size profesyonel olmayan biçimde hitap etti

☐ Sözünüzü kesti

☐ Bir değerlendirmede size hak ettiğinizden daha düşük değerlendirdi

☐ Size bağırdı

☐ Hakkınızda aşağılayıcı, saygısız ifadeler kullandı

☐ Sizi görmezden geldi, sizinle konuşmadı

☐ Sizi işinin ehli olmamakla suçladı

☐ Size kızdı/öfkeyle patladı

☐ Sizinle alay etti

Daily Need Threats Scale (Ferris et al., 2008; van Beest & Williams, 2006; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004)

BUGÜN İŞ ORTAMINDA aşağıdaki duyguları ne derece hissettiğinizi verilen ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

Hiç veya çok az	Az	Orta	Epeyce	Fazlasıyla
1	2	3	4	5

BT1	Kendimi başkalarından kopmuş hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
BT2	Reddedilmiş hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
BT3	Dışlanmış/yabancı biri gibi hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
BT4	Çalışma arkadaşlarımla aynı grubun parçası olmadığımı hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
BT5	Çalışma arkadaşlarımın benimle çok fazla ilişki kurmadığını hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
CT1	Güçsüz hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
CT2	İş günü boyunca kontrolün bende olmadığını hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
CT3	İş yerinde olanları önemli ölçüde değiştiremediğimi hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
CT4	Başkalarının hareketlerini etkileyemediğimi hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
CT5	Her şeye işyerimdeki diğer insanların karar verdiğini hissettim	1	2	3	4	5

BUGÜN İŞ YERİNDE yaşadıklarınızı düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı verilen ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum			Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	
1	2	3	4			5	
ST1 Buralarda önemseniyorum (R)			1	2	3	4	5
ST2 Buralarda ciddiye alınıyorum (R)			1	2	3	4	5
ST3 Buralarda bana inanılıyor (R)			1	2	3	4	5
ST4 Buralarda güveniliyorum (R)			1	2	3	4	5
ST5 Buralarda bir fark yaratıyorum (R)			1	2	3	4	5

(R)= Reverse-scored

Daily OCB (Dalal et al., 2009)

BUGÜN İŞ YERİNİZDE aşağıdaki davranışları ne derece gösterdiğinizi verilen ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum			Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	
1	2	3	4			5	
OCBI1 Amirime/Çalışma arkadaşıma yardım etmeye çalıştım			1	2	3	4	5
OCBI2 Amirimin/Çalışma arkadaşımın fikrine ya da önerisine arka çıktım			1	2	3	4	5
OCBI3 Amirimle/Çalışma arkadaşımla sohbet etmeye hal hatır sormaya özen gösterdim			1	2	3	4	5
OCBI4 Yoğunken bile amirime/çalışma arkadaşıma vakit ayırdım			1	2	3	4	5
OCBI5 Amirimden/Çalışma arkadaşımdan övgüyle söz ettim			1	2	3	4	5
OCBO1 Ekstra işler için gönüllü oldum			1	2	3	4	5
OCBO2 İşte yapmam gerekenin üstünde çalıştım/beklenilenin ötesinde performans gösterdim			1	2	3	4	5
OCBO3 Mola vermektense çalışmayı tercih ettim			1	2	3	4	5

Daily Impression Management Behaviors (Basım et al., 2006; Bolino & Turnley, 1999)

BUGÜN İŞ YERİNİZDE aşağıdaki davranışları ne derece gösterdiğinizi verilen ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum		Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	
1	2	3	4		5	

SP1	İnsanların yetenek veya niteliklerimi fark etmelerini sağladım/gözettim	1	2	3	4	5
SP2	Kurumumda değerli biri olduğumun bilinmesini sağladım/gözettim	1	2	3	4	5
SP3	İnsanların başarılarımın farkına varmalarını sağladım/gözettim	1	2	3	4	5
Exemp1	Çalışkan olduğumun anlaşılması için mesai sonrası iş yerinde kaldım	1	2	3	4	5
Exemp2	İşlerin yoğun olmadığı zamanlarda bile meşgul görünmeye çalıştım	1	2	3	4	5
Intimid1	İşimi halletmek için iş arkadaşlarımın gözünü korkuttum	1	2	3	4	5
Intimid2	İnsanlara eğer çok üzerime gelirlerse işlerini zorlaştıracağımı hissettirdim	1	2	3	4	5
Intimid3	İşimi yapmamı engellediklerinde çalışma arkadaşlarımla sıkı mücadele ettim	1	2	3	4	5
Intimid4	İşime karışan çalışma arkadaşlarımın hakkından geldim	1	2	3	4	5

Job Satisfaction

Tüm yönleriyle düşününce BUGÜN İŞİNİZDEN NE DERECE MEMNUNDUNUZ?

Hiç memnun değildim	Biraz memnundum	Ne memnundum ne de memnun değildim	Memnundum	Oldukça memnundum
1	2	3	4	5

PANAS (adapted by Mackinnon et al., 1999)

BUGÜN İŞ ORTAMINDA aşağıdaki duyguları ne derece hissettiğinizi verilen ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

Hiç veya çok az	Az	Orta	Epeyce	Fazlasıyla
1	2	3	4	5

		1	2	3	4	5
NA1	Sıkıntılı hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
NA2	Sinirleri bozuk hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
NA3	Üzüntülü hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
NA4	Ürkmüş hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
NA5	Korkmuş hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
PA1	Uyanık (dikkati açık) hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
PA2	İlhamlı (yaratıcı düşüncelerle dolu) hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
PA3	Heyecanlı hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
PA4	Kararlı hissettim	1	2	3	4	5
PA5	Hevesli hissettim	1	2	3	4	5

Honor orientation (Cross et al., 2014)

Lütfen her bir ifadenin sizin için ne derece önemli olduğunu belirtiniz.

Hiç önemli değil		Orta derecede önemli		Son derecede önemli
1	2	3	4	5

Toplumda saygı görmek	1	2	3	4	5
Toplum tarafından değerli bulunmak	1	2	3	4	5
Başkaları tarafından çok itibar görmek	1	2	3	4	5
Başkaları tarafından takdir edilmek	1	2	3	4	5
Toplumda belli bir statüye ulaşmak	1	2	3	4	5
Toplumdaki konumum	1	2	3	4	5
Bir ödül kazanmak	1	2	3	4	5
Başkalarını gururlandırmak	1	2	3	4	5

Consent Form in Experimental Vignette Study

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

Bu araştırma projesinin amacı bireylerin iş ortamında karşılaşabilecekleri sanal bazı yazışmalarla ilgili değerlendirmelerini, hislerini ve tepkilerini incelemektir. 18 yaşından küçük iseniz bu çalışmaya katılamazsınız. Çalışmaya katılım tamamiyle gönüllüdür. Çalışmaya katılmamanızın ya da ortasında ayrılmanızın size herhangi bir yaptırımı olmayacaktır.Proje tek bir oturumda tamamlayacağınız bir senaryo çalışmasından oluşmaktadır. Çalışmanın ilk bölümünde sizden yaş, eğitim düzeyi v.b. ile ilgili bazı demografik soruları yanıtlamanızı isteyeceğiz. İkinci bölümde tamamlayacağınız kısa bir kelime tamamlama testinin ardından üçüncü bölümde amir ve çalışma arkadaşı tarafından gönderilen mesajları içeren bir dizi senaryoyu okumanızı ve bunlarlar ilgili sorulara yanıt vermenizi isteyeceğiz. Son bölümde, sizden araştırmamızla ilgili değerlendirmeler yapmanızı ve dilerseniz geribildirim vermenizi rica edeceğiz. Çalışmayı tamamlamak yaklaşık 15 dakika sürecektir.

RİSKLER VE KAZANIMLAR

Bu çalışmaya katılarak ülkemizde yapılan bilimsel bir araştırmaya çok değerli bir katkınız olacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katılmanız durumunda araştırma davetinin yapıldığı dersiniz için bonus puan kazanabilirsiniz. Fakülte üyelerinin yürüttüğü deneylere katılmak derslerde bonus puan kazanmanın sadece bir yoludur. Size yapılan duyuruda diğer yollarla ilgili bilgiler yer almaktadır.

GİZLİLİK

Katılımcıların kişisel bilgileri kanunlar çerçevesinde tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Bilgiler kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır. Gizliliği sağlamak amacıyla bilgiler katılımcıların ismi yerine kendilerine atanan numara ile saklanacaktır. Bilgiler araştırmacının şifreli bilgisayarında tutulacaktır.Sonuçların yayınlanması durumunda kimliğiniz tamamiyle gizli kalacaktır.

SORULAR YA DA ŞİKÂYETLER

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Sabancı Üniversitesi Yönetim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nden K. Duygu Erdaş (duyguerdas@sabanciuniv.edu, 5354174341) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz. Hak ihlali olduğunu düşünüyorsanız Sabancı Üniversitesi Araştırma ve Lisansüstü Politikalar Direktörü Volkan Özgüz'e (vozguz@sabanciuniv.edu, 216 483 9834)
başvurabilirsiniz.

Katılımcı Onayı

Araştırma ile ilgili yukarıda belirtilen hususları okudum ve anladım. Onam formunun kopyasının istersem bana verilebileceğini biliyorum. Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman bırakabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Scales Used in Experimental Vignette Study

Self-esteem Threat Scale (Heatherton & Vohs, 1991)

Kendinizi proje ekibindeki rolünüzde düşünmeye devam edin ve yöneticiniz Deniz Altun'dan gelen bu iletinin size neler hissettirebileceğini hayal edin. Bu iletiyi aldıktan sonra aşağıdaki duyguları ne derece hissederdiniz?

BUGÜN İŞ ORTAMINDA aşağıdaki duyguları ne derece hissettiğinizi verilen ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

Hiç veya çok az	Az	Orta	Epeyce	Fazlasıyla			
1	2	3	4	5			

Yeteneklerime güvenirdim (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Bir başarı mı yoksa başarısızlık örneği mi sayıldığım konusunda endişelenirdim	1	2	3	4	5
Performansım konusunda bozulmuş, içerlemiş hissederdim	1	2	3	4	5
Sıkılgan/mahcup hissederdim	1	2	3	4	5
Başkaları kadar akıllı olduğumu hissederdim (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimden memnun olmadığımı hissederdim	1	2	3	4	5
Başkalarının hakkımda ne düşündüğü konusunda endişelenirdim	1	2	3	4	5
Anlama yeteneğime güvenirdim (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi başkalarından değersiz hissederdim	1	2	3	4	5
Yarattığım intiba konusunda endişelenirdim	1	2	3	4	5
Yapamadığımı/beceremediğimi hissederdim	1	2	3	4	5
Aptal gibi görünmek konusunda endişelenirdim	1	2	3	4	5

(R) = reverse-scored

Word Prime Task

Lütfen aşağıdaki kelimeleri tek tek okuyun ve anlamlı bir kelime yaratmak için **eksik olan harfi yazın.**

Honor Condition

Saygınl_k

Fabr_ka

Haysiye_

İtib_r

_elefon

Hakar_t

Mer_iven

T_puk

C_ket

İft_ra

Nam_s

Sıc_klık

Eldi_en

Ş_ref

Neutral Condition

_ütüphane

Fabr_ka

Müş_eri

Bilgi_ayar

Yeş_l

_oşluk

Mer_iven

Elm_

_elefon

C_ket

Kahv_

Sıc_klık

T_puk

Eldi_en

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