T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVRSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLERN ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) ANABİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) BİLİM DALI

THE IMPACTS OF TOXIC ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, NARCISSISTIC LEADER AND WORKPLACE ENVY ON INDIVIDUAL OUTCOMES OF COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR, WORK EXHAUSTION AND CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE: THE ROLES OF PERCEIVED SELF-ESTEEM AND SELF-CONTROL

Doktora Tezi

BURCU AYDIN KÜÇÜK

İstanbul, 2019

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVRSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) ANABİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) BİLİM DALI

THE IMPACTS OF TOXIC ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, NARCISSISTIC LEADER AND WORKPLACE ENVY ON INDIVIDUAL OUTCOMES OF COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR, WORK EXHAUSTION AND CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE: THE ROLES OF PERCEIVED SELF-ESTEEM AND SELF-CONTROL

Doktora Tezi

BURCU AYDIN KÜÇÜK

Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. SEÇİL TAŞTAN

İstanbul, 2019

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

TEZ ONAY BELGESİ

İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) Anabilim Dalı ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) Bilim Dalı DOKTORA öğrencisi BURCU AYDIN KÜÇÜK'nın THE IMPACTS OF TOXIC ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, NARCISSISTIC LEADER AND WORKPLACE ENVY ON INDIVIDUAL OUTCOMES OF COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR, WORK EXHAUSTION AND CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE: THE ROLES OF PERCEIVED SELF-ESTEEM AND SELF-CONTROL adlı tez çalışması, Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 27.06.2019 tarih ve 2019-19/16 sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından oy birliği / oy çokluğu ile Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Tez Savunma Tarihi ....16../....07..../....2019....

	Öğretim Üyesi Adı Soyadı		İmzası
1.	Tez Danışmanı	Doç. Dr. SEÇİL BAL TAŞTAN	
2.	Jüri Üyesi	Prof. Dr. AYŞE ALEV TORUN	
3.	Jüri Üyesi	Doç. Dr. TURHAN ERKMEN	
4.	Jüri Üyesi	Prof. Dr. TAMER BOLAT	
5.	Jüri Üyesi	Doç. Dr. VOLKAN TÜRKER	

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ÖZET

Duygular insan doğasının ayrılmaz bir parçası olup, bireyin ruh halini yansıtan ve çevresel unsurlarla olan etkileşimlerden doğan çok boyutlu değişimlerdir. Duyguların, kişinin özel hayatta olduğu kadar, yaşamının büyük çoğunluğunu geçirmekte olduğu iş hayatında da onu belirli tutum ve davranışlara yönlendiren, çalışma yaşamındaki olumlu veya olumsuz davranışlarının açıklayabilen önemli güç olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bu çalışmada ise, çalışan davranışlarını açıklamak amacıyla örgütsel yaşamda karşılaşılabilecek duygular ve olası davranışlar kuramsal açıdan incelenmeye çalışılmıştır.

Yönetim-Organizasyon ve Örgütsel Davranış literatüründe, bireysel, yönetsel ve örgütsel düzeyde çalışan duygularının davranışlar üzerinde ne gibi etkilerinin olduğunu inceleyen çalışmaların olduğu gözlenmiştir. Örgütsel davranış disiplininin inceleme konusu örgütler ve çalışan bireyler olup, temel amacı pozitif psikoloji kapsamında örgüt sağlığına katkıda bulunmak ve çalışma yaşamının kalitesinin devamlılığını sağlamaktır. Günümüzde dek süregelen örgütsel davranış çalışmalarının, çalışanın üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışlarını azaltarak prososyal davranışlar sergilemelerini, çalışanın fizyolojik ve psikolojik iyi oluşlarını arttırmayı ve iş performanslarını en etkin biçimde göstermelerini sağlayacak unsurların belirlenmesini inceleme konusu yaptığı gözlenmektedir. Örgütsel davranış disiplininin ortaya koyduğu çalışmaların ve sonuçların yalnızca kuramsal düzeyde değil, uygulamaya yönelik katkılarının ve faydalarının olduğu da söylenebilmektedir. Öyle ki, çalışan davranışlarını anlamaya yardımcı olan unsurları araştırmak, hem kuramsal hem de uygulamaya ilişkin nedenler açısından önemlidir. Bu noktada, daha olumlu bir örgüt ortamının sağlanabilmesi ve çalışma yaşamının kalitesi açısından, çalışanların ne gibi işyeri problemlerinin olabileceğinin araştırılması, çalışanların duygusal yapılarının ve yönetsel-ortamsal unsurları nasıl algıladıklarının anlaşılmasının oldukça önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Bu çalışmada ise, bağlamsal performans, üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışları ve iş tükenmesi kavramlarının öncüllerine ve sonuçlarına odaklanılarak derinlemesine bir literatür araştırması yapılmıştır. Söz konusu kavramların ele alındığı

çeşitli kuramsal ve görgül çalışma sonuçları değerlendirilmiştir. Ardından, iş hayatında farklı sektörlerde, çalışanların sergiledikleri bağlamsal performansları ve üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışları ile yaşadıkları iş tükenmesinin nedenlerine odaklanılarak kuramsal çerçeve geliştirilmiştir.

Bu bağlamda, iş yerinde kıskançlık duygusunun, algılanan toksik örgüt ikliminin ve liderin narsist özelliklerinin bu çalışmanın bağımlı değişkenleri olan bağlamsal performans, üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışları ile işe bağlı tükenme üzerinde etkilerinin olduğu ön görülmüştür. Daha sonra, işyerinde kıskançlık duygusunun alt boyutlarından haset ile üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışları arasındaki varsayılan ilişkide, öz-kontrolün düzenleyici etkisi olduğu öne sürülmüştür. Ardından, algılanan toksik örgüt ikliminin çalışanların sergilemiş oldukları üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışları üzerindeki etkisinde öz-kontrolün düzenleyici rolü ele alınmıştır. Son olarak, narsist liderlik davranışlarının çalışanın yaşamış olduğu iş tükenmesi üzerindeki etkisinde özsaygının aracı rolü incelenmiştir. Narsist lider özelliklerinin örgütsel ve bireysel süreçlere etkilerinden dolayı ve bireyin kendini değerlendirmesinde ve bireysel anlamda öz-saygı düzeylerinin belirlenmesinde önemli bir öncel olduğu düşünüldüğü için özsaygı çalışmanın kuramsal modeline dahil edilmiştir.

Böylece, bu çalışmada, kamu ve özel sektörde çalışan bireyler üzerinde yapılmış olan bir araştırma ile, iş yerinde kıskançlık, toksik örgüt iklim ve narsist liderliğin; üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışları, iş tükenmesi ve bağlamsal performans üzerindeki etkileri ve öz-kontrol ve öz-saygının önerilen ilişkilerdeki rolleri incelenmiştir. Araştırmanın evreni, Türkiye'de kamu ve özel sector içerisinde yer alan kurumlarda çalışmakta olan yönetici ve yönetici olmayan personel oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın örneklem grubunu ise İstanbul ilinde kamu ve özel sektörde çalışan 330 çalışan oluşturmuştur.

Elde edilen veriler Sosyal Bilimlerde Kullanılan İstatistik Paketi ile çeşitli analizlere tabi tutulmuştur. Uygulanan istatistiksel analizler sonucunda, çalışmanın 5 hipotezinin desteklendiği, 1 hipotezinin ise desteklenmediği gözlenmiştir. Buna göre, işyeride haset duygusunun ve toksik örgüt ikliminin üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışı üzerinde (β= .822, p= .000; β= .520, p= .000); isyerinde gıpta duygusunun bağlamsal

performans üzerinde (β= .397, p= .000) ve narsist liderlik tarzının iş tükenmesi üzerinde (β= .582, p= .000) anlamlı ve pozitif etkisinin olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca analiz sonuçları, işyerinde haset duygusu ve toksik örgüt iklimi ile üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışları arasında çalışanların öz-kontrol derecesinin düzenleyici rolünü desteklemiştir (ß=.219; t= 11.464; p<0.0001; ß=.3256; t= 10.614; p<0.0001). Bununla birlikte, çalışanların öz-saygı seviyelerinin, narsist liderlik ve iş tükenmesi arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmediği görülmüştür. Bu sonuç, narsisit liderlik algısının kişinin özsaygı seviyesinden bağımsız olarak işe bağlı tükenmişlik üzerinde ne denli güçlü ve direk bir etkiye sahip olduğunu göstermektedir.

Son olarak, araştırmanın değişkenlerine ilişkin ortalamalar, çalışanların cinsiyet, medeni durum, yaş, eğitim düzeyi, iş ve kurumdaki deneyimine göre karşılaştırma testlerine tabi tutularak değişkenlerin demografik özelliklere göre farklılık gösterip göstermedikleri değerlendirilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgulara göre, araştırmanın değişkenlerinin demografik özelliklere göre anlamlı bazı farklılıklar gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir. Tüm bu araştırma sonuçları çalışmanın tartışma bölümünde ayrıntılı olarak açıklanmıştır.

Sonuç olarak, bu çalışma ile çalışanların üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışı göstermeleri, bağlamsal preformans sergilemeleri ile iş tükenmesi yaşamalarının öncüllerinin neler olabileceği ortaya koyulmuş ve alt boyutları ile birlikte işyerinde kıskançlık duygusunun, toksik örgüt ikliminin, narsist liderliğin ve öz-kontrolün önemi vurgulanmıştır. Var olan literatürde, bu çalışmada ele alınmış olan kavramlar arası ilişkileri ortaya koyan araştırmaların ve bulguların bulunmaması yada yeterli olmaması nedeniyle, çalışmanın ilgili literatür ve uygulamaya yönelik katkılarının olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Söz konusu ön görülen katkılar, çalışmanın sonuç ve tartışma bölümlerinde ele alınmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Üretkenliğe Aykırı Çalışma Davranışları, Bağlamsal Performans, İş Tükenmesi, İş Yerinde Kıskançlık, Toksik Örgüt İklimi, Narsist Lider, Öz-Kontrol, Öz-Denetim

ABSTRACT

Emotions are an inseparable part of human nature and they are multidimensional changes which occur as a result of an individual's interactions with the environmental factors, reflecting individual's emotional state. Emotions direct people both in private and professional life and they are the driving forces that predict human behavior in many respects. In this study, in order to explain employee behaviors, emotions and possible behaviors that may be encountered in organizational life have been examined in terms of theoretical aspects.

In the literature of Management & Organization and Organizational Behavior, it has been observed that studies which examine the effects of employee's emotions on behaviors at individual, managerial and organizational level. Since the scope of Organizational Behavior discipline mostly involves the study of organizations and human behaviors at work, its main goals are to contribute to organizational health through positive psychology approach and to maintain quality of wwork life. The main motivation of organizational behavior science is to contribute to organizational health and making it sustainable. It is known that the organizational behavior studies carried out to examine the factors that enable the employees to exhibit prosocial behaviors by reducing the counterproductive work behaviors, increase the physiological and psychological well-being of the employee and display the job performances in the most effective way. It may be said that the studies and outcomes of organizational behavior discipline have contributions and benefits not only theoretical level but also practical level. Therefore, it is found essential to investigate the factors that help to understand employee behaviors in terms of both theoretical and practical reasons. At this point, in terms of providing a more positive organizational environment and the quality of worklife, it is thought that it is very important to investigate what workplace problems employees might have, and to understand how employees perceive emotional structures and managerial-environmental factors.

In this study, initially, an in-depth preliminary literature study has been performed ith a focus on the antecedents and outcomes of the concepts of contextual

performance, counterproductive work behavior and work exhaustion. Then, studies conducted on various sectors were examined. Subsequently, theoretical framework was developed by focusing on the antecedents of contextual performance, counterproductive work behavior and work exhaustion of employees in different sectors in organizational life.

In this context, it is assumed that envy in the workplace, perceived toxic organizational climate and narcissistic characteristics of leader have effects on the dependent variables of this study, which are contextual performance, counterproductive work behaviors and work exhaustion. Then, the moderator effect of self-control on the potential relationship between malicious envy, sub-dimensions of envy, and counterproductive work behaviors was investigated. Afterwards, the moderator role of self-control on the effects of perceived toxic organizational climate on counterproductive behaviors was examined. Finally, the mediator role of self-esteem on the effects of narcissistic leader behavior on work exhaustion of employees has been evaluated. Self-esteem was included in our model due to the effects of narcissistic leader characteristics on organizational and individual process, and its role as an antecedent to self-evaluation of employees and to their determining the individual sense of self-esteem.

Thus, in the current study, with a research conducted on individuals working in the public and private sectors, the effects of workplace envy, toxic organizational climate and narcissistic leadership on counterproductive work behavior, work exhaustion and contextual performance and the roles of self-control and self-esteem in the proposed relationships were examined. The study population consisted of manager and non-manager staffs who work in the institutions in the public and private sector in Turkey. The sample group of the study also consisted of 330 people working in public and private sectors in Istanbul.

The data obtained from the surveys were analyzed with the Statistical Package used in Social Sciences. As a result of the statistical analyzes, it was observed that 5 hypotheses were supported, and 1 hypothesis was not supported. Accordingly, it was found that there were significant and positive effects of the workplace malicious envy

and the toxic organizational climate on the counterproductive working behavior (β= .822, p= .000; β= .520, p= .000); the workplace benign envy on the contextual performance (β= .397, p= .000); and narcissistic leader characteristics on work exhaustion (β= .582, p= .000). In addition, the results of the analysis supported the moderator role of the degree of self-control of employees between the relationship between the feeling of envy in the workplace and the toxic organizational climate, and counterproductive work behaviors (ß=.219; t= 11.464; p<0.0001; ß=.3256; t= 10.614; p<0.0001). However, self-esteem levels of employees did not appear to mediate the relationship between narcissistic leadership and work exhaustion. This result showed how dominant the perception of narcissistic leadership, independent of one's self-esteem level.

After the hypotheses tests, evaluations have been made through the comparative tests whether there were differences in the variables according to the individuals' demographics. In the statistical studies, the main variables and the dimensions were compared with t-tests and ANOVA test, according to the participants' age, gender, educational status and work experience. According to the findings, fourteen significant differences between the variables of the study and demographic variables have been reported. All these research results are explained in detail in the discussion chapter of the study.

In this study, the potential antecedents of counterproductive work behavior, contextual performance and work exhaustion are put forth and the importance of envy with its sub-dimensions, toxic organizational climate, narcissistic leader characteristics and self-control in the workplace has been demonstrated. It is suggested that findings of the current study may contribute to the relevant literature and practice due to the lack or absence of researches and findings revealing the relationships between the concepts discussed in this study. The mentioned contributions are discussed in the conclusion and discussion chapters of the study.

Key Words: Counterproductive Work Behavior, Contextual Performance, Work Exhaustion, Workplace Envy, Toxic Organizational Climate, Narcissistic Leader, Self-Esteem, Self-Control

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF THE DEFINITIONS OF THE MAIN CONCEPTS

Below are found the definitions on the purpose of easing out the understanding of the text and of guiding the reader. Detailed information about definitions can be found in the literature review.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors referred to the spectrum of actions that harm employees or organizations (Fox and Spector, 2005) and were defined as "volitional employee behavior that is intended to harm the organization and its members, and that poses threats to effective organizational functioning" (Spector and Fox, 2002).

Contextual Performance referred to "a component of job performance and was defined as the degree with which incumbents engage in activities that contribute to organizational effectiveness in ways that shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities" (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993).

Work Exhaustion was defined as "the depletion of emotional and mental energy needed to meet job demands excluding physical exhaustion" (Moore, 2000).

Workplace Envy is an emotion arising when people desire possessions, attributes, or attainments that another person is perceived to possess (Duffy and Shaw, 2000; Parrott and Smith, 1993; Salovey and Rodin, 1984). Envy originates from two types of "Benign" and "Malicious"; benign envy causes people to invest more effort to be as successful as the other person and malicious envy motivates people to level the other person down (Lange and Crusius, 2015).

Toxic Organizational Climate refers to destructive and hostile behaviors within organizational settings. Toxic behaviors were defined as the behavioral patterns that undermine organizational productivity and work life effectiveness (Kusy and Holloway, 2009). If employees perceive the environment as not good, it might negatively affect them, and eventually these are reflected in their emotions, thoughts and behaviors (Ostroff, Kinicky, and Tamkins, 2003). Therefore, based on this

information, toxicity can be a perceived organizational climate type for employees (Taştan, 2017).

Narcissistic Leadership refers to narcissism – a personality trait encompassing grandiosity, arrogance, fragile self-esteem, self-absorption, entitlement, and hostility and narcissism is a strong predictor of leadership emergence and is prevalent in leaders in general (Maccoby, 2000; Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006; Nevicka, Hoogh, Vianen, Beersma and Mcllwain, 2011a; Fuller, Galvin and Ashfort, 2018). Narcissists more often seek leadership roles because this enhances their grandiose and power-driven needs and visions (Glad, 2002). However, an important and primary goal is their own personal egotistical needs for power and admiration (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1997), rather than the constituents they lead (Conger, 1997).

Self- Control is associated with a person's consideration of future consequences before satisfying his or her needs (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990).

Self- Esteem is defined as "an individual's overall self-evaluation of his or her own competencies and it is the descriptive conceptualization that individuals make and maintain with regard to themselves" (Rosenberg 1979; as cited in Pierce and Gardner 2004)

LIST OF THE THEORETICAL ROOTS OF THE MODEL

In the current study, the relationships among the variables have been examined and the linkages have been explained through several theories and approaches. Definetly, the primary theorethical background for this study is suggested to be Quality of Worklife, Neo-Classical Management Thought, Organizational Behavior Theory and Positive Organizational Behavior Approaches. Starting from that background, a number of theories have been reviewed in order to explain the conceptual relationships among the study variables. These theories that all will be discussed within the overall study are summarized below in order to enable a brief ealy review of the roots of the generated suggestions of the study.

"Adler's Personality Theory" (1895) refers to the main motives of human thought and behavior are individual man's striving for superiority and power, partly in compensation for his feeling of inferiority.

"Affective Events Theory" (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) is based on an emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior and refers to an integrative model of personality traits and job satisfaction. Basically, AET posits that specific work events are consequences of affective reactions and behaviors.

"Conservation Resources Theory" (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989) is a stress theory that describes the motivation that drives humans to both maintain their current resources and to pursue new resources.

"Equity Theory" (Adams, 1960) concerns an individual's perception of fair treatment in social exchanges. While compared to other people, individuals want to be compensated fairly for their contributions; that is, an individual desires to match the outcomes with the inputs.

"General Theory of Crime" (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990) helps to explain criminal behaviors based on the theory of self-control. Self- control indicates how the developmental and environmental conditions, such as nurturing and limit setting, shape individuals' impulsivity, low frustration tolerance and need for immediate

gratification. Hence, low self-control results from an individual's poor history of nurturing.

"Job Demands-Resources Model" (Demerouti and Bakker, 2007) assumes that employee health and well-being result from a balance between positive (resources) and negative (demands) job characteristics. Job demands are those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are, therefore, associated with physiological and/or psychological costs. Job resources are those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that (a) are functional in achieving work-related goals, (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (c) stimulate personal growth and development

"Job Strain Model" (Karasek, 1979) refers to stress and states that the greatest risk to physical and mental health from stress occurs to workers facing high psychological workload demands or pressures combined with low control or decision latitude in meeting those demands.

"Lewin (Psychological) Field Theory" (1890-1947) bases on how psychological environment affects individual behavior on the basis of life-space. The theory asserts that the individual's life-space depends on his psychological force and includes the person; his drives, tensions, thoughts and his environment, which consists of perceived objects and events. Hence the environments employees find themselves in can rapidly influence their actions.

"Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory" (1943) concerns that an individual's needs comprise a five-tier model and the theory is often depicted as hierarchical levels within a pyramid. These needs are, from the bottom of the hierarchy upwards: physiological needs, safety, love and belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. The critical point is that needs lower down in the hierarchy must be satisfied before individuals can attend to needs higher up

"Restorative Justice Theory" (Barton, 2000) comprises the idea that because crime hurts, justice should heal, and especially heal relationships. It is a process in

which all stakeholders have an opportunity to discuss the hurts of a crime, how they might be repaired, how recurrence might be prevented, and how other needs of stakeholders can be met.

"Self- Evaluation Maintenance Model" (Tesser, 1988) concerns discrepancies between teo people in a relationship. The theory posits that two people in a relationship each aim to keep themselves feeling good psychologically through a comparison process to the other person. Briefly, Self-evaluation is the way a person views him/herself.

"Self-Determination Theory" (Deci and Ryan, 1985) is an approach to human motivation and personality that uses traditional empirical methods while employing an organismic metatheory that highlights the importance of humans' evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation.

"Social Cognitive Theory" (Bandura, 1991) refers to anticipated consequences are at the heart of the self-regulatory mechanisms that determine transgressive actions. It means that an individual predicts to what extent the envisaged behavior would violate the moral standards of significant others, so-called anticipated social sanctions, and their own moral standard, so-called anticipated self-sanction, before the individual attempts a behavior.

"Social Comparison Theory" (Festinger, 1954) defined as deliberate actions that are performed by individuals or groups with the expectation that other parties will act in a similar fashion (Blau, 1964).

"Social Exchange Theory" (Blau, 1964) emphasizes the deliberate actions that are performed by individuals or groups with the expectation that other parties will act in a similar fashion. Additionally, Social Exchange involves a series of interactions that generate obligations (Emerson, 1976). These interactions are usually seen as interdependent and contingent on the actions of another person.

1. INTRODUCTION AND THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

Emotions in the workplace settings are one of the main research concepts in the literature of organizational behavior. It is a well-known fact that emotions are impulses which direct individual's life. Therefore, it is important to understand our emotions with a view to controlling individual's reactions. Nevertheless, it is not enough to simply understand own feelings. The ability to recognize and understand the feelings of others also matters considerably. As long as we can manage the feelings of ourselves and others, we are better able to cope with the changes and challenges in organizational life. Thus, it is indubitably true that emotions in organizational life provide important insights into the way in which individuals in organizations behave (Ashkanasy and Daus, 2002; Bakken, 2011). Emotions as a source of impulse are complex subjective states and can act as motivators or triggers of human activity towards a certain goal. To illustrate, some individual-based emotions such as envy, admiration or contempt can only be understood if they are reflected in one's behavior (Pogii and Germani, 2003). That is, it is quite useful to observe behaviors in order to understand our own and others' feelings.

It has been argued that the emotions in organizations play an important role in many workplace behaviors and it is claimed that emotions can explain the reasons for a variety of negative behaviors (Spector, Fox and Domagalski, 2006; Penney and Spector, 2008; Bauer and Spector; 2015). Among these negative behaviors, a counterproductive work behavior (CPWB) is the behavioral response of an employee to other employees in an organization or to the organization itself as a result of negative emotions based on a specific and meaningful unfair/unfavorable event (Barclay, Skarlicki and Pugh, 2005). A CPWB, commonly treated as a response to unpleasant incidents or situations, provides the employee with the possibility of unburdening the stress of negative emotions (Spector and Fox, 2002). Therefore, these discrete negative emotions mostly result in various kinds of dysfunctional, damaging or destructive behaviors of employees, which can be classified in four categories: production deviance, property deviance, political deviance and personal aggression (Robinson and Bennett, 1995).

In the literature, a CPWB is defined as "any intentional behavior on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests" (Sackett and De Vore, 2001, p.145) and these intentional deviant behaviors are costly for both employees and organizations by violating important organizational norms (Bennett and Robinson, 2003). Behaviors such as theft, sabotage, withdrawal, harassment, and drug use are some examples of CPWBs. Based on past research, it has been found that there are various factors that predict these CPWBs. Individual differences such as employees' personality traits and abilities (Berry, Ones and Sackett, 2007; Dilchert, Ones, Davis and Rostow, 2007; Moscoso and Anderson, 2013) and work stressors such as difficult work conditions, harsh supervision, role ambiguity, and role and interpersonal conflicts (Spector and Fox 2005; Bruk-Lee and Spector, 2006; Diefendorff and Mehta, 2007) are some causal factors behind CPWBs. A CPWB is a behavioral response to stressful work conditions and the unmet expectations of individuals who lack the necessary tools to deal with those (high neuroticism, low conscientiousness, high need for stimulation) (Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015). Therefore, organizations should try to minimize negative emotions and CPWBs. In order to accomplish this, it is necessary to understand the emotional reactions of subordinates and to develop a civil organizational culture (Spector and Domagalski, 2006). It is obvious that CPWBs are an important organizational outcome that needs to be examined. In sum, the problem statements of this study can be presented by the following research questions:

Q1: Do the employees in organizations show counterproductive work behaviors?

Q2: What are the factors that contribute to the counterproductive work behaviors of the employees?

In order to clarify the above questions, firstly, personal observation of working conditions, organizational structure, horizontal and vertical employee relations in several workplaces have helped to specify our understanding of counterproductive work behavior. Then, the individual, managerial, organizational and job characteristic factors, which may have an impact on these behaviors, were reviewed in the literature.

Accordingly, the relationship between workplace malicious envy, toxic organizational climate and counterproductive work behaviors was assumed in the literature review section.

In this respect, malicious workplace envy is the antecedent suggested in order to explain CPWBs. In general, envy is a meaningful concept in the workplace that has a powerful emotional influence on employees, and helps to explain individual experiences of interpersonal dynamics (Vecchio, 2000). Lange and Crusius (2015), who point out two aspects of envy at work (i.e., feeling envied by others and feeling envy toward others), state that malicious envy refers to ill will and hostility, which are associated with negative attitudes and behaviors (Lange and Crusius, 2015). Envy, which is a negative emotional response to another person's superior quality, achievement, or possession, leads to the envier either desiring the advantage or wishing that the other person lacks it (Parrott and Smith, 1993; Smith and Kim, 2007). Moreover, the envied employee's advantage is evaluated as subjectively undeserved, and the envier employee can undermine the other's performance. Furthermore, malicious envy leads to a "pulling-down" motivation because of willingness to damage the envied person. The envious employee is displeased due to the success or good will of the envied person. The employee is concerned with the other's failure rather than his own success (Tai, Narayanan, and McAllister, 2012; Wobker, 2015). Consequently, malicious envy involves highly negative affect and frustration (Crusius and Lange, 2014) and thus, it is an unpleasant emotion because of the pain it causes (Smith and Kim, 2007). Under these circumtances, the envier experiences less control over personal outcomes (Van de Ven, Zeelenberg, and Pieters, 2011b).

The other antecedent that is proposed to explain CPWB is toxic organizational climate. In general, toxic organizations are largely ineffective structures as well as being destructive to employees (Bacal, 2000). Also, toxicity can be rooted in co-workers, managers, social-structural factors or work environment, and the perception of toxicity may be based on organizational atmosphere (Bock, Zmud, Kim, and Lee, 2005). Organizational climate, which is the manifestation of organizational atmosphere, consists of many important dimensions, such as organizational structure, processes,

relationships, administration, employee behavior or growth opportunities. These factors contribute to shaping the organization in the mind of the employee and constitute a common perception of the organization among employees. At this point, negative perception concerning the organization might negatively affect employees, and this situation is reflected in the employees' emotions, attitudes and behaviors (Ostroff, Kinicky and Tamkins, 2003). Such a negative work environment creates toxins within an organization, and toxic behaviors can also cause both individual and organizational destruction (Frost, 2003). Consequently, a perception of toxic organizational climate could promote employee counterproductivity and deviant behavior (Kellerman, 2004; Lipman-Bluemen, 2005).

Furthermore, self-control was also considered to be important in organizations with regard to the relationship between malicious envy/toxic organizational climate and counterproductive work behavior. Self-control relates to the ability of an individual to consider future consequences. According to the criminological literature, various criminal and imprudent behaviors can be attributed to low self-control (Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik and Arneklev 1993). Employees who possess a high degree of self-control do not allow negative emotions such as malicious envy to trigger their aggression. Therefore, it is expected that the degree of self-control of the employees might affect the relation between the perception of toxic organizational climate and displaying of counterproductive work behavior because employees with self-control are able to resist the immediate benefits that crimes offer.

It has been argued that contextual performance is one of the valuable dimensions in effective organizations. Generally, contextual performance refers to activities that are not task or goal specific but that make individuals, teams and organizations more effective and successful. This performance includes cooperating and helping others and voluntarily performing extra-role activities by persevering with enthusiasm. It encompasses extra determination to complete assignments successfully by defending the organization's goals and adhering to organizational policies, even when this is inconvenient (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Contextual performance is

4

an essential performance behavior within organization. Accordingly, the following research questions have been generated futher aim of the study.

Q3: Do employees show contextual performance behaviors?

Q4: What are the factors that are related to the contextual performance behaviors of the employees?

In order to find answers for the above questions, firstly, personal observation of working conditions, organizational structure, and horizontal and vertical employee relations in several workplaces has helped to specify our understanding of contextual performance. Then, the individual, managerial, organizational and job characteristic factors that may have a role in contextual performance are explained in the literature review section. Thereby, it is developed a relationship between workplace benign envy and contextual performance which is summarized here.

As being an individual factor, workplace benign envy is suggested to be an antecedent of contextual performance. According to the literature, benign envy or competitive envy leads to a "moving-up" motivation. An envious employee may work harder to achieve his goal of obtaining what others have, and thus, it is expected that his work motivation is enhanced, and he is willing to learn from envied targets (Van de Ven , Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2009). Since benign envy is a source of extrinsic motivation, it is expected that employees with a high level of extrinsic motivation perform more extra-role performance behaviors. Thus, since successful employees can be an inspiration to benign envious employees in an organization, such envy can be a triggering factor for improving contextual performance in organizational settings.

The other variable in the model is work exhaustion, which is defined as the depletion of emotional and mental energy needed to meet job demands, excluding physical exhaustion (Moore, 2000). Work exhaustion is a new phenomenon in the literature of research in the areas of tedium and job burnout. Moore (2000), an important name in exhaustion literature, prefers the word "tedium" for explaining work exhaustion in his study. In general, work exhaustion results from an imbalance between job resources and job demands. High job demands and poor job resources contribute to

work exhaustion because, as job demands increase and are not compensated by job resources, employees must exert additional effort to achieve work goals and to prevent decreasing performance (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). Consequently, the employee's energy will progressively drain. Based on these suggestions, another main motivation and problem statement of this study can be stated by the following research questions:

Q5: Do the employees in organizations experience work exhaustion?

Q6: What are the factors that are related to the work exhaustion of employees?

On the other side, it is assumed that managerial factors could be related to individual, attitudal and behavioral outcomes. Within these managerial factors, narcissistic leadership is suggested to be influencing individual's behaviors in the workplace. Therefore, work exhaustion is suggested to be an outcome of narcissistic leadership. Narcissism is a personality trait which includes grandiosity, arrogance, self-absorption, entitlement, fragile self-esteem, and hostility. Narcissistic leadership is generally motivated by many of these traits, and such leaders have needs for power, control and admiration rather than empathetic concern for the constituents and institutions they lead (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). In other words, an important and primary goal for them is to satisfy their own personal egotistical needs for power and admiration (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1997). Lack of empathy is a characteristic shortcoming of theirs. In addition, narcissistic features include an exaggerated sense of self-importance and exhibitionism. Such people like to be in constant competition (Dubrin, 2012). These leaders cannot tolerate what they perceive as disrespect, and are quick to anger at putdowns (Barnard, 2008). Narcissistic leaders can damage their relationships with followers for personal gain (Sankowsky, 1995). It is obvious that the narcissistic leadership style can create a working environment where employees are demotivated and disengaged.

Furthermore, employees' self-esteem was also considered to be important in organizations. The mediating role of self-esteem between narcissistic leadership and work exhaustion has been examined.

In the literature, self-esteem is defined as "an individual's overall self-evaluation of his/her own competencies and it is the descriptive conceptualization that individuals make and maintain with regard to themselves" (Rosenberg, 1979; as cited in Pierce and Gardner 2004, p.50). Employees' judgments about themselves have important implications both for themselves and for the organization since an attitude of approval or disapproval of self reflects what employees believe themselves to be capable of (Newstrom, Gardner and Pierce, 1999). Especially, self-esteem has an important role in coping with stressful events in the workplace (Rosenberg, 1995). Self-esteem also affects the success and performance of the employee indirectly (Edwards, 1993; as cited in Patterson, 2000 p. 32). Therefore, positive assessment of self-esteem would have a beneficial effect on work-related outcomes. However, it can be expected that narcissistic leaders may cause work exhaustion in their employees because of their negative attitudes and behaviors. Under these circumstances, it is expected that employees' self-esteem will decrease.

In sum, this research investigates the contextual and organizational factors affecting individual and organizational outcomes as well as individual and psychosocial factors. In this context, the concept framework incorporating the proposed relationship among two antecedents and one moderator for counterproductive work behavior and toxic organizational climate, one antecedent for contextual performance, one antecedent and one mediator for work exhaustion has been presented, as in Figure 1. It shows the pre-assumed hypothetical relationships among the variables of the study. After proposing the initial framework, a questionnaire was applied with a single source approach to 330 employees at various sectors in Istanbul. Afterwards, the data was analyzed using several statistical analysis methods. Subsequently, literature review for the antecedents including individual and psychosocial factors are presented in detail, together with the research questions and the associated hypothesis. Finally, the data are described and the findings are interpreted via statistical methods. Based on the findings, the theoretical and practical implications of the research findings are discussed and concluded. This study is finished with potential future suggestions and limitations.
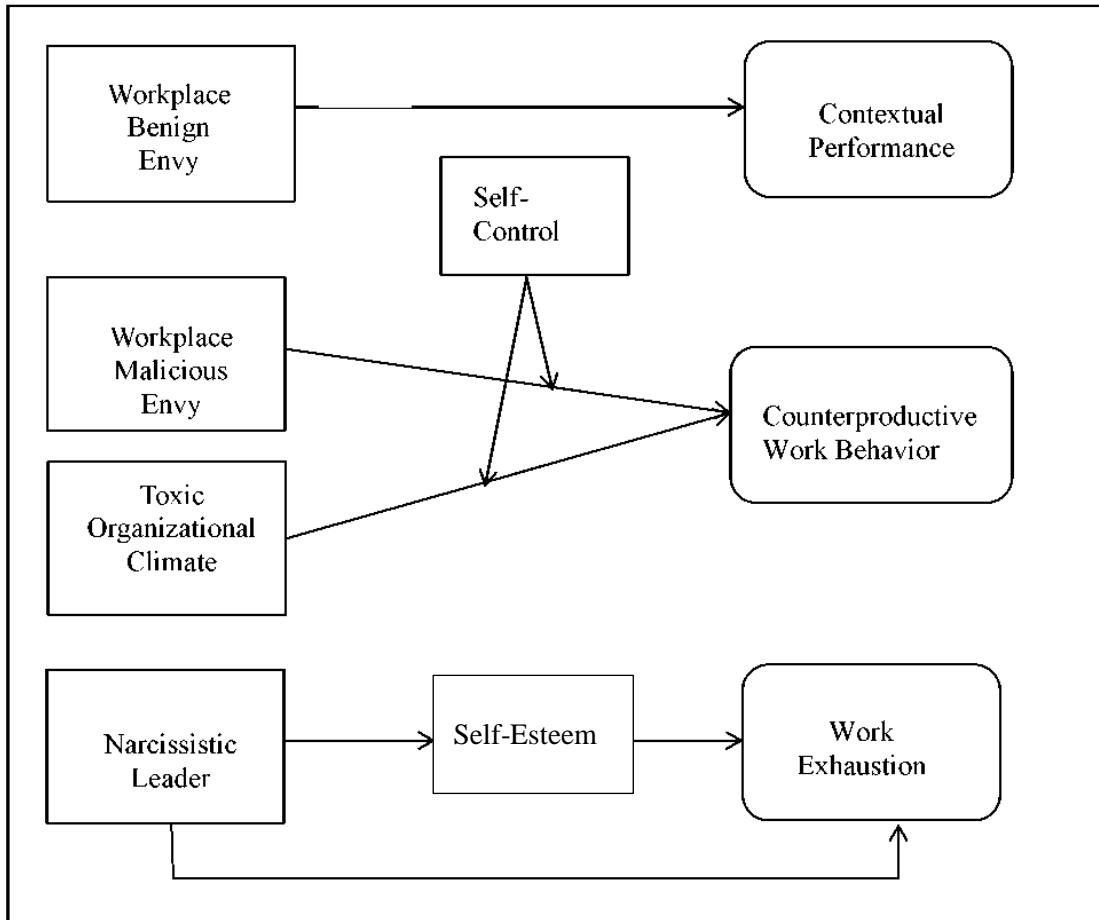
Figure 1. Pre-assumed Conceptual Framework of the Study

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. THE CONCEPT OF COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR

2.1.1. Definition of Counterproductive Work Behavior

Today, the business world has become a single market. The competition has increased as among organizations, which in turn increased the problems in working relationships, work conditions, and overall organizational life. For instance, flexibility, increased insecurity and work overload, and competitive pressures observed in social relations in company due to fear of dismissal are among the emerging problems in this field (Çetin and Fıkırkoca, 2010; Sezici; 2015). On this basis, the relationship between employee and organization is rather important with regard to employee performance and total workplace productivity because, employees with negative attitudes towards their organizations can display behaviors undesirable for businesses, and thus, new problems arise that businesses need to deal with, and organizations have to come up with suggestions to solve these problems. Otherwise, the negative attitudes and behaviors of the employees might cause serious problems that threaten the organizational life for both employees and the business (Polatçı and Akdoğan 2014; Demir, Ayas and Yıldız, 2018). These dysfunctional attitudes and behaviors are an expensive phenomenon for an organization, costing billions of dollars per year, as well as human-related costs such as low morale and turnover (Greenberg, 1998; Frost, 2007).

Human behavior is a function of the interaction between the person or individual, and his or her environment (Nadler, Hackman and Lawler, 1979). Balthazard, Cooke, and Potter (2006) have defined dysfunctional behaviors in the workplace as deviant behaviors that negatively affect employees, suppliers, and customers and which are reflected in the overall organizational performance. Dysfunctional behavior can spread from individual to team and become deleterious to organizational performance (MacKenzie, Garavan and Carbery, 2015) because such behaviors are observable on a number of levels. Besides, dysfunctional behavior refers to conduct that violates the work code of ethics and regulations, which can negatively affect work relations and the overall performance inside organizations (Peterson, 2002).

Therefore, dysfunctional behavior is regarded as a serious problem that requires the awareness of management and the implementation of the proper procedures for tackling such sources of dysfunction. Otherwise, it will reflect negatively on overall organizational performance (Van Fleet and Van Fleet, 2012; MacKenzie, Garavan and Carbery, 2015). Employees may signal dissatisfaction and/or engage in harmful behaviors in an organization due to various reasons, and these behaviors are costly to both individuals and organizations (Bennett and Robinson, 2003). So-called dysfunctional or destructive behaviors range from relatively mild forms (e.g., ignoring colleagues or coming in late) to relatively severe forms (e.g., physically attacking colleagues or sabotaging equipment) and in the literature, these are the so-called counterproductive work behaviors (CPWBs).

CPWB, often termed deviant behavior, is a component of job performance. Fox and Spector (2005) have defined CPWB as the spectrum of actions that harm employees or organizations, and discussed it within job performance. Also, task and organizational citizenship behavior concepts are important for CPWB. However, as a result of increasing focus on CPWBs, it has become a separate concept that needs to be discussed. These behaviors cause detrimental effects on both organizations (E.g. low productivity, increased insurance costs, lost or damaged property and increased turnover) and employees (E.g. increased dissatisfaction and job stress) (LeBlanc and Kelloway, 2002; Penney and Spector, 2002; Hafidz, Hoesni and Fatimah, 2012). CPWB is not workplace incivility, or actions that diverge from any organizational norm (Bunk and Magley, 2013). CPWB and workplace incivility are similar in that they affect organizational citizenship behavior, organizational trust and contextual performance negatively, and both concepts increase turnover intention and turnover rates, anger and aggression, and decrease belief in self-determination and prosocial workplace behavior (Taştan, 2014). However, CPWB has three features that separate it from workplace incivility. Firstly, CPWB consists of volitional actions that harm or intend to harm organizations and/or their stakeholders such as clients, co-workers, customers, and supervisors. Generally, an employee performs the action with the objective of harming the organization. For instance, he or she neglects work by talking on the phone or takes an exceptionally long break (Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Fox and Spector, 1999;

Conlon, Meyer and Nowakowski, 2005). Secondly, CPWB is purposeful. This is the key characteristic of counterproductive action. Thus, it is not the same as purposeful accidents such as the unintended result of an unskilled employee's action. Thirdly, CPWB targets the organization (also called organizational CPWB; e.g., sabotage) or its stakeholders (also called interpersonal CPWB; e.g., aggression toward colleagues) (Conlon, Meyer and Nowakowski, 2005). Also, according to meta-analysis results of Dalal (2005), interpersonal CPWB and organizational CPWB are significantly related. In the light of this information, CPWB can be defined as "any intentional behavior on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests" (Sackett and De Vore, 2001, p.145). Similarly, according to Spector and Fox (2002), CPWB is defined as volitional employee behavior that is intended to harm the organization and its members, and that poses threats to effective organizational functioning (Spector and Fox, 2002).

The deviant behaviors which are known as dysfunctional or out of norm, are pervasive and costly both to organizations and to employees. In a lot of research, CPWB is considered to be work behavior characteristics that are deliberate, intended to cause harm to the organization and its employees, and in some cases can result in workplace homicide (Gruys and Sackett, 2003: Spector and Fox, 2005; Campbell, 2012). In the literature, there are various definitions and conceptualizations that evaluate this perspective in a broad sense: antisocial behavior (Giacalone and Greenberg, 1997); workplace deviance (Robinson and Bennett, 1995); employee vice (Moberg, 1997); organizational misbehavior (Vardi and Wiener, 1996); workplace aggression (Baron and Neuman, 1996), organizational retaliation behavior (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997); noncompliant behavior (Puffer, 1987); organization-motivated aggression (O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin and Glew, 1996); organizational delinquency (Hogan and Hogan, 1989); abusive (Keashly Trott and MacLean 1994); mobbing/bullying (Mathisen, Ellen, Einarsen and Mykletun, 2011). In both domestic and foreign literature, these kinds of behaviors have been defined as CPWB in recent years. The common idea in all definitions is that these antisocial behaviors are intended, conscious and planned. Furthermore, the reasons for these behaviors which contain hostility or aggression, stem

from negative emotions such as frustration and anger in the social-psychological environment of the person.

Moreover, according to social cognitive theory, anticipated consequences are at the heart of the self-regulatory mechanisms that determine transgressive actions. It means that an individual predicts to what extent the envisaged behavior would violate the moral standards of significant others, so-called anticipated social sanctions, and their own moral standard, so-called anticipated self-sanction, before the individual attempts a behavior (Bandura, 1991a, 1991b). Due to social sanction, the individual will abstain from behaviors that may lead to social censure or other undesirable social consequences. Also, due to self-sanction, people will refrain from behaviors that they think will violate their own internalized, moral standards, through the prediction of decreased self-respect and increased self-reproach. Hence, Social cognitive theory helps us to clarify the nature of CPWBs by means of anticipated social and self-sanctions (Warren and Smith-Crowe, 2008; Zimmerman, 2008). Because formal control mechanisms have only limited impact on CPWBs, developed social and self-control mechanisms will reduce unfavorable behaviors. For this reason, organizational sanction systems and punishments such as social disapproval from team members and feelings of guilt or embarrassment should be engaged more frequently in CPWBs (Hollinger and Clark, 1982; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1996).

How workplace issues or individual's emotions affect counterproductive work behavior can be explained by Affect Events Theory (AET). This theory is based on an emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior and refers to an integrative model of personality traits and job satisfaction. AET posits that specific work events are consequences of affective reactions and behaviors. As a result of work events, an employee experiences positive and negative emotions. These affective states, naturally, shape his/her work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction or dissatisfaction) (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Much as emotions are short lived, the study of emotions is critical because emotions are elicited by a specific cause. That is, an employee's negative emotions trigger CPWBs (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991).

At the same time, Lazarus (1991) supports an emotion-centered model in his cognitive appraisal model of emotions and claims that CPWB is an employee's behavioral response to the negative emotions (e.g. anger, shame, guilt) that result from a specific and meaningful unfair/unfavorable event, such as a layoff decision (Barclay et al., 2005). Spector and Fox (2005) point out that the stressor-emotion model explains that CPWB is based on integrating human aggression and occupational stress and this model claims that CPWBs are a response to emotion-arousing situations in organizations. Moreover, the stressor-emotion model also states that both anger and many forms of negative emotions play a causal role in unfolding of CPWBs (Khan, Peretti and Quratulain, 2009).

Further, employees can exhibit malicious, harmful or dysfunctional behaviors towards organization or stakeholders, consistent with social exchange studies. Social exchange can be defined as deliberate actions that are performed by individuals or groups with the expectation that other parties will act in a similar fashion (Blau, 1964). In social interactions, it is argued that individuals are inclined to feel an obligation to reciprocate in a manner that they were confronted with (Song, Tsui and Law, 2009). Therefore, CPWBs may be understood within the framework of Social Exchange Theory (SET). An employee who confronts negative events in turn has a tendency to negative behavior and this causes CPWBs. In addition, an employee's feeling of equity and approach of restorative justice is a cause of CPWBs.

Adam's Equity Theory of Motivation (1965) concerns an individual's perception of fair treatment in social exchanges. While compared to other people, individuals want to be compensated fairly for their contributions; that is, an individual desires to match the outcomes with the inputs. An individual's belief in regards to what is fair and what is unfair is relative to his/her own reality. Therefore, perception of equity can affect an individual's motivation, attitudes, and behaviors (Gogia, 2010). If one's own inputs and outcomes are more than or less than others, this creates a sense of unfairness in individual as a result of comparison with others (Redmond, 2010). As the difference in inequity increases, the tension and distress felt by an individual will increase (Huseman, Hatfield and Miles, 1987) and the individual is most likely to use a

process that is relatively easy and the most satisfying by restoring some sense of equity or fairness through counterproductive acts in order to match the outcome (Werbel and Balkin, 2010).

Researchers have shown that it is not enough to explain the cause of CPWB with a single factor or framework because there are two main types of CPWBs based on the target of the misbehaviors at work. According to the CPWB typology of Robinson and Bennett (1995), such behaviors are divided into interpersonal CPWBs and organizational CPWBs. The interpersonal-CPWB and organizational-CPWB distinction is important for describing the separate targets of CPWBs; this distinction can allow the literature to gain a better understanding of why specific damaging behaviors are committed. Firstly, organizational-CPWB is toward organization and aims to damage the goals, norms, and itself of organization in terms of costs by way of fraud, failure to meet deadlines, and poor quality work (Aube, Rousseau, Mama, and Morin, 2009). At the same time, such behaviors cause negative outcomes such as waste of time, sabotage, and vandalism (Lanyon and Goldstein, 2004; Seçer and Seçer 2007; Kanten and Ülker, 2014; Demircioğlu and Özdemir, 2014; Demir, et al., 2018). On the other hand, interpersonal (or sometimes called individual) CPWB is harmful behaviors toward individuals. Such behaviors are observed in an individual's actions such as retaliations, sabotage, revenge, personal theft, and aggression (Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007). Also, less helpful behaviors, less volunteering for tasks and less supportive behavior towards a co-worker or team may even be accepted as interpersonal-CPWBs (LePine and Van Dyne, 1998). With these intended, planned and conscious behaviors, a person desires negative relational outcomes in other members, such as increased frustration, humiliation, and aggression (Ayoko, Callan, and Hartel, 2003). In the light of such information, interpersonal-CPWB is distinguished from organizational-CPWB. Interpersonal-CPWB includes both political deviant behaviors, such as favoritism, gossiping, and non-beneficial and serious personally aggressive behaviors, such as sexual harassment, verbal abuse, and stealing from and endangering other co-workers (Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Furthermore, according to Lim and Cortina (2005), interpersonal-CPWB has two forms as milder and more extreme (serious). While milder

ones occur in the form of emotional abuse, bullying, social isolation, and incivility, more extreme (serious) ones occur in the form of sexual harassment.

Further, Hollinger and Clark (1982) suggest to divide interrpersonal or employee deviance in two broad categories as "property deviance" and "production deviance". Property deviance refers to employee stealing or damaging the property or assets of their employers by misusing discount privileges, taking money, supplies or other items from the employer, being paid for more hours than actually worked, or sabotage. On the other hand, production deviance refers to behaviors that violate organizational norms concerning the production or work in the organization. For instance, employees exhibit behaviors such as tardiness, sick leave abuse, absenteeism, doing sloppy work, and engaging in drug or alcohol use on the job (Hollinger and Clark, 1982; Hollinger and Clark, 1983; Hollinger, 1986). Besides, Hollinger, Slora, and Terris (1992) include a third dimension to this category in addition to property and production deviance. This deviant behavior, which is called "altruistic property deviance" may be regarded as a unique form of property deviance, because altruistic property deviance includes behaviors that deal with the property and assets of the organization. To illustrate, an employee gives away an organization's property or sells it at a great discount to others instead of taking the assets for their own gain (Hollinger et al., 1992). Robinson and Bennett (1995) name this typology "Four P's" and attributed "organizational-CPWB" and "interpersonal-CPWB". While production and property deviance refer to organizational-CPWBs, political deviance and personal aggression constitute interpersonal-CPWBs.

The descriptions of the typology of CPWBs are presented and examples are provided for each as follows:

Figure 2. Typology of Counterproductive Work Behavior (Robinson and Bennett, 1995).

As mentioned above, CPWB is a cluster of behaviors that include various kinds of dysfunctional, damaging or destructive behaviors. In this context, Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) identify almost 64 types of such workplace behaviors under the umbrella of CPWBs and classify them into five chief categories (Spector, Fox and Domagalski., 2006). According to Spector and his associates, the first category is abuse against others. This includes all harmful and nasty behaviors at work such as acts of hurting others either physically or psychologically, or both. These behaviors may be physical harm directly to the individual; it also includes psychological acts such as humiliation, contempt, ignoring, humiliating comments, and intimidation. As the aggressive behaviors that occur directly against the individual are not frequently encountered in the organization, it is seen that the interpersonal harmful behaviors have psychological violence content rather than physical content. The second category is production deviance, which refers to intentionally performing one's assigned tasks incorrectly or allowing an error to occur. It looks like the employee is doing the job. However, because production deviance is a passive behavior, it is very difficult to detect and prove compared to other forms of behavior. The third category is sabotage, which aims to disrupt the organizational function/order or mislead it by deliberately destroying the

16

property belonging to the organization or employer. Neuman and Baron (1997) express that deliberate behaviors such as deflating the tires of the vehicles of the organization, having vehicles towed, defacing the furniture of the organization, or deliberately misplacing important documents are among sabotage behaviors. The fourth category is theft, or act of stealing. It refers to illegally taking the personal goods or possessions of another. In reality, it is not seen as an aggressive behavior by many persons but the main reason behind the act of stealing is to cause economic loss to the organization. Therefore, theft or act of stealing is accepted as a CPWB. Finally, the fifth category is withdrawal, which is related to avoiding work, being late, or absent (Spector et al., 2006). With all these behaviors, employees aim to limit working time. Employees don't damage the organization directly; instead they tend to avoid behavior. To illustrate, behaviors such as leaving early, taking excessive breaks, wasting resources, intentionally working slowly are examples of physical-passive behavior (Buss, 1961; Conlon, Meyer and Nowakowski, 2005).

2.1.2. Antecedents of Counterproductive Work Behavior

In the light of all the information mentioned above, it can be said that all the definitions and conceptualizations in the acceptance of a behavior as a CPWB are based on the damage to the organization directly or indirectly. Here, the main point is that this dysfunctional, harmful or destructive behavior has to be made by an employee consciously and deliberately. However, understanding the underlying reasons why employees engage in such behaviors is crucial for organizational prosperity. For this reason, researchers conducted empirical studies on CPWBs to investigate the antecedents and correlations of different types of CPWBs (Averill, 1983; Duffy and Shaw, 2000; Lee and Allen, 2002; Salgado, 2002; Martinko, Gundlach, and Douglas, 2002; Ambrose, Seabright, and Schminke, 2002; Karaeminoğulları, 2006; Coillie and Mechelen, 2006; McCardle, 2007; Smith and Kim, 2007; Gibson and Callister, 2010; Holley, 2012; Meier and Semmer, 2012; Taştan, 2013; Demir, et al., 2018; Rahman and Ferdausy, 2013; Heyde, Miebach and Kluge, 2014).

To understand the reasons why employees engage in such deviant behaviors, organizational factors have to be taken into account. Several studies have tried to

answer why some organizations have higher deviance rates than others (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Robinson and Greenberg, 1998; Marcus and Schuler, 2004).

One of the main organizational causes of CPWBs stems from working conditions. Working conditions can reflect a broad range of issues from manager-employee relationships to work stress. Good management promotes a healthy relationship between manager and employees, and treating employees with dignity and respect tends to increase employees' ability to focus on the job at hand, thereby decreasing the probability to engage in CPWBs. Therefore, training for managers is quite important in point of how to deal with and manage employee emotions. Thus, this training can be very beneficial to both the organization and the employee (Goldstein, 1980).

The perception of employee fairness, which is shaped by external factors, explains causes of CPWBs. The effect of a perception of inequity and unfairness is to increase deviant acts. As Adam (1965) states in equality theory, employees who feel unfairly treated will seek restitution. This suggests that employees who are dissatisfied with the fairness of their employer's procedures or with the honesty or comprehensiveness of the explanations provided regarding initiative use, may reciprocate with organizational CPWBs such as arriving late for work, reducing effort and/or taking unauthorized breaks, or may lead to interpersonal CPWBs such as making disparaging remarks about their managers, or acting rudely toward others (Marcus and Schuler, 2004; Beauregard, 2014).

In the literature, it has been established that the perception of injustice provokes counterproductive work behaviors (Flaherty and Moss, 2007, Demir, 2011). As is well known, the concept of organizational justice can be examined in three dimensions: procedural, interpersonal, and distributive (Greenberg, 1987). Jones (2009) indicates that while interpersonal and informational justice have the greatest influence on interpersonal CPWB, procedural justice makes the largest difference in organizational CPWB. In addition, the perception of inequity and injustice lead to an employee's frustration (Murtaza, Shad, Shahzad, Shah, Khan, 2011).

As an employee perceives injustice or inequity, s/he gets frustrated. A frustrated employee also engages in counterproductive behaviors more frequently (Aamondt, 1999). A Study of Marcus and Schuler (2004) promotes this result because they report that frustration, payment inequity, and interactional injustice correlate positively with each other (Marcus and Schuler, 2004).

The extant literature indicates a strong negative relationship between organizational support and counterproductive work behaviors as a whole. Organizations may minimize incidences of dysfunctional employee acts through enhancement of perceived organizational support (Joy and Balu, 2016). Previous studies show that perceived organizational support indirectly decreases dysfunctional behaviors. For instance, there is enough support stating the positive effects of perceived organizational support on organizational efficiency. Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa, (1986) claim that perceived organizational support is an antecedent of organizational commitment. Furthermore, several researchers have found that perceived organizational support is an important antecedent of job satisfaction (Shore and Tetrick, 1991; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch, 1997; Aquino and Griffeth, 1999). Many studies have proved that perceived organizational support has a mediator role between work experiences such as organizational reward, perceived justice and affective commitment. Therefore, it can be deduced that employees can determine the positive nature of certain job experiences. Thus, this positive and supportive climate leads to experience of perceived organizational support. Then, organizational support brings about positive organizational outcomes, such as affective commitment and prevents the probability of negative outcomes such as counterproductive work behaviors (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Monnastes, 2010; Joy and Balu, 2016; Tuna and Boylu, 2016).

Moreover, it is indicated in the literature that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are another antecedent. Job attitudes and attitudes concerning the organization have independent and complementary impacts on turnover behavior (Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Glomb, and Ahlburg, 2005). To illustrate, sudden declines in organizational commitment over time are associated with amplified intention to quit and actually quitting (Bentein, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, and Stinglhamber,

2005). Especially, if a group of employees' mean satisfaction and distribution of satisfaction scores are low, attendance is expected to be mostly low (Dineen, Noe, Shaw, Duffy, and Wiethoff, 2007; Ramshida and Manikandan, 2013).

Individual differences are important predictors which clarify why the behavior of an individual changes. Therefore, it may be said that there is a relationship between CPWBs and individual differences. Even if some researchers claim that individual differences account for a small portion of the variance in CPWBs (Robinson and Greenberg, 1998), research proves that individual difference variables account for 60% of the variance in workplace aggression (Douglas and Martinko, 2001). Indeed, a lot of research supports the idea that demographic variables such as age, tenure, and education have an effect on CPWB. For instance, according to the results of Gruys, (1999), Hollinger and Clark (1983), Marcus and Schuler (2004), Ones and Viswesvaran, (1998), age and tenure were negatively correlated with CPWBs. On the other hand, according to several other studies conducted so far, education has been found to be unrelated to CPWBs (O'Sullivan and McHardy, 2004; Matta, Korkmaz, Johnson and Bıçaksız, 2014). Also, Marcus and Schuler (2002) have not found a significant relationship between cognitive ability and CPWBs (Marcus and Schuler, 2002). But, Spector and Domagalski (2006) express in their study that cognition was a stronger predictor of workplace deviance behavior, especially that when the discrete emotion of hostility replaced negative affect, it was as important a predictor of CPWBs as cognition.

While examining the CPWB literature, it is seen that there is a relationship between personality (especially Big Five or Five Factor Model (FFM)) and CPWBs. Conscientiousness and agreeableness are dimensions of FFM that are negatively related with CPWB. Conscientiousness refers to an individual's level of organization and perseverance in motivated and goal directed behaviors. Employees who have high level of conscientiousness tend to display fewer aggressive behaviors. Similarly, because agreeableness refers to the level of social orientation in judgments, feelings, and behaviors, those employees with high degrees of agreeableness avoid dysfunctional behaviors. These employees' attitude can be explained with Self Control Theory. Employees control themselves when they are involved in an organization (Manz and

Sims, 1980). Self-control provides employees with a capacity to bring their actions into line with their intentions in the face of competing motivation (Henden, 2008).

In another study, Mount, Ilies and Johnson (2006) support the relationship between self-control theory and agreeableness and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors/ conscientiousness and organizational counterproductive work behaviors. According to them, job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between agreeableness and interpersonal/organizational CPWBs and job satisfaction had a direct relationship with both forms of CPWBs.

Emotional stability is another dispositional characteristic viewed as a predictor of CPWBs. Individuals who lack emotional stability tend to experience feelings of insecurity, depression, despair, and fearfulness. They are significantly more likely to withhold work effort when they perceive an organizational environment lacking in encouragement, feedback, and support needed for employee development. At this point, while employee turnover rating is regarded as production deviance, emotional stability has the strongest negative relationship to turnover among the big five characteristics (Colbert and her colleagues, 2004). In addition to FFM, there is another significant personality trait: honesty-humility. The honesty-humility personality trait is defined by terms such as honest, fair, and sincere versus greedy, conceited, and sly. It plays a prominent role in predicting both forms of CPWB (Lee, Ashton and Vries, 2005).

Negative affectivity was also examined as a possible predictor of retaliation (Skarlicki, Folger and Tesluk, 1999). Individuals who may be characterized by the trait of negative affectivity (feelings of discomfort, dissatisfaction, and distress, with a generally negative orientation toward life) may focus on retaliation if the degrees of both distributive and interactional justice are low. Interestingly, those with a negative affect have not been seen to directly engage in workplace aggression in the research conducted so far (Douglas and Martinko, 2001; Hepworth and Towler, 2004).

Anxiety and anger are also important predictors of CPWBs. Individuals prone to the anxiety trait are exposed to feelings of tension and apprehension across a multitude of situations. Therefore, highly anxious employees react with feelings of

frustration and job dissatisfaction at work. Finally, these negative emotional responses lead to counterproductive behavioral responses in the form of both organizational and individual CPWBs (Spector and Domagalski, 2006). Also, anger is a physical and mental response to a threat or harm done in the past. Employees experience and have to deal with exasperating and provoking context at the workplace. This context makes employees to suppress or express anger. Manifestation of anger may result in destructive and irrational behavioral responses (Mayer, Roberts and Barsade, 2008). Actually, both self-control and self-monitoring play important roles on the relationship between anger and dysfunctional behaviors. It has been found that a key reason people do not engage in counterproductive behavior at work is self-control (Marcus and Schuler, 2004; Bechtoldt, Welk, Hartig and Zapf, 2007). Self-control relates to the consideration of future consequences and has been found to be the main predictor of counterproductive work behavior (Hollinger and Clark, 1983). The general theory of crime proposes that engagement in criminal behavior is caused by low self-control (Gottfredson, 1990). These findings are supported by research demonstrating that various criminal and imprudent behaviors can be attributed to low self-control (Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik and Arneklev 1993). Similarly, because self-monitoring is defined as the extent to which individuals monitor and adapt their behavior based upon how it is perceived by others in social settings (Snyder, 1974), it is useful in employees avoiding destructive behaviors. High self-monitors are more likely than low self-monitors to engage in deviant behaviors at work. However, Parks and Mount's (2005) research findings reveal that self-monitoring only predicts organizational counterproductive behaviors (e.g. theft, shirking, falsifying expense reports) but not interpersonal ones (e.g. arguing, fighting, insubordination). This situation is explained with the concept of personal concerns. High self-monitors engage in more organizational deviance because they are motivated by self-interest. Thus, they are likely to put their own interests before those of the organization. However, high self-monitors are also image-conscious, and as such are not likely to engage in deviant behaviors directed toward individuals.

Narcissism is another individual difference variable that may be an important factor in determining CPWBs, particularly under conditions perceived to be difficult or

stressful. Individuals with high narcissism experience anger more frequently and are more likely to express their anger by engaging in CPWB, especially when job constraints are high. These findings suggest that narcissistic individuals are likely to handle ego-threatening information or situations with less equanimity. Therefore, narcissism is another important factor for CPWBs, particularly under conditions perceived to be difficult or stressful (Penney and Spector, 2002).

In order to understand why employees behave in a more harmful rather than helpful manner towards their co-workers, Heider's Attribution Theory must be examined in this context. Heider, in his theory, explains that all people perceive the behavior of themselves and of other people. He said that all behavior is considered to be determined by either internal or by external factors (Heider, 1958). In this context, attribution theory deals with how the social perceiver uses information to arrive at causal explanations for events. It examines "what information is gathered and how it is combined to form a causal judgment" (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). In the workplace, employees that attribute exclusion more externally, by mainly blaming colleagues, can develop negative feelings towards colleagues (Hitlan and Noel, 2009). Employees can attribute the fact that they feel excluded to the idea that their colleagues have poor characters, are arrogant, or are dissimilar (Williams and Sommer, 1997). Eventually, these negative feelings might lead to more aggressive and harmful behavior towards co-workers. The basic assumption is that it is possible that employees who use more external attributions display harmful behaviors rather than helpful behaviors (Wisse, 2014). Douglas and Marinko (2001) determined in their study that employees who tend to attribute negative workplace related events to other people in the organization show more workplace aggression.

2.2. THE CONCEPT OF CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE

2.2.1. The Definition of Contextual Performance

The pace of organizational change in the 21st century is accelerating. Fueled by technology and globalization, more flexibale and networked structures have been admitted by the organizations and traditional hierarchical models have been almost

become impair, particualry in service industries. As the contemporary business style has changed compared to the past, employee performance is still seen as a key component of organizational success. Due to the global business environment, increasing global competition, the need to gain competitive advantage among organizations, technological developments and many other reasons, the importance of creative and high performance workforce has increased. Today, management rewards and recognition systems focus primarily on task completion and goal achievement, and this is proof that traditional hierarchical models still use it as a basic assessment tool (Jena and Pradhan, 2014). The basic assessment tool that is still valid for organizations is the performance evaluation system. There are certain job related activities expected of employees and it is important for all management to see how well those activities are executed. Therefore, many managers assess the employee performance of each staff member on an annual or quarterly basis in order to help them identify suggested areas for improvement (Devonish and Greenidge, 2010).

At that point, the concept of contextual performance comes to the fore and individuals' contextual or extra-role behaviors become essential in today's organizations. Contextual performance is one of the valuable dimensions of organizational performance and contributes to the effectiveness of organizations. Richard and his colleagues (2009) state that organizational effectiveness contains organizational performance, the numerous internal performance outcomes related with effective and efficient operations and some other external measures that are broader than simply associated with economic valuation. Broadly, contextual performance refers to activities that are not task or goal specific, but that make individuals, teams and organizations more effective and successful. Specifically, this performance includes cooperating and helping others and voluntarily performing extra-role activities by persevering with enthusiasm. It encompasses extra determination to complete assignments successfully, by defending the organization's goals, and adhering to organizational policies even when this is inconvenient (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Rather, these are non-task related behaviors that contribute to the organizational culture and climate (Beffort and Hattrup, 2003). On the other hand, these performances activities are more emergent behaviors and do not directly contribute to core technical

24

processes in organizations (Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit, 1997). These nontraditional contextual performance behaviors are important for both the whole organization, and the individuals who work there (Reilly and Aronson, 2012).

In next chapter, the concept of contextual performance will be presented in detail. Besides, it will be tried to clarify why contextual performance is important for today's organization and employees. Finally, it will be discussed the potential causes of contextual performance, both individual and organizational.

2.2. THE LITERATURE REVIEW OF CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE

In recent years, contextual performance has become desirable behavioral pattern in the workplace because of improving to organization. To date, a number of studies have examined job performance (E.g., Murphy, 1989; Campbell, 1990; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler and Sager, 1993; Conway, 1999) and researchers agree that performance has to be considered a multi-dimensional concept. Basically, job performance is divided into two aspects: a process aspect of performance (i.e., behavioral) and an outcome aspect of performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, et al., 1993; Roe, 1999) and has two dimensions called task performance and contextual performance. In sum, the behavioral aspect refers to what people do while at work, the action itself (Campbell, 1990). Performance encompasses specific behavior (e.g., sales conversations with customers, teaching statistics to undergraduate students, programming computer software, assembling parts of a product). This conceptualization implies that only actions that can be scaled (i.e., counted) are regarded as performance (Campbell et al., 1993). Moreover, this performance concept explicitly only describes as performance, behavior which is goal-oriented, i.e. behavior which the organization hires the employee to do well (Campbell et al., 1993). On the other hand, the outcome aspect refers to the result of the individual's behavior. The actions described above might result in contracts or selling numbers, students' knowledge in statistical procedures, a software product, or numbers of products assembled (Sonnentag, Volmer and Spychala, 2010). Also, task performance can be defined as the tasks mentioned in the job description and necessary to accomplish the duties. Accordingly, all work to be done by the employees

on the requirements of the job is defined as in-role performance behavior (Williams and Anderson, 1991). In light of this information, contextual performance is different from these performance dimensions, with behaviors such as volunteering, helping, persisting predicted by personality factors related to individual differences in motivational characteristics and tendency (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Contextual activities include volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of the job and helping and cooperating with others in the organization to get tasks accomplished (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). In addition, it involves an employee's behaviors that support the psychological and social context in which workplace tasks are performed. According to another definition, contextual performance is defined as the act of doing a job while interacting with coworkers, supervisors and customers, as well as demonstrating self-disciplined behavior, persistence to work and willingness to put more effort on the job voluntarily (Aniefiok, Vongsinsirikul, Suwandee and Jabutay, 2018).

It has been demonstrated that contextual performance could be influenced by three antecedent concepts. Initially, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) introduced a concept of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). It refers to a set of discretionary workplace behaviors that exceed one's basic job requirements. They are often described as behaviors that go beyond the call of duty. This extra-role discretionary behavior is intended to help others in the organization or to demonstrate conscientiousness in support of the organization (Organ, 1988). Especially, the dimension of altruism of OCB is neither prescribed nor required; yet it contributes to the smooth functioning of the organization (Jahangir, Akbar and Haq, 2004). Secondly, prosocial organizational behavior (POB) was illustrated by Katz (1964). In general, it is a positive discretionary behavior which describes the willingness of workers to both fulfil and go beyond formal job requirements, such as volunteering for activities outside the usual job role; putting in extra effort, representing the organizational favorably, helping customers with personal matters, etc. (Hyde, Harris and Boaden, 2013). In this perspective, prosocial behaviors encompass role-prescribed and extra-role behaviors. These behaviors can be performed by a member of an organization and directed toward an individual, group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational

role with the purpose of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization (Hazzi and Maldaon, 2012). Thirdly, a model of soldier effectiveness was developed by Borman, Mottowidlo, Rose and Hanser (1987). Soldier effectiveness is not directly related to task performance but related instead to a broader conception of job performance. According to them, being a good soldier from the Army's perspective means more than just performing the job in a technically proficient manner. It also refers to performing a variety of other activities that contribute to a soldier's effectiveness in the unit. Here, the main purpose is to protect his or her "overall worth to the Army" and contribute to it. Traits such as determination, teamwork, and allegiance are examples of the kinds of performance constructs related to this concept. Herein, extra-role discretionary behaviors are needed. As a result, contextual performance is based on these concepts and is similar to them: organizational citizenship behavior, prosocial organizational behavior and the model of soldier effectiveness.

While Borman and Motowidlo (1993) are examining this concept, they enumerate five categories of contextual performance. First, they emphasize volunteering for activities beyond a person's formal job requirements. Second, they highlight persistent enthusiasm and application from an organization's members when needing to complete important task requirements. Third, it is important to help and cooperate with others in the organization. Fourth, employees have to follow organizational rules and prescribed procedures even when it is inconvenient. Finally, organization's members are expected to endorse, support, and openly defend organization objectives.

Basically, contextual performance, which involves behaviors that deviate from an employee's job description, consists of two types of behaviors, namely, interpersonal facilitation behavior and job dedication behavior (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). First, interpersonal facilitation behaviors, such as altruism, sportsmanship and civil behaviors are connected with interpersonal orientation of an employee and the connection has directly an impact on contribution to an organization's goal achievement. These acts help in maintaining the social and interpersonal environment in order to achieve effective task performance in an organization. Due to such acts, employee morale improves and they are encouraged to cooperate and help their

colleagues. Besides, such interpersonal acts will lead to the job satisfaction of an employee. Incidentally, social exchange theory supports this relationship. According to the theory, if an employee finds a balance between what they give and receive in a social exchange, he or she will be satisfied with his or her job and thus, they will "give back" by supporting co-workers with tasks, encouraging others to overcome difficulties, praising coworkers and volunteering to help. Second, job dedication is another type of behavior of contextual performance. Such types of behavior are related to the self-discipline of the individual. According to Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996), job dedication is the inspirational underpinning of job performance. Employees whose level of job dedication is high promote the organization's best interests.

There are significant specific predictors that predict underlying reasons for contextual performance. Murphy and Shiarella (1997) base their studies on the relationship between cognitive ability and overall job performance. According to their study, cognitive ability has a stronger relationship with task performance than it does with contextual performance (Campbell, 1990). However, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) show in their study that personality has a stronger relationship with contextual performance than it has with task performance. Undoubtedly, personality is a determinant predictor of contextual performance, since it is based on the idea that an employee is volunteering for activities beyond his or her formal job requirements.

There are antecedents of contextual performance. Firstly, individual differences in personality are important predictors of contextual performance such as Conscientiousness and Agreeableness (Organ and Ryan, 1995; Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996; Hurtz and Donovan, 2000). Furthermore, recent studies show that Emotional Stability (Small and Diefendorff, 2006) and Openness to Experience play an important role, too (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li and Gardner, 2011). These personality factors contribute to explaining contextual performance. It has been shown that as employees' score in these personality factors increase, their contextual performance increases (Rodríguez, Fernaud, Rosales, Vilela, Díaz and Cabrera, 2018). According to some studies, Impression Management has an influence on contextual performance as well (Yun, Takeuchi, and Liu, 2007; Ingold, Kleinmann, König and Melchers, 2015).

However, Bolino (1999) claims that the impact of personality on these extra-role behaviors will be weaker when Impression Management motives are stronger. The concept of self-monitoring also helps explain under which situations employees display contextual performance. For instance, high self-monitors are motivated by a need to perceive that they are well accepted by others. For this reason, they engage in impression management in order to win the approval of others (Toegel, Anand and Kilduff, 2007) and the employee tends to help voluntarily. The behaviors of providing emotional help, which high self-monitors engage in, can also be described in terms of contextual behaviors since it supports work contexts (Bizzi and Soda, 2011). Additionally, emotional states have an effect on job performance. Their effects on memory, evaluative judgments, processing strategies and social behaviors encompass both cognitions and motivations (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). If any employee has positive emotions towards a job, he or she has broad cognitive patterns and can enhance coping abilities and build resilience for coping with job demands. Thus, these yield a consequential, positive impact on both task and citizenship performance (Fredrickson, 2003; Chiang and Hsieh, 2012; Edgar, Geare and Zhang, 2017).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) argued that people exhibit contextual behavior by expending their energies into their work roles and this shows their propensity toward behavior that helps the social and psychological perspective of the organization. At this point, job satisfaction related to job characteristics is an important predictor of contextual performance (Sen and Dulara, 2017). Similarly, Hackman and Oldham (1975) suggest that job characteristics should be positively related to both satisfaction and performance. According to them, the higher the task variety, identity, and significance, the more meaningful the work is to the employee. In a similar vein, the higher the autonomy, the more the employee feels responsible for the outcome of his or her work. If these job characteristics are higher, they may increase an employee's contextual performance (Hakman and Oldman, 1976). Moreover, poor workplace conditions (physical effort, environmental conditions and hazards) result in decreased employee performance in terms of following organization rules, quality, cooperating with coworkers to solve task problems, concentrating on tasks, creativity, and absenteeism (Kahya, 2007).

Another concept that influences contextual performance by directly increasing job satisfaction is leadership style. According to an empirical study by Wong and Laschinger (2013) on registered nurses, the more the nurses perceived their leaders to be authentic, the more empowered they felt and this directly impacted their job satisfaction and work performance. Authentic leadership can be defined as "a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development" (Luthans and Avolio 2003), and it has been associated with higher levels of trust in management, work engagement, empowerment and higher grades of quality (Wong, Spence-Laschinger and Cummings, 2010). In a similar vein, transformational leaders contribute to contextual performance by influencing followers' attitude and behaviors (Bryman, 1992). Such leaders transform the needs, values and self-concept of followers by aligning their personal goals with the organizational goals. A transformational leader leads to symbolic behaviors through inspirational messages and an alluring vision that appeals to the followers' higher values, and increases a follower's commitment and performance (Bass, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1987). In addition to these results, organizational commitment also cannot be ignored in terms of contextual performance. It is widely believed that committed employees work harder and are likely to put more effort in their job to achieve the organizational objectives. The level of an employee's commitment can determine the employee's performance in the organization as a whole (Aniefiok, Vongsinsirikul and Suwandee, 2018).

Finally, it has been demonstrated that there is a correlation between organizational justice and performance behavior (Kanfer, Sawyer, Early and Lind, 1987; Ball, Trevino and Sims; 1994; Keller and Dansereau 1995; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman and Taylor, 2000; Spector and Fox, 2002; Conlon, Meyer and Nowakowski, 2005). It is reported by Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, et al. (2013) that organizational justice is a major determinant for a range of attitudes and activities in the workplace and has a direct effect on the behaviors associated with organizational commitment and performance. Employees seek fairness in organizational deeds in all dimensions of organizational justice, and when individuals have a healthier perception

of fairness in organization's deeds, they are enthusiastic to do voluntary work outside their job contract. Therefore, managers should promote respectful interaction with subordinates, and assure resource and rewards allocations occur on a fair basis (Saboor, Rehman and Rehman, 2018).

Performance is a very important and necessary concept for organizations in point of effectiveness, efficiency and productivity. Therefore, managers expect their employees to be more involved in their work, to be positively engaged in the pursuit of a common goal and to exert extra effort than what is specified in their job description (Pradhan, Jena and Bhattacharyya, 2017). In fact, it is suggested that this behavior, as described above, is based on a number of conditions related to both individual and organizational factors.

2.3. THE CONCEPT OF WORK EXHAUSTION

2.3.1. The Definition of Work Exhaustion

The physical and psychosocial work environment has an important role in an employee's well-being and performance. Many scholars have attempted to explain psychological well-being of workers concerning the work environment in various theoretical models (Cooper, 1998; Parker and Wall, 1998). The relationship that people have with their work, and the difficulties that can arise when that relationship goes awry, have long been recognized as a significant phenomenon of the modern age (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001). Due to rapid changes in individual, organizational and environmental factors stemming from globalization, the amount of stress experienced by employees has gone up significantly. Stress is considered an important aspect of human life, and its evolutionary origins can be traced to the dawn of mankind. From this perspective, although some stress is normal, excessive stress can interfere with employees' productivity and performance. Besides, stress impacts the physical and emotional health of employees and affects their relationships and family life negatively. The level of stress can even be a determining factor in success or failure on the job. Therefore, work stress is one of the most common work-related health problems. Stress can be defined as a state of anxiety that a person feels due to excessive

pressures and demands put on him (Selye, 1974; Sparks and Cooper, 1999; Cox, Griffiths and Rial-Gonzalez, 2002). Stress develops when certain job demands are high and when certain job resources are limited (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli, 2001).

In the extant literature, job stress, job strain and work exhaustion have been studied within a common point of view and usually each of them has been explained based on Transactional Theory and Cognitive Appraisal Theory of Lazarus (1964). Work exhaustion can be defined as affective states of the individual characterized by depleted emotional resources and lack of energy. In fact, Lazarus' "transactional theory" uses the concept of strain to explain the pain which is experienced by individuals when environmental factors are perceived as overtaxing and exceeding their ability to cope with them (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). According to Lazarus, stress is a two-way process; it involves the production of stressors by the environment, and the response of an individual subjected to these stressors. Lazarus' conception regarding stress led to the theory of cognitive appraisal which is also linked with Perspn-Environment Interaction theory. At this point, Person-Environment interaction is suggested to be a key theory that mat explain the situation of the influence of the compext environmental factors on individual emotional reactions.

According to previous studies, high job demands exhaust employees' mental and physical resources and therefore lead to the depletion of energy (i.e., a state of exhaustion) and to health problems (Bakker, Demerouti and Euwema, 2005). In the general adaptation syndrome model, Selye (1950) argues that if some stressful situations continue for extended periods of time, this can lead to a stage of exhaustion. Stress begins to consume the individiual's physical, emotional, and mental resources to the point where the body no longer has strength to fight stress (Selye, 1950; Rosch, 1998).

Moreover, the relevant studies have indicated that exhaustion is considered to be the key dimension in the burnout process (Lee and Ashforth, 1996; Babakus, Cravens, Johnston and Moncrief, 1999; Cropanzano, Rupp and Byrne, 2003). Pines and Aronson (1988, p. 10) have defined burnout as "a state of physical, emotional and

mental exhaustion caused by long-term involvement in demanding situations." Even burnout concept seems to be similar to work exhaustion or job stress, it is suggested that burnout could be the last point of the continuum which results due to increasing level of stress and exhaustion. In sum, it is assumed that exponential level of stress and strain at work could lead to burnout among individuals.

Turning to the concept of work exhaustion, Moore (2000) defined work exhaustion as "the depletion of emotional and mental energy needed to meet job demands" excluding physical exhaustion (Moore, 2000). This is because physical exhaustion can be based on various reasons such as low energy, chronic fatigue and weakness and experienced in quite a different way compared to emotional and mental exhaustion. It was also posited that work exhaustion is associated with poor physical health (Kim, Ji, and Kao, 2011). Work exhaustion involves "feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of energy" (Innstrand, Epnes and Mykletun, 2002). Further, work exhaustion has been described as the behavioral, physiological, and psychological processes that occur under the influence of stress and disrupt normal functioning related to job or organizational context (Karasek, 1979). As such, work exhaustion refers to a particular form of emotional distress arising in response to a situation involving perceived threat to an individual's well-being at work.

In general, it can be described as "the situation of long term physical, emotional, and mental fatigue resulting from continuously handling burdensome conditions (Moore, 2000; Pines, Aronson and Kafry, 1981; Taştan and Kalafatoğlu, 2016). Researchers suggest that tedium is the result of having too many pressures, conflicts, and demands combined with too few rewards, acknowledgements, and successes (Kanner, Kafry and Pines, 1978). In this situation, most people will develop tedium or exhaustion when negative events exceed positive events and their life imposes much more stress than support. Then, work exhaustion can be defined as the depletion of emotional and mental energy that is necessary to meet the needs of duties in the workplace (Moore, 2000).

Many factors, some related to the work environment and some related to the individual, influence an employee's psychological and mental health. The prior research

has repeatedly shown that work exhaustion or job burnout, is one particularly powerful factor and significantly correlates to the job attitudes of interest (namely, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention) (Moore, 2000). Therefore, the next chapter aims to present work exhaustion in detail. Besides, it will be tried to clarify under which conditions work exhaustion emerges and it will be discussed what the potential negative impact of work exhaustion on individuals might be.

2.3.2. The Literature Review of Work Exhaustion

Work exhaustion that is mental or emotional depletion is unwanted situation in organization because of including a sense of reduced accomplishment and loss of personal identity. To explain the concept of work exhaustion more deeply, Job Demands and Resources (JD-R) Model (Demerouti et al., 2001) suggests that employee health and well-being result from a balance between positive (resources) and negative (demands) job characteristics. In general, job demands are aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs such as work overload, conflicts with others, and future job insecurity. These consume energy at work. Conversely, job resources , called the 'good things', are the aspects of the job that may be functional in achieving work goals, to reduce job demands, or to encourage personal growth and development. Support from others, job control and performance feedback are examples of job resources. For instance, performance feedback may enhance organizational learning, organizational support helps to achieve work goals, or job control might reduce job demands (Schaufeli, 2017). Based on these definitions, work exhaustion results from an imbalance between job resources and job demands. High job demands and poor job resources contribute to work exhaustion because, as job demands increase and are not compensated by job resources, employees must exert additional effort to achieve the work goals and to prevent decreasing performance (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). In such a case, employee's energy is progressively drained. This situation may end up with a state of mental exhaustion. Inevitably, mental exhaustion will cause negative outcomes for both employee and organization (Bakker, Dollard, Boyd and Gillespie, 2010).

In addition to the JD-R Model, Karasek explains in the Job Strain Model that distinct job situations can result from interactions between various job demands and job control, resulting in more or less stress (Karasek 1979). According to him, if both control and demand are high, the job is active and job results are also like that; workers are committed; they develop new behaviors and enjoy the intellectual challenge and responsibility. If control is high and demands are low, the job is experienced as "low strained." However, when control is low and demands are high, the outcome is a high-stress job (Gils and Bogaerde, 2010). On the other hand, emotional exhaustion, a concept of stress-related burnout, distances employees from their work as a way of overcoming cognitive and emotional workloads (Maslach et al., 2001). While employees feel emotionally exhausted, they isolate themselves from others. Afterwards, employees lose their motivation to make an effort to achieve goals (Leiter and Maslach, 1988). Here, in order to explain emotional exhaustion more deeply, psychological capital dimensions are an important resource because this theory has a direct relationship with desired and measurable work attitudes, behaviors and performance criteria (Luthans 2002a, b). In this theory, the four dimensions of psychological capital are hope, efficacy, resilience, optimism (Luthans 2002b). However, the important point here is that these resources are finite and are expended when faced with excessive demands in the workplace. Therefore, each employee struggles to obtain, retain, foster and protect their finite valued psychological resources. Otherwise, lack of these resources will lead to the depletion of emotional and mental energy (Kim, Lee, Yun and Im, 2015). At this point, another theory helps to clarify why psychological resources are important for employees. Conservation Resources Theory (COR) claims that resource gain and the accompanying positive emotions become increasingly important in the face of loss (Billings, Folkman, Acree, and Moskowitz, 2000). In case of overweight resource loss and underweight resource gain or central or key resources being under threat, stress occurs. Since, while employees lose an important proportion of their resources, they will have more limited resource to struggle with stress, they will become more vulnerable. Work exhaustion is one such stress outcome (Torun, 1997; Carlson, Dalenberg and McDade-Montez, 2012).

Similarly, innate psychological needs are rather valuable motivation sources. Their unfulfilment leads to decreased motivation or energy drain. According to Self-Determination Theory, people need to feel competence, relatedness and autonomy in order to achieve psychological growth. Generally, competence refers to people's need to gain mastery of tasks and learn different skills, while relatedness refers to people's need to experience a sense of belonging and attachment to other people. Finally, autonomy means that people need to feel in control of their own behaviors and goals (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

Subsequently, work exhaustion is an indicator of psychosocial risks and psychological health disorders that result from mental and emotional exhaustion. At the individual level, mental exhaustion leads to diminishing self-esteem, depression, irascibleness, incompetence, and apprehension (Jackson and Maslach, 1982). Also, mental exhaustion or fatigue has been found to predict an increased risk of error in the workplace. Mental exhaustion can manifest subjectively, behaviorally, and physiologically. For instance, subjectively, an employee can experience increased feelings of tiredness, lack of energy, decreased motivation and alertness. Behaviorally, mental exhaustion leads to a decline in performance on a cognitive task. Finally, alterations in brain activity are a physiological manifestation of mental fatigue. However, changes in all three of these areas do not simultaneously have to be present for the presence of mental exhaustion (Cutsem, Marcora, Pauw, Bailey, Meeusen and Roelands, 2017). At the individual level, these exhaustion symptoms can be observed as forgetfulness, feelings of failure, family conflicts, low concentration, and sudden angry outbursts, crying spells, desire for being alone, resentment and thinking of lack of appreciation. At the organizational level, many job specific exhaustion symptoms can be realized in the form of theft trends, alienation from work, deterioration in the quality of service provided to people, incorrect interventions and increase in the number of service complaints, paperwork related frauds, low job performance, being sarcastic and accusatory towards coworkers, job dissatisfaction, intention for finding a new job, reduction in organizational commitment, increase in absenteeism and late arrivals and transfers to other business areas (Freudenberger and Richelson, 1981, Perlman and

Hartman, 1982, Leiter and Maslach, 1988, Potter, 1998; Bolat, 2011a; Üçok and Torun, 2014).

As for emotional exhaustion, it leads to fatigue, lack of energy, feeling emotionally worn and other similar symptoms that would be observed in employees. Employees who feel emotional work exhaustion do not carry a sense of responsibility for the service which they provide to people and do not try as hard as before. Because employees become loaded with tension and a sense of frustration, going to the job the next day becomes a major source of concern for them (Leiter and Maslach, 1988, Friesen and Sarros, 1989, Singh, Goolsby and Rhoads, 1994; Maslach et al., 2001, Sweeney and Summers, 2002). As mentioned above, emotional exhaustion is the main dimension of burnout and the most obvious manifestation of the syndrome. Emotional exhaustion is the trigger of depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment developing sequentially thereafter (Bolat, Bolat and Yüksel, 2011; Shih, Jiang, Klein and Wang, 2013). In these circumstances, employees who are emotionally exhausted are more likely to engage in behavior that is counterproductive toward the organization (Lebrón, Tabak, Shkoler and Rabenu, 2018).

There are many factors affecting work exhaustion, which can be categorized under two dimensions: individual and organizational. Individual reasons may result from the characteristics and demographical conditions of individuals. In the research, it has been said that the extroversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism dimensions of the five factor personality theory were the most common factors relating to exhaustion and the reasons for this condition (Schaufeli, 1996). According to the study of Anderson and Iwanicki (1984), job burnout among younger employees is more widespread and emotional exhaustion and cynicism is rare among elderly employees. Additionally, Self-Determination Theory states that as intrinsic motivation increases, emotional exhaustion decreases (Karatepe and Tekinkuş, 2006). As seen in paragraphs above, autonomy, competence, and relatedness with organization foster employees' motivation and engagement for activities, especially about creativity (Aydın, 2017). Otherwise, autonomy, competence, and relatedness cannot be provided, and these are negatively

associated with need satisfaction, positively with exhaustion (Broeck, Vansteenkiste and Witte, 2008).

At the organizational level, management style, inflexible job rules and working hours, poor feedback mechanisms, less autonomy, lack of job security, less task enrichment, lack of flexibility, formalization, highly centralized decision making processes, few opportunities for promotion can lead to work exhaustion because they can cause stress (Gaines and Jermier, 1983; World Health Organization, 1998; Bolat, et al., 2011). For instance, researchers have found a relationship between excessive work-loads and high levels of stress among individuals. Similarly, lack of clear and inconsistent information can result in distress (Beheshtifar and Omidvar, 2013). Additionally, an employee's insufficient trust level, lack of adequate information, and ambiguity about how resources need to be allocated are sources of stress and they lead to exhaustion (Bolat, 2011b). Besides, all of these are associated with organizational justice. To illustrate, in the study of Jin, Zhang and Wang (2015), distributive justice has a significant correlation with emotional exhaustion. Similarly, procedural justice has a significant correlation with emotional exhaustion. Complaint mechanisms as a component of procedural justice can also lead to emotional exhaustion. Generally, having to confront unfairness has a negative effect on employee well-being. Unfair outcomes, procedures, and interpersonal transactions decrease an individual's self-esteem and perception of trust and thus, consume emotional resources by discharging their energy (Cropanzano, Goldman and Folger, 2005; Beheshtifar and Omidvar, 2013). Additionally, research has revealed the importance of social support in coping with job stress and preventing emotional exhaustion because social support among employees enhances health and well-being by decreasing the intensity of the experience of stress (Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro 1990; Leiter and Shaufeli, 1996). Finally, Lee and Ashforth (1993) and Bekker, Croon and Bressers (2005) have found that job satisfaction was a significant negative antecedent of emotional exhaustion.

Based on the literature highlighting the negative effects of work exhaustion on individuals and organizations, work exhaustion has been researched in more detail and

further information is shared regarding its relations with narcissistic leaders in the next section of the study.

2.4. THE CONCEPT OF WORKPLACE ENVY

2.4.1. The Definition of Envy

Human beings are the most complex entities on the face of the earth; undoubtedly, what makes them so complex is their emotions, feelings and cognitions. All these play a role in determining the life conditions of humans because different emotions, feelings and cognitions are what trigger behaviors (Hussain, Shafi, Saeed, Abbas, Awan, Nadeem and Rahman, 2017). Generally, emotions are intense feelings that are directed at someone or something and they lead to reactions to a person (seeing a friend at work may make you feel glad) or event (dealing with a rude client may make you feel angry). The emotions that come about as a result of a specific event are very brief in duration (seconds or minutes) and specific and numerous in natures (many specific emotions such as anger, fear, sadness, happiness, disgust, surprise). Usually, they have distinct facial expressions and are action-oriented in nature (Robbins and Judge; 2005; as cited in Erdem, 2015, p. 102). Here, envy is one of those emotions that lead to certain behavioral outcomes. Envy refers to a painful emotion. Many philosophers thought on the nature of envy, and Immanuel Kant described it as the "tendency to perceive with displeasure the good of others." (Immanuel Kant). Similarly, Aristotle, Aquinas, Adam Smith, Schopenhauer and Nietzsche thought along similar lines with Kant on envy. They claimed that envy is a destructive and diseased state of mind that harms not only the envier, but those whom the envy is directed towards, and society as a whole. Moreover, envy is an insidious emotion because it is difficult to admit even to oneself (Epstein, 2003). It is also not easy for individuals to manage this denied emotion because it is socially unacceptable. Therefore, this discomforting emotion leads to attempts of concealment and denial (Menon and Thompson, 2010). In fact, it is an emotion based on social comparison with others and typically, comes from a feeling of deprivation on the part of the person. The individual asks for a material or spiritual favor that someone else enjoys (Miceli and Castelfranchi, 2007; Smith and Kim, 2007). In addition, the psychoanalytic perspective, which was the first to develop

a psychological theory of envy, maintains that envy includes angry feeling of frustrated longing, and this emotion can lead to the impulse to take the desired object away or to spoil it (Klein, 1957). This natural, human emotion is commonly experienced (Apthorpe, Bernard, Bock, Brogger, Brown and Freeman, 1972).

In the last decade, together with the psychoanalytic perspective, researchers' interest in study of envy has increased. Multiple definitions of envy have been proposed and the potential causes and consequences of the concept have been explored by various research fields and in different approaches that refer to the cognitions, motives, and emotional reactions of the individual experiencing envy and that trigger the envious response.

The next chapter will offer an overview of envy based on these different approaches. In addition, contextual components of envy will be presented in detail. Besides, it will be tried to clarify under which conditions envy emerges. Finally, it will be discussed what the potential negative impact of envy on individuals might be.

2.4.2. The Literature Review of Workplace Envy

In recent examinations of the dynamics of envy, researchers have come up with various points concerning the relationship between envy and individual differences. According to some researchers, envy stems from work outcomes and group effectiveness, while for others, it arises due to social comparison or jealousy (Vecchio, 1997; Vecchio, 2000; Duffy and Shaw, 2000; Schaubroeck and Lam, 2004; Smith and Kim, 2007). Based on this research, the experience of envy can be divided into three categories: situational, dispositional and lastly, specific/episodic. First, situational envy refers to the envy of others in an environment where one compares oneself with multiple comparators. Second, dispositional envy refers to a one's general tendency to be envious of others in the environment. Third, in specific or episodic envy, one feels envious towards a specific individual as referent (Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007; Cohen-Charash, 2009; Asraf and Seljelid, 2016). In this study, all these perspectives will be used in order to entirely discuss one's feeling of envy.

As previously mentioned, envy is an emotion arising when people desire possessions, attributes, or attainments that another person is perceived to possess (Salovey and Rodin, 1984; Parrott and Smith, 1993; Duffy and Shaw, 2000). Generally, this emotion is a hostile or negative feeling toward someone who is better, and is directed toward superiors (Schoeck 1970; Meltzer and Mussolf, 2002). Fundamentally, envy is an emotion which leads to resentment toward someone who has some desirable object or quality that one does not have and cannot get. Furthermore, it comes along with feelings of inferiority and resentment. In contrast to admiration, envy is likely to be provoked by any quality or achievement such as wealth, status, power, fame, success, talent, good health, good grades, good looks, and popularity (Clanton, 2006).

Even though the words 'jealousy' and 'envy' are employed in common usage to mean the same concept, these are in fact separate and distinct emotions, as many researchers have suggested. They are especially confused with each other in ordinary speech because it is widely accepted that jealousy and envy are the same emotion. For instance, in ordinary American English usage, it is seen that the word jealousy refers to both emotions (Parrott and Smith 1993). In fact, they are emotions that arise as a result of quite different situations such as the following: (i) jealousy can be reaction in order to protect against a perceived threat to a valuable relationship or to its quality. These protective attitudes may comprise thoughts, feelings, or actions. Typically, an aim of a jealous person is to protect a valued relationship (especially marriage) against a perceived threat (especially adultery), (ii) sometimes, jealousy can be seen in many types of relationship such as Oedipal triangle, sibling rivalry, and jealousy of nonsexual friendships. One of these types is adult jealousy which is based on romantic relationships and marriage. Adult jealousy arises when there is thought to exist a real or imagined third party, (iii) jealousy comes along with mistrust, rage, and suffering as well as fear of loss.

Jealousy is primarily a self-affliction since it is an effort to keep what one has. The person has already lost or is afraid of losing a valuable thing to another person. There is a third party in an important relationship (Foster, Apthorpe, Bernard, Rock, Brogger, Brown, et al., 1972; Alicke 2008). Conversely, envy occurs in when there is a

feeling of lack. While the person desires what another person has, such as a superior quality, achievement, or possession, sometimes, he or she may also wish that the other did not have these (Parrott 1991; Parrott and Smith, 1993). Indeed, according to Aristotle, envy is a pain caused by the good fortune of others.

Similarly, strong emotions like envy have a powerful effect on employees in the contemporary workplace (Vecchio, 2000; Patient, Thomas, and Maitlis, 2003) since most people spend a very large part of their lives at work. Thus, there is a frequent interaction among employees and high levels of interdependence with each other beyond work or task boundaries (Horn and Horn 1982; Frost, Dutton, Worline and Wilson, 2000). In an organization, each employee has his or her own personality characteristics, emotions, norms, and values. While positive emotions among employees play an important role in organizational outcome such as higher motivation, better performance, organizational citizenship, organizational trust, and loyalty (Denison, 1996), negative ones lead to fear, hatred, grudge, envy, stress, burnout, mobbing, job leaving, etc. Envy, which is one of the negative feelings in an organizational setting, creates work related outcomes in the organizational attitudes and behaviors of employees both theoretically and empirically. Employee envy is a mental, sensual, and behavioral pattern that is the result of lacking self-esteem or disappointing social comparisons in the workplace (Vecchio, 1995; Tesser, 1998). In the workplace, employees compare benefits and salaries via formal and informal mechanisms. If there are differences between one and others, the employee feels envy towards colleagues (Erdil and Muceldili, 2014). Indeed, while employees are physically and mentally close to each other, social comparisons and envy will be inevitable.

Envy may be clarified by several theories. The supporting theory for envy is Festinger's Social Comparison Theory. Leon Festinger, a social psychologist, published his article "A Theory of Social Comparison Processes" in the Journal of Human Relations in 1954. He asserts that each person naturally experiences social influence processes and some kind of competitive behavior. In the meantime, each person has a drive to evaluate his or her opinions and abilities (self-evaluation) by comparing with other persons around them. That is, individuals try to assess their social and personal

value based on how they stack up against others. Here, the direction of comparison is rather important; it can be either upward or downward. Festinger's theory states that downward comparison happens when he compares himself with others who are worse than him, while upward comparison happens when the person compares himself with others who are better than him. It is such upward comparisons in particular that often lead to the emotional experience of envy. There is a gap between oneself and the other. The person desires to reduce this gap by narrowing it since he or she has a desire to equal, imitate or surpass the excellence attained by the other person (McGrath, 2011). This can be achieved by moving oneself up to the level of the other, or by pulling the other down to one's own position. Otherwise, this conflict can turn into envy because of a feeling of lack or dissatisfaction. An unsuccessful upward social comparison which leads to destructive intrapersonal emotions decreases well-being and is a threat to self-esteem and self-worth (Wheeler and Miyake, 1992; Suls, Martin and Wheeler, 2002). Ultimately, one of the destructive intrapersonal emotions can be envy (White and etc., 2006).

Further, envy can be explained by Affect Events Theory (AET). AET explains how emotions have an effect on employees' behavior. AET demonstrates that employees react emotionally to things that happen to them at work and that this reaction influences their job performance and satisfaction (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996; Glomb, Steel and Arvey, 2002). Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) suggest that work events trigger cognitive assessments, which then influence the intensity of the affective reaction to the event. For this reason, the events in the workplace lead to positive and negative influences on employees. The emotional experiences of employees in past or the recent past determine their organizational behaviors in the present. Besides, Lazarus (1966) argues in "The Approach of Cognitive Assessment" that AET involves emotional reactions in the workplace that will affect attitudes and behaviors (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996; Basch and Fisher, 2000). For instance, if the perception of an employee's managerial support is less than a colleague's, the employee's emotions or moods will be shaped in this context. In summary, AET offers two important messages. Firstly, emotions provide valuable insights into understanding employee behavior. The AET model demonstrates how workplace hassles and uplifts have an impact on

employee performance and satisfaction. Secondly, employees' emotions and the events that cause them shouldn't be ignored because they accumulate even minor ones. Then, according to this theory, envy, which is a destructive emotion, has an important role for an employee's psychological wellbeing at work.

One of the supporting theories for envy is to Adam's Equity Theory (1963). Emphasizing employee motivation, the theory has basically two main principles. Firstly, there needs to be a balance between work inputs (effort) and work outputs (reward). Secondly, the employee expects a fair relationship between inputs (effort) and work outputs (reward) in comparison to colleagues (Huseman and et al., 1987). In this exchange relationship, if the employee perceives that his outcomes are less as compared to his inputs in relation to other colleagues, the Underpaid Equity situation occurs and the employee perceives to be treated unfairly in the organization (Adams and Freedman, 1976). In turn, the feeling of unfairness can lead to the emotion of resentment (Smith, Parrott, Ozer and Moniz, 1994). It is not surprising that envy occurs in situations where there is a feeling of lack as a result of comparison to others.

Conservation of Resources Theory, propounded by Hobfoll (1989), is also important in understanding the concept of envy. Employees want to protect themselves against the loss of personal resources to the extent that they experience frustration during the execution of their daily job tasks (Hobfoll, 1989; Nyamathi, Stein, and Swanson, 2000; Dudenhöffer and Dormann, 2015). Employees accumulate personal (e.g. self-esteem and optimize), material (e.g. money) and condition (e.g. status) resources and then, they can apply these resources in order to accommodate, withstand, or overcome threats. As employees improve and secure their social conditions such as status or personal resources such as self-esteem and protect them, they believe that they have a successful work life (Yürür, 2011). However, in time, stressful or traumatic events might consume these resources. In this case, employees may seek to protect themselves against feelings of reduced self-worth and self-esteem by looking for external causes for their sense of inferiority (Hobfoll, 1989; Mayo and Mallin, 2010). In particular, an envious person desires the personal, material or condition resources of another person, but, if he cannot have them, envy may come along with hostility,

inferiority, resentment, and longing (Parrott and Smith, 1993). Herein, envious person has to cope with an inferiority complex, lowered self-worth and lowered self-esteem (Salovey, 1991). For this reason, the changes in resources are more likely to affect emotions (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, and Jackson, 2003). Therefore, a loss of resources can increase or trigger employee's envy towards a co-worker.

In summary, there are many reasons why an employee might envy another employee such as competing for scarce resources, desiring important projects, wishing employee had the personal characteristics or skills of another that employee may lack, or losing a promotion to someone else (Martini, Duffy, Shaw and Schaubroeck, 2008; Menon and Thompson, 2010; Veiga, Baldridge and Markoczy, 2014).

So far, envy has been explained as a maladaptive, dark or hostile emotion but conceptually, envy has two types of origin: "Benign" and "Malicious". Similarly, Gershman has also categorized it as competitive and destructive (Eslami and Arshadi, 2016). While envy in the workplace has been primarily thought to lead to negative organizational outcomes and destructive workplace behaviors according to researchers who accept the psychological perspective, those who accept the social comparison perspective have claimed that envy in the form of an admiration emotion can lead to more positive, brighter, constructive and productive workplace behaviors. Yet, ideas about two types of envy differ in relevant aspects. Benign envy is free of ill will (Smith and Kim, 2007). Employees who experience benign envy show some positive feelings and respect others' achievements and are willing to learn (Shu and Lazatkhan, 2017).

Especially psychological theorists do not accept that the distinction between types of envy is based upon the presence or absence of hostility. According to them, envy is already a component of hostility and so, it cannot be thought of without hostility (Rawls, 1971; Foster et al., 1972; Neu, 1980, Smith and Kim, 2007). Even if envy without hostility sees another person's superiority with pleasure and admiration, despite this lack of hostility, benign or competitive envy also still contains the pain or frustration caused by another's superiority (Van de Ven et al., 2009).

On the other hand, social comparison theorists have discussed the subject in terms of motivation. Envy in the workplace acts in two ways: "moving-up" and "pulling-down" motivation. Benign or competitive envy refers to improving one's own position. An envious employee works harder to achieve his goal of obtaining what others have and thus, it is expected that his work motivation will improve and he will be willing to learn from envied targets (Van de Ven et al., 2009). That is, benign or competitive envy leads to a "moving-up" motivation. Conversely, malicious envy leads to a "pulling-down" motivation because of willingness to harm the envied person. An envious employee is displeased due to the success or good will of theenvied person. The employee is concerned with the other's failure rather than his own success (Tai et al., 2012; Wobker, 2015).

According to Spielman's theory (1971), envy comprises four affect states, which include benign and malicious emotions. The first affect state of envy is 'emulation' and a feeling of admiration. Here, the employee desires to equal, imitate or surpass the excellence attained by other employee/s (Spielman, 1971). It can refer to benign envy with this aspect. The second affect state is a 'narcissistic wound' which is expressed in varying degrees of intensity, dominated by feelings of inferiority, injured self-esteem, disappointment and humiliation. It is considered to be the most consistent and crucial aspect of envy (Spielman, 1971). It has the potential to turn into malicious envy if it is not controlled. The third is 'a longing for the desired possession'. It provides moving-up or pulling-down motivation to the employee according to his personality (Spielman, 1971). The fourth affect is the most variable 'ingredient' in envy because it contains anger. It can be said that this is a completely malicious type of envy. Anger progressively transforms into discontent, ill will, spite, hatred, malevolence or a wish to harm towards co-workers (Spielman, 1971).

In sum, envy might be classified according to two theoretical perspectives. The social comparison perspective asserts that envy can be a form of benign emotion, in which the envied person is admired or emulated. But, the psychological perspective claims that envy is a more maladaptive, hostile and dark emotion and it can be associated with a desire to spoil and harm others who are better than oneself.

Reviewing the relevant interdisciplinary literature, it is seen that there are a number of behavioral responses to envy. The most common outward expression of envy is gossip (Foster 1972). Sometimes, an employee might tend to gossip in order to hurt those whose popularity, talents, or superiority they envy. By pulling the other down to one's own position with gossip, the employee wants to equalize himself with the other and so, the employee believes to be protecting his self-esteem or self-worth. Furthermore, it is possible that an envious employee is often distressed by this unpleasant emotion and often feels ashamed of it. Employees might even avoid too much success and hide their good fortune due to a fear of being envied (Cohen-Charash, 2009). This attitude can hurt innovation when good ideas are not shared for personal reasons (Menon, 2010) Moreover, although competition can be a great motivator, if envy exists in a workplace, it can destroy competitive work climate because of declining employee engagement and productivity (Menon and Thompson, 2010). An envious employee has decreased personal interaction with the envied employee (Mishira, 2009). According to a sample case of Menon and Thompson (2010), in one investment bank, a senior banker was so envious of a colleague's position and power that, instead of talking to the colleague directly, he communicated through a go-between (Menon and Thompson, 2010). In addition, envy can destroy teamwork in an organization. The envious employee may work to sabotage the career of his co-worker by withholding information and giving conflicting direction due to a desire to be superior in the team. Here, the leader's behavior and attitude are rather important. Firstly, the leader should include in the team employees with teamworking skills. Secondly, the leader should allocate them authority equally and distribute projects or resources based on their expertise, skills or accomplishments. Otherwise, other employees feel like undervalued themselves and their morale will fall (Times, 2012). There are both direct and indirect costs resulting from envious behaviors. The direct costs are the time and energy expended by the resentful employees. Also, the indirect costs are the unpleasant consequences because of the actions resulting from the emotions. However, it can be said that the most important indirect cost is the loss of employee performance. Sometimes, the employee can show extra role behaviors even if it is not included in formal job description. Yet, if employee is feeling resentment due to envy, his citizenship behavior might diminish (Dogan and Vecchio, 2001).

2.5. THE CONCEPT OF TOXIC ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

2.5.1. The Definition of Toxic Organizational Climate

Recent years have seen quite an increase in reports of dysfunctional misbehavior in organizations. In addition, such workplace misbehavior may be destructive to the organization and a demotivational source for the workers. Substantially, these dysfunctional actions may in fact be the result of systemic organizational powers (Appelbaum and Girard, 2007) such as contextual, organizational, personal and socio-economic factors operating over a prolonged period of time. There has been a noticeable corruption in human behaviors and mutual relationships within the workplaces. The perspective of observing destructive and hostile behaviors within organization have been enriched with the postmodern readings of organizational behavior and with the implications of the discourse of the 21st century organizations which are supposed to create a variety of negative attitudes and counterproductive behaviors (Taştan, 2017).

Generally, destructive work behaviors give information about the problems in the workplace and it shows that there is a perception of hostile work environment in an organization. While examining management, leadership, work conditions, interpersonal relations, negative emotions, harmful behaviors, and their effects upon organizations and employees, this concern has led to the emergence of a new field of study: toxicity. The concept of toxicity is a metaphoric expression which has been borrowed from biological sciences in order to represent various deviant and abusive behaviors in organizations. In fact, toxicity means biological damage caused by a chemical or physical agent and refers to a toxic substance ingested by inhalation (Kırbaş, 2013). Organizationally, toxicity is a regular occurrence and an occupational hazard. According to Frost (2003), toxicity is an emotional pain that occurs in the workplace. Stark (2003) also described as a ''pain that strips people of their self-esteem and that disconnects them from their work'' in the workplace. It is seen that the common concept for two researchers is "pain" when discussing toxicity. Frost points out that employees cannot entirely leave their personal lives behind when they enter the workplace. A range of problems, such as health issues, bereavement, or family

48

problems may be carried along as emotional baggage. Thus, once an employee comes into the workplace, s/he is inescapably subjected to another set of toxins. From the death of a co-worker to abusive managers, unreasonable company policies, disruptive co-workers or clients, or poorly managed change, the stress of a re-organization, pain is always there (Runnals and Wong, 2004).

According to Kusy and Holloway's approach (2009), toxic behaviors are the behavioral patterns that undermine organizational productivity and work life effectiveness. By examining a wide variety of factors such as control freaks, narcissists, manipulators, bullies, poisonous individuals, humiliators, toxic managers, etc., they have conceptualized toxicity. Displaying toxic behaviors may be a personal tendency. Toxic individuals experience a self-centered disconnection with humanity and then break empathic ties with other individuals (Taştan, 2017).

However, toxicity is a personal and perceptual concept. Sometimes, the perception of toxicity varies depending on the colleague, manager, organization itself or a new situation. The concept of toxicity can be temporary or differ from employee to employee. Within this framework, toxic organizational climate, resulting from internal or interpersonal relationships, can be indicated as an important concept in understanding the employee, team and organization itself. In this perspective, toxic organizational climate will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. Actually, it should be noted that this study utilized Taştan's (2017) conceptualization of Toxic Workplace Environment. Since there isn't any study in the extant literature regarding Toxic Climate, that conceptualization has been adopted for the concept of Toxic Climate. Moreover, it should be stated that work environment is such a condition that represents the climate factors which are composed of perceived psychological environment factors. Therefore, it is found meaningful to adopt Toxic Climate term which also shows the Toxic Workplace Environment

In the following section, the conditions of toxic organizational climate will be clarified and the potential negative impacts of toxic organizational climate on individuals and organizations will be examined.

2.5.2. The Literature Review of Toxic Organizational Climate

Toxicity is a fact of life in all organizations; however, this does not mean that all organizations are toxic. Generally, according to the literature, toxic organizations are largely ineffective as well as destructive to their employees (Dobrian, 1997; Bacal, 2000). Fundamentally, toxicity may sometimes stem from co-workers, managers, and social-structural factors, or sometimes from the work environment. As mentioned above, the perception of toxicity may be based on an organizational atmosphere that guides and affects not only ideas and feelings but also employees' behaviors (Bock et al, 2005). According to Taguiri and Litwin (1968), climate is "the relatively enduring quality of the total environment that (i) is experienced by its members, (ii) influences their behavior, and (iii) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the organization". Reichers and Schneider (1990) emphasize that "organizational climate pertains to the shared perceptions of the way things are around here rather than being shared judgments about the way things should be". At this point, Lewin's Field Theory (1936) helps to clarify employees' motivational and emotional responses to environment. Due to this theory, Lewin illuminates how psychological environment affects individual behavior on the basis of life-space. He asserts that the individual's life-space depends on his psychological force and includes the person; his drives, tensions, thoughts and his environment, which consists of perceived objects and events. Hence the environments employees find themselves in can rapidly influence their actions. In other words, the environment they are faced with can influence every aspect of their work either positively or negatively. According to James, Choi, Ko, McNeil, Minton, et al. (2008), organizational climate consists of several important dimensions: organizational structure, processes, relationships, administration, employee behavior, growth opportunities and other factors that are part of an organization. These factors also shape how employees interpret their work environment. Based on these interpretations, common perceptions form among the employees in the organization. However, if employees perceive the environment as not good, it might negatively affect them, and eventually these are reflected in their emotions, thoughts and behaviors (Ostroff, et al., 2003). Therefore, based on this information, toxicity can be a perceived organizational climate type for employees.

50

The first indicators of a toxic climate when sketched are that these organizations depend on disasters to make necessary changes. Just as their objectives, their solutions are usually managed in the short-term (Delbecq and Friedlander, 1995; Coccia, 1998; Johnson and Indvik, 2001; Appelbaum and Girard, 2007). In this context, toxic organizations have the following characteristics which differ in terms of function and results:

- inability to achieve operation goals and commitments;

- problem-solving processes that are driven by fear and rarely yield good decisions;

- poor internal communication;

- huge amounts of waste that result from poor decision, and lots of rework; and

- interpersonal relationships driven by manipulative and self-centered agendas (Bacal, 2000).

In the extant literature, it has been found several taxonomies and conceptualizations in order to understand what types of behaviors and attitudes the toxic workplace environment includes. In general, the common destructive effect of toxic workplace environment is on organizational productivity and work life effectiveness. Regardless of how toxicity is defined, its impact is negative (Kusy and Holloway, 2009; Taştan, 2017).

2.5.2.1. Toxic Behaviors of Co-Workers

First, in the organization, toxic behaviors may be caused by employees. Humiliation, gossiping, negative acts, mobbing, aggression, incivility among employees can be counted as types of toxic behaviors arising from co-workers (Anderson, 2013) as well as a low trust environment, negative emotional contagion, high stress, and incivility (Gilbert, Ruffino, Ivancevich and Konopaske, 2012). Humiliation has a significant impact on the working lives of many people. In general, humiliation can be defined as an action causing dishonor, embarrassment, or shame to a person. This action hurts a person very deeply, and it affects a person mentally (Fisk, 2001). In fact,

humiliation involves an event that demonstrates unequal power in a relationship where one is in the inferior position and unjustly diminished. There are many forms of humiliation. Some of them may be listed as overlooking someone, ignoring them, giving them the silent treatment, treating them as invisible, or making them wait unnecessarily, rejecting someone, holding them distant, abandoned, or isolated, manipulating recognition, denying someone basic social amenities, needs, or human dignity, manipulating people or treating them like objects (it) or animals, rather than as a person (thou), domination, control, abandonment, threats or abuse including: verbal (E.g. name calling), physical, psychological, or sexual (Hartling, 1995). According to the literature, humiliation is related to low self-esteem, social isolation, underachievement, delinquency, abuse, discrimination, depression, learned helplessness, social disruption, torture, and even death (Baumeister, Smart and Boden, 1996). In addition, bullying in the workplace causes humiliation and it becomes very tough to overcome in a work atmosphere. An employee gets humiliated when someone hurts his/her ego (Thomas, Connor, Lawrence, Hafekost, Zubrick, et al., 2017). For this reason, humiliation has been counted among the toxic environment factors due to its negative effects.

Gossiping is indicated as another toxic factor within organizations. This undesirable behavior in organizations is frequently used with negative connotations, referring to the spreading of malicious information, unreliably sourced and unchecked anecdotes and misinformation. The other negative sides of gossip are its being trivial, invasive, and having a commonly harmful intention (Bergmann and Bednarz, 1993; Rosnow and Foster, 2005; Crnkovic and Anokhina, 2008). First, talking about someone negatively when they are not present could be considered a violation of privacy norms (Bok, 1983). Second, gossip includes attempting to interfere with the target's reputation for the gossiper's own ends. However, there may be adverse effects of gossip-type behavior on the gossiper's self-esteem as well, since gossiping is socially undesirable. Thus, sharing information about others may lead the gossiper to feel disliked, reducing self-esteem (Cole, 2013). Gossip causes disintegration among employees, leads to the destruction of team spirit and where there is no team spirit, organizational efficiency cannot be mentioned (Erol and Akyüz, 2015). Due to gossip, conflicts between

employees and negative attitudes towards each other can be expected. In organizations where there is no strong communication, a lack of dialogue due to gossip may adversely affect the functioning of the organization, occupational safety and organizational health (Artaç, 2017). Gossiping may result in employees being exposed to mobbing, and the organization itself to have a tarnished image. Therefore, it leads to a destructive organizational climate and can be counted as one of the toxic organizational factors within an organization.

Workplace bullying consists of persistent exposure to interpersonal aggression and mistreatment from colleagues, superiors or subordinates. In the general atmosphere, it leads to devastating effects on both targets and organizations (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper, 2003; Rayner and Keashly, 2005). According to Leymann (1996), these negative behaviors that an employee is exposed to at work primarily damage his psychological nature because of the effect of humiliating, intimidating, frightening or punishing the target (Leymann 1996). As well as the concept of bullying in the workplace, mobbing is also known as emotional abuse, psychological terror or another type of bullying in the workplace. Although there are many definitions in the literature, mobbing means hostile and unethical communication being directed in a systematic way by one or a number of people mainly toward one individual (Duffy and Sperry, 2012). Mobbing includes minor social conflicts such as socially isolating a person, rumors, or giving somebody a bad name, but also major conflicts like giving somebody no work, or work below or above his or her qualification, threats to kick somebody out of the firm, or threats of physical violence (Zapf, Knorz and Kulla, 1996). Furthermore, these negative acts will trigger aggressive behavior on the part of the employee. Similar to other undesirable negative behavior, workplace aggression is an action or incident that may psychologically harm another person, but aggression can also be physical in some cases. Undoubtedly, this action creates a risk to health and safety. To illustrate, if employees have been psychologically affected as a result of aggression in the workplace, changes in their workplace behavior may be observed, such as increased absenteeism from work, increased tardiness, increased sick leave, impaired concentration or ability to make decisions which increases the risk of injury, reluctance to return to workplace area where the event occurred. In addition, because of workplace

aggression, employees may also experience some unwanted signs and symptoms within emotional (E.g. angry outbursts, envy towards others, being critical of oneself and others), cognitive (E.g. over-sensitivity to criticism, mental confusion), behavioral (E.g. aggressive driving, nervous laughter, having accidents) and physical contexts (E.g. headaches, proneness to accidents).

Although the research on negative behaviors in the workplace is mostly focused on more obvious and active forms of mistreatment like violence, aggression, bullying, and harassment (E.g., O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin and Glew, 1996; Sperry, 1998; Neuman and Baron, 1998; Liefooghe and Davey, 2001; LeBlanc and Kelloway, 2002; O"Leary-Kelly, Griffin, and Spry, 2009; Nielsen, Matthiesen, and Einarsen , 2010), it also includes uncivil behaviors, which is ambiguous and low intensity deviant behavior (Taştan, 2014). According to Kane and Montgomery's definition (1998), incivility is "treatment that is discourteous, rude, impatient, or otherwise showing a lack of respect or consideration for other's dignity" (Kane and Montgomery, 1998). Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous without regard for others and violate organizational norms during social interactions. That is, workplace incivility can be explained as impolite behaviors and disregard for others in the workplace (Cortina, Magley, Williams and Langhout, 2011). These behaviors, which intend to harm the target, increase withdrawal, absenteeism, negative emotions (Barling, Rogers and Kelloway, 2001; Cortina, Magley, Williams and Langhout, 2001; ; Porath and Pearson, 2005; Lim, Cortina and Magley, 2008; Miner, Settles and Pratt-Hyatt, 2012; Kanten, 2014, and etc.), and aggression (Taştan, 2014), and they decrease psychological and physical health, job satisfaction, job performance, engagement, commitment, and quality of work (Hanisch and Hulin, 1990, 1991; Pearson, Andersson and Porath, 2000; Pearson, Andersson and Wegner, 2001; Lim, et al., 2008; Lim and Lee, 2011; Miner, Settles and Pratt-Hyatt, 2012; Giumetti and Hatfield, 2013 etc.). Under these conditions, uncivil behaviors that are seen in the workplace may foster a toxic workplace climate.

Harassment, bullying, mobbing or uncivil behavior are severe forms of social stressor at work. Therefore, while these unwanted and negative behaviors are persistently directed towards the same employee(s) over a longer period of time, they

may turn into an extreme source of social stress (Zapf, 1999). Furthermore, Parker (2014) argues that negative behaviors (E.g. bullying, burnout) and stress owing to these behaviors are examples of what we could find in toxic organizations. In a hostile workplace atmosphere, employees can perceive their environment as a toxic organizational climate.

2.5.2.2. Toxic Behaviors of Managers

As explained above, the perception of toxic climate in the organization can be caused by managers as well as by co-workers (Taştan, 2017). Supporting these arguments, Aubrey (2012) focuses on toxic leadership and emphasizes the symptoms of toxicity (individual characteristics, traits) by discussing how an organization's culture might contribute to toxicity in its leaders (Zellner, 2003; Aubrey, 2012). In addition to Aubrey's approach, other researchers argue that toxic leaders play a very important role in creating and upholding a toxic work environment (Webber, 1998; Flynn, 1999; Stark, 2003; Lubit, 2004; Reed, 2004; Appelbaum and Girard, 2007; Schmidt, 2008). Based on these, a toxic leader can be described as someone that is motivated by self-interest, has an apparent lack of concern, and negatively affects organizational climate (Seeger, Ulmer, Novak and Sellnow, 2005).

In 2012, Army Doctrine Publication 6-22, in Army Leadership, defines toxic leadership as follows:

> Toxic leadership is a combination of self-centered attitudes, motivations, and behaviors that have adverse effects on subordinates, the organization, and mission performance. This leader lacks concern for others and the climate of the organization, which leads to short- and long-term negative effects. The toxic leader operates with an inflated sense of self-worth and from acute self-interest. Toxic leaders consistently use dysfunctional behaviors to deceive, intimidate, coerce, or unfairly punish others to get what they want for themselves. The negative leader completes short-term requirements by operating at the bottom of the continuum of commitment, where followers respond to the positional power of their leader to fulfill requests. This may

55

achieve results in the short term, but ignores the other leader competency categories of leads and develops. Prolonged use of negative leadership to influence followers undermines the followers' will, initiative, and potential and destroys unit morale.

A toxic leader who leads to the cumulative effect of de-motivational behavior demands loyalty above all else, does not accept complaints, grabs all the credit for successes and shifts blame to his subordinates in case of any failure (Berdahl, Cooper, Glick, Livingston and Williams, 2018). Another characteristic of a toxic leader is that s/he appears driven by self-centered careerism at the expense of their subordinates. His/her style is personified by abusive and dictatorial behavior and this behavior causes an unhealthy organizational climate (Reed, 2004; Ulmer, 2012). Regardless of how toxic leadership is defined, its impact is negative. To illustrate, in a study with military personnel, personnel who work for toxic leaders express lower levels of satisfaction with their jobs, level of pay and allowances, supervisors, peers, and even their subordinates (Reed and Olsen, 2009).

Although toxic leaders are not all identified in a similar taxonomy and it cannot be generalized how every toxic leader behaves, toxic leaders can be divided into five categories: narcissism & egoism, anger outburst & aggression, negative jokes & humiliation, abusive supervision & mobbing, politics & favoring (Taştan, 2017). Nevertheless, this does not mean that all leaders that exhibit such behaviors are toxic. It is important to observe the frequency and intensity of these behaviors before judging whether a manager is toxic. A manager's level of toxicity will depend on how many of these behaviors are exhibited, as well as their frequency and intensity (Flynn, 1999). Moreover, culture is an important factor because these so-called toxic behaviors may be tolerated within the organizational culture (Erkmen, 2010; Appelbaum and Girard, 2007).

In the light of this information, egocentric, or "narcissistic" behavior of managers has been counted among the major factors of toxic workplaces. Narcissistic individuals have an extreme emotional investment in establishing their superiority, even if they are unsure that their superiority is merited (Bushman and Baumeister 1998).

56

Narcissists are individuals who feel that they are special or unique and therefore deserve to be treated as special by others. Generally, they have magnificent and arrogant attitudes in their interactions with others, and expect others to see their unique talents and abilities (Cavaiola and Lavender, 2011). It has been suggested that this kind of managers could easily maintain a self-reinforcing pattern of behavior, one in which the conquered subordinate is transformed into an enabler or an obedient follower who willingly serves the boss (Gilbert et al., 2012). The characteristics of narcissistic managers can be described as follows: sensitivity to criticism, poor listeners, lack of empathy, and distaste for mentoring, an intense desire to compete, seeking high-status people, activities, or positions, demanding special treatment (Maccoby, 2004). Moreover, narcissistic managers have "an inflated sense of self-importance and an extreme preoccupation with themselves" (Blais, Smallwood, Groves and Vazquez, 2008). Because their total focus, either consciously or unconsciously, is on themselves, their success, their career, and their ego, these narcissistic behaviors are inevitably toxic. As a result, such behaviors of manager in the organization hurt employees' morale and group effectiveness and can potentially lead to disaster for organizational health. Furthermore, narcissistic attitudes and behaviors tend to be egotistical, manipulative, self-seeking and exploitative and this tendency supports and perpetuates toxicity in an organization on a daily basis by decreasing organizational trust and motivation (Doty and Fenlason, 2013). In addition, narcissistic leadership can be toxic for organizational success, since decisions are made based on the manager's own needs rather than those of the organization. This damaging effect is especially more acute if the managers are senior, as the types of decisions they make have more potential to hurt the organization (Higgs, 2009).

Mourdoukouta and his colleague (2014) describe toxic leaders as workplace psychopaths, operating from an evil core. A toxic manager full of negative emotion will, inevitably, lead to abusive supervision. Tepper (2000) defines abusive supervision as "a manifestation of dysfunctional workplace behavior involving tyrannical, ridiculing, and undermining actions by one's superior". In such an organization, the manager evaluates abusive, illegal, harmful behaviors as positive (Koys, 2001; Hitchcock, 2015) and he promotes lying, manipulating others, and claiming credit for

others' work when these are to his benefit (Too and Harwey, 2012). An abusive manager regularly displays malicious verbal and nonverbal behaviors which include public criticism, rudeness, coercion, loud, angry tantrums, sabotage and ostracism, withholding information, aggressive eye contact, the silent treatment, threatening the employee with loss of employment, and taking credit for subordinates' achievements (Tepper, 2000; Duffy, Ganster and Pagon, 2002; Hoobler and Brass, 2006; Tepper, 2007).

As well as these acts, an abusive manager humiliates subordinates in front of other people, which may include negative jokes and aggressive humor towards them. Especially, s/he can use a negative and detrimental form of humor for personal purposes, sarcasm, teasing, ridiculing, derision, ''put-down,'' or disparagement to harm other people. In addition, humor and negative jokes can be another way of manipulating others. Sexist or racist humor or negative jokes about these issues can be good examples of this kind of behavior. This use of humor is positively related to neuroticism and particularly hostility, anger, and aggression (Yip and Martin, 2006). Conversely, sometimes the manager's attitudes may be favorable towards certain employees. Although favoritism in the workplace is a common and accepted phenomenon, it is given undue weight in a toxic work environment. One or more employees are chosen to handle the better, more senior, higher visibility projects—making others who are equally or more qualified feel as if the manager is not playing fair (Taylor, 2014). Leader- Member Exchange Theory can be helped to explain this dyadic relationship between manager and their favorite group. LMX theory rests on the assumption that leaders influence employees in their group (referred to as members) through the quality of the relationships they develop with them. A high quality relationship is characterized by trust, liking, professional respect, and loyalty (Liden and Maslyn, 1998).

Actually, there are differences between in-group members and out-group members. Managers invite in-group members to participate in the decision making process. They give added responsibility to in-group members and allow these members some latitude in their roles. These members are key subordinates for managers and therefore, the manager and key subordinates negotiate the latter's responsibilities in a

non-contractual exchange relationship. In contrast, out-group members are supervised within the narrow limits of their formal employment contract. Authority is legitimated by the implicit contract between the member and the organization. As a result, in-group members have higher productivity, job satisfaction, motivation, and engage in more citizenship behaviors than out-group members. Therefore, leaders should develop high-quality relationships with as many subordinates as possible (Roussin, 2008; Hsiung and Tsai, 2009; Lunenburg, 2010; Bolat, 2011a; Lonsdale, 2016). It should be pointed out that even if favoritism can be fairly benign in some situations, it can also be much more serious and develop into a hostile environment for others. For this reason, employee experiences of abusive supervision directly predict tension, emotional exhaustion, stress, bullying and intent to leave (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter and Kacmar, 2007). Siegel (2011) also holds that abusive supervision and bullying behaviors of managers are forms of toxic behaviors at work. These negative attitudes and behaviors can be revealed toxic organizational climate that occurs as a categorical phenomenon (Maxwell, 2015).

Subsequently, in the organizations, managers can sometimes behave in a neurotic manner in the workplace and this tendency leads to experiencing negative emotions, such as anxiety and anger. Those who are high in neuroticism experience greater anger, frustration, and impulsiveness (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Besides, anger can transform into aggression, and aggressive managers have little regard for others' rights and boundaries, are not concerned about others' needs, and make decisions based on their own agendas, not what is best for employees or the organization. Moreover, because of sudden outbursts of anger from the manager, it is highly possible that employees have distress and the relationship between employees-manager is impacted negatively (Sloan, 2004). Accoring to the research findings of Brett and Stroh (2003), feelings of despair, anger, low morale, poor communication, and depression among mployees have significant impacts on poor work performance, high absenteeism, and increased turnover within the organizations.

2.5.2.3. Toxic Social-Structural Factors

Toxicity in the workplace originates in social-structural factors. Pressures at work result from unreasonable work hours or tasks, career obstacles, unfair evaluations and politics among employees, non-ergonomic and unsuitable physical conditions at work. These social-structural factors may decrease work-related positive affections at the workplace (Taştan, 2013). To illustrate, work overload, which is defined as "employees having more work than they can complete within a given time" (Jex, 1998), leads to detriments to personal health, which, in turn, directly affects organizational health. Overworked people usually have unreasonable workloads; work long (and/or odd) hours; undergo a tougher working pace; feel pressure to work overtime (paid or unpaid); and receive shorter breaks, days off, and vacations (or none at all). Under these circumstances, work overload is a trigger of tension and anger (Quastler and Wulff, 1955; Miller, 1960; Miller, 1962). Eventually, both physical and emotional burnout and stress will be unavoidable at the individual level for employees. Also, at the organizational level, the increase in working hours, duty timings and pressure from supervisor to accomplish competitiveness, and achieve goals pave the way for conflict among employees and become harmful for the organization (Heimpel, Elliot and Wood, 2006).

Other social-structural factors of perception of toxicity are based on the organizational reward and recognition approach. Rewarding and recognition are the factors that affect most workers' attitude, emotion and behavior as well as attracting and retaining valued employees. According to many researchers, organizational rewards are known to help an organization boost the employees' motivation, thus leading to employees' satisfaction (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Ali and Ahmed, 2009; Danish and Usman, 2010). However, rewarding and recognition can have negative effect on employees too, and in some cases, they lead to dissatisfied employees instead of satisfied ones. Therefore, a rewarding system should always have fair evaluations and be equitable (Bowen, 2000). As is known, the rewarding system can be divided into two categories: tangible and intangible. One of the intangible rewards is promotion. Promotion means increasing the authority and responsibility of an employee and

improvement in his/her work. It has been indicated in many studies that promotion is likely to motivate an employee. However, employees may also encounter a range of obstacles during their careers rather than being given an opportunity to grow and develop their own career path (Zhao and Zhou, 2013). Stereotypes, discrimination, favoritism, and prejudice are specific career obstacles that impact negatively on employees' job satisfaction and productivity. The equality and organizational justice perceptions of employees working under these conditions are damaged, and this has the potential to negatively influence many organizational outcomes, such as perception of respect and trust. Employees who perceive themselves to be victims of injustice may rebel, using various means to 'punish' the source of the injustice (Pierre and Holmes, 2010). Furthermore, injustice perceptions are likely to elicit different forms of aggression that also vary in terms of the target of aggression and the manner in which harm is delivered to the target (Jawahar, 2002).

Continuing to examine toxic social-structural factors, it is seen that Frost and Robinson (1999) have claimed that downsizing, reengineering, budget cuts, pressures for increased productivity, autocratic work environments, and the use of part-time employees have resulted in "uncivil and aggressive workplace behaviors since these factors are sources of stress for employees". According to Salin's study (2003), downsizing and restructuring, organizational changes, and changes in the composition of the work group are organizational causes of bullying (Salin, 2003). In addition, there is a relationship between the physical work environment and the psychological well-being of employees. In addition, it is suggested that there is a relationship between the physical work environment and the psychological well-being of employees. Since there are evidences in the literature (Frost and Robinson, 1999; Jawahar, 2002; Heimpel, et al. 2006) indicating that adverse environmental conditions, especially poor air quality, noise, poor ergonomic conditions, and lack of privacy could effect employee satisfaction, mental health and behavior.

2.5.2.4. Toxic Work Environment

In an organization, a toxic organizational climate derives from a toxic work environment, which gives rise to discrimination among employees, work stressor

factors and a perception of low trust. In general, "discrimination refers to the unfair behavior or unequal treatment accorded to others on the basis of their group membership or possession of some arbitrary trait" (Dion, 2001). Also, the scope of workplace discrimination is defined by Wood, Braeken, and Niven (2013) as "ranging from the systematic denial of people's rights on the grounds of their gender, religion, ethnicity, age, sexual orientation or other criteria, to more informal verbal abuse which makes reference to such characteristics". Such unfair and unequal attitudes and behavior may demonstrate itself at any phase of the employment cycle such as "recruitment, hiring, promotion, assignments, delegations, working conditions, training, career development, leaves and vacations, payments, rewards, benefits and redundancy" (Reinhold, 1996). Nevertheless, studies provide significant proof that discrimination is highly prevalent in the workplace (Gutek, Larwood and Stromberg, 1986; Landau, 1995; Jagusztyn, 2010) and discrimination in the workplace has quite noxious impacts on organizational outcomes and the physical and psychological well-being of employees. At the individual level, the experience of discrimination is likely to produce high levels of stress, and stressfulness relative to perception of discrimination leads to "anger, paranoia, anxiety, helplessness, hopelessness, frustration, resentment and fear (Armstead, Lawler, Gorden, Cross and Gibbons, 1989; Bullock and Houston, 1987; as cited in Clark, Anderson, Clark, and Williams, 1999, p. 25)" and "violent behavior (Choi, Harachi, Gillmore, and Catalano, 2006)". In addition, at the organizational level, a sense of discrimination adversely impacts organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors (Ensher, Grant-Vallone, and Donaldson, 2001; Dion, 2001) and increases work tension and work conflict (Gutek, Cohen, and Tsui, 1996).

Other psychological stressors which lead to a toxic work environment can be a high level of job demands & a low level of job resources and little control over employee's work (Jimmieson, 2000). According to the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R), job demands include physical, social, and organizational obligations of the job such as work overload, time pressure, and role ambiguity (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli, 2001). Job resources involve all of the physical, psychological, social or organizational benefits of a job, like performance feedback,

autonomy and social support, and inexistence of job resources results in some negative outcomes for both the organization and the individual, like burnout, turnover, and health problems (Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer and Schaufeli, 2003). In case of a high level of job demands and a low level of control over job a huge amount of stress inevitably occurs (Johnson and Hall, 1988). Similarly, Karasek (1979) proposes a relationship between job demands and control over an employee's work, so that when job demands are high and control over work is low, a high-strain condition develops. As a result of this situation, negative health outcomes are likely to occur, like anger as a psychological symptom (Suan and Nasurdin, 2013). Harvey and his colleagues suggest in their study that demands may result in employees accepting bullying as an acceptable behavior (Harvey, Tradway, Heames and Duke, 2009).

Trust is an important antecedent for many organizational outcomes and helps also to clarify toxic behaviors in the workplace. In general, trust is defined as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer, 1998). Trust, which comprises cognitive, affective and behavioral components, involves what we know about the other person, what we feel about that person and how we intend to behave towards that person (Payne and Clark, 2003). The need for trust arises from our interdependence with others. A person often depends on other people to help him/her obtain, or at least not to frustrate, the outcomes s/he values (and they on him/her). In the organization, trust is a faith in the positive intentions of others (Cook and Wall, 1980) and a belief that employers will follow the rules (Glibert and Tang, 1998). Members of the organization have positive expectations connected with competences, reliability, and honesty (Ellonen, Blomqvist, and Puumalainen, 2008). Similarly, according to Tan and Lim, in an organization, trust points to "willingness to be vulnerable" to their organization's actions (Tan and Lim, 2009). In the light of such information, trust in the workplace can also be identified as a key element of successful conflict resolution (including negotiation and mediation) and is associated with enhanced cooperation, information sharing, and problem solving (Lewicki and Wiethoff, 2006). Conversely, in case of distrust or low trust in the work environment, support and information sharing among employees will decrease.

63

Therefore, while prosocial organizational behavior like organizational citizenship behaviors, job performance, organizational commitment and so on are affected negatively, many negative outcomes like incivility, bullying or harassment are affected positively. In terms of emotional reactions, high stress, anger, disappointment, and/or frustration are more likely to be seen at the individual level (Lewicki, McAllister, and Bies, 1998; Gilbert et al., 2012; Lewicki, and Tomlinson, 2003). Based on these considerations, a low trust environment can be considered among the toxic work environment factors.

2.6. THE CONCEPT OF NARCISSISTIC LEADERSHIP

2.6.1. The Definition of Narcisisim

Have you ever worked with someone who is selfish, arrogant, and manipulative? Steve Jobs was a businessman who was accepted as successful all around the world (Markoff, 2011). Steve Jobs was cofounder of Apple, and a major part of his success has been attributed to his incredible charisma, which often enabled him to inspire tremendous loyalty and overcome seemingly insurmountable obstacles. However, as a manager, he had some critical and negative traits such as his arrogance and abrasive interpersonal style. He even defined himself as harsh and sometimes cruel to his employees in a biography (Isaacson, 2011). Even though he was known as an exacting perfectionist, he frequently insulted and publicly humiliated followers if they failed to meet his expectations. In addition to his abusive management style, it is also claimed that he resorted to dysfunctional behavior such as taking credit for others' work, and making risky business decisions, in order to obtain his goals. Besides, he tended to have a distorted vision of reality that allowed him to lie convincingly and without guilt because some part of him believed what he was saying to be true (Spector and Fox, 2005; Isaacson, 2011; Grijalva and Harms, 2014).

In this context, narcissistic leadership is another key concept of this study. To begin with, narcissism has been a subject of long-standing human concern and the common concept is self-adoration with an aloofness that denies the need for another person. According to Ovid's myth of Narcissus in his Metamorphoses (8 AD), a Greek

youth falls in love with his own image and, frustrated by the impossibility of uniting with his own love object, pines away and dies (Vinge, 1967). In 1898, Havelock Ellis was the first psychoanalytic theorist who used this term from Greek mythology to explain a psychological phenomenon. He uses narcissism to identify those who chose their own body as a sexual object (auto-eroticism). Soon after, Freud (1905) uses the term narcissistic in an annotation in "Three Essays on the Theory of Sexuality" to characterize the same sexual perversion that Ellis had defined previously. Although the concept of narcissism is a psychological characteristic which was first developed by Ellis (1898) and Freud (1905), critical contributions to understanding narcissism were made by self-theorists Otto Kernberg (1970, 1975) and Heinz Kohut (1972, 1977).

Heinz Kohut has provided an explanation for and expansion of the fundamental Freudian concept of a disparity between reality and pleasure principles. In sum, Kohut (1977) emphasized the "depleted self" of narcissists, marked by repressed grandiosity, low self-esteem, and shame about their needs to display themselves to others (Krizan and Johar, 2012). Notwithstanding, he claims that if given a nurturing environment, a normal self will develop. Similarly, Kernberg thinks that the grandiose self is a pathological structure which must be broken down in order for a normal self to develop (Kernberg, 1998). According to King's view (2007), they both agreed that parental insensitivity was the main reason of the development of narcissism. In addition to Kohut and Kernberg, the American Psychiatric Association (APA) claims that individuals with this disorder have a grandiose sense of self-importance and entitlement; are preoccupied with fantasies of unlimited success, power, brilliance, or ideal love; generally, lack empathy; may not recognize the needs and feelings of others; and may consciously or unwittingly exploit others (Lopez and Synder, 2003). Furthermore, narcissistic features include an exaggerated sense of self-importance and exhibitionism (Trull, Vergés, Wood, Jahng and Sher, 2012). On the other hand, recent researchers claim that while individuals may be clinically diagnosed as pathologically narcissistic and suffering from it, they can be classified as "normal narcissistic" at the subclinical level. Among other things, several scholars have characterizes normal narcissism by self-centeredness, self-aggrandizement and a manipulative interpersonal orientation (Emmons, 1984; Paulhus, 1998; Sedikides, Campbell, Reeder, and Elliot, 2002).

However, Raskin and Terry (1988) get seven factors, identified as Authority, Exhibitionism, Superiority, Entitlement, Exploitativeness, Self-Sufficiency and Vanity. These dimensions are defined as follows:

- Authority: Dominance, assertiveness, leadership, criticality, and self-confidence

- Exhibitionism: Sensation seeking, extraversion, and a lack of impulse control

- Superiority: Capacity for status, social presence, self-confidence, and narcissistic ego inflation

- Entitlement: Ambitiousness, need for power, dominance, hostility, toughness, and a lack of self-control and tolerance for others

- Exploitativeness: Rebelliousness, nonconformity, hostility, and a lack of consideration and tolerance for others

- Self-Sufficiency: Assertiveness, independence, self-confidence, and need for achievement

- Vanity: Regarding oneself as physically attractive and being actually judged to be physically attractive.

On the other hand, both contemporary theorists of narcissism (Kohut, 1972; Akhtar and Thomson, 1982; Wink, 1996; Cooper, 1998) and clinicians who specialize in personality pathology (APA) have tackled two different types of narcissism: grandiose narcissism and vulnerable narcissism. The former, grandiose narcissism, is characterized as grandiose, arrogant, aggression, dominant, entitled, exploitative, and envious. The latter, vulnerable narcissism is characterized as a defensive and insecure grandiosity that obscures feelings of inadequacy, incompetence, and negative affect. These narcissists have underlying grandiose expectations for oneself and others (Gabbard, 1989; Dickinson and Pincus, 2003; Miller, Hoffman, Gaughan, Gentile, Maples and Campbell, 2011; Krizan and Johar, 2012).

Possessing a positive self-attitude, being self-confident, and having high self-esteem are worthwhile attributes in both work and personal life; some take these

positive attributes to the extreme and become self-absorbed, self-adoring, self-centered, and show little empathy for the problems and concerns of others. In brief, they are narcissists and they can be especially problematic in business settings (Dubrin, 2012). Awareness of narcissism in the workplace is on the increase nowadays because more employees are beginning to recognize the arrogant and bullying behavior of the narcissist. Moreover, narcissists appear prevalent in leadership roles, such as presidents, managers and chief executive officers (Deluga, 1997; Maccoby, 2000; Wasylyshyn, 2005; Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). In this chapter, it will be discussed in detail what narcissistic leadership means. The main goal is to clarify what the potential negative impact of narcissistic leaders on individuals, teams and organizations might be.

2.6.2. The Literature Review of Narcissistic Leadership

As stated earlier, narcissism – a personality trait encompassing grandiosity, arrogance, fragile self-esteem, self-absorption, entitlement, and hostility – is a strong predictor of leadership emergence and is prevalent in leaders in general (Maccoby, 2000; Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006; Nevicka et al., 2011a; Fuller, Galvin and Ashfort, 2018). Generally, narcissists more often seek leadership roles because this enhances their grandiose and power-driven needs and visions (Glad, 2002). However, an important and primary goal is their own personal egotistical needs for power and admiration (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1997), rather than the constituents they lead (Conger, Kanungo and Menon, 2000). Due to these egocentric motivations, it can be understood why particular leaders take seemingly incomprehensible decisions and actions. A key motivation leading narcissists to seek leadership positions in the first place is the desire to garner the power they need to "structure an external world" that supports their grandiose needs and visions (Glad, 2002, p. 25). In addition, the motivation sources of narcissists are generally need for power and admiration (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006) and they maintain an attitude of superiority toward others, artificially inflate their achievements, and deny their failings (Lax, 1975). Besides, they exert positive first impressions on others due to high levels of self-promotion, self-confidence and extraversion. Because of these reasons, they more easily ascend leadership roles (Brunell, Gentry, Campbell, Hoffman, Kuhnert and DeMarre,

2008; Furnham, Richards and Paulhus, 2013; Grijalva, Harms, Newman, Gaddis and Fraley, 2015). In addition, the leadership position feeds narcissists' hunger for power and influence, and provides opportunities to demonstrate their superiority over others (Fuller, et al., 2018).

According to the literature, narcissistic leaders are often characterized by one of four main annoying behaviors. Firstly, they have a need for power mongering and control. Narcissistic leaders believe that a combination of power and control under them will lead to more positive and efficient outcomes. To them, if leaders have high levels of control, they can lead to quick and effective decision making. But, the desire of this narcissistic need for power and control can accelerate self-serving behavior as it clouds the judgment of leaders who have become enamored with their own management decisions (Fuller et al., 2018). Second is a grandiose sense of self-importance. Narcissistic leaders may use their organizations as a podium, magnetically drawing to themselves attention initially directed at the organization (Fuller et al., 2018). According to Gunderson and Ronningstam (2016), grandiose narcissistic leaders exaggerate their talents, capacity, and achievements in an unrealistic way. Because of their sense of grandiosity, narcissistic leaders also are likely to possess unrealistic visions or may not recognize their limitations. This overt sensation leads to more easily falling into strategic blunders and eventual negative follower outcomes (Humphreys, Zhao, Ingram, Gladstone and Basham, 2010). Thirdly, narcissists tend to exhibit self-love and egocentrism. Narcissistic executives may be captivated with their own personal qualities and leadership styles, which can lead them to overestimate the positive impact of their own interventions while underestimating the positive impact of others' contributions (Fuller et al., 2018). Fourth is a sense of entitlement, i.e., unreasonable expectations of especially favorable treatment or automatic compliance with his or her expectations (Twenge and Campbell, 2009). Narcissists strongly believe that they deserve more praise, privileges, and rewards than others (Dubrin, 2012).

It is suggested that Maslow's hierarchy of needs may clarify the narcissistic leader's attitudes and behaviors. According to his motivational theory, an individual's needs comprise a five-tier model and the theory is often depicted as hierarchical levels

within a pyramid. These needs are, from the bottom of the hierarchy upwards: physiological needs, safety, love and belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. The critical point is that needs lower down in the hierarchy must be satisfied before individuals can attend to needs higher up (Maslow, 1943). The need for self-actualization at the top of the hierarchy is rather important for a narcissistic leader.

To date, the literature on narcissism and leadership has largely tried to answer the following question: Is it good or bad for a leader to be a narcissist? The answer to this question has various permutations because, certain narcissistic traits are perceived as positive leadership characteristics while others are negative. Moreover, narcissism might be a necessary trait to provide the drive and vision needed in order to achieve a leadership position (Pittinsky and Rosenthal, 2006). In this context, followers have favorable perceptions regarding narcissistic leaders (Judge, LePine and Rich, 2006; Nevicka, Velden, Hoogh and Vianen, 2011b; Owens, Wallace and Waldman, 2015). As such, narcissism, especially in moderate levels, is argued to incorporate desirable features which ultimately can aid leadership effectiveness (Maccoby, 2007). For example, the dimensions of narcissistic Authority, Exhibitionism, and Superiority may parallel the unique leadership and special magnetism associated with charismatic leaders. The narcissistic dimensions of Exploitativeness, Entitlement, Vanity and Self-Sufficiency may reflect the charismatic leader's power, efficacy capacity, manipulative persuasive skills and distinctive appearance (Maccoby, 1976, 1981, 2007). However, in case the leaders' actions are principally motivated by their own egomaniacal needs and beliefs rather than the needs and interests of the constituents and institutions they lead, followers tend to have negative perceptions about their leaders (Judge et al., 2006; Pittinsky and Rosenthal, 2006; Martin, Côté and Woodruff , 2016).

Maccoby suggests classifying narcissistic leaders into two groups: productive (healthy) and unproductive. According to him, a narcissistic leader's strengths and weaknesses help to determine his degree of productivity because a narcissist's strengths represent his/her productive side while his/her weaknesses represent the unproductive side (Maccoby, 2007). Productive narcissism is defined as a positive self-regard based on a realistic assessment and acceptance of one's strengths and weaknesses (Bergman,

Westerman and Daly, 2010). Productive narcissists use their extra strengths for the purpose of gaining more meaning, love, worth, and pleasure. The main goal in their relationships is to enhance their self-concept or reputation rather than to experience warmth, honesty or intimacy (Campbell, Brunell, and Finkel, 2006).

However, the perception of a narcissist leader varies from employee to employee. While some employees with certain personality traits might be more sensitive to the toxic characteristics of narcissistic leaders, others may be successful in coping with such leaders or to ignoring them.

Narcissism can be unproductive when narcissists become unrealistic dreamers by lacking restraining self-knowledge. They nurture grand schemes and harbor the illusion that only circumstances or enemies block their success. Because of it, even brilliant narcissists can come under suspicion for self-involvement, unpredictability, and – in extreme cases – paranoia (Maccoby, 2000).

An interesting paradox emerges with regard to the appeal of narcissistic leaders because they have positive as well as negative behaviors (Nevicka, Hoogh, Vianen and Velden, 2013). Narcissistic leaders can display toxic behavior, and research in this domain shows compelling evidence that narcissism is a key trait of some of the world's most creative and generative leaders (Rosenthal, 2010). For instance, they explicitly neglect the viewpoints of others. Instead, they are more confident of their own abilities than of the details of what they are doing (Sankowsky, 1995). Especially, their insatiable need for glory might lead such leaders to act in a destructive manner by putting their own needs and interests before those of their followers, constituents and institutions (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser, 2007). Indeed, the leaders' actions are principally motivated by their own egomaniacal needs and beliefs (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). As mentioned above, their vision is principally important for narcissistic leaders. To create an inspirational vision, they use their charismatic side. Along with bold vision and charisma, they generate new goals for their followers and motivate the masses with their rhetoric (Deluga, 1997; Maccoby, 2000; Galvin, Waldman, and Balthazard, 2010). They can successfully combine the power of charisma with the narcissistic personality (Sankowsky, 1995). Therefore, it seems

reasonable that narcissism may predict charismatic leadership (e.g., Post, 1986, 1993). Notwithstanding, followers might be deceived about their needs and interests by narcissist leaders as they believe in the personal strengths of the leader (Dubrin, 2018). Besides, the same narcissist leaders can be exploitative, overly sensitive to criticism, arrogant, and egocentric, possess a sense of entitlement, and lack empathy towards others, which is called a toxic character for followers (Watson, Grisham, Trotter, and Biderman, 1984; Morf and Rhodewalt, 2001; Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). Their desire of grandiosity, lack of values, and search for excitement, that is, when narcissism is carried to its pathological extreme, can become perilous for an organization. Furthermore, all these behaviors damage a business unit's long-term performance because it leads to driving away the most talented people. They divert people's energies away from their real work, and foster a problematic culture (Lubit, 2002).

Another highlighted point is that destructive narcissistic leaders can usually abuse their power toward coworkers and employees. Commonly, they use emotionally abusive talking and actions as a way to exert power and control over others. Conversely, they sometimes prefer to give others the silent treatment when they meet in the organization. They may establish unrealistic rules, prohibit personal objects in the workplace such as photos of family or household pets, or they may have unrealistic job expectations for others such as salaried staffers to work 60 hours or more per week. In order to prove their own grandiosity, they may give other managers tasks that exceed their abilities and discredit them (Ritala and Falkowski, 2007). Moreover, narcissists commonly envy other managers in the same line because they are keenly sensitive to potential shifts in the balance of power within the organization. They are always in excessive competition with others. However, by expressing praise towards others, narcissistic leaders may both deny and conceal envious feelings about others. Praise can also be a way for the narcissist to preempt another person from attacking him or her. In case of envy, leaders want to hear how much employees admire them. Politically astute subordinates know when the narcissistic leader needs a dose of admiration or flattery. This can be exploited for continual ego boosting (Hotchkiss, 2002). Also, even though the grandiosity of destructive narcissist leaders may appear to be due to high levels of self-confidence, it seldom is. On the contrary, it is frequently a reaction to, or an attempt

to seal over, fragile self-esteem. These narcissists, who desire a grandiose self-image and lacking healthy, stable self-esteem, tend to devalue or envy others (Lumit, 2002).

They frequently violate the most basic human relations principles by shouting at or picking on people in front of others. They criticize employees in public. But they love to be praised in the company of others (Ritala and Falkowski, 2007). In addition, they do not respect others' rights and are frequently arrogant, devaluing, and exploitative in their interaction with others (Lubit, 2002). Narcissistic leaders may sometimes abuse power by blaming a subordinate for their wrongdoing. They can choose themselves a scapegoat so they will cover their own mistakes. On the other hand, the destructive narcissistic leader may sometimes promote an ordinary person into a key position, which makes the leader feel good or pumps his or her ego. Placing someone in a good position just to make you feel good is an abuse of the leader's power because a more capable employee should have had the promotion. In some instances, an employee may be used mercilessly, and get fired when no longer needed in some organizations headed by destructive narcissistic leaders. Besides, their mood may suddenly change from elation to rage. The more powerful the narcissistic leaders, the more they can get away with mood swings (Hotchkiss, 2002; Higgs, 2009; Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell and Marchisio, 2011).

All these destructive leadership behaviors and attitudes of narcissistic leaders may be based on a primary motivation of humans, which is a striving for superiority. Adler says that children are small and weak, and they develop feelings of inferiority. If these feelings become overwhelming, a child develops an inferiority complex, which has to be overcome. The final goals, toward which individuals all strive, according to Adler, are perfection, security, conquest, and being successful. Adler considers the striving for superiority to be the utmost drive of human beings and believes that it is inborn. While this striving goes too far, a person develops a superiority complex in which this drive is wrongly self-directed and aimed at selfish goals, such as power and self-esteem (Shah, Mushtaq, Naseer, Ahmad, Sharma and Kovur, 2017). Therefore, narcissistic qualities are a result of a "narcissistic injury" in early childhood (Kohut, 1976).

In this context, narcissism has been conceptualized as a continuum ranging from healthy to pathological or destructive. Productive or healthy narcissism is defined by relatively secure self-esteem that can survive daily frustrations and stress. However, destructive or pathological narcissism is grandiosity (an inflated sense of self-importance, arrogance, preoccupation with power and wealth), a sense of entitlement to have whatever one wants, including the willingness to exploit others to get it, and lack of concern for and devaluation of others. Under such circumstances, interpersonal relationships markedly suffer by means of destructive narcissism (Pathak, 2013). Therefore, there is a negative aspect of narcissism which can be destructive for both the organizations as well as the individuals. Here, a culture and organizational procedures may tolerate or celebrate destructive narcissism or the culture may prohibit or inhibit narcissism (Pathak, 2013). To illustrate, placing a high stake on the cultural value of individualism would encourage narcissism in the workplace because personal welfare would supersede the importance of group welfare. In an individualistic culture, a highly individualistic employee would object strongly to taking a 10 percent pay reduction so that the company could avoid downsizing. Yet, the objection would of course disappear if his or her job were at stake (Javidan, Dorfman, Luque and House, 2006). In addition, the leader's mental health pathologies resonate with the anomies of his society and culture ("psychopathological resonance"). The leader may form a self-enhancing and self-reinforcing feedback loop, a dyad of mirrored adoration and reflected love. For instance, a manager can transform into a narcissistic leader by denying feedback from subordinates upon obtaining power or coming under great pressure (Pathak, 2013; Vaknin, 2015).

The meta-analyses result implies that the concept of a narcissistic leader contributes theoretically and empirically to the organizational leadership literature (Gerstner and Day, 1997) with its causes and consequences. The causes of narcissistic leadership are the leader's personality being relatively dominant, extraverted, exhibitionistic, aggressive, impulsive, self-centered, subjectively self-satisfied, self-indulgent, and nonconforming (Raskin and Terry, 1988). Further, individuals with the trait of narcissism display certain behaviors, or behavioral symptoms, that reveal their narcissistic attitudes and traits (Ritala and Falkowski, 2007). Self-admiration,

statements of superiority, incessant talking and monologues, interrupting others, temper tantrums, emotional detachment, rationalizations to justify their own behavior, acquired situational narcissism, fragile self-esteem, frequently asking others for compliments, unhealthy self-regard, limited empathy, perfectionism and compulsivity, depending on others for reinforcement of the self-image, and expecting special attention are all found to be the narcissistic attitudes and traits (Freud,1957; Raskin and Hall, 1979; Soyer, Rovenpor and Kopelman, 2001; Ritala and Falkowski, 2007).

The relationship between narcissism and seeking leadership position has long been under scrutiny, and there is a rich history of theoretical work in this regard (Kohut, 1972; Kernberg, 1979; Deluga, 1997). Individuals rated higher in narcissism were initially perceived as leaders and according to Vries and Miller (1985), narcissistic tendencies are often considered to be one of the driving factors behind the pursuit of a leadership position (Vires and Miller, 1985; Maccoby, 2003; Volkan, 2009; Erentuğ and Hamedoğlu, 2014; Ong, Roberts, Calum, Arthur, Woodman and Akehurst, 2016). Furthermore, Dimitros (2014) confirms that narcissistic leadership has been found to be positively associated with self-esteem and motivation, as well as the personality dimensions of extraversion, agreeableness and emotional stability. Positive side of healthy or productive narcissism also reveal that it has a role in influencing strategic decision making and management education (Paul, Jana and Timothy, 2013).

The findings of leadership studies have indicated that the narcissistic leadership style influences employees' satisfaction negatively (Kjellson and Meer, 2012). The narcissistic leader has more difficulty in building relationships with followers since they prefer to dominate and defeat others, and fail to empathize with other people's feelings. Therefore, working with such a leader inevitably decreases an employee's satisfaction. At the same time, the narcissistic leaders are often seen as untrustworthy by their followers, and this makes it difficult for them to be effective and satisfied in their job (Blair, Hoffman and Helland, 2008). Rosenthal and Pittinsky (2006) also find that narcissistic leaders often accomplish high results in the beginning as they are seen as persons who can overcome resistance and turmoil. But, in time, it is seen that they fall from their grace due to their negative traits (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). Xiao, Liu

and Zhoui (2018) have also conducted a study which investigates the narcissist leader and his impact on employee attitudes. In their study, narcissistic leadership has a negative effect on knowledge sharing among employees, and that organizational identification fully mediated the relationship between narcissistic leadership and knowledge sharing. Moreover, collectivism positively moderated the relationship between narcissistic leadership and knowledge sharing. Additionally, Nevicka, et al., (2011a) point out that positive relations between narcissist leader and performance in the 56 four-person work teams among two hundred and thirty-six undergraduate psychology students at the University of Amsterdam by highlighting the significant moderating the role of high versus low reward context on this relation. Because, narcissistic individuals appear to shine in highly interactive social settings and reward interdependence tends to strengthen interaction between individuals. Consequently, they found that narcissists emerged as leaders irrespective of the team's level of reward interdependence and their individual performance. Yet, individuals with high levels of narcissism performed better in the high reward interdependent condition than in the low reward interdependent condition (Nevicka, et.al, 2011a).

According to the research findings in Turkey, Sezici's findings (2016), based on employees who work in banking, health and education sectors in Afyon and Kütahya, point out that there are statistically significant correlations between the narcissistic leadership perception of the subordinates and job satisfaction, neglect, organizational commitment, turnover intent, job stress and the need for leadership. In this study, the narcissistic leader has negative effects on the job satisfaction of subordinates and their organizational commitment, while having positive effects on their neglect, job satisfaction, job stress and need for leadership criteria. Additionally, Akman (2016) has performed a study in the education sector which has investigated narcissistic leaders and burnout. The results of the study indicate that narcissistic leadership was positively, middle and significantly correlated with job burnout. In sum, all the narcissistic leadership studies in the literature have revealed the extensive role of narcissism in organizations.

2.7. THE IMPACT OF WORKPLACE MALICIOUS ENVY ON COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR

Counterproductive work behaviors have been studied in the literature as an antisocial behavior, and the factors that pave the way for the emergence of such behaviors have been investigated. It is observed that studies on this concept primarily focus on the dimensions and measurement of the concept. At the same time, attempts are made to determine the various individual, contextual and organizational factors in seeing these behaviors. On the other hand, it is also emphasized that there may be a solution for understanding the factors affecting these behaviors by reducing and preventing them. In this framework, the theoretical backgrounds that explain the reasons for this concept are social commitment (Hirschi, 1996), Vroom's expectation theory (Vroom, 1964), psychological empowerment (Skinner, 1971), social learning (Bandura, 1968), social information processing (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978) and these theories aid in clarifying these anti-social behaviors at the level of individuals, groups and organizations (Spector and Fox, 2010; Demir and Tütüncü, 2010; Jensen and Patel, 2011; Spector, 2011; Özkalp, Aydın and Tekeli, 2012; Jung and Yoon, 2012).

Emotions, in general, can take a dispositional or state form and so, they are an antecedent for behaviors at work. In this context, envy is also an important emotion that negatively affects individuals, groups and organizations on both a material and a moral basis. Basically, envy is "wanting what someone else has" (Lazarus, 1999) and is both a negative emotion partially defined by a sense of ill will toward the envied (Smith and Kim, 2007) and a positive emotion that the envied person is admired or emulated (Parrott, 1991). Further, emotions can also influence the incidence of interpersonal CPWBs (Levine, 2010).

Based on the preliminary literature study focusing on the theroretical explanations of how emotions impact individuals' behaviors, several theories have been specified. Among these theories, for explaining the relationship between malicious envy and CPWB can be Equity Theory. For instance, feelings of malicious envy, thought to motivate the envious to lessen the perceived inequality between the envious and the envied (i.e., approach motivation), have been associated with aggression and CPWBs

(Miner, 1990; Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007). This is because malicious envy can arise in situations where a comparison with another's success in a self-relevant domain threatens the identity or self-esteem of the envying person (Tesser, 1988; Tesser and Collins, 1988; DeSteno and Salovey, 1996; Rustemeyer and Wilbert, 2001). Further, an employee's perception of equity is based on a comparison of the ratio of their input to their output to the perceived ratio of input and output of other people. If the employee believes that his/her co-workers are underpaid or overpaid compared to him or her, that is, if the ratio is unequal, employees show affective and coping responses such as malicious envy. Thus, one of these coping responses can be to reduce prosocial behaviors and increase anti-social ones such as CPWBs (Vecchio, 2007). In doing so, the main aim of the employee is inducing balance and achieving fairness within the organization (Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007). To illustrate, employee anger and frustration that is rooted in inequity often leads to retaliation in the form of CPWB (Martinko, Gundlach, and Douglas, 2002).

In addition, "The self-evaluation maintenance model" supports this conclusion (Tesser, 1988). According to the theory, people try to keep their self-motivation according to the performance of others close to them. A very good performance by a close person who is similar to them in terms of performance can downgrade their personality, whereas a bad performance can move them up. While a similar other has an outstanding performance, one of the possible consequences is malicious envy (Tesser, 1988; Malone, 2006). It stems from the employee's desire to protect their personal resource bases by searching for an external cause for their own perceived inadequacies (Eslami and Arshadi, 2016).

Subsequently, it is suggested that the events and situations which cause negative feelings are more likely to prompt aggressiveness (Berkowitz, 1989). Sometimes, envious employees try to harm their envied coworkers by suppressing prosocial behaviors. This might be the easiest way to restore balance and protect their self-esteem from being damaged. Threats to self-esteem are more apt to be perceived as unjustified if one's self-concept is negative (Baumeister et al., 1996). Unjustified threats are more likely to prompt anger. An individual's self-esteem can be fragile or secure.

Fragile self-esteem is conceptualized as being defensive, unstable, and discrepant with true feelings of self-worth (Kernis, 2003). Therefore, low trait self-esteem is especially likely to employ hostile strategies in order to avoid the loss of their seemingly precious self-esteem resources following unpleasant upward social comparisons (Vrabel, Zeigler-Hill and Southard, 2018).

In sum, envy is an emotion that constantly reminds people of a feeling of lack as a result of social comparison. The feeling of lack may nourish the person's negative emotions. Thus, it triggers aggressive behaviors because of the growth of the seeds of hate within the human being as well as damaging him or her psychosocially. However, the manifestation of this malicious emotion differs from employee to employee based on their personality factors. For this reason, an employee's target will not always be another person or group. The employee can choose any material at work as a target for discharging his or her negative emotions. This means that workplace envy manifests itself differently according to each employee (Duffy and Shaw, 2000; Smith and Kim, 2007). Envious employees will engage in CPWBs because they develop malicious feelings, and, as a consequence, seek ways to harm their environment (Cohen-Charash and Mueller 2007; Van de Ven et al., 2009; Duffy, et al., 2008). Research has shown that workplace envy has been linked to a greater tendency to manifest counterproductive behaviors at work (e.g., Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007). Other researches supports the idea that employees who experience malicious (vs. benign) envy tend to display more counterproductive work behaviors. For instance, Braun, Aydın, Frey and Peus (2018) have found in their study that malicious envy was positively related to the manifestation of counterproductive behaviors, finding a negative association for benign envy. Based on these findings, envy is a feeling that can be felt, but hard to prove and it can be expected that the experience of this type of envy may lead to more CPWB.

Consequently, the following hypothesis has been set based on the literature examined:

H1: Workplace malicious envy has a positive impact on counterproductive work behavior.

2.8. THE IMPACT OF WORKPLACE BENIGN ENVY ON CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE

The effect of benign envy on contextual performance has been examined by few studies. Because envy shapes the behavior of the employees, it is expected that in feeling benign envy, employees are likely to show attitudes and behaviors resulting in a higher level of contextual performance (Galliani and Vianello, 2012; Yıldız, 2017). Furthermore, there is a positive relation of contextual performance with extrinsic motivation, and benign envy is a source of extrinsic motivation. Employees with high levels of extrinsic motivation perform more extra-role performance behaviors, because there is evidence that individual incentives, merit pay and bonuses, and gain-sharing can contribute to high performance (Gerhart and Milkovich, 1992). In workplace settings, extrinsically motivated employees are affected by both implicit and explicit rewards (i.e. salary, promotion) from the organization (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994). Thus, employees may envy other employees who have obtained organizational rewards, and be motivated to display more performance. Thus, benign envy can contribute to the contextual performance of the employee.

On the other hand, admiration also affects the contextual performance of the employees. Admiration is a social, other-directed emotion, and the motivational effects of admiration easily extend to the individual, group and social system. Within organizations, the desire to improve, achieve goals, and strengthen work relationships elicited by admiration could easily extend to colleagues. An employee may be moved by inspiring role models, and he or she will be motivated to emulate them. If admiration is elicited by a successful employee who demonstrates great competence in performing his or her job, then it will influence the amount of effort, care, and commitment other employees decide to invest in the general functioning of their organization. Hence, it is hypothesized that the effects of admiration in work contexts will directly affect contextual performance. Since benign envy involves admiration, it can be a triggering factor (Buck, 1985; Ortony, Clore and Collins, 1988; Galliani and Vianello, 2012). An envious employee works harder to achieve his goal of obtaining what others have and

thus, it is expected that his work motivation will improve, and he will be willing to learn from envied targets (Van de Ven et al., 2009).

Within this framework, it is obvious that benign envy can lead to displaying more performance by motivating employees to volunteer to carry out task activities that are not formally part of the job (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Thus, demonstrating abilities or other attributes that lead to exemplary behavior on the job allows employees to improve their self-belief. Due to self-belief, employees may overcome emotional barriers such as shyness, lack of confidence, or the manifestation of anger in the workplace that is preventing an employee from functioning at optimum efficiency.

Based on the foregoing evidence and conceptualizations, it can be concluded that benign envy is related to motivation, admiration and self-belief. Therefore, it can be anticipated that successful employees will be an inspiration to benign envious employees in an organization by creating a psychological influence, and will give rise to a high level of performance. It is also expected that benign envy may affect an employee's contextual performance behaviors in a positive way. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been set:

H2: Workplace benign envy has a positive impact on contextual performance.

2.9. THE IMPACT OF TOXIC ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE ON COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR

Toxic behaviors are important in terms of their effects on the climate of the organizations because of being mostly destructive rather than constructive towards its employees regarding formal and informal relationships. Toxic behaviors cause a more ineffective and inefficient business, which also directs a climate negatively in an organization. In addition to business, toxic behaviors of employees can negatively affect motivation, job satisfaction or performance (Bektaş and Erkal, 2015). There may be numerous organizational or individual reasons why employees display toxic behaviors like extreme envy, biting words, emphasis of superiority, getting angry, offending employees, a high level of job demands and a low level of job resources, little control over employee's work, time pressure, poor work conditions, limited superior-

subordinate relationships, employee's personality, attitudes and behaviors of the manager (Töremen and Çankaya, 2008; Taştan, 2017). Nevertheless, these negative work environments, created by toxins within an organization, are sources of destructive emotions, and such toxic behaviors can cause both individual and organizational destruction (Frost, 2003). Firstly, employees can suffer from both physiological effects (e.g. changes in blood pressure or increases in muscle tension) and psychological effects (e.g. impaired judgment, irritability, anxiety, anger) (Appelbaum and Girard, 2007). Secondly, organizations might be adversely affected by the behavior of their employees with regard to profitability and efficiency. In time, toxic behavior can settle in organizational culture by growing in organizations, or thrive and spread throughout the organization. Thus, it damages the organizational climate by decreasing the performance, working commitment and organizational commitment levels and even the organizational trust levels of employees. Under these circumstances, it becomes more likely for a person to display counterproductive behaviors towards both the organization and other employees.

Additionally, Kusy and Holloway (2009) explain that toxic personality is a pattern of counterproductive work behavior that debilitates individuals, teams, and even organizations over the long term. CPWB is "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing, threatens the well-being of an organization" (Robinson and Bennet, 1995). In this context, toxic work environment might trigger deviant behavior because it induces negative emotions, high perceived stress, and abuse against others (Fox and Spector, 2005). In addition, one of the determinants of toxic organizations is also uncivil behaviors of employees against each other and incivility, or the act of being rude and discourteous, has also been found to be positively associated with counterproductive behaviors (Penney and Spector 2005). As well as uncivil behaviors, discrimination is also one of the abusive workplace behaviors. Discrimination refers to chronic, routine, and relatively minor experiences of unfair treatment (Stucky, Gottfredson, Panter, Daye, Allen, et al., 2011) and leads employees to feel mistreated in much the same way as abusive supervision and ostracism. A hostile social environment within the workplace can cause employees to behave in a toxic

manner. As a result, employees might retaliate against abusive supervision, ostracism, and/or discrimination by exhibiting CPWB (Kim, Cohen and Panter, 2016).

On the other hand, counterproductive behaviors are a reflection of the problems in the workplace and generally, these behaviors are any intentional unacceptable behavior that has the potential to have negative consequences to an organization and employees within that organization (Chang and Smithikrai, 2010). As mentioned in the previous chapter, CPWB comes in many different forms, but may include tardiness, theft, fraud, sexual harassment, workplace bullying, absenteeism, substance abuse, workplace aggression, or sabotage (Salgado, 2002). All of these acts make for a hostile work environment that will drive away productive employees, and they have detrimental effects on an organization, both physically and psychologically.

Peng and Sheard (2013) state that workplace ostracism may trigger negative behaviors as a response, leading to counterproductive work behaviors, which negatively affect employees individually as well as the organization as a whole. Briefly, workplace ostracism is the experience of being ignored and avoided at work. It captures even seemingly small acts that fail to acknowledge the presence of another. Whereas harassment is generally the experience of a negative event, like being berated by a manager, ostracism is the denial of a positive experience (Robinson, O'Reilly and Wang, 2013). With this aspect, work ostracism leads to toxic workplace behaviors. Also, workplace ostracism may hinder the psychological well-being of employees because employees tend to get exhausted and depleted, and an exhausted employee engages in more counter-productive behaviors.

The results of existing workplace research clearly indicate that a central role is played by negative emotional experiences in the relationship between violence and CPWB. Such emotions are the reason for toxic behaviors that contribute to a high frequency of aggressive behaviors, which can occur immediately and impulsively, or at a later time (Baka, 2015) because of hostility, shame, anger, anxiety, and depression as stressors (Spector, Fox and Domagalski, 2005; Neuman and Baron, 2005). Further, environmental conditions and stressors, including situational frustration, unfairness, insults, and presence of things related to aggression trigger workplace aggression

(Spector and Fox, 2005). Specifically, organizational constraints, unmanaged conflicts, work overload, role conflict & ambiguity, and lack of autonomy & support are the factors of perceived toxic organizational climate and likely to lead to more CPWB because they are potent stressors (Peters and O'Connor, 1980; Spector, Dwyer, and Jex, 1988; Greenberg, 1990; Chen and Spector, 1992; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, et al., 1999; Fox and Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Miles, Borman, Spector, and Fox, 2002; Penney and Spector, 2002, 2005). Also, Penny and Spector (2002) suggest in their studies that employees, who have a high level of narcissism display anger more frequently and thus, engage in more CPWB in comparison to employees lower in narcissism. Moreover, employees with a higher anger trait are more likely to display CPWB than employees lower in trait anger. Therefore, it can be said that narcissistic individuals display more CPWB because they tend to be angrier.

The characteristics of the leader play an important role in the relationship between toxic climate and CPWB. Toxic leadership includes the many elements of power used to control or influence subordinates. According to Kusy and Holloway (2009), toxic leaders have an "insidious effect…on organizational life and the welfare of both the organization and those who work diligently in pursuit of the organization's success". Toxic leaders are inwardly motivated, inherently destructive, and violate the legitimate interests of the organization and exhibit hostile and abusive behaviors (Goldman, 2006). As a result of toxic behaviors, employees tend to display more counterproductive behaviors in the organization.

The perceived justice is another predictor for many organizational outcomes. In general, organizational justice refers to an employee's perception of their organization's behaviors, decisions and actions, and how these influence the employee's own attitudes and behaviors at work (Greenberg 1987). Injustice about career opportunities, performance evaluation, division of labor, distribution of allocation, participation of decision and information sharing damage the justice climate (Naumann and Bennett, 2000) and reinforce the perception of employees' toxic organizational climate. Perception of injustice may increase the ratio of workplace deviance, absence,

disengagement and CPWB and lead to a decrease in positive attributes like trust (Cropanzano, 2009).

According to previous studies that have been revealed above, it is suggested that toxic organizational climate is the unhealthy spiral of dysfunctional working relationships; it has a high negative influence on the perception of the employees related with the work environment. Thus, it has relations with job satisfaction, job engagement, organizational commitment, organizational identification, turnover and many other individual and organizational outputs in the organizations. Therefore, it can be inferred that there is a relationship between toxic organizational climate and counterproductive work behaviors depending on the literature review.

Consequently, the following hypothesis has been set based on the literature examined:

H3: Toxic organizational climate has a positive impact on counterproductive work behavior.

2.10. THE IMPACT OF NARCISSISTIC LEADERSHIP ON WORK EXHAUSTION

Leadership style is important in terms of its effects on organizations regarding organizational health, effectiveness, performance and so on (Bass and Avolio; 1994). Narcissistic leadership is a leadership style in which the leader is only interested in him/herself. They generally use their exercise of power for strictly personal or selfish ends (Khoo and Burch, 2008; Resick, Whitman, Weingarden, and Hiller, 2009). However, even though narcissistic leadership provides both positive and negative aspects to an organization (McCleskey, 2013; O'Reilly, Doerr, Caldwell and Chatman, 2014), these leaders are characterized by many more negative than positive attributes. Basically, their motivation source is not empathetic concern for the organization they lead, but rather their needs for power and admiration. Hence, narcissistic leaders use all the resources available to them to attract the admiration of others as a way of confirming their feelings of superiority (Maccoby, 2007). In addition, they believe that they are better than other people, and so, everything else in their universe revolves

around them (Grijalva and Harm 2014). Furthermore, narcissistic leaders desire receiving admiration and praise, as they believe they are more unique and special than others. For this reason, they consistently need to remind others who they are. They exhibit haughty and arrogant behavior toward others, and they show no professional respect toward peers or employees and do not appreciate them (Shurden, 2014). For the sake of achievement and increasing self-importance, they may violate ethical principles, and their unethical practices in the organization are backed by enhanced egos, greed, and a lack of morals, all consistent with a narcissistic personality. Instead of working for the organization, they "work for themselves" (Madsen and Vance, 2009). Narcissists can exploit, deceive, and manipulate others to reach their own hedonistic goals (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1985). Furthermore, they have paranoiac thoughts that others are envious of them. Yet, they are envious of others (Amernic and Craig, 2010). Due to these characteristics, narcissistic leaders can display toxic behaviors and drain employees' energy in dyadic relationships.

Narcissistic leaders may cause employee dissatisfaction due to the negative attitudes and behaviors mentioned in the above paragraph. Narcissistic leaders use numerous tactics such as delay, coercion, and even slander in order to achieve results (Grier, 2008). These tactics cause the employees to feel threatened by intimidating the employee. Employees may also think that one day the leader will also defeat him (Lubit, 2002). The tactics that narcissist leaders use for self-affirmative purposes may harm social relationships. In addition, they fail to admit when they have made a mistake and frequently blame others for their own errors (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1985). This arrogant behavior on the part of the narcissist leader results in the loss of a sense of community within the organization by decreasing the self-esteem and self-confidence of employees (Godkin and Allcorn, 2011). Thus, it is likely that employees begin to be emotionally exhausted. Besides, it has been established that narcissistic leaders are perceived as abusive especially by followers with low self-esteem (Nevicka et al., 2011a).

Work exhaustion is associated with multiple mental and psycho-social health outcomes. Adverse work conditions are among the primary factors for exhaustion, and

since narcissistic leaders consume the resources of employees, they provide adverse business conditions for employees (Känel, Vianen, Herr, and Schmidt, 2017). Work stress caused by a narcissistic leader can lead to both mental and emotional energy depletion.

Narcissism is defined as a personality trait entailing a grandiose sense of the self, paired with self-affirmative strategies and disregard for others. Also, narcissists may strive for power, seek to influence others, and engage in creative or risky actions for success. They can therefore adopt a competitive style that causes a toxic and demoralizing work environment (Andreassen, Ursin, Eriksen, and Pallesen, 2012). In these circumstances, they expect their best employee to make a major kind of contribution or further the narcissist's vision. But, over competition and big expectations may exhaust their employee both mentally and emotionally. Sometimes, they can be aggressive in order to protect the vision or to motivate the employee. Besides, they do not tolerate what they perceive as disrespect and they are quick to anger (Barnard, 2008). So, these attitudes and behaviors lead to work exhaustion because they can cause stress.

Within this framework, it is obvious that narcissistic leadership style can create a working environment where employees are demotivated and disengaged due to negative organizational outcomes, which in return leads to an unhealthy organizational climate (Lubit, 2002; Kets de Vries, 2004; Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006; Resick, Whitman, Weingarden, and Hiller, 2009). Narcissistic leaders also have drive and vision, but their focus is on obtaining personal power, status, and success; when faced with challenges or potential failures, these leaders turn to abusive and unethical behaviors, which become toxic to the organization (Glad, 2002; Kets de Vries, 2004; Anernic and Craig, 2010). As a result of these conditions, employees may become mentally and emotionally exhausted. Based on the foregoing evidence and conceptualizations, it can be concluded that the narcissistic leadership style is in related to stress, burnout, toxic behaviors, and unhealthy organizations.

According to both empirical and theoretical findings, the narcissistic leadership style may be expected to damage employees due to leadership traits such as

extreme sensitivity to criticism, being a poor listener, extreme competitiveness and over control, paranoiac thoughts, anger and put-downs, lack of empathy, and desire for grandiosity. It is also expected that all these negative factors may affect the welfare of employees in a negative way and positively cause them to be exhausted.

Consequently, the following hypothesis has been set based on the literature examined:

H4: A Narcissistic Leader has a positive impact on work exhaustion.

2.11. THE CONCEPT of SELF-CONTROL

2.11.1. Self-Control as a Moderator on the Relationship between Counterproductive Work Behavior and Workplace Malicious Envy

In the light of information obtained from the literature, it can be suggested that there is a relationship between workplace envy and tendency to manifest counterproductive behaviors at work (Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007; Khan, Quratulain and Bell, 2014; Bauer and Spector, 2015; Navarro, Llorens, Olateju and Insa, 2018; Braun, et al., 2018; Carrillo, Morillas, Segura and Expósito, 2018). In addition to this potential relationship, the degree of an individual's self-control may moderate the relations between the CPWB tendency of employees and their malicious envy. For instance, while some employees engage in CPWB, others do not engage in CPWB, in spite of a sense of ill will toward the envied. At this point, the answer to the question why employees do or do not engage in CPWB relates to their degree of self-control (Marcus and Schuler, 2004; Bechtoldt, et al., 2007). Self-control is associated with a person's consideration of future consequences before satisfying his or her needs. The General Theory of Crime helps to explain criminal behaviors based on the theory of self-control (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). According to the theory, self-control indicates how the developmental and environmental conditions, such as nurturing and limit setting, shape individuals' impulsivity, low frustration tolerance and need for immediate gratification. Hence, low self-control results from an individual's poor history of nurturing, limit setting and moral framework, which promotes impulsivity and frustration associated with criminal behavior. Therefore, there is a relationship

between high self-control and crime avoidance (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). This means that employees consider the results of CPWB, and therefore, employees who have high self-control do not allow negative emotions such as malicious envy to trigger their aggression.

The concept of self-control has been researched in terms of its moderating role as regards the malicious envy of employees and the tendency of CPWB. Spector, Fox and Domogalsky (2006) demonstrate in their study that individual differences and personality traits constitute an important explanation for undesirable work behaviors like CPWB. When self-control of employees is low, they lack the ability to effectively manage their negative emotions. Instead, they react impulsively or aggressively due to people they envy by harming their surroundings in the workplace (Douglas and Martinko, 2001). Additionally, as the degree of self-control of an employee decreases, the employee experiences higher levels of envy is more likely to engage in counterproductive behavior, including undermining co-workers, spreading negative gossip, acting with aggression, and withdrawing from the workplace. In this way, they alleviate the stress caused by envy (Sternlig and Labianca, 2015).

Malicious envy that occurs as a result of negative social comparison may lead to many negative outcomes, such as sabotaging a rival's work, back-stabbing a competitor, harassment or ostracism of a rival (Khan et al., 2009). CPWB will not always dominate employees who may engage in emotion regulation and may have self-control, using a variety of methods. Thus, self-control will prohibit the negative effects of situations that may potentially give rise to envy.

According to various studies, self-control represents a personality trait that can play a central role in the development of well-being since it is a general ability to make a mental effort to bridge the gaps between one's deliberation, decision and voluntary bodily action when one encounters resistance from one's own inclinations. Furthermore, self-control protects a person against rebellious desires because it is an inspection mechanism (Henden, 2008). Otherwise, employees are unable to control deviant and aggressive impulses when their self-control is diminished (DeWall, Baumeister, Stillman, and Gailliot, 2007).

88

Traditionally, self-control consumes an individual's psychological resources, and naturally, as these important resources are depleted, it is more difficult for the person to control subsequent behavior (Muraven and Baumeister, 2000). In this context, when investigating the impact of self-control on CPWB on 356 workers, Yan, Zhou, Long and Ji (2014) have found a positive significant relationship between workplace ostracism and both organizational and interpersonal employee CPWB and self-control as mediators. Bechtoldt et al., (2007) have conducted a study which also emphasizes the effect of self-control on the relation between job demands and causes of deviant behaviors at work. They pointed out that the most influential variable in their research model was self-control.

Spector's (2011) work in which he collected data from studies in other disciplines including developmental and social psychology, has examined how different personality variables (hostile attribution bias, narcissism, negative affectivity and trait anger) relating to CPWB might affect various steps in the process linking behavior to precipitating environmental conditions or events. The results of his study indicate that self-control also has a CPWB inhibiting role.

Another study has been conducted in China by Situ, Li and Dou (2016). In their study, 3 different sample groups have been investigated. Sample 1 consisted of 885 adolescents recruited from Guangdong Provincein China; sample 2 involveed 671 university students from three provinces (i.e. Guangdong, Jiangxi and Hunan) in China, and sample 3 includeed 500 Chinese full-time employees. The results of their study indicated that self-control was significantly linked with CPWB. Additionally, their findings demonstrate that there are significant quadratic effects of self-control on emotional and behavioral problems in adolescents and on behavioral problems in employees. At the same time, they (Situ et al., 2016) investigated the effect of over control and they suggested that too much self-control could have the reverse effect and that the positive effect of self-control could diminish after a threshold. According to Situ et al.'s (2016) findings, it can be revealed that as the self-control effort of the employees increases, the psychological and physical health problems of the employees

are re-exposed and this can lead to deviant behaviors (Everton, Jolton and Mastrangelo, 2007).

Furthermore, Galić and Ružojčić (2017) have collected data obtained from 1674 employees in various organizations for examining the effect of implicit aggression and dispositional self-control on counterproductive work behaviors. In their study, they confirmed the moderating effect of self-control between implicit aggression and self-reported CPWB. More importantly, their findings indicate that the expression of undesirable behaviors in organizations depends on the interplay between the implicit urge to aggress and inhibitory forces of self-control. Indeed, they find that high self-control can prevent aggressive inclinations that stem from an implicit and unconscious personality.

As discussed above, numerous studies have clearly revealed the beneficial effects of self-control both within and outside the organizational field, and there is enough evidence to support the moderating role of self-control in the literature. Accordingly, it can be hypothesized that the degree of self-control of the employees may affect the relation between workplace envy and counterproductive work behaviors. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been set:

H5: Self-control has a moderating role on the impact of perceived workplace malicious envy on counterproductive work behavior.

2.11.2. Self–Control as a Moderator on the Relationship between Counterproductive Work Behavior and Toxic Organizational Climate

In general, organizational climate refers to the shared perceptions of and the meaning attached to the policies, practices, and procedures employees experience and the behaviors they observe getting rewarded and that are supported and expected (Ostroff et al., 2003, Schneider, Ehrhart and Macey, 2011). Due to the perception of organizational climate, employees know how to solve problems associated with external adaptation and internal integration (Trice and Beyer 1993, Schein 2010; Zohar and Hofmann 2012). Yet, behavioral patterns that undermine organizational productivity and work life effectiveness lead to a toxic organizational climate that includes control

freaks, narcissists, manipulators, bullies, poisonous individuals, or humiliators, toxic managers, etc. (Taştan, 2017). In a toxic organizational climate, it is highly possible to see behavioral patterns such as incivility, impoliteness, distance, and unfriendliness (Frost, 2003). Furthermore, attitudes and behaviors like tearing others down, passive aggressive leadership, destructive gossip, devious politics, and a lot of negativity are reflections of the toxic organizational climate (Anderson, 2013). In addition, toxic behaviors caused by managers can occur in the form of abuse and bullying. To illustrate, an employee can be exposed to the inappropriate assigning of blame, rudeness, or angry outbursts by a manager (Siegel, 2011). Humiliations, gossiping, negative acts or aggression among employees are types of toxic behaviors which lead to a low trust environment, negative emotional contagion, and high stress (Gilbert et al., 2012). On the other hand, non-ergonomic and unsuitable physical conditions at work are also a cause of toxicity (Taştan, 2013). Under these circumstances, all these toxic factors could promote employee counterproductivity and deviant behavior (Kellerman 2004; Lipman-Bluemen, 2005). It is well known that counterproductive behaviors tend to be attributed to negative reciprocity because of the employee's tendency to balance a perceived injustice by damaging the organization (Bies and Tripp, 1996). In other words, a toxic organizational climate may trigger negative behaviors as a response. Once again, self-control is an important factor in explaining the expected possible relationship.

According to self-control theory, the motivation to acquire the immediate gains of crime such as satisfaction and pleasure are universal, and people are all motivated to the ends of crime, as human nature is hedonistic. Yet, crimes are restrained by potential consequences and the most important ones of these potential consequences are social ones. Crimes that refer to an attractive style of behavior engender long-term consequences that for most crimes far exceed any benefits to be gained from the pleasurable act (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). When viewed from this aspect, it is expected that individuals who lack self-control are not constrained by the potential long-term consequences of crime. They do not consider the consequences when making decisions or taking the action. Conversely, individuals with high self-control are able to resist the immediate benefits that crimes offer. As they are future-oriented individuals,

they are conscious that such benefits will lead to much more painful delayed consequences. Thus, they make well-calculated decisions and do a well-act as a result of calculation (Burt, Steven and 2015; Taştan, 2018). Thus, self-control has been researched so far in a moderating role to counterproductive acts in a toxic organizational environment.

In today's conditions, it is claimed that organizations create a variety of negative attitudes and counterproductive behaviors. When investigating the impact of supervisor toxicity on counterproductive work behaviors on 216 health care workers, Gabriel (2016) has found out a significant relationship between manager toxicity and employees' counterproductive acts. According to the findings of the study, employees are quick to reciprocate against manager toxicity by means of counterproductive acts. For this, they may transmit their aggression to either peers or other identifiable assets of the organization (Gabriel, 2016). Zeng, Wu, Chen and Lin (2017) have conducted a study in China which also analyses the mechanism of how Machiavellian corporate culture (MCC) affects employees' counterproductive work behaviors. The MCC of family businesses includes the following three dimensions: low trust, control orientation, and status orientation. They point out that employees exhibit more counterproductive acts as they perceive low organizational justice, psychological contract violation, and low trust in this corporate cultural context.

Slat (2015) has conducted a study in Croatia with the participation of 215 employees who work a minimum of 20 hours per week. The results of his study points out that implicit aggressiveness and self-control have positive relations with CPWB, such that aggressive people with low self-control show more counterproductive work behavior towards their organization. Here, it is important to note that a toxic workplace work environment leads to costly deviant behavior such as theft, sabotage, absenteeism, withholding effort or gossiping (Appelbaum and Girard, 2007). Additionally, Lipman-Blumen (2005) conclude that organizations could also become an incubator of toxic behavior, through counterproductive policies and practices, including unreasonable goals, excessive internal competition and cultures that encourage the blame game.

Moreover, Chu (2014) has performed a research study with the participation of 212 nurses, all of whom were employed by hospitals in Taiwan. In the study, he has tried to explore whether abusive supervision can effectively predict employees' counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and the role of toxic emotions at work as a potential mediator of these relationships in nursing settings. The results show that abusive supervision was positively associated with toxic emotions. Moreover, toxic emotions could effectively predict nurses 'counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. Finally, it has been found that toxic emotions partially mediate the negative effects of abusive supervision on both work behaviors. However, many studies show that employee personality also plays a role in work outcomes. Namely, employees who are able to effectively engage in self-control are less likely to engage in CPWB, also if working conditions are unfavorable (Bordia, Restubog and Tang, 2008).

As stated previous chapter, there are also the beneficial effects of self-control in numerous studies within the organizational field. In this context, it can be hypothesized that the degree of self-control of the employees may affect the relation between toxic organizational climate and counterproductive work behaviors. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been set:

H6: Self-control has a moderating role on the impact of perceived toxic organizational climate on counterproductive work behaviors.

2.12. THE CONCEPT OF SELF-ESTEEM

2.12.1. The Literature Review of Self-Esteem

Nowadays, the world of work has become an important part of human life and feeds into numerous different aspects of employees' lives. Basically, work life has an effect on topics like self-identity, self-esteem and opportunities for personal growth. According to the results of a survey about the workplace, employees desire intangible outcomes such as being treated with respect, having a good work/life balance and the type of work that they do more than tangible outcomes. In other words, employees put intangible values in front of tangible values in today's business life, and thus, feeling

valued is an important piece of the employee's assessment of their workplace. This is such that, employees who do not feel valued may intend to seek employment outside of their company the following year (50% vs. 21%) (Orth, Robins and Widaman, 2012). This means that feeling valued affects the employee's wellbeing in the workplace in many aspects. Generally, self-esteem helps to protect coordination in interpersonal relations, which is required for sustaining the social order. Based on these considerations, the issue of self-esteem of the employees, which is defined below, becomes one of the topics worth stressing from the human resources perspective.

The concept of self-esteem is commonly defined as "a feeling of self-worth" by researchers and has a long standing tradition in the field of psychology, going back to at least the 1960s (Himmler and Koenig, 2012). Rosenberg (1979); as cited in Pierce and Gardner 2004) defines self-esteem as "an individual's overall self-evaluation of his or her own competencies and it is the descriptive conceptualization that individuals make and maintain with regard to themselves". Self-esteem, an overall evaluation of one's personal worth, refers to the extent to which an individual believes him/herself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy (Newstrom, Gardner and Pierce, 1999). On the other hand, another perspective defines self-esteem as "the general self-assessment that individuals make and maintain in point of him/herself" (Steffenhagen and Burns, 1987). Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) also state that self-esteem 'is the overall affective evaluation of one's own worth, value, or importance'. In another definition, Rosenberg (1965) refers to the concept of self-esteem as an individual's evaluation reflecting what s/he thinks of him/herself as an individual. Korman (1970) also assess self-esteem with regard to the degree to which the individual "sees self as competent and need-satisfying". In conclusion, there are numerous definitions in the literature regarding self-esteem; however, the common element in their use is that self-esteem is an evaluation of one's own worth.

The concept of self-esteem is characterized in three different ways in the literature: global or trait self-esteem, specific self-esteem and state self-esteem. Firstly, according to some researchers, global or trait self-esteem refers to a decision people make about their worth as a person (Crocker and Park, 2004). Also, other researchers

define it as a feeling of affection for oneself that is not derived from rational, judgmental processes (Brown and Marshall, 2001). Briefly, global self-esteem refers to the way people generally feel about themselves (Pyszczynski and Cox, 2004). Secondly, specific self-esteem is used to refer to the way people evaluate their various abilities and attributes (Rubin and Hewstone, 1998). These evaluations of individuals include their physical attributes, abilities, and personality characteristics (Marsh and O'Mara, 2008). Thirdly, state self-esteem is used to refer to self-evaluative emotion reactions to valenced events. This is what people mean when they talk about experiences that "threaten self-esteem" or "boost self-esteem" (Brown, 2010). According to this perspective, individuals have different types of self-esteem in different areas.

As well as the field of psychology, the judgments of employees about themselves have important implications both for themselves and for the organization since an attitude of approval or disapproval of self reflects what employees believe themselves to be capable of (Newstrom, Gardner and Pierce, 1999). Therefore, self-esteem has become a growing domain for organizational psychology. Especially, self-esteem that is a strong predictor of general life satisfaction (Riggio, Throckmorton and Depaola, 1990; Rosenberg., 1995) has an important role in coping with stressful events in the workplace as a potent resource. For instance, beliefs like "having many good qualities and a lot to be proud of him/herself" or "to feel socially accepted, loved and wanted" have also been clearly positively correlated to self-esteem in a number of studies (Rosenberg, 1979).

Self-esteem indirectly affects the success and performance of the employee because it directly affects the employee's level of stress and motivation because high self-esteem individuals appreciate their own abilities, are aware of their potentials and weaknesses, and know how deal with environmental demands, struggles and stress, and recognize own limitations. Due to these reasons, they have a high sense of well-being and security, are open to new experiences and opinions, have a sense of humor, cope with criticism, and feel respect from peers and significant others (Edwards, 1993; as cited in Patterson, 2000, p.99). Additionally, these positive attitudes provide them with confidence, energy, and optimism (Roberts, 2006), and as a general result, leads them to

consider themselves worthy and respectable (Wells and Marwell, 1976). In the literature, there exists an approach of work-sourced self-esteem: performance-based self-esteem (PBSE). PBSE refers to one type of contingent self-esteem that is acquired through good performance in roles or arenas of importance for self-esteem, and focuses on how self-esteem is shaped and maintained (Kernis and Waschull, 1995; Crocker and Park, 2004; Blom, Richter, Hallsten and Svedberg, 2016). This type of contingent self-esteem builds upon accomplishments and ''doing'' rather than on ''being'' or ''having'' (Hallsten, Josephson and Torge´n, 2005). Employees high in PBSE display more involvement and commitment to their activities than those low in performance based self-esteem (Hallsten et al., 2005). However, PBSE can lead to harmful work-related outcomes in the long term (Dahlin, Joneborg and Runeson, 2007) because a successfully acquired self-esteem might be costly to mental and physical health for employees by depleting time and energy (Crocker, 2002). Family relationships can be harmed because they spend the vast majority of their energies and time working, so the work-family balance can be disrupted (Hallsten, et al., 2005). Additionally, they tend to bring work home, to reduce lunches, to attend work when they are sick, and to put personal needs aside (Hallsten, 2005; Hallsten et al., 2005). Consequently, PBSE has both positive and negative outcomes in work life.

The antecedents of self-esteem have been described in the literature as competence, importance, and control (Brockner, 1988), beliefs about the self (Korman, 1971), psychical abilities (Marsh, Parker and Barnes, 1985), indicators of social status such as family structure and family psychological characteristics (Coopersmith, 1967), academic achievement (Hansford and Hattie, 1982), the person's aptitude for a job (Brockner, 1988), experience of love and praise from others (Leary, 1999), the degree to which people are valued and accepted by others (Baumeister and Leary, 1995), job characteristics such as the amount of challenge and autonomy in a job (Tharenou, 1979), a sense of responsibility and meaning in the task (Hackman and Oldham, 1975), a successful performance of complex jobs and promotion (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings and Dunham, 1989), and salary (Orth, Robins and Widaman, 2012).

Self-esteem is defined as humans having a need to perceive themselves as good, and their actions as moral and justified. For this reason, people try to attain and maintain a favorable self-image. Researchers have found that the degree of self-esteem plays a significant role in important life domains, including work (Greenberg, Pyszczynski and Solomon, 1986; Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, and Vohs, 2003; Trzesniewski, Donnellan, Moffitt, Robins, Poulton and Caspi, 2006; Chang-Schneider and McClarty, 2007, 2008; Boden, Fergusson, and Horwood, 2008; Krueger, Vohs and Baumeister, 2008; Orth et al., 2012). According to previous studies which have tested for prospective associations between self-esteem and work-related outcomes, self-esteem influences positive work outcomes and positive work outcomes influence self-esteem (Kuster, Orth and Meier, 2013).

While examining the effects of self-esteem at the individual and organizational level, it is seen that self-esteem has a large and rather comprehensive set of effects. At the level of individual work-outcomes, the consequences of self-esteem were found to be related to psychological and mental health related outcomes such as isolation, loneliness, happiness, anxiety depression, aggression, violence, bullying or delinquency (Emler, 2001; Choi, Saperstein and Medalia, 2012). For decades, researchers have claimed that low self-esteem is an important cause of anti-social tendencies and the degree of it is a protective or trigger factor against developing mental health problems (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger and Vohs, 2003). Additionally, self-esteem is also associated with attitudes such as job satisfaction (e.g. satisfaction from the nature of work, satisfaction from the manager or supervisor, satisfaction from co-workers, satisfaction from promotion, satisfaction from salary and wages related with personal characteristics like age, gender and religion) (Alavi and Askaripur, 2003; Baumeister, Campbell and Krueger, 2003; Cherabin, Praveena, Azimi, Qadimi and Shalmani, 2012; Zafar, Mubashir, Tariq, Kazmi, Zaman and Zahid, 2014), extrinsic career success (Day and Allen, 2004; Barclay, 2011; Ansaripour, Fasihi, Mohammadi, Ganji, Shirian, Tehrani, 2017), job performance (Hutman, 1999; Pierce and Gardner, 2004; Ansaripour, et al., 2017), counterproductive work behavior (Spector, 2006; Whelpley and McDaniel, 2016), turnover intentions (Ramamurthi, Vakilbashi, Rashid, Mokhber and Basiruddin,

2016), fundamental motivation and behaviors (Abraham, 1998), and work exhaustion (Abdelhamied, 2018).

From an organizational level perspective, employees with high levels of self-esteem are more committed to their organizations than their low self-esteem colleagues (Uçar and Ötken, 2013; Sadoughi and Ebrahimi, 2015). Moreover, the consequences of self-esteem have been found to have relations with perceived organizational support (Uçar and Ötken, 2013), work engagement (Rotich, 2016), organizational identification (Qureshi, Shahjehan, Zeb and Saifullah, 2011) organizational performance (Pierce, 1989), organizational success (Dyne, Vandewalle, Kostova, Latham and Cummings, 2000), organizational citizenship behaviors (Qureshi, Shahjehan, Zeb and Saifullah, 2011).

Self-esteem is one of the factors that can be used to assess employee capability and predict their future performance in the organization. Therefore, improving self-esteem would have a beneficial effect on work-related outcomes. Because self-esteem may lead to positive self-evaluation in relation with one's work environment, this evaluation positively influences the individuals' attitudes and possible behavior at the workplace (Emler, 2001). Thus, self-esteem that changes over time and is developmentally a dynamic process shouldn't be ignored by managers (Bishop, 2008).

2.12.2. Self-Esteem as a Mediator on the Relationship between Work Exhaustion and Narcissistic Leadership

Nowadays, narcissism has become very prevalent in business life and it is seen that narcissists are selected for leadership positions by others. Because of many attitudes and behaviors such as grandiose belief systems or charisma, theoretical arguments have clearly found a link between narcissism and leadership (Braun, 2017). Even though there are different determinations about whether leader narcissism is good or bad for organizations and their members, according to ongoing academic discussion, narcissistic leaders are likely to cause much damage to their followers in the organization (Dubrin, 2012). In particular, when narcissistic tendencies reach pathological extremes, their followers may have trouble from narcissistic leaders

because narcissism triggers personality traits such as exceptionally low humility and agreeableness, very low emotionality and low conscientiousness (Visser, Book, and Volk, 2017). Narcissistic leaders tend to surround themselves with unquestioning followers and their actions are principally motivated by their own egomaniacal needs and beliefs. Therefore, their needs and beliefs are more important to them than the needs and interests of the organization they lead (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). At the same time, they tend to be self-absorbed and hold beliefs of entitlement and superiority. These beliefs lead to aggressive tendencies in the face of criticism. Moreover, when validating their self-worth by derogating others, others may perceive them as being abusive. The toxic side of narcissistic leaders has a strong influence on the psychology of their followers (Nevicka, Hoogh, Hartog and Belschak, 2018).

Narcissistic leaders are self-absorbed and hold beliefs of entitlement and superiority. They have undesirable and unconstructive features such as to 'prioritize agency over communication', behave arrogantly and to dominate, devaluate, envy, disrespect and exploit others as an attempt to seal over a rather fragile self-esteem (Lubit, 2002; Hepper, Hart and Sedikides, 2014). However, the behaviors and attitudes expected from the leader are beneficial acts for employee well-being, such as creating trust, involvement, influence, confidence, recognition & providing feed-back and opportunity for development (Cartwright and Cooper, 1994). Instead of displaying these behaviors, narcissistic leaders can damage their relationships with followers for personal gain at the expense of the followers' self-esteem (Sankowsky, 1995). The nature of the narcissistic leaders' instrumental, manipulative, exploitative actions and lack of empathy may cause interpersonal relationships that lead to low self-esteem. Therefore, it could be suggested that narcissist leaders would decrease the self-esteem of followers by means of these leadership behaviors. Furthermore, as a second step, self-esteem leads to employee work exhaustion because followers low on self-esteem cause failure to meet organization's goals, loss of standards, wishes and performance (Abdelhamied, 2018). Additionally, the negative effects of low self-esteem impact a variety of outcomes, including performance, achievement, motivation, aggression and substance abuse (Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt and Caspi, 2005). The haughty and derogatory attitude of narcissistic leaders may even lead followers with

low self-esteem to leave the job (Kahill, 1988). Narcissistic leaders expect their followers to work harder despite their employees being exhausted or in bad health since they exploit all the energy of their employees to realize their own vision. For this reason, they ignore employees' own needs and wishes, and ask them to dedicate all their time to realizing their magic vision and prestige. For the sake of their grandiosity, they can directly hurt employees on a personal level and take no action to improve it (Perera, 2013). Under such circumstances, the self-esteem of employees who do not see themselves as capable and efficacious or feel they are seen as persons of value by leaders will decrease (Cast and Burke, 2002). As employees with low self-esteem suffer under narcissistic leaders, in turn, these employees show more work exhaustion symptoms when working for such leaders. Furthermore, employees need self-esteem to trigger feelings of success and sufficiency at work. Otherwise, the individual's tendency to evaluate oneself as insufficient increases when there is a decrease in success. Consequently, low self-esteem leads to work exhaustion (Erkorkmaz, Doğu and Çınar, 2018). Furthermore, the fact that narcissistic leaders do not give control authority to the employee, that they are destructive in their bilateral relations, that they blame others for their own mistakes and that they do not give confidence to their followers will affect employees' job satisfaction and cause a decrease in their self-esteem. Therefore, it is expected that working with such a leader inevitably causes employee's work exhaustion.

Nevicka and collegues (2018) have also conducted a study in various industries (e.g., hospitality, healthcare, and business) with 128 followers matched with 85 leaders, and confirmed that followers with low self-esteem will perceive narcissistic leaders as more abusive than those with high self-esteem; abusive supervision, in turn, is positively related to follower exhaustion. In their study, they examined narcissistic leaders and abusive supervisors in order to measure the effect of self-esteem on the relationship between leader narcissism and employee exhaustion. According to their results, when a follower's self-esteem is high, the positive relationship with abusive supervision becomes insignificant and there is no longer an indirect effect through abusive supervision on exhaustion for leader narcissism. Currently, in many studies, abusive supervision is shown to be associated with leader narcissism (Burton and Hoobler, 2011; Wang and Jiang, 2014; Keller and Jones, 2014). Additionally, nurses

with high self-esteem have better performance in their work because of increased personal accomplishment, while nurses with low self-esteem are not likely to do so (Randle, 2003). Consequently, employees with high self-esteem have a more positive attitude towards their role at work and may handle stressful events more effectively (Fothergill, Edwards, Hanigan; Burnard and Coyle, 2000). Thus, the impact of exhaustion on employees will not be observed (Maslach et al., 2001)

Similar findings have been reached by Rahimnia, Sadeghian, and Yazdani (2017). Rahimnia and collegues (2017) indicated that nursing managers can reduce nurses' burnout by identifying and eliminating the factors causing social undermining at the workplace in their study. Due to utilizing the techniques to increase the nurses' self-esteem, the burnout syndromes of the nurses were both positively affected and reduced (Rahimnia, Sadeghian and Yazdani, 2017).

Blom (2012) has conducted a study with a sample consisting of 2121 working women and men, and found that performance-based self-esteem mediates partially between the stressors and burnout. Furthermore, on the individual level, performance based self-esteem is the strongest predictor of burnout over time, followed by private life stressors. According to results, women have stronger associations between performance-based self-esteem and burnout, while men have stronger associations between work stressors and burnout. Similarly, performance-based self-esteem is associated with burnout dimensions among medical students (Dahlin, Joneborg and Runeson, 2007). Moreover, many researchers have detected a significant association between self-esteem and burnout (Ferris, Brown and Heller, 2009)

In another study emphasizing the social exchange theory and the stressor-strain framework, it has been found that an employee's psychological strain plays a mediating role between the leaders' narcissism and employee's organizational cynicism. Furthermore, a moderating role is played by psychological capital in this relationship. The findings of this study suggest that managers in the healthcare industry should be sensitive in treating their subordinates in order to lead to positive interpersonal relationship, which, in turn, will reduce employee cynicism. In addition, they claim that managers should pay more attention to the buffering role of psychological capital for

those employees with high psychological strain and showing organizational cynicism. Thus, employee psychological strain was found to fully mediate the relation between experiences of high quality relationships and low employee cynicism (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2017).

Based on the above explanation, it can be expected that narcissist leaders cause employees' work exhaustion because of their negative attitudes and behaviors which can deplete employees' various sources of energy, both mental and emotional. Consequently, under a destructive organizational climate, it is expected that an employee's self-esteem will decrease. Thus, according to the mediator role of self-esteem discussed in the literature, the following hypothesis has been set:

H7: Employee's self-esteem has a mediating role on the impact of perceived narcissistic leader on perceived work exhaustion.

2.13. THE SUMMARY OF THE GENERATED HYPOTHESES

The hypothetical propositions of this study, which are detailed in the literature review section, are as follows;

H1: Workplace malicious envy has a positive impact on counterproductive work behavior.

H2: Workplace benign envy has a positive impact on contextual performance.

H3: Toxic organizational climate has a positive impact on counterproductive work behavior.

H4: A Narcissistic Leader has a positive impact on work exhaustion.

H5: Self-control has a moderating role on the impact of perceived workplace malicious envy on counterproductive work behavior.

H6: Self-control has a moderating role on the impact of perceived toxic organizational climate on counterproductive work behaviors.

H7: Employee's self-esteem has a mediating role on the impact of perceived narcissistic leader on perceived work exhaustion.
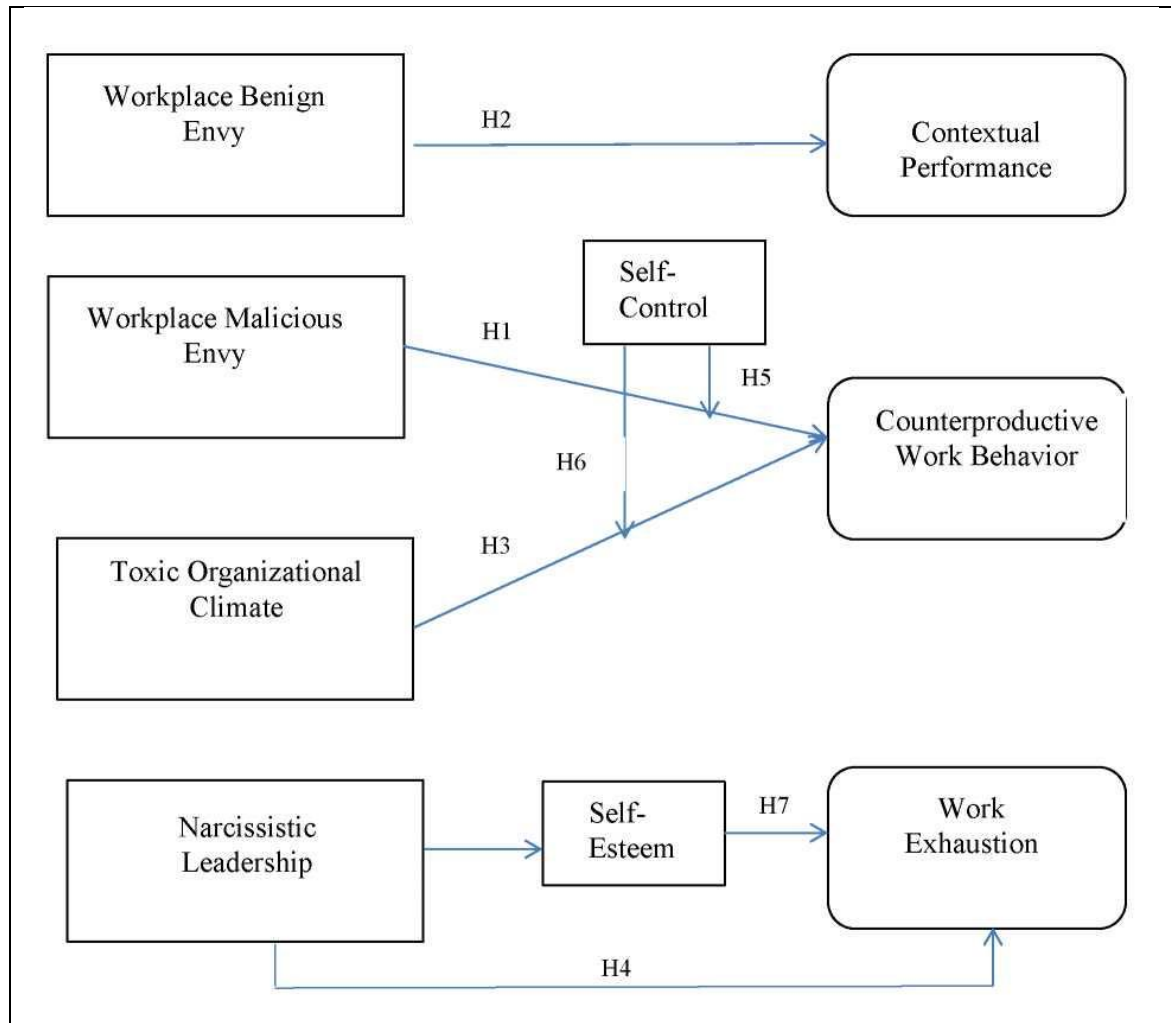
Figure 3. The Hypothetical Relationships among the Research Variables

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. THE RESEARCH MODEL

Many researchers emphasized the importance of portraying the research approach as an effective strategy to increase the validity of social research (Newman and Benz, 1998; Cresswell, 2007). For this purpose, social science researchers can use three different methods, which can be described as qualitative, quantitative and mixed research methods (Newman and Benz, 1998, Cresswell, 2007). The qualitative research method refers to an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Cresswell, 2007). This method aims to collect and analyze data, develop and modify a theory, elaborate or refocus the research question, and identify and deal with validity threats by means of open-ended questions, interviews, focus groups, observations and case studies (Maxwell, 1998; Sutton and Austin, 2015). In addition, this method is not only about "what" participations think and feel but also "why" they think and feel so (Sutton and Austin, 2015). Moreover, due to qualitative research, culturally specific information about the values, opinions, behaviors, and social contexts of particular populations can be obtained (Marshall, 2003).

The quantitative research method allows testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, commonly on instruments, and thus, the numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures (Cresswell, 2007). The researcher reaches numerical data with the help of online and/or paper surveys, and interviews. Quantitative research typically begins with data collection based on a hypothesis or theory, and it is followed by the application of descriptive or inferential statistics (Walliman, 2011). Briefly put, descriptive statistics refers to identifying the characteristics of an observed phenomenon, or exploring the correlations between two or more entities. Inferential statistics refers to making inferences from data to more general conditions and the statistical testing of hypotheses (Trochim, 2006).

In social sciences, the mixed research method means collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, will provide a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Mixed methods can be an ideal technique to assess complex interventions (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2008; Creswell, 2009). However, this method involves the challenges of qualitative (soft, rich and deep) and quantitative (hard, objective and standardized) research approaches resulting from the nature of the data (Corbetta, 2003)

In the study, the research is conducted based on the quantitative research method. The numerical data is collected by online and paper surveys, which have been designed according to the relevant literature. Afterwards, 8 different scale items have been unified with respect to the variables. Accordingly, descriptive analysis has been applied, and the results presented in tables.

Generally, cross-sectional and longitudinal field surveys, which are observational studies, can be applied in a study. Longitudinal field surveys use continuous or repeated measures to follow particular individuals over prolonged periods of time — often years or decades. Thus, the researcher can observe the changes over periods via quantitative and/or qualitative data (Caruana, Roman, Hernández-Sánchez and Solli, 2015). In cross sectional field surveys, data are collected at one point in time from a sample selected to represent a larger population (Lillies and Mundy, 2005).

In this study, a single source data collection method (e.g. employees) and a single-method study (e.g., questionnaire) have been used to collect the data. A cross-sectional field survey has been selected because of the nature of the research questions and hypotheses. The surveys, which include counterproductive work behaviors, contextual performance, work exhaustion, workplace envy, toxic organizational climate, narcissistic leadership, self-control and self-esteem questionnaires as the questionnaires of independent, dependent, moderator and mediator variables have been answered by the employees. After collecting the data, the survey questionnaires have been matched to prepare for the statistical analysis.

3.2. THE SAMPLE AND DATA COLLECTION

The data for this thesis have been acquired from a sample of 330 participants from various public and private sectors in Turkey. Given the importance of employees' behaviors, it is important to understand the reasons for their behavior. In this context, the study has focused on helping organizations by seeking reasons for employee attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, the sample of this study includes employees who had been employed in various organizations in public/private sector companies located in İstanbul. The participants consisted of middle level or lower level managers and employees who did not have managerial position. Upper level managers were not included in the sample group because the participants were expected to evaluate their superiors. As a data collection method, online and paper-based surveys were used in the study. Of the 351 responses, 21 surveys were disregarded because of missing data or suspect responses. Afterrwards, of remaining 330 surveys, 252 were obtained as online and 78 surveys were obtained as paper-based.

Table 1.

Descriptive Result of the Sample

Characteristics		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Gender	Female	154	46.7	46.7
	Male	176	53.3	53.3
	Total	330	100	100
Marital Status	Married	161	48.8	48.8
	Single	169	51.2	51.2
	Total	330	100	100
Age	18-20 years	1	0.3	0.3
	20-29 years	172	52.1	52.4
	30-39 years	111	33.6	86.1
	40-49 years	41	12.4	98.5
	50-59 years	4	1.2	99.7
	60-69 years	1	0.3	100.0
	Total	330	100	100
Education	Associate	80	24.2	24.2
	University	177	53.6	77.8
	Master's Degree	63	19.1	96.9
	PhD Degree	10	3.1	100.0
	Total	330	100	100
Total Work Experience	1 year and below	46	13.9	13.9
	1-5 years	131	39.6	53.5
	6-10 years	69	20.9	74.4
	11-15 years	38	11.6	86.0
	16-20 years	19	5.8	91.8
	21-25 years	20	6.1	97.9
	26 years and above	7	2.1	100.0
	Total	330	100	100
Total Company Experience	5 years and below	234	70.9	70.9
	6-10 years	54	16.4	87.3
	11-15 years	19	5.8	93.0
	16-20 years	9	2.7	95.8
	21 years and above	14	4.2	100.0
	Total	330	100	100

The participants were 46.7% women and 53.3% men as shown in Table 1. 48.8% of the participations were married and 51.2% were single as shown in Table 1. In terms of age, 0.3% of the participants were between 18 and 20 years old, 52.1% were between 20 and 29, 33.6% were between 30-39, 12.4% were between 40 and 49, 1.2% were between 50-59, 0.3% were between 60-69 years old as shown in Table 1. The

average age of the employees was 31.7 years, ranging from 18 to 69 years (SD = .77). The graduation degree of the participants was; 24.2% from associate degree, 53.6% from university, 19.1% from master's degree and 3.1% PhD degree as shown in Table 1.

While it was analyzed the distribution of the work experience years of the participants; 13.9% of the participants had a work experience of 1 year and below, 39.6% between 1 and 5 years, 20.9% had an experience of 6 to 10 years, 11.6% has an experience of 11 to 15 years, 5.8% has an experience of 16 to 20, 6.1% has an experience of 21 to 25, 2.1% has an experience of 26 to above, as shown in Table 1. Besides, 70.9% of the participants had a company experience of 5 years and below, 16.4% between 6 and 10 years, 5.8% between 11 and 15 years, 2.7% between 16-20 years and 4.2% between more than 21 years, as shown in Table 1.

3.3. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

In the study, eight different scales were used to measure totally eight variables of the research model. All the scales were answered by the employees, since a self-report method has been utilized in the current study. For measuring the concepts of narcissistic leadership, contextual performance, work exhaustion, self-control, self-esteem and workplace envy, the items were rated on a 6-point scale ranging from 1="totally disagree" to 6="totally agree". In addition, the items of toxic organizational climate and counterproductive work behavior were rated on a 6-point scale ranging from 1="never" to 6="always".

All scales were adapted and re-evalueated by the researcher and thesis advisor. The translations were checked by five academicians for the face validity. Moreover, each of the items of the scales were all evaluated and confirmed by the academic committee of the thesis study.

The questionnaire was composed two sections as demographic variables section and the scales related with variables of the study. Gender, age, education level, total work experience, company and position experience information were collected to define the characteristics of the sample.

Basically, the questionnaire form of this study is composed of two parts, namely demographic variables section and the scales related with the variables of the study.

3.3.1. Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale

The level of counterproductive work behaviors of the employees in the organizations were measured by means of Robinson and Bennett's (1995) Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C), which had 30 items. The Turkish translation of the scale was done by Özcan (2006) and the Cronbach alpha value of the scale was found to be .97. Also, the Cronbach alpha values of the scale were found to be .97 in Örmeci's (2013) thesis study. Additionally, Taştan and Aydın Küçük (2019) found the Cronbach alpha value of the scale as .97 in the previous study. The scale, whose reliability and construct validity was determined, has been re-evaluated by the researchers of this study and adaptations have been made as necessary on the items. CPWB-Checklist consists of four subscales, which are production deviance, property deviance, political deviance and personal aggression. "Purposely, I worked slowly when things needed to get done" is one example from the production deviance subscale. "Purposely, I damaged a piece of equipment or property" is another example item for property deviance subscale. Finally, "I blamed someone at work for error I made" is an example item for political deviance, whereas "I insulted or made fun of someone at work" is an item which reflects personal aggression.

3.3.2. Contextual Performance Scale

The contextual performance of employees was measured by 17 items. 3 items were selected from Borman and Motowidlo's (1997) "Contextual Performance Scale". The scale, which was adapted by Tuna and Yahyagil (2014) is composed of 5 items and it is a unidimensional scale. Cronbach alpha value was found to be 0.87 in their study (Tuna and Yahyagil, 2014). "I volunteer to complete extra tasks." is an example item for the contextual performance dimension. In addition, 14 items were added from Motowidlo and Van Scotter's (1994) scale and the Turkish translation was done by the researcher and thesis advisior of this study from Marmara University. According to the

results of the pilot study, Cronbach alpha value was found to be 0.96. "I support and encourage a co-worker with a problem." is another example item for the contextual performance scale.

3.3.3. Work Exhaustion Scale

Moore's (2000) "Work Exhaustion Scale" was used to measure the degree of work exhaustion of the employees, which had 5 items in total. The Cronbach alpha value of the scale was found to be .89 in Taştan and Kalafatoğlu's (2016) studies. Similarly, in the Anwar, Sidin and Javed' study (2016), the Cronbach alpha values of the scale were found to be .86. in the context of manufacturing and services sector. The Turkish translation of scale was done by Taştan and Kalafatoğlu (2016) from Marmara University. Also, this translation was checked and re-evaluated by the researcher and thesis advisor. "I feel used up at the end of the work day." is one of the items of work exhaustion scale.

3.3.4. Workplace Envy Scale

Lange and Crusius' (2015) "The Benign and Malicious Envy Scale (BeMaS)", which has 10 items, was used to measure the envy feelings of the employees in the workplace. 5 items of the scale measure the benign envy feelings of the employees, whereas the other 5 items measure the malicious envy feelings of the employees. The Turkish translation was done by Çırpan and Özdoğru (2017) and the Cronbach alpha values of .85 for benign envy feelings of employees and .89 for malicious envy feelings of employees in their study. Additionally, Lange and Crusius' (2015) BeMaS scale had a Cronbach alpha value of .86 in a recent study of Taştan and Aydın Küçük (2019). The sample items for the scale are as follows: "When I envy others, I focus on how I can become equally successful in the future" (from the benign envy scale); "I feel ill will towards people I envy" (from the malicious envy scale).

3.3.5. Toxic Organizational Climate Scale

Taştan's (2017) 49 item scale was used to assess the perception of toxic organizational climate, which has four dimensions: toxic behaviors of co-workers, toxic

behaviors of managers, toxic social-structural factors and toxic work environment. Firstly, the research study was built on the direct personal observations of the author. Thus, it was obtained context-related data by an emic type of study. Secondly, in order to collect data for the qualitative research of the study it was followed a triangulation method within the three main stages of the survey which involved the applications of personal diaries, interviews, and questionnaires. Thirdly, it was performed informal, unstructured interviews with 190 nurses and 15 nursing administrators from 3 different public hospitals in order to derive negative behavioral and emotional issues that are encountered in the workplace. In addition, it was applied a personal diary technique to enable the participants who took place in the focus group of 30 nurses and 5 nursing administrators to wholly write and enlist their personal experiences, observations, and emotions by implicating their day-to-day working conditions and negative workplace events. Fourthly, formal interviews were performed with 110 nurses and 40 nursing administrators from the public hospitals. Finally, based on the data gathered throughout the personal diary and interview techniques, it was performed a content analysis and enlisted the assertion, statement, and concept groups which are embraced by identified codes.

Taştan (2017) found the Cronbach Alpha values of .87 for the "toxic behaviors of co-workers", .85 for the "toxic behaviors of managers", .83 for the "toxic social-structural factors" and .82 for the "toxic work environment" dimension respectively in the previous research. "I occasionally witness a coworker humiliate another in front of others." is an example item for the toxic behaviors of co-workers dimension. "I occasionally witness a manager use improper expressions (name-calling, nicknames, etc) when addressing or referring to a coworker." is one of the items of the toxic behaviors of managers. "I am doubtful as to whether employee performance is justly and fairly evaluated." is another example item for the toxic social-structural factors. "I think the working environment is unhealthy (lack of air, light, noise etc)." is an item which reflects toxic work environment.

3.3.6. Narcissistic Leadership Scale

Narcissistic Leadership was measured by a total of 19 items. To measure the narcissistic tendencies of managers, Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI- Short Version), which has been developed by Ames, Rose and Anderson (2005), was used. Originally, the scale was composed of 40 items measuring 7 dimensions. However, Atay (2009) has revised and translated it into Turkish, and this version is composed of 16 items measuring 6 dimensions. Atay (2009) found the Cronbach Alpha values of .63 for the narcissistic leadership scale in his research. Also, this translation was checked and re-evaluated by the researcher and thesis advisor. "My manager prefers to blend in with the crowd." or "My manager really likes to be the center of attention." are two of the items of the narcissistic leadership scale.

3.3.7. Self-Control Scale

Tangney and colleagues' (2004) "Self-Control Scale" was used to measure the self-control level of the employees, which has 21 items in total. The Turkish translation was conducted by Nebioğlu and colleagues (2012), and the Cronbach alpha values of .89 in their study. In addition, in the study of Unger, Bi, Xiao andYbarra (2016), the Cronbach alpha value was found .75 for Tangney and colleagues' (2004) "Self-Control Scale". Similarly, in Savcı's study (2018) which was carried out on 429 university students (256 females and 173 males), the Cronbach alpha value was found as .90. In this study, the translation was checked and 12 items were selected from a total of 21 items. "I have a hard time breaking bad habits." is an example item for the self-control scale.

3.3.8. Self-Esteem Scale

Rosenberg's (1963) 10-item scale measures global self-worth and is uni-dimensional. The Turkish translation of scale was done by Çuhadaroğlu (1986) and the Cronbach alpha values of .91 in her study. Zafar, Mubashir, Tariq, Masood, Kazmi, Zaman, and Zahid (2014) found the Cronbach Alpha values of .88 for the Rosenberg's (1963) 10-item self-esteem scale. Additionally, Eryılmaz and Atak (2011) found that the Cronbach Alpha value of scale was .85 in their study which was carried on high scool

students. For this study, the translation was checked and re-evaluated by the researcher and thesis advisor. "I take a positive attitude toward myself." is an example item of the self-esteem scale.

3.4. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY

The statistical analyses of the study were performed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Firstly, descriptive analysis was applied to identify the frequencies, means, and standard deviations of the sample in regard to gender, age, education level, total work experience, and company & position experience. Secondly, factor analysis was conducted to find the construct validities of all scales. Therefore, factor analyses were conducted by principal component analysis with varimax rotation. Items which were less than 0.50 loading were removed from the scales as suggested by Durmuş, Yurtkoru and Çinko (2013). Thirdly, the reliability analysis was conducted to all scales and the reliabilities of the scales were determined by Cronbach's Alpha. Due to the reliability analysis, the internal consistencies of all scale items were found, which is related to the degree of interrelatedness between these items (Panayides, 2013). According to statistical scholars, the internal consistency of the scales are supposed to be higher than 0.70 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). In addition, the sampling adequacy was tested by the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) coefficient which was expected to be KMO ≥0.50 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also conducted and expected to be ≤ 0.05, which represents the adequacy of relations between the items.

After all this, Pearson's Correlation analysis was used to test the correlation among all the variables. Besides, hierarchical regression analysis and multiple regression analysis were used in order to test the moderating and mediating effects (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Finally, t-tests about the demographic differences were conducted to determine whether the means of groups are statistically different from each other.

3.5. THE FINDINGS OF THE PILOT STUDY

After re-evaluating the translations of the whole survey, to test the inter judge reliability of all the scales, a pilot study was completed by calculating Cronbach's α value. A total of 147 employees who work at various sectors such as health, information technologies and education were selected and answered all the questions between December 2018 and January 2019. As seen in Table 2, none of the items were excluded from the scales as a result of the findings of the pilot study. All the scales had high internal consistency, which was shown by Cronbach α values and KMO and Bartlett's sphericity scores test of all scales is significant. Counterproductive work behavior scale's Cronbach α values was 0.730, contextual performance scale's Cronbach α values was 0.927 and further, work exhaustion, workplace envy, toxic organizational climate, narcissistic leadership, self-control and self-esteem scales had 0.844, 0.811, 0.921, 0.912, 0.863 and 0.941 Cronbach α values respectively.

Table 2.

Pilot Study Realibility and Factor Findings of the Study

Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale	KMO=0.730 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 1742,717 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.892
Contextual Performance Scale	KMO=0.927 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 1718, 984 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.961
Work Exhaustion Scale	KMO=0.844 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 410,921 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.923
Workplace Envy Scale	KMO=0.811 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 660,374 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.831
Toxic Organizational Climate Scale	KMO=0.921 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 7273,821 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.986
Narcissistic Leadership Scale	KMO=0.912 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 1437,987 P=0.000	Cronbach α =0.927
Self- Control Scale	KMO=0.863 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 668,768 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.888
Self- Esteem Scale	KMO=0.941 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 1080,949 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.959

In addition, the correlation analysis was applied by Pearson Correlation test to reveal the level of relations between all the dependent, independent, moderating and mediating variables of the study. The pilot study correlation matrix demonstrated in Table 3.

Table 3.

Pilot Study Correlation Findings of the Study

Variable	M.	Stnd. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. CPWB	5.56	.3723	1	-.302**	.273**	**.349****	.126	**.251****	.269**	.257*	-.043
2. Contextual Performance	3.62	1.0945	-.302**	1	-.179*	-.218**	**.212****	-.022	.020	.607**	.587**
3. Work Exhaustion	2.27	.9630	.273**	.273**	1	.124	.093	.457**	**.351****	-.160	-0.52
4. Malicious Envy	3.17	1.3769	**.349****	-.218**	.124	1	.201*	.275**	.161	-.221**	-.260**
5. Benign Envy	5.22	1.0231	.126	**.212****	.093	.201*	1	.005	.079	.179*	.327**
6. Toxic Org. Climate	3.99	1.1766	**.251****	-.022	.457**	.275**	.005	1	.446**	-.005	-.114
7. Narcissistic Leadership	3.62	1.0945	.257*	.020	**.351****	.161	.079	.446**	1	-.086	.142
8. Self-Control	2.64	.8420	**.257***	.607**	-.160	**-.221****	.179*	-.005	-.086	1	.562**
9. Self-Esteem	2.12	.9781	-.043	.587**	**-0.52**	-.260**	.327**	-.114	**.142**	.562**	1

N= 147, ** p< .001; * p< .005, (2-tailed)

Acording to Table 3, the significant relationships were found between the variables of the study (excluding the relationship between work exhaustion and self-esteem).These results provided important clues about hypotheses of the current study.

4. MAIN STUDY FINDINGS

4.1. RELIABILITY AND FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE SCALES

In this section, the factor analysis and the Cronbach Alpha values of the scales were presented on scale basis.

4.1.1. Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale

As presented in Table 4, the Cronbach α value of the counterproductive work behavior scale was .954 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation is used and factors with Eigenvalues ≥1.00 were considered in determining the total variance explained.

Table 4.

Factor Analysis Results Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale

Item No.	Counterproductive Work Behavior Factors	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I. Individiual and Organizational Deviance	**88.294**		**0.954**
10.	I blamed someone at work for error I made		.977	
22.	I have deceived or misled a coworker for my own benefit.		.972	
9.	I purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property		.972	
17.	I have occasionally passed off the ideas of another employee as my own so as to look good to supervisors and coworkers.		.972	
7.	I used company equipment for my private business		.969	
19.	I started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work		.966	
24.	I said something hurtful to someone at work		.964	
28.	I jibbed at a work		.960	
25.	I used property of the organization for private benefits		.960	
29.	There were occasions I made sloppy work		.957	
23.	I got angry and hitted workplace equipment(s)		.951	

continuation of the Table 4.

12.	I read / discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	.950	
8.	I ignored instructions of my supervisor	.947	
1.	I used sick leave when I was not really sick	.947	
15.	I intentionally worked slowly/carelessly than I could have worked	.946	
16.	I pretended to work	.944	
4.	I publicly embarrassed someone at work	.942	
21.	I asked an inexperienced co-worker to do my awkward jobs for me	.936	
30.	There were occasions I did not conform with rules	.936	
27.	I left early without approval when the supervisor was out of office	.928	
2.	I took property without permission	.927	
13.	I purposely wasted employer's materials/supplies	.924	
18.	I have tried to hide the mistakes I have made	.922	
3.	I acted rudely toward someone at work	.922	
14.	I suspended work to smoke a cigarette or chat with others	.917	
6.	I unnecessarily spent more time for a task	.916	
26.	I daydreamed instead of working	.915	
5.	I took long breaks without approval	.896	
20.	I organized work in a way that only I can understand	.893	
11.	I concealed an important company information even if it were important for my colleagues	.851	
KMO=0.981 **Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 18164.500** **P=0.000**			**0.954**

4.1.2. Contextual Performance Scale

As presented in Table 5, the Cronbach α value of the contextual performance scale was .987 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation is used and factors with Eigenvalues ≥1.00 were considered in determining the total variance explained.

Table 5.

Factor Analysis Results of Contextual Performance Scale

Item No.	Contextual Performance Factor	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Contextual Performance	**83.156**		**0.987**
15.	I exercise personal discipline and self-control		,943	
8.	I follow proper procedures and avoid unauthorized shortcuts		,940	
5.	I cooperate with others in a team		,936	
2.	I tend to help and cooperate with my colleagues without being asked		,933	
10.	I offer to help others accomplish their work		,931	
6.	I persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task		,930	
13.	I render proper (company) courtesy		,929	
7.	I display proper (company) appearance and conduct		,929	
14.	I support and encourage a coworker with a problem		,924	
9.	I look for a challenging assignment		,923	
4.	I comply with instructions and rules even when a manager is not present		,922	
17.	I voluntarily do more than the job requires to help others or to contribute to organization effectiveness		,914	
11.	I pay close attention to important details		,906	
3.	I follow organizational rules and proper procedures		,891	
12.	I defend supervisior's decisions		,889	
16.	I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically		,883	
1.	I volunteer to complete extra tasks		,717	
	KMO=0.975 **Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 9100,556** **P=0.000**			**0.987**

According to these results, the contextual performance scale had one factor as one-dimensional construct which explained 83.1% of the variance. As seen, all the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale.

KMO coefficient was .975 which was on a significant level and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05.

4.1.3. Work Exhaustion Scale

As presented in Table 6, the Cronbach α value of the work exhaustion scale was .933 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation is used and factors with Eigenvalues ≥1.00 were considered in determining the total variance explained.

Table 6.

Factor Analysis Results of Work Exhaustion Scale

Item No.	Work Exhaustion Factor	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Work Exhaustion	**80.364**		**0.933**
5.	Working all day is really a strain for me		,914	
1.	I feel emotionally drained from my work		,895	
4.	I feel burned out from my work		,892	
2.	I feel used up at the end of the work day		,883	
3.	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job		,861	
	KMO=0.838 **Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 1448.682** P=0.000			**0.933**

According to these results, the work exhaustion scale had one factor as one-dimensional construct which explained 80.3% of the variance. As seen, all the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 therefore; none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .838 which was on a significant level and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05.

4.1.4. Workplace Envy Scale

As presented in Table 7, the Cronbach α value of the workplace envy scale was .859 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. According to the factor analysis results, the workplace envy scale had two factors which explained the 79.8% of the total variance. The factors labeled as; benign envy and malicious envy. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .889 which was on a significant level and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤ 0.05.

Table 7.

Factor Analysis Results of Workplace Envy Scale

Item No.	Workplace Envy Factors	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Malicious Envy	**55.110**		**0.849**
5.	If other people have something that I want for myself, I wish to take it away from them		,965	
6.	I fell ill will towards people I envy		,958	
10.	Seeing other people's achievements makes me resent them		,957	
8.	Envious feelings cause me to dislike the other person		,946	
2.	I wish that superior people lose their advantage		,872	
	Factor I: Benign Envy	**24.773**		**0.792**
3.	If I notice that another person is better than for me, I try to improve myself		,804	
7.	I strive to reach other people's superior achievements		,804	
1.	When I envy others, I focused on how I can become equally succesful in the future		,720	
4.	Envying others motives me to accomplish my goals		,715	
9.	If someone has superior qualities, achievements, or possesisons I try to attain them for myself		,630	
	KMO=0.889 **Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 3303.255** **P=0.000**	**79.884**		**0.859**

4.1.5. Toxic Organizational Climate Scale

According to the factor analysis results of toxic organizational scale, the items number 5, 11, 30, 38 and 39 were excluded from the scale due to the low factor loadings which was less than 0.50.

After the exclusion of these six items, factor analysis applied again, and the results was presented in Table 8. The Cronbach α value of the toxic organizational scale was .984 which represents the internal reliability of the scale. According to the factor analysis results, toxic organizational scale had three factors which explained the 76.1% of the total variance. Taştan's (2018) original scale has four factors which toxic behaviors of co-workers, toxic behaviors of managers, toxic social-structural factors and toxic work environment are, however in our study the toxic behaviors of managers items were observed under a third factor which was labeled as toxic social-structural factors. KMO coefficient was .968 which is on a significant level and Bartlett 's test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05.

Table 8.

Factor Analysis Results of Toxic Organizational Climate Scale

Item No.	Toxic Organizational Climate Factors	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Toxic Behaviors of Co-Workers	**30.885**		**.913**
7.	I occasionally witness acts of rage, such as threats or intimidation, among coworkers.		,933	
9.	I occasionally witness a coworker engage in adverse physical behaviors (pushing, shoving, hitting, etc) towards another.		,931	
1.	Coworkers occasionally gossip amongst themselves and this gossip spreads in a short timespan.		,871	
8.	I have occasionally witnessed someone being subjected to improper verbal expressions and abusive quarreling.		,708	
12.	Occasionally a coworker purposely either responds late or fails to respond to the emails and calls of another.		,708	

continuation of the Table 8.

6.	I occasionally witness a coworker being subjected to conscious attempts at ostracism and exclusion.	,689	
2.	I occasionally witness humiliating or offensive behaviors among coworkers.	,634	
10.	I witness some coworkers constantly pay attention to their phones or computers to avoid eye contact while another is communicating with them.	,894	
4.	I occasionally witness a coworker treat another in a harassing and terrorizing way.	,701	
3.	I occasionally witness a coworker humiliate another in front of others.	,638	
Factor II: Toxic Managerial and Social-Structural Factors		**27.045**	**.983**
16.	I occasionally witness a manager humiliate and make fun of a subordinate in front of other coworkers.	,877	
34.	Employees who are friends with powerful figures in the company and who have good relations with upper management enjoy easier and more advantageous conditions.	,843	
18.	I occasionally witness a manager use improper expressions (name-calling, nicknames, etc) when addressing or referring to a coworker.	,868	
13.	Occasionally a manager loses his or her temper towards a subordinate and says whatever comes to them without thinking.	,827	
48.	The burden on employees is constantly high, and before one job ends, another begins.	,817	
32.	I am doubtful as to whether employee performance is justly and fairly evaluated.	,817	
17.	A manager occasionally creates awkwardness by making inappropriate jokes.	,815	
14.	I witness some managers engage in rude and rough behaviors and expressions towards the workers around them.	,813	
49.	I feel as if each new day adds new stress on employees.	,799	
20.	I witness a manager constantly act in a harassing and terrorizing way towards a subordinate.	,789	
15.	Occasionally some managers take out their anger and stress on other workers and become aggressive.	,788	

continuation of the Table 8.

40.	Certain people are prioritized, given extra rights or shown preferential treatment in many processes (hiring, promotion, performance evaluation etc).	,778
47.	It is really difficult to put up with the intensity, problems and stress that the work environment puts employees under.	,772
42.	I think that employees and managers interact with each other only with the expectation of a certain return.	,772
44.	I can say that some managers have a personality that is physically and psychologically vainglorious, self-serving, and demanding of constant attention, acclaim and affirmation.	,766
41.	I am under the impression that employees and managers do not trust each other.	,755
24.	I witness some managers constantly attempt to make themselves look good and ingratiate themselves with their superiors for their own benefit.	,751
43.	Coworkers refrain from sharing their feelings, thoughts, and information about themselves with others, thinking that these may be abused.	,750
28.	I feel as if employees' humanity is being ignored and they are expected to work unceasingly like a piece of equipment that belongs here.	,715
31.	It is not quite possible for an employee to get promoted in time or advance career-wise, even though due performance has been shown.	,700
22.	A manager seems to constantly criticize and pressurize a subordinate by watching their every move and seeking opportunities to put them down.	,695
27.	One of the biggest problems is that employees are constantly being given extra jobs and duties in addition to their own primary work.	,681
19.	I occasionally witness some managers exploit and abuse the work of co-workers.	,689
33.	I occasionally witness some coworkers unfairly accused or criticized even when they have done right.	,675

continuation of the Table 8.

45.	I occasionally witness some managers display a tendency to intimidate, pressure and threaten subordinates to hang on to power.	,674	
21.	Some managers commonly treat coworkers carelessly and worthlessly for their own benefit and gain.	,669	
23.	I occasionally witness a manager bestow excessive attention and heap praise on coworkers for his or her own benefit and gain.	,659	
29.	No effort is made to facilitate the professional and personal growth of employees.	,644	
46.	I occasionally witness a manager ignore the feelings and dignity of a subordinate and even show no discomfort at having hurt them.	,643	
25.	I occasionally witness a manager appear extremely friendly, loving and praising to a coworker to get them to do their own work, and then put an end to it once their business is concluded.	,635	
26.	Employees are constantly being asked to work overtime and put up with long working hours.	,596	
	Factor III: Toxic Work Environment Factors	**18.203**	**.909**
36.	Foremost among the elements that exhaust and bother me is the physical environment I work in.	,923	
37.	I think the working environment may one day cause physical or psychological ailments in me or my coworkers.	,921	
35.	I think the working environment is unhealthy (lack of air, light, noise etc).	,917	
	Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 19819.944 **P=0.000** **KMO=0.968**		
		76.103	**.984**

148

4.1.6. Narcissistic Leadership Scale

In this study, according to the factor analysis results, narcissistic leadership scale had three factors which explained the 67.9% of the total variance. In Atay's (2009) study, the scale has six factors which authority, self-sufficiency, exhibitionism, entitlement, superiority, exploitativeness and smugness are, however in our study the items were collected under three factors and labeled as authoritarian behaviors, ego-centric behaviors and non-narcissistic leadership. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .946 which was on a significant level and Bartlett's test of sphericity was lower than 0.05 which also represents a significant level. Nevertheless, as presented in Table 9, the Cronbach α value of the Non-Narcissistic Leader dimension of the narcissistic leadership scale was .480 which represents the low internal reliability of the scale. Therefore, the items number 6 and 3 were excluded from the scale due to the low internal reliability which was less than 0.50. After the exclusion of these two items, The Cronbach α value of the dimension of authoritarian behaviors of scale was .941 and the dimension of ego-centric behaviors was .888 which represents the internal reliability of the scale. Besides, the general Cronbach α value of the narcissistic leadership scale was .941 which represents the internal reliability of the scale.

Table 9.

Factor Analysis Results of Narcissistic Leadership Scale

Item No.	Narcissistic Leadership Factors	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Authoritarian Behaviors	**33.321**		**0.941**
5.	S/he likes having authority over people		,802	
8.	S/he insists upon getting the respect that is due her/his		,779	
4.	S/he thinks s/he is a special person		,762	
1.	When people compliment his/her, s/he sometimes gets embarrassed		,753	
10.	S/he belives that everbody likes to hear his/her stories		,727	

continuation of the Table 9.

14.	Being an authority means that much to his/her, s/he wants that people always seem to recognize his/her authority	,703	
9.	S/he tries to be a show off, s/he is apt to show off if s/he gets the change	,689	
12.	She expects a great deal from other people	,675	
2.	S/he knows that s/he is good because everbody keeps telling his/her so	,657	
7.	S/he finds it easy to manupilate people	,642	
15.	S/he emphasizes that s/he is going to be a great person	,583	
Factor II: Ego- Centric Behaviors		**22.291**	**0.888**
13.	S/he doesn't like to do things for other people	,756	
16.	S/he can make anybody believe anything s/he wants them to	,743	
18.	There is not anything that s/he can learn from other people	,739	
11.	It makes his/her uncomfortable to be the center of attention	,723	
19.	S/he thinks that s/he is an extraordinary person	,649	
17.	S/he thinks that s/he is more capable than other people	,607	
Factor III: Non-Narcissistic Leader		**12.339**	**0.408**
6.	S/he doesn't mind following orders	,903	
3.	S/he prefers to blend in with the crowd	,522	
KMO=0.946 **Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 3156.332** **P=0.000**		**67.951**	**0.926**

4.1.7. Self- Control Scale

As presented in Table 10, the Cronbach α value of the self-control scale was .957 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation is used and factors with Eigenvalues ≥1.00 were considered in determining the total variance explained.

Table 10.

Factor Analysis Results of Self- Control Scale

Item No.	Self- Control Factor	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Self- Control	**70.199**		**0.957**
6.	People can count on me to keep on schedule		,899	
7.	Getting up in the morning is hard for me		,897	
12.	I refuse things that are bad for me		,879	
11.	People would describe me as impulsive		,876	
2.	I have a hard time breaking bad habits		,857	
10.	I blurt out whatever is on my mind		,839	
8.	I have trouble saying no		,831	
3.	I say inappropriate things		,829	
1.	I am good at resisting temptation		,804	
5.	I do certain things that are bad for me, if they are fun		,782	
9.	I change my mind fairly often		,705	
	KMO=0.948 **Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 3388.145** **P=0.000**			**0.957**

According to these results, the self- control scale had one factor as one-dimensional construct like the original of the scale, Tangey et al., (2004). This one factor explained the 64.7% of the variance. However, the item number 4 was excluded from the scale due to the low factor loadings which was less than 0.50. Then, factor analysis applied again, KMO coefficient value of the scale was .948 which was on a significant level and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05.

4.1.8. Self- Esteem Scale

As presented in Table 11, the Cronbach α value of the self- esteem scale was .962 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale.

According to the factor analysis results, self- esteem scale had one factor as uni-dimensional like the original of the scale, Rosenberg (1965). This one factor

explained the 84.1% of the variance. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .966 which is on a significant level and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05.

Table 11.

Factor Analysis Results of Self- Esteem Scale

Item No.	Self- Esteem Factor	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Self- Esteem	**84.115**		**0.962**
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of		,962	
7.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself		,959	
8.	I feel that I am a person of worth at least on an equal plane with others		,955	
2.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities		,949	
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people		,948	
3.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure		,944	
9.	I certainly feel useless at times		,940	
10.	At times, I think I am no good at all		,938	
1.	I take a positive attitude toward myself		,916	
6.	I wish I could have more respect for myself		,601	
	KMO=0.966 **Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 5295.023** **P=0.000**			**0.962**

4.2. CORRELATION ANALYSIS FINDINGS

In the study, the correlation analysis was applied by Pearson Correlation test to reveal the level of relations between all the dependent, independent, moderating and mediating variables of the study. According to the factor analysis results, the first factors of all the scales explained more than 30% of the total variance. Therefore, the scales were conducted as a total construct (Şekercioğlu and Büyüköztürk, 2016, p.227) due to practicality reasons in the further statistical analysis. The correlation matrix

demonstrated in Table 12 exhibits the bivariate correlations between the variables of interest and the correlation levels between the variables as the very weak, weak, moderate, strong and very strong (Aswegen and Engelbrecht, 2009).

Table 12.

Pearson Correlation Coefficient Interpretation

Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r)	Correlation
0.00 – 0.25	very weak correlation
0.26 – 0.49	weak correlation
0.50 – 0.69	moderate correlation
0.70 – 0.89	strong correlation
0.90 – 1.00	very strong correlation

According to the interpretations at Table 12, the correlation coefficient results between the variables of the study can be summarized as below;

a strong positive correlation (r=0.822) between counterproductive work behavior and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.010) between counterproductive work behavior and workplace benign envy (p=.858) is not significant
a weak positive correlation (r=0.372) between counterproductive work behavior and toxic organizational climate (p=.000)
a very weak correlation (r=0.174) between counterproductive work behavior and narcissistic leadership (p=.001)
a moderate negative correlation (r= -0.580) between counterproductive work behavior and self- control (p=.000)
a moderate negative correlation (r= -0.616) between counterproductive work behavior and self- esteem (p=.000)
a moderate negative correlation (r= -0.640) between counterproductive work behavior and contextual performance (p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.071) between counterproductive work behavior and work exhaustion is not significant (p=.198)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.307) between contextual performance and workplace benign envy (p=.000)
a moderate negative correlation (r= -0.531) between contextual performance and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.076) between contextual performance and toxic organizational climate is not significant (p=.170)

the correlation (r=-0.110) between contextual performance and narcissistic leadership is not significant (p=.146)
a strong positive correlation (r=0.798) between contextual performance and self-esteem (p=.000)
the correlation (r=0.122) between contextual performance and work exhaustion is not significant (p=.027)
the correlation (r=0.095) between work exhaustion and workplace malicious envy is not significant (p=.086)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.272) between work exhaustion and workplace benign envy (p=000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.475) between work exhaustion and toxic organizational climate (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.466) between work exhaustion and narcissistic leadership (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.157) between work exhaustion and self- control (p=.004)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.173) between work exhaustion and self- esteem (p=.002)
a strong positive correlation (r=0.825) between self-control and self-esteem (p=.000)
a very weak significant correlation (r=0.158) between workplace malicious envy and workplace benign envy (p=.004)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.421) between toxic organizational climate and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.202) between workplace malicious envy and narcissistic leadership (p=.000)
a weak negative correlation (r=0.469) between workplace malicious envy and self-control (p=.000)
a moderate negative correlation (r=0.536) between workplace malicious envy and self-esteem (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.209) between workplace benign envy and toxic organizational climate (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.186) between workplace benign envy and narcissistic leadership (p=.001)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.266) between workplace benign envy and self-control (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.320) between workplace benign envy and self-esteem (p=.000)
a moderate positive correlation (r=0.535) between toxic organizational climate and narcissistic leadership (p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.013) between toxic organizational climate and self- control is not significant (p= .808)
the correlation (r=-0.055) between toxic organizational climate and self- esteem is not significant (p=.318)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.137) between narcissistic leadership and self-control (p=.001)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.171) between narcissistic leadership and self-

esteem (p=.002)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.486) between toxic behaviors of co-workers and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.379) between toxic managerial and social-structural factors and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.337) between toxic work environment and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
a strong positive correlation (r=0.808) between toxic behaviors of co-workers and toxic managerial and social-structural factors (p=.000)
a moderate positive correlation (r=0.649) between toxic behaviors of co-workers and toxic work environment (p=.000)
a strong positive correlation (r=0.744) between toxic work environment and toxic managerial and social-structural factors (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.469) between authoritarian behaviors and work exhaustion (p=.000)
a strong positive correlation (r=0.761) between authoritarian behaviors and ego-centric behaviors (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.347) between authoritarian behaviors counterproductive work behavior (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.189) between authoritarian behaviors and contextual performance (p=.001)
the correlation (r=0.107) between authoritarian behaviors and workplace malicious envy is not significant (p=.322)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.202) between authoritarian behaviors and workplace benign envy (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.479) between authoritarian behaviors and toxic organizational climate (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.347) between authoritarian behaviors and toxic behaviors of co-workers (p=.000)
a moderate positive correlation (r=0.506) between authoritarian behaviors and toxic managerial and social-structural factors (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.316) between authoritarian behaviors and toxic work environment (p=.000)
a very strong positive correlation (r=0.970) between authoritarian behaviors and narcissistic leadership (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.202) between authoritarian behaviors and self-control (p=.000)
a very week positive correlation (r=0.248) between authoritarian behaviors and self-esteem (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.385) between ego-centric behaviors and work exhaustion (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.488) between ego-centric behaviors and counterproductive work behavior (p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.052) between ego-centric behaviors and contextual performance is not significant (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.344) between ego-centric behaviors and workplace

malicious envy (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.126) between ego-centric behaviors and workplace benign envy(p=.005)
a moderate positive correlation (r=0.551) between ego-centric behaviors and toxic organizational climate (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.488) between ego-centric behaviors and toxic behaviors of co-workers (p=.000)
a moderate positive correlation (r=0.549) between ego-centric behaviors and toxic managerial and social-structural factors (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.398) between ego-centric behaviors and toxic work environment (p=.000)
a strong positive correlation (r=0.896) between ego-centric behaviors and narcissistic behaviors(p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.004) between ego-centric behaviors and self-control is not significant (p=.123).
the correlation (r=0.004) between ego-centric behaviors and self-esteem (p=.543) is not significant.
a strong positive correlation (r=0.822) between counterproductive work behavior and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.010) between counterproductive work behavior and workplace benign envy (p=.858) is not significant
a weak positive correlation (r=0.372) between counterproductive work behavior and toxic organizational climate (p=.000)
a very weak correlation (r=0.174) between counterproductive work behavior and narcissistic leadership (p=.001)
a moderate negative correlation (r= -0.580) between counterproductive work behavior and self- control (p=.000)
a moderate negative correlation (r= -0.616) between counterproductive work behavior and self- esteem (p=.000)
a moderate negative correlation (r= -0.640) between counterproductive work behavior and contextual performance (p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.071) between counterproductive work behavior and work exhaustion is not significant (p=.198)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.307) between contextual performance and workplace benign envy (p=.000)
a moderate negative correlation (r= -0.531) between contextual performance and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.076) between contextual performance and toxic organizational climate is not significant (p=.170)
the correlation (r=-0.110) between contextual performance and narcissistic leadership is not significant (p=.146)
a strong positive correlation (r=0.798) between contextual performance and self-esteem (p=.000)
the correlation (r=0.122) between contextual performance and work exhaustion is not significant (p=.027)
the correlation (r=0.095) between work exhaustion and workplace malicious envy is not

significant (p=.086)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.272) between work exhaustion and workplace benign envy (p=000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.475) between work exhaustion and toxic organizational climate (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.466) between work exhaustion and narcissistic leadership (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.157) between work exhaustion and self- control (p=.004)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.173) between work exhaustion and self- esteem (p=.002)
a strong positive correlation (r=0.825) between self-control and self-esteem (p=.000)
a very weak significant correlation (r=0.158) between workplace malicious envy and workplace benign envy (p=.004)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.421) between toxic organizational climate and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.202) between workplace malicious envy and narcissistic leadership (p=.000)
a weak negative correlation (r=-0.469) between workplace malicious envy and self- control (p=.000)
a moderate negative correlation (r=0.536) between workplace malicious envy and self- esteem (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.209) between workplace benign envy and toxic organizational climate (p=.000)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.186) between workplace benign envy and narcissistic leadership (p=.001)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.266) between workplace benign envy and self-control (p=.000)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.320) between workplace benign envy and self-esteem (p=.000)
a moderate positive correlation (r=0.535) between toxic organizational climate and narcissistic leadership (p=.000)
the correlation (r=-0.013) between toxic organizational climate and self- control is not significant (p= .808)
the correlation (r=-0.055) between toxic organizational climate and self- esteem is not significant (p=.318)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.137) between narcissistic leadership and self- control (p=.001)
a very weak positive correlation (r=0.171) between narcissistic leadership and self- esteem (p=.002)
a weak positive correlation (r=0.486) between toxic behaviors of co-workers and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
-a weak positive correlation (r=0.379) between toxic managerial and social-structural factors and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)
-a weak positive correlation (r=0.337) between toxic work environment and workplace malicious envy (p=.000)

-a strong positive correlation (r=0.808) between toxic behaviors of co-workers and toxic managerial and social-structural factors (p=.000)
-a moderate positive correlation (r=0.649) between toxic behaviors of co-workers and toxic work environment (p=.000)
-a strong positive correlation (r=0.744) between toxic work environment and toxic managerial and social-structural factors (p=.000)
-a weak positive correlation (r=0.469) between authoritarian behaviors and work exhaustion (p=.000)
-a strong positive correlation (r=0.761) between authoritarian behaviors and ego-centric behaviors (p=.000)
-a weak positive correlation (r=0.385) between ego-centric behaviors and work exhaustion(p=.000)

Table 13.

Correlation Results of the Variables

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	6a	6b	6c	7	7a	7b	8	9
1.	Counterproductive Work Behavior	4.90	1.56	1	-.640*	-.071	.822*	-.010	.372*	.422*	.336*	.337*	.174**	.347*	.488*	-.580*	-.616*
2.	Contextual Performance	2.98	1.55		1	.122	-.531*	.307*	-.076	-.122**	-.055	-.076	-.110 *	.189**	-.052	.821*	.798*
3.	Work Exhaustion	3.56	1.46			1	.095	.272*	.475*	.337*	.490*	.407*	.466*	.469*	.385*	.157**	.173**
4.	Workplace Malicious Envy	4.52	1.72				1	.158**	.421*	.486*	.379*	.337*	.202***	.107	.344*	-.469*	-.536*
5.	Workplace Benign Envy	3.69	1.30					1	.209*	.170**	.215*	.132**	.186*	.202*	.126***	.266*	.320*
6.	Toxic Organizational Climate	3.91	1.26						1	.883*	.988*	.785*	.535*	.479*	.551*	-.013	-.055
6a.	Toxic Behaviors of Co-workers	3.95	1.33							1	.808*	.649*	.420*	.347*	.488*	-.058	-.108
6b.	Toxic Managerial and Social-structural Factors	3.79	1.34								1	.744*	.552*	.506*	.549*	.001	-.030
6c.	Toxic Work Environment	3.76	1.59									1	.365*	.316*	.398*	-.002	-.089
7.	Narcissistic Leadership	3.75	1.18										1	.970*	.896*	.137	.171*
7a.	Authoritarian Behaviors	3.69	1.36											1	.761*	.202*	.248*
7b.	Ego-Centric Behaviors	3.81	1.70												1	-.004	.004
8.	Self- Control	3.12	1.29													1	.825*
9.	Self- Esteem	2.88	1.65														1

N=330, p*=.000; ** p< .001; *** p< .005, (2-tailed)

Inter- correlations among all variables are shown in Table 13. Correlation coefficients represent the levels of linear relationship between two variables (Field 2005). Mean scores and standard deviation are obtained by averaging the items, which helps explain the means and their corresponding valence within the scale. For instance, with regard to counterproductive work behavior (i.e., 6-point Likert scale), higher means represent more being displayed counterproductivity in organization (6= always), whereas lower means mean less being displayed counterproductivity (0 = never).

4.3. REGRESSION ANALYSIS FINDINGS

Then, regression analysis is a method of analysis that is used for examining the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables. Moreover, with regression analysis, it can be determined the direction and power of the relationship between two variables, and the functional form of the relationship between variables (Özcan, 2013). Therefore, the regression analysis results between the dependent and independent variables of the study were presented in Table 14 and can be shown as below;

Table 14.

The Effect of Workplace Malicious Envy on Counterproductive Work Behavior

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.261	.141	8.922	.000***
Workplace Malicious Envy	.822	.030	26.109	.000***
R^2= .674; F= 681.664; P<.001				

a.   *p<0.05; **p<0.01*** p<.001
b.   Dependent Variable: Counterproductive Work Behavior
c.   Independent Variable: Workplace Malicious Envy

In Table 14, Model 1 contains the workplace malicious envy variable. The results of the regression analyses indicated that the workplace malicious envy coefficient is both positive and significant (β = 0.822, p = .000, F= 681.664). These results indicated that workplace malicious envy has significant incremental explanatory power over counterproductive work behavior. In other words, as employees feel more

malicious envy towards other employees in their organization, they exhibit more counterproductive work behavior. Therefore, first hypothesis (H1) in the study is supported.

For testing the second hypothesis that "Workplace benign envy has a positive effect on contextual performance" regression analysis is done.

Table 15.

The Effect of Workplace Benign Envy on Contextual Performance

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.754	.252	6.955	.000***
Workplace Benign Envy	.397	.065	5.836	.000***
R^2= .091; F= 34.057; P<.001				

a. *p<0.05; **p<0.01*** p<.001
b. Dependent Variable: Contextual Performance
c. Independent Variable: Workplace Benign Envy

In Table 15, Model 2 contains the workplace benign envy variable. The results of the regression analyses indicated that the workplace benign envy coefficient is both positive and significant (β = 0.397, p = .000, F= 34.057). These results indicated that workplace benign envy has significant incremental explanatory power over contextual performance. In other words, as employees feel more benign envy towards other employees in their organization, envious employees work harder to achieve their goal of obtaining what others have and thus, they exhibit more contextual performance. Therefore, second hypothesis (H2) in the study is supported.

For testing the third hypothesis that "Toxic organizational climate has a positive effect on counterproductive work behavior" regression analysis is done.

Table 16.

The Effect of Toxic Organizational Climate on Counterproductive Work Behavior

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	2.663	.283	9.408	.000***
Toxic Organizational Climate	.520	.070	7.425	.000***
R^2= .141; F= 55.133; P<.001				

a. *p<0.05; **p<0.01*** p<.001
b. Dependent Variable: Counterproductive Work Behavior
c. Independent Variable: Toxic Organizational Climate

In Table 16, Model 3 contains the toxic organizational climate variable. The results of the regression analyses indicated that the toxic organizational climate coefficient is both positive and significant (β = 0.520, p = .000, F= 55.133). These results indicated that toxic organizational climate has significant incremental explanatory power over counterproductive work behavior. In other words, the higher employees perceive toxic climate in their organization to be, the more they show counterproductive work behaviors. Therefore, third hypothesis (H3) in the study is supported.

Finally, for testing the fourth hypothesis that "Narcissist leader has a positive effect on work exhaustion" regression analysis is done.

Table 17.

The Effect of Narcissistic Leadership on Work Exhaustion

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.388	.235	5.912	.000***
Narcissistic Leadership	.582	.060	9.674	.000***
R^2= .220; F= 93.596; P<.001				

a. *p<0.05; **p<0.01*** p<.001
b. Dependent Variable: Work Exhaustion
c. Independent Variable: Narcissistic Leadership

In Table 17, Model 4 contains the narcissistic leadership variable. The results of the regression analyses indicated that the narcissistic leadership coefficient is both positive and significant ($\beta = 0.582$, p = .000; F= 93.596). These results indicated that narcissistic leadership style has significant incremental explanatory power over follower's work exhaustion. In other words, as employees perceive that their leaders' attitudes and behaviors are narcissists, they experience more work exhaustion. Therefore, fourth hypothesis (H4) in the study is supported.

While it is summarized the findings regarding the hypotheses of the study;

- workplace malicious envy has a positive effect on counterproductive work behavior which supported the Hypothesis 1 of the study ($\beta = 0.822$; p = .000).

- workplace benign envy has a positive effect on contextual performance which supported the Hypothesis 2 of the study ($\beta = 0.397$; p=.000).

- toxic organizational climate has a positive effect on counterproductive work behavior which supported the Hypothesis 3 of the study ($\beta = 0.520$; p=.000).

- narcissistic leadership has a positive effect on work exhaustion which supported the Hypothesis 4 of the study ($\beta = 0.582$; p=.000).

Besides, the regression analyisis results between dimensions of toxic organizational climate and counterproductive work can be shown as below;

Table 18.

The Effect of Dimeonsions of Toxic Organizational Climate on Counterproductive Work Behavior

Dependent Variable: Counterproductive Work Behavior			
Independent Variables	Beta	t Value	P Value
Constant			
Toxic behaviors of co-workers	.421*	4.907	.000
Toxic managerial and social-structural factors	.062	-.632	.528
Toxic work environment	.078	1.037	.301
R=0,425; R²=0,180; F Value=23.927; p<0.05			

The results of the regression analyses indicated that the toxic behaviors of co-workers coefficient is both positive and significant ($\beta = 0.421$, p = .000). According to the Table 18, this dimension of toxic organizational climate has significant incremental explanatory power over counterproductive work behavior. In other words, as employees perceive that their co-workers' attitudes and behaviors are toxics, they engage in more negative behaviors in organization.

Further, the regression analyisis results between dimensions of narcissistic leadership and work exhaustion can be shown as below;

Table 19.

The Effect of Dimeonsions of Narcissistic Leadership on Work Exhaustion

Dependent Variable: Narcissistic Leadership			
Independent Variables	**Beta**	**t Value**	**P Value**
Constant			
Authoritarian Behaviors	.418*	5.567	.000
Ego-Centric Behaviors	.067	.887	.376
R=0,471; R²=0,222; F Value=46.628; p<0.05			

The results of the regression analyses indicated that the authoritarian behaviors coefficient is both positive and significant ($\beta = 0.418$, p = .000). According to the Table 19, this dimension of toxic organizational climate has significant incremental explanatory power over work exhaustion. In other words, as employees perceive that their manager are authoritarian narcisist, they experince more work exhaustion.

4.4. MODERATOR ANALYSIS FINDINGS

In this part, as discussed in the hypothesis development section of the study, self-control was considered to play a moderator role between workplace malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior in hypothesis 5 and between toxic organizational climate and counterproductive work behavior in hypothesis 6.

It is known that moderating variable play an important role in the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable. It helps to answer the question

"what conditions make the relationship stronger or weaker between independent variable and dependent variable?" (Musairah, 2015). Thus, the moderator variable with an interaction effect on dependent variable changes the direction or the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Baron and Kenny, 2006). Therefore, so as to test the moderating role of the degree of self-control of employees, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the interaction effect was analyzed.

4.4.1. Moderator Analysis of Self- Control between Workplace Malicious Envy and Counterproductive Work Behavior

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of self-control between workplace malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior are presented in Table 20. Workplace malicious envy was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Secondly, workplace malicious envy and self-control both entered the analysis for defining the expletory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed.

Table 20.

The Moderator Role of Self-Control between Workplace Malicious Envy and

Counterproductive Work Behavior

WME	β	Std. Error	t	p
	CWB			
Constant	6.713	.403	16.663	.0000****
Workplace Malicious Envy	-.140	.077	-1.825	.0688
Self-Control	-1.32	.095	-13.93	.0000****
Self-Control x Workplace Malicious Envy	.219	.0191	11.464	.0000****
Self-Control	**Moderator Effect (β)**	**Std. Error**	**t**	**p**
Moderator Effect of Self-Control= M± 1SD				
M- 1SS (2.000) Low	.298	.043	6.895	.0000****
M (2.975) Moderate	.489	.031	15.52	.0000****
M+1SS (4.750) High	.901	.032	28.25	.0000****
Model Summary	**R**	**R^2.**	**F**	**p**
	.895	.801	437.76	.0000****
Increased R^2	**R^2 Change**	**F**	**Sd.**	**p**
	.0802	131.42	326	.0000****

** *P<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; ****p<0.0001

According to Table 20, regression model was statistically significant (R=.895; R2= .801; F=437.76; p=0.0000) and workplace malicious envy appeared to be a statistically significant predictor of counterproductive work behavior (β =-.1409; t= -1.825; p>0.05). Also, according to the results of the research evaluated using PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2012) developed for Statistical Package Program, as seen that the effect of workplace malicious envy on counterproductive work behavior was significant in case self-control was included in model. The Table 20 showed that the interaction effect was significant (ß=.219; t= 11.464; p<0.0001) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .0802. For this reason, self-control had a full moderator effect on the relationship between workplace malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior. In this context, the effect of workplace malicious envy on counterproductive work behavior is statistically significant in employees with low (ß=.298; t= 6.895; p<0.0001), moderate (ß=.489; t= 15.52; p<0.0001) and high self-control (ß=.901; t= 28.25; p<0.0001). Thus, it can be expected that as the degree of self-control of the employees increases, the effect of malicious envy feeling on

166

counterproductive work behavior increases. Accordingly, Hypothesis H5 was supported.

4.4.2. Moderator Analysis of Self- Control between Toxic Organizational Climate and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Similarly, in order to test the moderator role of self-control between toxic organizational climate and counterproductive work behavior, toxic organizational climate was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Then, toxic organizational climate and self-control both entered the analysis for defining the expletory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed. The results of the analysis are as in Table 21.

Table 21.

The Moderator Role of Self-Control between Toxic Organizational Climate and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Toxic Organizational Climate	β	Std. Error	t	p
	CWB			
Constant	9.2660	.472	19.622	.0000****
Toxic Organizational Climate	-.508	.102	-4.640	.0000****
Self-Control	-2.08	.135	-15.45	.0000****
Self-Control xToxic Organizational Climate	.325	.031	10.614	.0000****
Self-Control	**Moderator Effect (β)**	**Std. Error**	**t**	**p**
Moderator Effect of Self-Control = M± 1SD				
M- 1SS (2.000) Low	.143	.061	2.334	.0000****
M (2.875) Moderate	.428	.050	8.593	.0000****
M+1SS (4.750) High	1.0380	.068	15.25	.0000****
Model Summary	***R***	***R².***	***F***	***p***
	.767	.588	155.14	.0000****
Increased R²	***R² Change***	***F***	***Sd.***	***p***
	.1424	112.67	326	.0000****

*P<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; ****p<0.0001

In the light of results in Table 21, regression model was statistically significant (R=.767; R2= .588; F=155.14; p<0.0001) and toxic work environment appeared to be a statistically significant predictor of counterproductive work behavior (β =-.5087; t= -4.640; p<0.0001). Furthermore, in the light of the PROCESS macro results, self-control had a moderator role between the toxic work environment and counterproductive work behavior because the interaction effect was significant (ß=.3256; t= 10.614; p<0.0001) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .1424. In this case, the effect of toxic organizational climate on counterproductive work behavior is statistically significant in employees with low (ß=.143; t= 2.334; p<0.0001), moderate (ß=.428; t= 8.593; p<0.0001) and high self-control (ß=1.0308; t= 15.25; p<0.0001). Thus, it can be expected that as the degree of self-control of the employees increases, the effect of their toxic organizational climate perception on counterproductive work behavior increases. Accordingly, Hypothesis H6 was supported.

4.5. MEDIATOR ANALYSIS FINDINGS

In order to test the role of self-esteem (Hypothesis 7), regression analyses are implemented to explore the mediating role of self-esteem between narcissistic leadership and work exhaustion. To test this relationship, Baron& Kenny's (1986) method was used and the following assessments were performed. In the *(a)* paths, a multiple regression analysis conducted between the independent variable, narcissistic leadership and the mediating variable, self-esteem. In the *(b)* path, a multiple regression analysis conducted between the independent variable, narcissistic leadership and the dependent variable, work exhaustion. In the *(c)* path, by including the mediating variable-self-esteem- in the analyses, the effect of independent variable-narcissistic leadership- on dependent variable –work exhaustion- was tested. According to all three paths, the results of the multiple regression analysis can be interpreted from Table 22, Table 23 and Table 24.

Table 22.

The Effect of Narcissistic Leadership on Self-Esteem (Path A)

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.914	.303	6.310	.000***
Narcissistic Leadership	.209	.078	3.869	.000***
R^2= .041; F= 14.966; P<.001				

a. *p<0.05; **p<0.01*** p<.001
b. Dependent Variable: Self-Esteem
c. Independent Variable: Narcissistic Leadership

Table 23.

The Effect of Self-Esteem on Work Exhaustion (Path B)

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	3.105	.162	19.134	.000***
Self-Esteem	.173	.047	3.173	.002**
R^2= .027; F= 10.069; P<.01				

a. *p<0.05; **p<0.01*** p<.001
b. Dependent Variable: Work Exhaustion
c. Independent Variable: Self-Esteem

Table 24.

The Mediating Role of Self-Esteem between Narcissistic Leadership and Work Exhaustion (Path C)

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Gender	-.114*	-.030	-.034
Education Level	-.152**	.125*	-.131*
Narcissistic Leadership		.446***	**.427***
Self-Esteem			.106*
R^2	.044	.235	.245
F	7.507	81.062	4.651
$\varDelta R^2$		.190	.011

*p<0.05; **p<0.01*** p<.001

According to the results of Table 23 and Table 24, path *a* and *b* had significant results (β =0.209, t= 3.869, p<.001; β =0.173, t= 3.173, p<0.01) which were in parallel

to Baron and Kenny's (2006) first two paths. Already, it was found significant relationship between the mediating variable, self-esteem, and the independent variable, narcissistic leadership (r=0.171, p<.001), as shown in the correlation Table 13. In path *c,* after the addition of the mediating variable into the analysis, the impact of the mediating variable on dependent variable had significant results but change in R^2 was not significant degree (β = .427, R^2 change= .011, t= 8.517, p< .005). Therefore, the results reveal that self-esteem did not have a mediator role between narcissistic leadership and work exhaustion. Operationally, the findings showed that narcissistic leadership influences work exhaustion directly, rather than influencing with the indirect effect with the intervention of self-esteem. Thus, it can be argued from the result narcissistic leadership style is not influential factor self-esteem directly for this study's sample. Accordingly, Hypothesis H7 was not supported.

4.6. ANALYSIS OF THE COMPARATIVE TESTS

The t-tests were also applied that determine whether the means of two groups are statistically different from one other (Bhattacherjee, 2012). For this purpose, the t-tests were performed concerning to the demographic variables as gender, marital status, age, work experience and company experience.

4.6.1. Independent Samples T-Tests for Gender

Firstly, in order to test the demographic variables, the relation between gender and study's variables was tested. The means of females and males were compared with regard to counterproductive work behavior, contextual performance, work exhaustion, workplace malicious and benign envy, toxic organizational climate, narcissistic leadership, self-control and self- esteem scores. As figured out in Table 25, and Table 26, there was significant difference of counterproductive work behavior mean scores between females and males (p=0.000; p=0.000) with a female mean score of 4.24 and a male mean score of 5.01.

Table 25.

Gender and Counterproductive Work Behavior Summary

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CPWB	Female	154	4.24	2.008	.161
	Male	176	5.01	1.439	.108

Table 26.

Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Counterproductive Work Behavior

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Dif.
CPWB	**Equal variances assumed**	64.682	.000	4.01	328	.000	.765	.190
	Equal variances not assumed			3.92	273.178	.000	.765	.194

Additionally, significant differences were also found on the work exhaustion mean scores between females and males ($p < 0.005$; $p < 0.005$) with a female mean score of 3.31 male mean score of 3.75 which is presented in Table 27 and Table 28.

Table 27.

Gender and Work Exhaustion Summary

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Work Exhaustion	Female	154	3.31	1.407	. 111
	Male	176	3.75	1.477	.113

Table 28.

Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Work Exhaustion

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Dif.
Work Exhaustion	Equal variances assumed	1.014	.315	2.75	328	.006	.439	.159
	Equal variances not assumed			2.76	325.629	.006	.439.	.158

As further, significant differences were also found on the toxic organizational climate mean scores between females and males (p<0.05; p<0.05) with a female mean score of 3.60 male mean score of 4.02 which is presented in Table 29 and Table 30.

Table 29.

Gender and Toxic Organizational Climate Summary

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Toxic Organizational Climate	Female	154	3.60	1.171	.094
	Male	176	4.02	1.360	.102

Table 30.

Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Toxic Organizational Climate

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Dif.
Toxic Organizational Climate	Equal variances assumed	4.014	.046	3.03	328	.003	.427	.140
	Equal variances not assumed			3.06	327.921	.002	.427	.139

Finally, significant differences were also found on the narcissistic leadership mean scores between females and males (p=0.000; p=0.000) with a female mean score of 3.46 male mean score of 3.98 which is presented in Table 31 and Table 32.

Table 31.

Gender and Narcissistic Leadership Summary

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Narcissistic Leadership	Female	154	3.60	1.274	.096
	Male	176	4.02	1.258	.101

Table 32.

Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Narcissistic Leadership

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Dif.
Narcissistic Leadership	**Equal variances assumed**	.0202	.654	3.72	328	.000	.520	.139
	Equal variances not assumed			3.72	323.229	.000	.520	.139

4.6.2. Independent Samples T-Tests for Marital Status

Secondly, the relation between marital status and study's variables was tested. The means of married and single were compared with regard to counterproductive work behavior, contextual performance, work exhaustion, workplace malicious and benign envy, toxic organizational climate, narcissistic leadership, self-control and self- esteem scores. As figured out in Table 33, and Table 34, there was significant difference of counterproductive work behavior mean scores between married ones and single ones (p=0.000; p=0.000) with a married ones mean score of 5.01 and a single mean score of 4.31.

Table 33.

Marital Status and Counterproductive Work Behavior Summary

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CPWB	Single	169	4.31	1.490	.096
	Married	161	5.01	1.939	.149

Table 34.

Independent Sample T-Test of Marital Status and Counterproductive Work Behavior

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Dif.
CPWB	Equal variances assumed	46.940	.000	3.63	328	.000	.695	.191
	Equal variances not assumed			3.66	314.109	.000	.695	.189

As further, significant differences were also found on the workplace malicious envy mean scores between single and married ones (p<0.05; p<0.05) with a single ones mean score of 3.60 married ones mean score of 4.02 which is presented in Table 35 and Table 36.

Table 35.

Marital Status and Workplace Malicious Envy Summary

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Workplace Malicious Envy	Single	169	4.05	1.958	.150
	Married	161	4.57	1.679	.132

Table 36.

Independent Sample T-Test of Marital Status and Workplace Malicious Envy

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Dif.	Std. Error Dif.
			.					
Workplace Malicious Envy	**Equal variances assumed**	16.369	.000	2.58	328	.010	.520	.201
	Equal variances not assumed			2.59	324.824	.010	.520	.200

4.6.3. Independent Samples T-Tests for Age

The third variable tested as demographic variable was age. The age was categorized into two as (1) employees aged 39 years old and below and (2) employees aged 40 years old and above. However, there was not the significant relation between age and study's variables.

4.6.4. One-Way Anova Tests for Education Level

The other variable tested as demographic variable was educational level of sample. In order to determine whether there is a difference in respect to the education level, anova test was applied. According to the results, there were significant differences in the variables of the scales (excluding narcissistic leadership scale) with relation to education level which was categorized into four different levels in the questionnaires as associate, university, masters and PhD degrees. However, employees with PhD degree were 10 persons. Therefore, because the observation numbers of the compared groups should not be less than 30 (Durmuş, Yurtkoru and Çinko, 2013; p.132), the population was grouped in three categories as (1) employees with associate degree, (2) employees with a university degree, (3) employees with master's degree and PhD.

Consequently, as seen in Table 37, Table 38 and Table 39, significant differences were found on the counterproductive work behavior mean scores among group 1 (associate degree), group 2 (university degree) and group 3 (master's degree and PhD) with a mean score of 4.84, 4.94 and 3.74 (p=0.000).

Table 37.

Education Level and Counterproductive Work Behavior Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CPWB	Associate degree	80	4.84	1.733	.193
	University degree	177	4.94	1.541	.115
	Master and PhD	73	3.74	2.017	.236

Table 38.

AnovaTest of Education Level and Counterproductive Work Behavior

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
CPWB	Between Groups	78.971	2	39.48	13.612	.000
	Within Groups	948.574	327	2.90		
	Total	1027.545	329			

Table 39.

Post Hoc Test of Education Level and Counterproductive Work Behavior & Multiple Comparisons

	Education Level (I)	Education Level (J)	Mean Differ. (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CPWB Tukey HSD	**Associate**	University	-.10004	.229	.901	-.6403	.4402
		Master &PhD	1.10557*	.275	.000	.4565	1.7546
	University	Associate	-.10004	.229	.901	-.4402	.6403
		Master &PhD	1.20561*	.236	.000	.6478	.1.7634
	Master &PhD	Associate	-1.10557*	.275	.000	-1.7546	-.4565
		University	-1.20561*	.236	.000	-1.7634	-.6478

As presented in Table 40, Table 41 and Table 42, significant differences were also found on the contextual performance mean scores among group 1 (associate degree), group 2 (university degree) and group 3 (master's degree and PhD) with a mean score of 3.28, 2.85 and 3.66 (p=0.001).

Table 40.

Education Level and Contextual Performance Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Associate degree	80	3.28	1.767	.197
Contextual	University degree	177	2.85	1.507	.113
Performance	Master and PhD	73	3.66	1.531	.179

Table 41.

AnovaTest of Education Level and Contextual Performance

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
	Between	35.888	2	17.944	7.194	.001
Contextual	Groups	815.656	327	2.494		
Performance	Within Groups	851.544	329			
	Total					

Table 42.

Post Hoc Test of Education Level Contextual Performance & Multiple Comparisons

	Education Level (I)	Education Level (J)	Mean Differ. (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CP Tukey HSD	Associate	University	.42687	.212	.112	-.0741	.9278
		Master &PhD	-.38030	.255	.298	-.9822	.2216
	University	Associate	-.42687	.212	.112	-.9278	.0741
		Master &PhD	-.80717*	.219	.001	-1.3244	-.2899
	Master &PhD	Associate	.38030	.227	.298	-.2216	.9922
		University	-.80717*	.219	.001	.2899	1.3244

As presented in Table 43, Table 44 and Table 45, significant differences were also found on the work exhaustion mean scores among group 1 (associate degree), group 2 (university degree) and group 3 (master's degree and PhD) with a mean score of 4.15, 3.34 and 3.40 (p=0.000).

Table 43.

Education Level and Work Exhaustion Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Work Exhaustion	Associate degree	80	4.15	1.470	.164
	University degree	177	3.34	1.412	.106
	Master and PhD	73	3.40	1.398	.163

Table 44.

AnovaTest of Education Level and Work Exhaustion

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
	Between Groups	38.375	2	19.187	9.466	.000
Work Exhaustion	Within Groups	662.845	327	2.027		
	Total	720.220	329			

Table 45.

Post Hoc Test of Education Level Work Exhaustion & Multiple Comparisons

	Education Level (I)	Education Level (J)	Mean Differ. (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Work Exhaust. Tamhane	**Associate**	University	.03331	.194	.997	-.4363	.5029
		Master &PhD	.48407	.219	.084	-.0453	1.0134
	University	Associate	-.03331	.194	.997	-.5029	.4363
		Master &PhD	.45076*	.163	.019	.0563	.8452
	Master &PhD	Associate	-.48407	.219	.084	-1.0134	.0453
		University	-.45076*	.163	.019	-.8452	-.0563

As presented in Table 46, Table 47 and Table 48, significant differences were found on the workplace malicious envy mean scores among group 1 (associate degree),

group 2 (university degree) and group 3 (master's degree and PhD) with a mean score of 4.37, 4.56 and 3.62 (p=0.001).

Table 46.

Education Level and Workplace Malicious Envy Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Workplace Malicious Envy	Associate degree	80	4.37	1.819	.203
	University degree	177	4.56	1.713	.128
	Master and PhD	73	3.62	2.019	.236

Table 47.

AnovaTest of Education Level and Workplace Malicious Envy

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Workplace Malicious Envy	Between Groups	46.005	2	23.003	7.015	.001
	Within Groups	1072.304	327	3.279		
	Total	1118.309	329			

Table 48.

Post Hoc Test of Education Level Workplace Malicious Envy & Multiple Comparisons

	Education Level (I)	Education Level (J)	Mean Differ. (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
M. Envy Tukey HSD	**Associate**	University	-.19134	.243	.713	-.7657	.3830
		Master &PhD	.74787*	.293	.030	.0577	1.4379
	University	Associate	.19134	.243	.713	-.3830	.7657
		Master &PhD	.93918*	.251	.001	.3461	1.5322
	Master &PhD	Associate	-.74784	.29311	.030	-1.4379	-.0577
		University	-.93918	.25189	.001	-1.5322	-.3461

As presented in Table 49, Table 50 and Table 51, significant differences were also found on the workplace benign envy mean scores among group 1 (associate degree

), group 2 (university degree) and group 3 (master's degree and PhD) with a mean score of 4.03, 3.54 and 3.58 (p=0.015).

Table 49.

Education Level and Workplace Benign Envy Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Workplace Benign Envy	Associate degree	80	4.03	1.369	.153
	University degree	177	3.54	1.274	.095
	Master and PhD	73	3.58	1.254	.146

Table 50.

AnovaTest of Education Level and Workplace Benign Envy

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Workplace Benign Envy	Between Groups	14.198	2	7.009	4.239	.015
	Within Groups	547.566	327	1.675		
	Total	561.764	329			

Table 51.

Post Hoc Test of Education Level Workplace Benign Envy & Multiple Comparisons

	Education Level (I)	Education Level (J)	Mean Differ. (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
B. Envy Tamhane	Associate	University	.49513*	.180	.021	.0587	.9316
		Master &PhD	.45120	.212	.102	-.0612	.9636
	University	Associate	-.49513*	.180	.021	-.9316	-.0587
		Master &PhD	-.04393	.175	.992	-.4679	.3800
	Master &PhD	Associate	-.45120	.212	.102	-.9636	.0612
		University	.04393	.175	.992	-.3800	.4679

As presented in Table 51, Table 52 and Table 53, significant differences were also found on the toxic organizational climate scores among group 1 (associate degree),

group 2 (university degree) and group 3 (master's degree and PhD) with a mean score of 3.95, 3.92 and 3.47 (p=0.026).

Table 51.

Education Level and Toxic Organizational Climate Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Toxic Organizational Climate	Associate degree	80	3.95	1.536	.171
	University degree	177	3.92	1.199	.090
	Master and PhD	73	3.47	1.162	.136

Table 52.

AnovaTest of Education Level and Toxic Organizational Climate

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Toxic Organizational Climate	Between Groups	12.150	2	6.075	3.700	.026
	Within Groups	536.960	327	1.642		
	Total	549110	329			

Table 53.

Post Hoc Test of Education Level Toxic Organizational Climate & Multiple Comparisons

	Education Level (I)	Education Level (J)	Mean Differ. (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
TOC Tukey HSD	Associate	University	.03331	.172	.980	-.3732	.4398
		Master &PhD	.48407	.207	.053	-.0043	.9724
	University	Associate	-.03331	.172	.980	-.4398	.3237
		Master &PhD	.45076*	.178	.032	.0311	.8704
	Master &PhD	Associate	-.48407	.207	.053	-.9724	.0043
		University	-.45076*	.178	.032	-.8704	-.0311

As further, as figured out in Table 54, Table 55 and Table 56, significant difference of self-control mean scores were found among the group 1 (associate degree), group 2 (university degree) and group 3 (master's degree and PhD) (p=0.001) with a mean score of 3.27, 2.92 and 3.65 respectively.

Table 54.

Education Level and Self-Control Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Self-Control	Associate degree	80	3.27	1.634	.182
	University degree	177	2.92	1.210	.090
	Master and PhD	73	3.65	1.411	.165

Table 55.

AnovaTest of Education Level and Self-Control

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
	Between Groups	28.536	2	14.268	7.619	.001
Self-Control	Within Groups	612.367	327	1.873		
	Total	640.903	329			

Table 56.

Post Hoc Test of Education Level Self-Control & Multiple Comparisons

	Education Level (I)	Education Level (J)	Mean Differ. (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Self-Control Tukey HSD	Associate	University	.35402	.184	.135	-.0800	.7881
		Master &PhD	-.37301	.221	.213	-.8945	.1485
	University	Associate	-.35402	.184	.135	-.7881	.0800
		Master &PhD	-.72703*	.190	.000	-1.1752	-.2789
	Master &PhD	Associate	.37301	.221	.213	-.1485	.8945
		University	.72703*	.190	.000	.2789	-1.1752

Finally, as figured out in Table 57, Table 58 and Table 59, significant difference of self-esteem mean scores were found among the group 1 (associate degree

), group 2 (university degree) and group 3 (master's degree and PhD) (p=0.009) with a mean score of 3.20, 2.78 and 3.45 respectively.

Table 57.

Education Level and Self-Esteem Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Self-Esteem	Associate degree	80	3.20	1.811	.202
	University degree	177	2.78	1.639	.123
	Master and PhD	73	3.45	1.637	.191

Table 58.

AnovaTest of Education Level and Self-Esteem

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Self-Esteem	Between Groups	26.833	2	13.416	4.742	.009
	Within Groups	925.137	327	2.829		
	Total	951.970	329			

Table 59.

Post Hoc Test of Education Level Self-Esteem & Multiple Comparisons

	Education Level (I)	Education Level (J)	Mean Differ. (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Self-Esteem Tukey HSD	Associate	University	.42477	.226	.148	-.1087	.9583
		Master &PhD	-.25253	.272	.623	-.8935	.3885
	University	Associate	-.42477	.226	.148	-.9583	.1087
		Master &PhD	-.67731*	.233	.011	-1.2282	-.1265
	Master &PhD	Associate	.25253	.272	.623	-.3885	.8935
		University	.67731*	.233	.011	.1265	1.2282

4.6.4. Independent Samples T-Tests for Work Experience and Company Experience

The demographic variables of total work experience years of the employees were also grouped to have a more homogeneous distribution. Therefore, total work experience of the employees was categorized as (1) employees with work experience of 5 years and below, (2) employees with work experience of 6 years and above. The groups had 177 and 153 employees. After, t tests applied to two groups. However, there were not the significant differences between total work experience of the employees and study's variables.

Similarly, to compare the company experience means of the employees, employees were also categorized into two as (1) employees with company experience of 5 years and below and (2) employees with company experience of 6 years and above with a total number of 96 and 234 respectively. Then, t tests applied to two groups. However, there were not the significant differences between total company experience of the employees and study's variables.

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

5.1. SUMMARY OF THE HYPOTHESES TESTS' FINDINGS

In previous chapter, the field study was finalized; the descriptive statistics were investigated and tested the hypotheses successfully. According to the results of the hypothesis, most of the hypotheses were supported positively. Generally, it can be seen summary of the hypotheses of the study in the following Table 60. Also, Figure 4 presents results of the hypotheses tests with Beta values as graphically.

Table 60.

Summary of the Hypotheses of the Study

	Hypotheses of the Study	**Findings**
H1	Workplace malicious envy has a positive impact on counterproductive work behavior ($\beta = 0.822$)	Supported
H2	Workplace benign envy has a positive impact on contextual performance ($\beta = 0.397$)	Supported
H3	Toxic organizational climate has a positive impact on counterproductive work behavior ($\beta = 0.520$)	Supported
H4	A Narcissistic Leader has a positive impact on work exhaustion ($\beta = 0.582$).	Supported
H5	Self-control has a moderating role on the impact of perceived workplace malicious envy on counterproductive work behavior (Increased $R^2 = 0.0802$)	Supported
H6	Self-control has a moderating role on the impact of perceived toxic organizational climate on counterproductive work behaviors (Increased $R^2 = 0.1424$).	Supported
H7	Employee's self-esteem has a mediating role on the impact of perceived narcissistic leader on perceived work exhaustion.	Not Supported
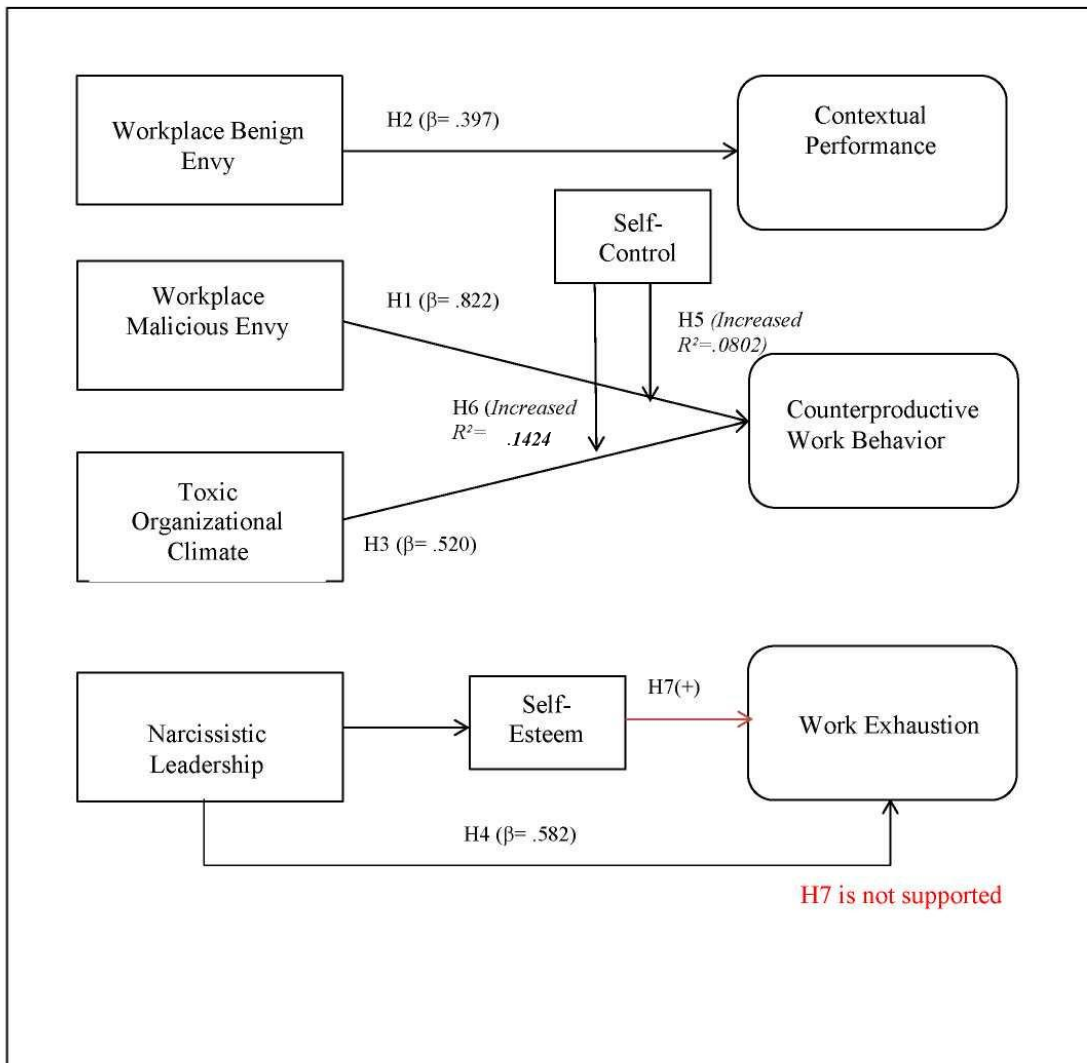
Figure 4. Results of the Hypotheses Tests

5.2. CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

The study concentrated on the impacts of workplace envy, toxic organizational climate and narcissistic leader on counterproductive work behavior, contextual performance and work exhaustion. Moreover, the moderating role of self-control and the mediating role of self-esteem were also studied herewith. It is well known that there are so many organizational dynamics that is encountered between employee & employee, manager & employee or employees & organization. Therefore, to understand overall organizational structure has gained wide importance in recent years because it helps business to understand human at organizational level and to solve employees'

problems. In this context, the sample of this study included employees working in various public and private sectors without differentiating between sectors.

In the present study, firstly, importance and hypotheses of the research in the context of problem statement were discussed. In the second chapter, the concepts of counterproductive work behavior, contextual performance, work exhaustion, workplace envy, toxic organizational climate, narcissistic leadership, self-control and self-esteem were examined from a theoretical perspective: definitions, theoretical development, dimensions, theoretical background, antecedents and outcomes. Furthermore, the main studies on the variables of the research have been reviewed and interpreted. In the third chapter, methodology of the research is discussed in detail; factor & reliability analysis, correlation & regression analysis, moderator & mediator analysis, t-tests and one-way anova test. In this chapter, the findings of the research were evaluated. Also, the limitations of the study were mentioned. Finally, some suggestions were made to academicians.

In this research, the counterproductive work behaviors of the employees were evaluated with Robinson and Bennett's (1995) Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C). The original scale composes of 30 items and 4 factors, in which 12 items were related with production deviance, 9 items were related with property deviance, 6 items were related with political deviance and the other 3 items were related with personal aggression. The Turkish translation of the scale was done by Özcan (2006) and the Cronbach alpha value of the scale was found to be .97.However, in the present study, the 30 items had uni-dimensional factor instead of the 4 factors of Robinson and Bennett (1995). The factor was labelled as individual and organizational deviance. This finding can result from local cultural perception because differentiation among dimensions can be interpreted on only one level by employees.

In the research of levels of contextual performance of the employees, it was used 3 items from Borman and Motowidlo's (2006) "Contextual Performance Scale" and 14 items were used from Motowidlo and Van Scotter's (1994) "Contextual Performance Scale". Consequently, the contextual performance of employees was

measured by 17 items and one-dimensional. Additionally, the combinations of scales were proven to be consistent with this study.

In order to measure the degree of work exhaustion of the employees, it was used work exhaustion scale. In the original research of Moore (2000) the 5-item scale had one factor. Taştan and Kalafatoğlu (2016) translated into Turkish the scale and they found that the Cronbach alpha value of the scale was .89 in their study. Similarly, the work exhaustion scale of Moore's (2000) was used in the present study successfully with one factor as in original.

In the research of Lange and Crusius (2015), the 10-item "The Benign and Malicious Envy Scale (BeMaS)" had 2 factors as benign and malicious envy in which 5 items were related with benign envy and 5 items were related with malicious envy. The scale was translated into Turkish by Çırpan and Özdoğru (2017). The Cronbach alpha values of two factors were found .85 for benign envy and .89 for malicious envy in their study. Similarly, the workplace envy scale of Lange and Crusius' (2015) was used successfully with two factors: benign envy and malicious envy as in the original scale.

In the study, toxic organizational climate scale consisting of 49 items, loaded into four factors which were labeled as toxic behaviors of co-workers, toxic behaviors of managers, toxic social-structural factors and toxic work environment. As mentioned before, the scale was developed by Taştan (2018). In the original scale, Cronbach Alpha values were found as .87 for the "toxic behaviors of co-workers", .85 for the "toxic behaviors of managers", .83 for the "toxic social-structural factors" and .82 for the "toxic work environment" dimension. In the present study, the scale had 3 factors because the second factor items were observed under a third factor, which was labeled as toxic managerial and social-structural factors.

Another differentiation in the factorial disposition was when using Ames, Rose and Anderson's (2006) Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI- Short Version) items. The Turkish translation of scale was done by Atay (2009) and the Cronbach Alpha value was found .63 in his research. Actually, the scale had six factors (authority, self-sufficiency, exhibitionism, entitlement, superiority, exploitativeness and smugness) in

Atay's study, but the scale divided into 3 factors in our study, which was labelled as authoritarian behaviors, ego- centric behaviors and non-narcissistic leadership. Here, it can be concluded that employees have considered some of factors as extensions of one another and have preferred to characterize their manager characteristics with a general narrative. In other words, while employees expressed whether their managers were narcissists or not, they focused on manager's attitudes: grandiose self and narcissistic ego inflation.

In the research of degree of self-control of the employees, "Self-Control Scale" which was developed by Tangney and colleagues' (2004) and translated into Turkish by Nebioğlu and colleagues (2012) was used. The Cronbach Alpha value was found .89 in Turkish version. As in the original, the scale had one factor and it was used in the study successfully.

Finally, it was used Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale which was commonly accepted in the literature in order to measure degree of self-esteem of employees. The scale translated into Turkish by Çuhadaroğlu (1986) and Cronbach alpha value of scale was found .91. As in the original, the scale had one factor and it was used in the study successfully.

The first finding related with the hypotheses of the study was that workplace malicious envy had a positive effect on counterproductive work behavior. The mean score of workplace malicious envy scale was 4.30, which represented the high workplace malicious envy feel of the employees. Also, workplace malicious envy had significant incremental explanatory power over counterproductive work behavior (β = 0.822, p = .000, F= 681.664). It means that, as employees feel more malicious envy towards other employees in their organization, they exhibit more counterproductive work behavior. Thus, the result supported first hypothesis (H1). These finding was in line with the literature review as in Khan et al., (2009), also confirmed the effect of the workplace malicious envy on the counterproductive work behavior in their study. Similarly, Navarro, et al., (2018) were confirmed the relationship between envy and counterproductive work behavior in public organizations in their study. Moreover, the recent study of Ghadi (2018) which was performed on 169 employees working in

several jobs at four organizations in Jordan has demonstrated that workplace malicious envy significantly predicts counterproductive behaviors. Consequently, although the workplace malicious envy was measured with different instrument, our result was consistent with prior empirical findings.

Hypothesis H2 regarding the positive effect of workplace benign envy were represented in this study with incremental explanatory power over contextual performance ($\beta = 0.397$, p = .000, F= 34.057). In the study, workplace benign envy mean score was found as 3.67, which reflects the moderate benign envy feelings of the employees. in consequence, it can be expressed that feeling of benign envy among employees increases the contextual performance level of the employees. Similarly, the findings of this study were in line with the literature review as Yıldız 's study (2017). According to results of Yıldız's research, benign envy has a positive effect on contextual performance ($\beta=-.313$; p<0.001). Namely, when employees' benign envy feeling was high, they exhibited greater contextual performance behavior. Furthermore, Sterling, Ven and Smith (2016) confirmed that benign envy is associated with increased effort while malicious envy is associated with greater acts of deviance and a higher tendency to turnover in their study. This result shows that both H1 and H2 are supported by Sterling et.al's study.

In the study, Hypothesis H3 was also supported, as toxic organizational climate has a positive effect on counterproductive work behavior ($\beta = 0.520$, p = .000, F= 55.133). The mean score of toxic organizational climate scale was 3.83, remarking the moderate level of toxic perception of organizational relations. The results emphasized the importance of incremental explanatory power over counterproductive work behavior because when employees perceive toxic climate in their organization to be, they show more counterproductive work behavior. However, since there are no studies in the organizational literature that address the toxic organization climate and measure this concept, there are indirectly contributing studies. For instance, in the study of Taştan (2017), it was provided information on how to identify a toxic workplace and outcomes of toxic organization climate. Our finding was parallel to the literature of Taştan (2017), who also confirmed that perception of toxic organizational climate triggers aggression.

Additionally, Lipman-Bluemen (2005) and Kellerman (2004) corroborated that toxic factors could promote employee counterproductivity and deviant behavior over the long term.

Another finding of the study was that narcissistic leadership has a positive effect on work exhaustion, where both positive and significant coefficient ($\beta = 0.582$, $p = .000$; F= 93.596) was found. The mean score of narcissistic leadership scale was 3.74, remarking the moderate level of toxic perception of organizational relations. This regression analysis finding demonstrated that narcissistic leadership is a contributing core construct towards work exhaustion. Briefly, it was demonstrated that narcissistic style could affect both mental and emotional energy depletion of employees. Again, the results of the study supported H4. This also confirms the study which was applied in the patients hospitalized in Switzerland by Schwarzkopf, Straus, Porschke, Znoj, Conrad, et al. (2016).

Then, the moderating role of self-control was confirmed as significant between workplace malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior. The statistical analysis confirmed that self-control had a full moderator effect on the relationship between workplace malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior. In other words, the feeling of workplace malicious envy of employees with low (ß=.298; t= 6.895; p<0.0001), moderate (ß=.489; t= 15.52; p<0.0001) and high self-control (ß=.901; t= 28.25; p<0.0001) is statistically significant on counterproductive work behavior, supporting Hypothesis H5. Besides, in the study, the mean score for self-control was 3.17, which represents the moderate level of self-control of the employees. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that the degree of self-control of the employees increases, the effect of malicious envy feeling on counterproductive work behavior increases. It can be concluded that the high self-control degree enable employees to remain calm themselves, thus self-control prevents the feelings of malicious envy from turning to counterproductive work behavior. Either, employees with low self-control degree tend to display more counterproductive action in case of malicious envy.

In sum, perceived self-control affects the relationship between workplace malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior positively. Consequently, this finding is consistent with the literature of Galić and Ružojčić (2017), who also confirmed the moderating role of self-control in the relationship between implicit aggression and self-reported counterproductive work behavior.

Moreover, Hypothesis H6 was also supported, as self-control had a moderator role between the toxic work environment and counterproductive work behavior because the interaction effect was significant (ß=.325; t= 10.614; p<0.0001). Again, the perception of toxic organizational climate of employees with low (ß=.143; t= 2.334; p<0.0001), moderate (ß=.428; t= 8.593; p<0.0001) and high self-control (ß=1.0308; t= 15.25; p<0.0001) is statistically significant on counterproductive work behavior. As stated in the previous paragraph, the mean score for self-control was 3.17, which represents the moderate level of self-control of the employees. Thus, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis results also supported that as the degree of self-control of the employees increases, the effect of their toxic organizational climate perception on counterproductive work behavior increases. This finding was parallel to the literature of Bordia, et al., (2008), who also supported the moderating role of self-control. They confirmed that employees who are able to effectively engage in self-control are less likely to engage in CPWB, also if working conditions are unfavorable.

Finally, hypothesis H7 was not supported. According to results in the Table 24, the level of self-esteem of employees did not have a mediator role between the narcissistic leadership and work exhaustion. Actually, the impact of the mediating variable –self-esteem- on dependent variable –work exhaustion- had significant results but change in R^2 was not significant degree (β = .427, R^2 change= .011, t= 8.517, p< .005), so Hypothesis H7 was not supported. For this study's sample, narcissistic leadership is not influential factor for self-esteem directly which in turn not affect the work exhaustion in a positive manner. In other words, the self-esteem did not have impact on the work exhaustion of employees in case they worked with a narcissistic leader. On the other hand, there was the weak relationship between narcissistic leadership and self-esteem (r=17, p=.000). Furthermore, self-esteem level of the

employees was moderate with a mean score of 3.03. By these low results, the mediating role of self-esteem became non-significant. This result can be clarified by the strong effect of the narcissistic leadership. At the dyadic level, narcissist managers can see their as a transformational leader; however this view does not fit with view of their followers. Their grandiose and power-driven needs and visions, personal egotistical needs for power and admiration, unrealistic target, attitudes of exploitative, arrogant, overly sensitive to criticism and overly competitive leads to work exhaustion. In such circumstances, low or high self-esteem of employees is not an antecedent for work exhaustion at the point of increase or decrease for our sample. Finally, it can be concluded that previous bad experiences of the employees from narcissist manager lead them to expose exhaustion in their work and work exhaustion does not necessarily implies a mediating role of self-esteem despite positive correlation of both, narcissistic leadership and self-esteem with work exhaustion. Therefore, the mediating role of self-esteem could not be supported.

Furthermore, t-tests were performed concerning to the demographic variables as gender, marital status, age, work experience & company experience and one-way anova test applied according to the education level of the employees regarding to the variables of the study. With regards to gender, significance differences were found on the counterproductive work behavior, work exhaustion, toxic organizational climate, narcissistic leadership mean scores ($p=.000$; $p=.006$, $p<0.001$; $p=.003$, $p<0.001$; $p=.000$). According to the results, the male employees had higher counterproductive work behavior, work exhaustion, toxic organizational climate and narcissistic leadership scores when compared with women. Spector and Zhou (2013) also confirmed that males engage in more of counterproductive work behaviors than females.

In terms of work exhaustion, there are various findings. While Adekola (2010) found that higher burnout levels of females in their study, Purvanova and Muros (2010) found that gender differences did not vary significantly in male-typed vs. female-typed occupations. Also, in the relationship between narcissistic leadership and gender, Hoogh, Hartog and Nevicka (2015) found that male employees perceive leaders high on narcissism compared to female subordinates and they think are less effective. Next, the

194

t-tests related with the marital status of the employees were applied and the married employees had significantly higher mean scores in terms of counterproductive work behavior (p=.000) and workplace malicious envy (p=0.010; p<0.05). This result is similar to findings of Robinson and Greenberg (1998), Peterson (2002) and Uche, George and Abiola (2017); counterproductive work behavior significantly differs concerning the marital status of employees.

Then, the t-tests related with the age of the employees were applied but it was not found the significant differences of mean scores of any variables between the employees aged 39 years old and below compared with aged 40 years old and above. Similarly, Brienza (2013) confirmed in the study that employee age was not related counterproductive work behavior.

Afterwards, ANOVA test was performed to determine whether there was a difference in terms of the education level. The sample was categorized in three categories as (1) employees with associate degree, (2) employees with a university degree, (3) employees with master's degree and PhD. According to the results, significant differences were found on the counterproductive work behavior, contextual performance, work exhaustion, workplace malicious & benign envy, toxic organizational climate, self-control and self-esteem mean scores among group 1 (associate degree), group 2 (university degree) and group 3 (master's degree and PhD). University degree graduated employees had higher levels of counterproductive work behavior mean scores when compared with other groups (p=.000). Master degree and PhD graduated employees had higher levels of contextual performance mean scores when compared with other groups (p=.001). Associate degree graduated employees had higher levels of work exhaustion mean scores when compared with other groups (p=.000). University degree graduated employees had higher levels of workplace malicious envy mean scores when compared with other groups (p=.001). Associate degree graduated employees had higher levels of workplace benign envy mean scores when compared with other groups (p=.015; p<0.05). Associate degree graduated employees had higher levels of toxic organizational climate mean scores when compared with other groups (p=.026; p<0.05). Master degree and PhD graduated

employees had higher levels of self-control mean scores when compared with other groups (p=.001). Master degree and PhD graduated employees had higher levels of self-esteem mean scores when compared with other groups (p=.009; p<0.05). Bülbül and Ergün (2017) also confirmed that each dimension of counterproductive work behavior mean scores significantly differ concerning the educational level of crew. Similar to work exhaustion, emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment dimensions of burnout mean score significantly differ in terms of the educational level in study of Llorent and Calzoda (2015). According to their results, basic education graduated employees was more affected by burnout than others. Additionally, Hunthausen (2000) confirmed that contextual performance means score significantly differs concerning the educational level. Besides, Çöp (2018) also confirmed that the self-control of the employees increases according to the education level in tourism sector. Moreover, Erzi (2019) confirmed our findings that master degree and PhD graduated employees had higher levels of self-esteem mean scores when compared with high school graduated and associate degree graduated employees.

Moreover, the t-tests related with the total work experiences of the employees were applied but it was not found the significant differences of mean scores of any variables between the employees with total work experience of 5 years and below and, employees with total work experience of 6 years and above. Additionally, employees with company experience of 5 years and below and, employees with work experience of 6 years and above were also compared regarding to the mean scores of the related variables but it was not found the significant differences of mean scores of any variables between two groups. These results showed that long years of work and company experience does not affect counterproductive work behavior, contextual performance, work exhaustion, workplace benign & malicious envy, toxic organizational climate, narcissistic leadership, self-control and self-esteem score levels of the employees for our sample.

Consequently, according to main findings, workplace malicious envy and toxic organizational climate are the significant predictors for counterproductive work behavior. Further, self-control has the moderator role in both relationships. It can be

concluded that if emotion of employee's malicious envy is controlled by self or as long as employee controls his/herself in the framework ethical principle, s/he can avoid counterproductive work behavior. Unlike malicious envy, workplace benign envy is the significant predictor for contextual performance. The study reveals that benign envy leads to positive organizational outcomes such as contextual performance. Finally, as a fact of organizational life, narcissist managers affect leader-employee dyadic relationship. The study confirmed that attitudes and behaviors of narcissist leader negatively impact on employees. Having high self-esteem level is not much more related with work exhaustion. Regardless of the level of self-esteem, a narcissistic leader leads directly to work exhaustion.

As a concluding remark, it is suggested that this study may provide noteworthy implications for integrating theoretical explanations of individual, managerial and organizational factors that may serve as antecedents of employees' emotional, attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in the organizations. Further, the study may make a contribution to the scholarly discussion surrounding counterproductive work behaviors, organizational climate, employee negative affectivity and managerial/leadership issues as a whole.

5.3. DISCUSSION

The current study may have conceptual and practical contributions and what makes this study significant is that this specific topic is dedicated to a discussion regarding both the psychology of the workplace and the organizational internal environment. Along with the findings of the study, relevant implications and discussions that have been developed are provided as follows:

When examined from an earlier stage, it was seen that Miles (1969) proposed a model which included organizations' different types of needs as well as organizations' needs for survival, growth and development. The main characteristics emphasized in this new model were those that constituted the concept of organizational health. He defined a healthy organization as "… not only survives in its environment, but continues to cope adequately over the long haul, and continuously develops and extends

its surviving and coping abilities" (Miles, 1969, p. 378). Within this framework, focusing on organizational health is seen as a key to the success for long term. Creating core values in organization such as planning for organizational success, creating a competition plan, implementing regular communication in the vertical and horizontal context, allowing employees to be inventive or having ability to tolerate stress and maintaining stability in organization can contribute to an efficiency of overall organization. It is only possible that the organization is effective but only while the employees are effective. At this point, it is useful to examine the underlying causes of organizational problems that may stem from employee, manager, work conditions or environmental factors. The purpose of this study is also revealing individual, managerial and organizational problems which will contribute to organizational health. On the other hand, as an indicator of organizational health, it is to examine a new concept which can be considered as an antecedent of effective performance within the framework of Turkish cultural structure. Within this context, notions of counterproductive work behavior, work exhaustion and contextual performance are studied extensively in recent literature as well. Regardless of the sector, this study aims to obtain individual and organizational outcomes on individuals who are in working life. In this context, firstly, the antecedent of counterproductive work behavior was studied here by focusing on workplace malicious envy and toxic organizational climate within the various sectors.

Moreover, self-control was also investigated with their moderator roles between these relationships. Secondly, the antecedent of work exhaustion was studied here by focusing on narcissistic leadership style within the various sectors. This once, self-esteem was also investigated with the mediator role between narcissistic leadership and work exhaustion. Thirdly, the antecedent of contextual performance behavior was studied here by focusing on workplace benign envy within the various sectors. After, an in-depth literature review was made; six hypotheses were set regarding the given relations together with their mediating and moderating effects. In order to confirm eight scales, a pilot study was carried out. According to the pilot study's results, the reliability and validity of the scales was statistically fit in the study and thus, the main questionnaires were generated. Afterwards, the model was statistically tested with these

six hypotheses. Besides, the data of this study was gathered from employees who work in various sectors in Istanbul, Turkey and have at least an associate degree.

The results of the analysis showed that there were significant positive relationships between counterproductive work behavior and workplace malicious envy; contextual performance and workplace benign envy; counterproductive work behavior and toxic organizational climate; work exhaustion and narcissistic leadership. On the other hand, workplace malicious envy positively impacts on counterproductive work behaviors of the employees, which was also in-line with the literature. It is known that malicious envy is a phenomenon with negative emotions in its nature and leads to increased undesirable behaviors. Employees feel envy towards others in an environment as a result of comparing oneself with others. The feeling of lack can nourish the employee's negative emotions. Thus, aggressive behaviors can be triggered because of the growth of the seeds of hate within the human being as well as damaging him or her psychosocially.The study showed that the emotion of malicious envy is manifested in both as towards the individual and towards the organization.

Similarly, workplace benign envy positively impacts on contextual performance and the result was also parallel to the literature. The association between contextual performance and workplace benign envy can explain social identity theory which refers to individuals recognize their own membership in groups by defining the social boundaries surrounding particular groups, and then self-categorizing themselves as either belonging or not belonging to them (Gundlach, Zivnuska and Stoner, 2006). It is known that social identity leads to perceived similarity, interpersonal liking, proximity, frequency of interaction, and other factors traditionally associated with group development. By means of group identification, employees can believe their internal power in case of co-worker's success in organization. Thus, they may display extra performance in order to succeed as others. Besides, being successful in organization can be a source of motivation for other employees within the organization, especially if the successful employee is rewarded by top management. On the other hand, it can be claimed that the association between these two variables can be clarified with horizontal individualism in organization. Employees with horizontal individualistic consider their

self as autonomous, self-reliant and independent entity. They emphasize equity in group. They pay more attention to personal goals and the self-confidence of individual is quite high. Therefore, they can be competitive in group (Uçar, 2017). Competition among employees within the same organization can increase their contextual performance because of displaying extra role behaviors. Additionally, the term agency can be a predictor while explaining the relationship between contextual performance and workplace benign envy because, agency refers to "motivated action, with a sense of efficacy, toward a desired outcome" (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). At the same time, employees act extra performance willingly, without a sense of coercion by the top management. For the sample of current study, contextual performance of employees with high benign envy can be explained with these concepts.

Futher, toxic organizational climate positively impacts on counterproductive work behaviors of the employees and the result identified the different type of antecedents of counterproductive work behavior in organizations. Toxic organizational climate includes favoritism, inequity, abuse management, gossip &rumor, discrimination, negative work condition and so on. In the hostile work environment, bad experiences and negative perceptions can drive away productive employees and employees can desire to damage an organization in order to discharge, both physically and psychologically. Moreover, these behaviors and attitudes that feed the toxic perception do not need to be exposed only to the employee. Toxic perception can also occur as a result of behaviors observed by the employee. Briefly, the perception of toxic organizational climate can be established directly and indirectly. Subsequently, under such climate, the purpose of the employees may be to ensure equality, to protect themselves and to take revenge. Besides, it is proven that aggression can also manifest in case of bad work condition because employees can be affected psychologically (Fujishiro, Gee and Castro, 2011; Taştan, 2017). Counterproductive work behavior is also one of several forms of aggression.

Further, according to the results of the study, it was seen that narcissistic leadership positively impacts on work exhaustion and the result contributed to literature that such leadership style is also an antecedent of work exhaustion. It is obvious that

narcissistic leadership style can create a working environment where employees are demotivated and disengaged due to negative organizational outcomes, which in return leads to an unhealthy organizational climate (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006; Kets de Vries, 2004; Lubit, 2002; Resick, Whitman, Weingarden, and Hiller, 2009). As a result of these conditions, employees may become mentally and emotionally exhausted. Furthermore, it is seen that the dimension of authoritarian behaviors affects interpersonal relations in comparison with dimension of ego-centric behaviors. Such a manager may apply to use authoritarian methods to stabilize their own power so as to control employees or dominate the management of the organization. They usually have the desire to pursue maximum power and self-interest. Consequently, authoritarian narcissist manager's impact on employee work exhaustion cannot be ignored. Within this framework, it can be concluded that the high level of counterproductive work behavior and work exhaustion might be related to organizational structure of the companies where the study was performed. Thus, as suggested initially by the literature, all results confirmed the antecedents in the model.

On the other hand, the self-control and self-esteem have been involved in the model. Firstly, the moderating role of self-control between counterproductive work behavior and workplace malicious envy was confirmed, which was also supported by the literature. When the degree of employee's self-control increases, the effect of perceived malicious envy could increase counterproductive work behavior, in another words, such malicious feeling could transform into counterproductive work behavior. It may be due to aggressive behavior that may be an outcome of malicious envy, since it is known that anger may arise as a result of a threatening, repulsive, disrespectful and negative situation and is experienced in mild to moderate level, it activates constructive behaviors. In such situation, aggression is not experienced as negative. Conversely, it increases one's sense of self-efficacy and produces positive results for both himself and others (Dahlen ve Martin, 2006).

Furthermore, the moderating role of self-control between counterproductive work behavior and toxic organizational climate was confirmed. As mentioned in the literature review, toxic organizational climate can be exploitive, abusive, destructive or

corrupt and poisonous. In such an environment, negative emotions experienced by employees can push them to counterproductive work behavior. As indicated with hypothesis 5, the higher the self-control percepiton, the higher the effect of perceived toxic organizational climate on counterproductive work behavior. It is well known that employees' personality traits as individual differences are causal factors behind counterproductive work behavior and self-control is a personality trait. However, it was an unexpected result that as the degree of self-control of the employees increases, the effect of toxic organizational climate on counterproductive work behavior increases. Therefore, it is useful to investigate reasons of this finding in future studies.

However, the mediating role of self-esteem between narcissistic leadership and work exhaustion was not confirmed. As is known, the association between narcissistic leadership style and work exhaustion was confirmed both in this study and in the relevant literature. Narcissist leadership is the dominant predictor for exhaustion. Such that, the arrogant, coercive and even abusive styles of narcissistic leaders led to the work exhaustion, even for those with high self-esteem. Briefly, such leadership causes employees feel more exhausted at organization, regardless of self-esteem level. In addition, it can be said that a source of employee's self-esteem is not solely the narcissist leader. Here, self-esstem of employees can be based on achievement oriented and their self-esteem may increase as the employees feel qualified themselves. However, in this situation, employees become workaholics which will inevitable drain their valuable resources such as self-esteem. Consequently, for this specific sample in the study, the effect of narcissist leader on work exhaustion did not differ from according to employees' level of self-esteem.

In the study, there are several findings in terms of the scales. According to factor analysis results, counterproductive work behavior, toxic organizational climate and narcissistic leadership scales made important contributions to the literature. Counterproductive work behavior was classified statistically under one factor, instead of the classical four factorial approach of the literature. All items related to political deviance, personal aggression, production deviance and property deviance combined with items related general counterproductive work behavior. Employees have perceived

political deviance, personal aggression, production deviance and property deviance in the same context instead of separating them. As a matter of fact, counterproductive work behavior has been viewed as a one component variable according to individual and organizational deviant behaviors. It is seen that factorial structure of scale can change when it is tested on larger and different samples.

The toxic organizational climate scale is another essential scale that is used to measure the concept. The scale is prepared on how employees feel at organization in general and how employees perceive what is happening in the organization. In this context, toxic organizational climate was classified statistically under three factors, instead of the classical four factorial approach of the literature. All items related to toxic behaviors of manager combined with items related to toxic social-structural factors. It can be concluded that for our sample, these items might be presenting organizational structure rather than representing the managerial features. Employees attributed toxic behavior caused by managers to organizational structure rather than attributed to managers. Namely, employees may have evaluated the manager as a socio-structural part of the organization. From this point, this dimensionalizing can be an example for future studies.

The factor of narcissistic leadership, which has six dimensions in original, has formed a three-dimensional structure. Here, it is essential to discuss the dimensions of authoritarian behaviors and ego-centric behaviors. It is argued that authoritarian behaviors and ego-centric behaviors are a part of general scale. Besides, these two dimensions represent the scale well. Therefore, the high scores of narcissistic leadership scale and the significant relations between work exhaustion scores emphasized the importance of narcissist leader in the organization, underlining an academic and managerial implication of this research. On the other hand, some items in the scale were adapted and re-evaluated by the researcher and thesis advisor. Therefore, it was observed that items that do not reflect narcissistic leadership have been successfully separated. These items were categorized as non-narcissistic leadership. The fact that the items related with perception of non-narcissistic leadership were loaded under this third factor.

The applied t-test results showed that the significant differences of the mean scores concluded that; (i) male employees had higher mean scores on counterproductive work behavior, work exhaustion, toxic organizational climate, and narcissistic leadership dimensions, (ii) married employees had higher mean scores on counterproductive work behavior and workplace malicious envy dimensions, (iii) employees with university degree showed higher mean on counterproductive work behavior, and workplace malicious envy scores when compared with employees with associate degree and masters & PhD degree; employees with associate degree showed higher mean on toxic organizational climate score; employees with master & PhD degree showed higher mean on contextual performance, work exhaustion, workplace benign envy, self-control and self-esteem scores when compared with other employees. Consequently, it was determined that gender differences, marital status and educational level positively impact employee' behaviors, attitudes & psychological wellbeing and their antecedents.

This research also includes some major managerial implications. Firstly, according to obtained findings, behaviors and attitudes related to organization can play a crucial role for employees in engaging in counterproductive work behavior. Therefore, the management department should focus on organizational issues, roles, function and policies & procedures while dealing with problems. Besides, democratic&participative principles in organizations can help supporting to organizational structure. Thus, counterproductive actions can be avoided. Additionally, at individual level, equity and justice should not be ignored among employees because some organizational practices will cause undesirable tension among employees. The study also revealed that the relationships between employee & employee or supervisor/manager & employee have a direct effect on the counterproductive work behaviors. Thus, it can be said that the most important role of upper levels can be to enhance equity/positive actions/cooperation among employees, as well as to create and maintain quality of work life. Furthermore, the study reveals that there is a relationship between workplace malicious envy and counterproctive work behaviors. For this reason, providing socialization among employees may contribute many positive impacts such as collaborative culture and high motivation. In addition, socialization shapes the way employees view teamwork and

contributes to the sharing of information between each other. For instance, activities organized indoor and outdoor can cause intimate feelings among employees. In this way, the success of any employee within the organization can turn into benign envy instead of malicious envy. Briefly, managers should increase interaction among employees by means of social activities in order to build culture based on friendship. Secondly, when the employees' perceptions of toxic organizational climate were exmined, it was seen that employees face some toxic attitudes and behaviors in the work environment which are mostly caused by the manager. This is a question for occupational health and personal development and for today's organizations. The organizational managers, owners and policy makers should try to understand the situations and elements that contribute to toxic organizational environment and search for principles and implemetation for elimating those probblems.

In the methodology chapter, according to result of toxic organizational climate factor analysis, toxic organizational scale had three factors. The dimesion of toxic behaviors of managers and the dimesion of toxic social-structural factors were combined. This means that employees attribute the cause of some problems in the organization to the manager. At this point, manager should not apply favoritism or nepotism, not increase competition among employees and they should guide to managing conflict in organization effectively. If necessary, the manager should be able to apply discipline in fairness and balance. Otherwise, such manners can lead to high psychological costs and negative organizational results. Therefore, managers should not ignore organizational social and structural factors. Finally, many organizational practices may have a role in organizational health; therefore employees' emotions and perceptions should be recognized and integrated into organizational policies, procedures and practices.

5.4. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current study makes important contributions to organizational behavior literature although it has also several limitations, just as with any empirical research. One limitation of the current study is that several other personal and contextual variables may serve as contingent factor or antecedent factor for the relevant emotional

and behavioral outcomes of the employees in the organizations. Therefore, it is proposed that those variables such as, personality traits, emotional states, leader-member relations, cultural factors, evaluations of self, employees' perceptions of organizational trust, justice, and psychological contract, etc. could be undertaken in order to enhance a broader view for understanding related to the conceptualized relationships within the research model.

Another limitation is related to all data in the survey collected throughout a self-reporting method. It is known that this method may cause common method bias. It is recommeded for future studies to utilize multisourcing method for evaluating the perception of the respondents in terms of the study variables. Therefore, co-workers and managers may be included in future studies by being collected data from multiple reports. For instance, the multiple source data collection method would be used in this study as contextual performance behaviors scales were answered by managers by considering the employee performances. Either, the multiple source data collection method can be used in order to measure tendency of manager's narcissism by evaluating themselves. On the other hand, all the data was collected by the participants individually as self-reports. However, participants may have been affected by social desirability response bias. Therefore, while answering items of workplace envy and self-control, participants may be maken social desirability mistake. Therefore, it is recommended that such measurements could be done with different methods such as scenario techniques in future studies.

Furthermore, the study was performed with data obtained from various sectors sample located in Istanbul/Turkey. Therefore, it is useful to examine organizational dynamics of this study on sectoral or occupitonal settings so that the findings can be determined across the only group of population of Turkey. Future studies can be conducted on organizational level and can focus on one unique sector. Additionally, the effects of culture are highly specified and so, this study must not be generalized. National or organizational culture can be the factors which should not be underestimated.

These statistical analyses can be extended by involving the sub-dimensions of the dependent variable, in the future studies. For instance, toxic behaviors of co-workers, toxic behaviors of managers, toxic social-structural factors and toxic work environment dimensions related to counterproductive work behavior can be examined subject to their relations with independent variables. Additionally, toxic organizational climate is a new concept for organizational behavior literature. Therefore, it is possible that this variable can be analysed with different organizational factors. It can strongly be claimed that perception of toxic towards organization can play an important role in understanding the dark side of literature. Similarly, narcissistic leadership dimensions in independent variables can be examined as well. Thus, researchers can obtain detailed interrelationships on important points.

In this study, quantitative research method was used. However, qualitative data research could be incorporated to study. In future studies, if it is used the combination of these two different methods, researchers could obtain precise results by decreasing bias. Subsequently, these findings in the current research are valuable as it was tried to explain counterproductive work behavior, contextual performance, work exhaustion, workplace envy, toxic organizational climate, narcissistic leadership, self-control, self-esteem and relationships among them.

REFERENCES

Aamodt, M. G. (1999). *Applied Industrial/Organizational Psychology* (3rd Ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole-Wadsworth.

Abdelhamied, H. H. S. (2018). The effects of work characteristics and self-esteem on work burnout for supervisory-levels employees in hotels. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management, 6*(1), 9-24.

Adams, J. S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67, 422–436.

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. *In Advances in Experimental Social Psychology,* 2, 267-299, Academic Press.

Adams, J. S., & Freedman, S. (1976). Equity theory revisited: comments and annotated bibliography. *In Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 9, 43-90, Academic Press.

Adekola B. (2010). Gender differences in the experience of work burnout among university staff. *African Journal of Business Management, 4*(6), 886-889.

Akhtar, S., & Thomson, J. A. (1982). Overview: Narcissistic personality disorder. *The American Journal of Psychiatry, 139*(1), 12-20. http://dx.doi.org/10.1176/ajp.139.1.12

Akman, Y. (2016). The relationship between destructive leadership and job burnout: a research on teachers. *Çanakkale Üniversitesi Degileri, 12* (3), 12-36.

Alavi, H. R., & Askaripur, M. R. (2003). The relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction of personnel in government organizations. *Public Personnel Management, 32*(4), 591-600.

Ali, R., & Ahmed, M. S. (2009). The impact of reward and recognition programs on employee's motivation and satisfaction: an empirical study. *International Review of Business Research Papers, 5*(4), 270-279.

Alicke, M. D., & Zell, E. (2008). *Social comparison and envy. Envy*: Theory And Research, 4(4): 73-93.

Ambrose, M. L., Seabright, M. A., & Schminke, M. (2002). Sabotage in the workplace: the role of organizational injustice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 89*(1), 947-965.

Amernic, J. H., & Craig, R. J. (2010). Accounting as a facilitator of extreme narcissism. *Journal of Business Ethics, 96*(1), 79-93.

Ames, D. R., Rose, P., & Anderson, C. P. (2006). The NPI-16 as a short measure of narcissism. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *40*(4), 440–450.

Anderson, M. B. G., & Iwanicki, E. F. (1984). Teacher motivation and its relationship to burnout. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *20*(2), 109-132.

Andreassen, C. S., Ursin, H., Eriksen, H. R., & Pallesen, S. (2012). The relationship of narcissism with workaholism, work engagement, and professional position. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 40*(6), 881-890.

Aniefiok, A. G., Vongsinsirikul, S., Suwandee, S., & Jabutay, F. (2018). The impacts of workplace conflict on employees' contextual performance and employee's commitment: a case study of private universities in Thailand. 5*th International Conference on Business And Industrial Research (ICBIR)*, 355-359, IEEE.

Ansaripour, S., Fasihi, S., Mohammadi, B., Ganji, F., Shirian, N., & Malekpour-Tehrani, A. (2017). The role of job performance on career success and self-esteem of staff. *Journal of Clinical and Diagnostic Research, 11*(10).

Appelbaum, S. H., & Roy-Girard, D. (2007). Toxins in the workplace: Affect on organizations and employees. *Corporate Governance*: T*he International Journal of Business In Society, 7*(1), 17-28.

Aquino, K., & Griffeth, R. (1999). An exploration of the antecedents and consequences of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 22, 347-366.

Armstead, C. A., Lawler, K. A., Gorden, G., Cross, J., & Gibbons, J. (1989). Relationship of racial stressors to blood pressure responses and anger expression in black college students. *Health Psychology, 8*(5), 541.

Army, U. S. (2012). *Army Doctrine Publication* (ADP). 6-22: Army Leadership. Washington: US Army.

Artaç, M. (2017). *Dedikodu ve söylentinin işletme verimliliğine etkisi üzerine mersin ilinde hemşireler üzerine bir uygulama*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Social Science Instutation, Cag University, Mersin

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Daus, C. S. (2002). Emotion in the workplace: the new challenge for managers. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *16(*1), 76-86.

Asraf, F. A., & Seljelid, B. S. (2016). *Comprehending envy and its impact on employees and the organization*. Master's Thesis, BI Norwegian Business School, Norway.

Aubé, C., Rousseau, V., Mama, C., & Morin, E. M. (2009). Counterproductive behaviors and psychological well-being: the moderating effect of task interdependence. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 24*(3), 351-361.

Aubrey, D. W. (2012). *The Effect of Toxic Leadership*. Army War Coll Carlisle Barracks PA. Press: USA.

Averill, J. R. (1983). Studies on anger and aggression: implications for theories of emotion. *American Psychologist, 38*(11), 1145.

Aydın, (2017). The role of organizational culture on leadership styles. *Manas Journal of Social Studies, 7(*1), 267-280.

Ayoko, O. B., Callan, V. J., & Härtel, C. E. (2003). Workplace conflict, bullying, and counterproductive behaviors. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 11*(4), 283-301.

Babakus, E., Cravens, D. W., Johnston, M., & Moncrief, W. C. (1999). The role of emotional exhaustion in sales force attitude and behavior relationships. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(1), 58-70.

Bacal, R. (2000). Toxic organizations – welcome to the fire of an unhealthy workplace. Internet Essay on Conflict911.com. Available at: www.work911.com, *access date: 03.07.2919.*

Baka, Ł. (2015). How do negative emotions regulate the effects of workplace aggression on counterproductive work behaviors? *Polish Psychological Bulletin, 46*(3), 326-335.

Bakken, T. L. (2011). *Working Together To Explore Sensory Issues and the Big Feelings They Can Cause: A Workbook For Parents, Professionals, and Children*. Lauren H. Kerstein: My Sensory Book: USA.

Bakker, A. B., Boyd, C. M., Dollard, M., Gillespie, N., Winefield, A. H., & Stough, C. (2010). The role of personality in the job demands-resources model: a study of australian academic staff. *Career Development International, 15*(7), 622-636.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. C. (2005). Job Resources buffer the impact of job demands on burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(2), 170.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., De Boer, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2003). Job demands and job resources as predictors of absence duration and frequency. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62*(2), 341-356.

Ball, G. A., Trevino, L. K., & Sims Jr, H. P. (1994). Just and unjust punishment: influences on subordinate performance and citizenship. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(2), 299-322.

Balthazard, P. A., Cooke, R. A., & Potter, R. E. (2006). Dysfunctional culture, dysfunctional organization: capturing the behavioral norms that form organizational culture and drive performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(8), 709-732.

Bandura, A. (1968). A social learning interpretation of psychological dysfunctions. *Foundations of Abnormal Psychology, 2*(2), 293-344.

Bandura, A. (1978). Social learning theory of aggression. *Journal of Communication*, *28*(3), 12-29.

Bandura, A. (1991a). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), 248-287.

Bandura, A. (1991b). Self-regulation of motivation through anticipatory and self-reactive mechanisms. *In Perspectives on Motivation: Nebraska Symposium on Motivation*, 38, 69-164.

Barclay, L., Skarlicki, D. P. & Pugh, S. D. (2005). Exploring the role of emotions in injustice perceptions and retaliation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 629-643.

Barling, J., Rogers, A. G., & Kelloway, E. K. (2001). Behind closed doors: in-home workers' experience of sexual harassment and workplace violence. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 6*(3), 255.

Barnard, J. W. (2008). Narcissism, over-optimism, fear, anger, and depression: the interior lives of corporate leaders. *University of Cincinnati Law*, 77, 405.

Baron, R. A., & Neuman, J. H. (1996). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: evidence on their relative frequency and potential causes. *Aggressive Behavior: Official Journal of the International Society for Research on Aggression*, *22*(3), 161-173.

Baron, R.M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1173-1182.

Basch, J., & Fisher, C. D. (2000). *Affective Job Events–Emotions Matrix: A Classification of Job Related Events And Emotions Experienced in The Workplace*. Emotions in the Workplace: Research, Theory, and Practice. Westport, CT: Quorum Books: USA, 36-48.

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations*. Collier Macmillan, Free Press, New York: USA.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *The International Journal of Public Administration, 17*(3-4), 541-554.

Bauer, J. A., & Spector, P. E. (2015). Discrete negative emotions and counterproductive work behavior. *Human Performance, 28*(4), 307-331.

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*(3), 497.

Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J. D., Krueger, J. I., & Vohs, K. D. (2003). Does high self-esteem cause better performance, interpersonal success, happiness, or healthier lifestyles? *Psychological Science in The Public Interest, 4*(1), 1-44.

Baumeister, R. F., Smart, L., & Boden, J. M. (1996). Relation of threatened egotism to violence and aggression: The dark side of high self-esteem. *Psychological Review, 103*(1), 156-197.

Beauregard, T. A. (2014). Fairness perceptions of work− life balance initiatives: effects on counterproductive work behavior. *British Journal of Management, 25*(4), 772-789.

Bechtold, M., Welk, C., Hartig, J., & Zapf, D. (2007). Main and moderating effects of self-control, organizational justice, and emotional labour on counterproductive behavior at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 16, 479-500.

Beffort, N. Ve Hattrup, K. (2003). Valuing task and contextual performance: experience, job roles, and ratings of the importance of job behaviors. *Applied H.R.M. Research, 8* (1), 19-34.

Beheshtifar, M., & Omidvar, A. R. (2013). Causes to create job burnout in organizations. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 3*(6), 107-123.

Bekker, M. H. J., Croon, M. A., And Bressers, B. (2005). Child care involvement, job characteristics, gender and work attitudes as predictors of emotional exhaustion and sickness absences. *Work Stress*, 19, 221–237.

Doi: 10.1080/02678370500286095

Bektas, M., & Erkal, P. (2015). Toxicity behaviors in organizations: study of reliability and validity of toxic emotional experiences scale. *Research Journal of Business and Management, 2*(4), 519-529.

Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2003). *The Past, Present, and Future of Workplace Deviance Research*. J. Greenberg (Ed.), Organizational Behavior: The State of The Science, 247-281, Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers: USA.

Bentein, K., Vandenberghe, C., Vandenberg, R., & Stinglhamber, F. (2005). The role of change in the relationship between commitment and turnover: a latent growth modeling approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(3), 468.

Bergman, J. Z., Westerman, J. W., & Daly, J. P. (2010). Narcissism in management education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 9*(1), 119–131.

Bergmann, J. R., & Bednarz, J. (1993). *Discreet Indiscretions: The Social Organization of Gossip* (P. 54). Aldine De Gruyter, New York: USA.

Berkowitz, L. (1989). Frustration aggression hypothesis: examination and reformulation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 106, 59-73.

Berry, C. M., Ones, D. S., & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: a review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(2), 410.

Bhattacherjee, A. (2012). *Social Science Research: Principles, Methods, and Practices.* Publisher: CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform, South Florida; USA.

Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (1996*). Beyond Distrust. "Getting Even and The Need For Revenge"*. In RM Kramer & TR Tyler (Eds.). Trust In Organizations, 246-260, Quorum Press, New York: USA.

Billings, D. W., Folkman, S., Acree, M., & Moskowitz, J. T. (2000). Coping and physical health during caregiving: the roles of positive and negative affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 79*(1), 131.

Bizzi, L., & Soda, G. (2011). The paradox of authentic selves and chameleons: self-monitoring, perceived job autonomy and contextual performance. *British Journal of Management, 22*(2), 324-339.

Blair, C. A., Hoffman, B. J., & Helland, K. A. (2008). Narcissism in organizations: an empirical look at managerial integrity and effectiveness. *Human Performance*, 21, 254–276.

Blais, M. A., Smallwood, P., Groves, J. E., Rivas-Vazquez, R. A., & Hopwood, C. J. (2008). *Personality and Personality Disorders.* Massachusetts General Hospital Comprehensive Clinical Psychiatry. 39, Pa: Mosby Elsevier, Philadelphia: USA.

Blascovich, J., & Tomaka, J. (1991). Measures of self-esteem. *Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes,* 1, 115-160.

Blau, P. (1964). *Power and Exchange in Social Life*. John Wiley & Sons, New York: USA.

Blom, V. (2012). Contingent self-esteem, stressors and burnout in working women and men. *Work, 43*(2), 123-131.

Blom, V., Richter, A., Hallsten, L., & Svedberg, P. (2018). The associations between job insecurity, depressive symptoms and burnout: the role of performance-based self-esteem. *Economic and Industrial Democracy, 39*(1), 48-63.

Bock, G. W., Zmud, R. W., Kim, Y. G., & Lee, J. N. (2005). Behavioral intention formation in knowledge sharing: examining the roles of extrinsic motivators, social-psychological factors, and organizational climate. *MIS Quarterly, 29*(1), 87-111.

Boden, J. M., Fergusson, D. M., & Horwood, L. J. (2008). Does adolescent self-esteem predict later life outcomes? A test of the causal role of self-esteem. *Development and Psychopathology, 20*(1), 319-339.

Bok, S. (1983). *Secrets: on the Ethics of Concealment and Revelation*. Random House, New York: USA.

Bolat, O. İ. (2011a). Öz yeterlilik ve tükenmişlik ilişkisi: lider-üye etkileşiminin aracılık etkisi. *Ege Akademik Bakış Dergisi, 11*(2), 255-266.

Bolat, O. İ. (2011b). İş yükü, iş kontrolü ve tükenmişlik ilişkisi. *Atatürk Üniversitesi İktisadi Ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi, 25*(2), 87-101.

Bolat, T., Bolat, O. I., & Yuksel, M. (2011). Relationship between role ambiguity and burnout: the mediating effect of organizational culture. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, 2*(10), 373-398.

Bolino, M. C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: good soldiers or good actors? *Academy of Management Review, 24*(1), 82-98.

Bordia, P., Restubog, S. L. D., & Tang, R. L. (2008). When employees strike back: investigating mediating mechanisms between psychological contract breach and workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(5), 1104.

Borman, W. C. And Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: the meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 99-109.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. M. (1993). *Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance.* Personnel Selection in Organizations, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 71, USA.

Borman, W. C., Motowidlo, S. J., Rose, S. R., & Hanser, L. M. (1987). Development of a model of soldier effectiveness: retranslation materials and results. *Human Resources Research Organization, 87*(29), 23-54.

Bowen B. B. (2000). *Recognizing and Rewarding Employees*. New York: Mcgraw-Hill, USA.

Bowen, D. E., & Ostroff, C. (2004). Understanding HRM–Firm performance linkages: the role of the "strength" of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review, 29*(2), 203-221.

Braun, S. (2017). Leader narcissism and outcomes in organizations: a review at multiple levels of analysis and implications for future research. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 773.

Braun, S., Aydin, N., Frey, D., & Peus, C. (2018). Leader narcissism predicts malicious envy and supervisor-targeted counterproductive work behavior: evidence from field and experimental research. *Journal of Business Ethics, 151*(3), 725-741.

Brett, J. M., & Stroh, L. K. (2003). Working 61 plus hours a week: why do managers do it? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(1), 67.

Brienza, J. P. (2013). *Workplace injustice and counterproductive work behaviour: the moderating role of employee age*, Master's Thesis, University Of Waterloo, USA.

Brockner, J. (1988). *Self-Esteem at Work: Research, Theory, and Practice*. Lexington Books/DC Heath and Company, Columbia.

Brown, J. D. (2010). High self-esteem buffers negative feedback: Once more with feeling. *Cognition and Emotion, 24*(8), 1389-1404.

Brown, J. D., & Marshall, M. A. (2001). Self-esteem and emotion: some thoughts about feelings. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27*(5), 575-584.

Bruk-Lee, V., & Spector, P. E. (2006). The Social stressors-counterproductive work behaviors link: are conflicts with supervisors and coworkers the same? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*(2), 145.

Brunell, A. B., Gentry, W. A., Campbell, W. K., Hoffman, B. J., Kuhnert, K. W., & Demarree, K. G. (2008). Leader emergence: the case of the narcissistic leader. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34*(12), 1663-1676.

Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma and Leadership in Organizations*. London: Sage, UK.

Buck, R. (1985). Prime theory: an integrated view of motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92, 389-413.

Bülbül, K. G., & Ergün, N. (2017). Counterproductive work behavior in air transportation organizations: a study on airline cabin services. *Uluslararası Yönetim İktisat ve İşletme Dergisi, 13*(2), 407-424.

Bullock, S.C., & Houston, E. (1987). Perceptions of racism by black medical students attending white medical schools. *Journal of National Medical Association*, 79, 601–608.

Bunk, J. A., & Magley, V. J. (2013). The role of appraisals and emotions in understanding experiences of workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 18*(1), 87.

Burt, C. H., Sweeten, G., & Simons, R. L. (2014). Self-Control through emerging adulthood: instability, multidimensionality, and criminological significance. *Criminology*, *52*(3), 450-487.

Burton, J. P., & Hoobler, J. M. (2011). Aggressive reactions to abusive supervision: the role of interactional justice and narcissism. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 52(*4), 389-398.

Bushman, B. J., & Baumeister, R. F. (1998). Threatened egotism, narcissism, self-esteem, and direct and displaced aggression: does self-love or self-hate lead to violence? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*(1), 219.

Campbell, J. P. (1990). *Modeling the Performance Prediction Problem in Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. In: M.D. Dunnette and L.M. Hough (Eds.) Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Palo Alto, Ca; Consulting Psychologists Press (2nd Edition), 687-732, US.

Campbell, J. P. (2012). *Behavior, Performance, and Effectiveness in The Twenty-First Century*. In S. W. J. Kozlowski (Ed.), The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Psychology; New York, NY: Oxford University Press. 1,159–196, Https://Doi.Org/10/Cg78

Campbell, J. P., Mccloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H., & Sager, C. E. (1993). A theory of performance. *Personnel Selection in Organizations*, 3570, 35-70.

Campbell, W. K., Brunell, A. B., & Finkel, E. J. (2006). Narcissism, interpersonal self-regulation, and romantic relationships: an agency model approach. *Human Resource Management Review, 14*(3), 132-165.

Campbell, W. K., Hoffman, B. J., Campbell, S. M., & Marchisio, G. (2011). Narcissism in organizational contexts. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*(4), 268-284.

Carlson, E. B., Dalenberg, C., & Mcdade-Montez, E. (2012). Dissociation in posttraumatic stress disorder part I: definitions and review of research. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy*, *4*(5), 479.

Caruana, E. J., Roman, M., Hernández-Sánchez, J., & Solli, P. (2015). Longitudinal studies. *Journal of Thoracic Disease, 7*(11), E537.

Cast, A. D., & Burke, P. J. (2002). A theory of self-esteem. *Social Forces, 80*(3), 1041-1068.

Cavaiola, A., & Lavender, N. (2011). *The One-Way Relationship Workbook: Step-By-Step Help for Coping With Narcissists, Egotistical Lovers, Toxic Cowokers, and Others Who Are Incredibly Self-Absorbed*. Readhowyouwant. Company, Sydney: Australia

Çetin, F., & Fikirkoca, A. (2010). Rol ötesi olumlu davranışlar kişisel ve tutumsal faktörlerle öngörülebilir mi? *Ankara Üniversitesi Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 65 (4), 41-66.

Chen, P. Y., & Spector, P. E. (1992). Relationships of work stressors with aggression, withdrawal, theft and substance use: an exploratory study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 65*(3), 177-184.

Cherabin, M., Praveena, K. B., Azimi, H. M., Qadimi, A., & Shalmani, R. S. (2012). Self esteem, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of faculty members of secondary level teacher training programme in mysore (India). *Life Science Journal, 9*(4), 204-214.

Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I. S., Berry, C. M., Li, N., & Gardner, R. G. (2011). The five-factor model of personality traits and organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(6), 1140.

Chiang, C. F., & Hsieh, T. S. (2012). The impacts of perceived organizational support and psychological empowerment on job performance: the mediating effects of organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(1), 180-190.

Choi, K. H., Saperstein, A. M., & Medalia, A. (2012). The relationship of trait to state motivation: the role of self-competency beliefs. *Schizophrenia Research, 139*(1-3), 73-77.

Choi, Y., Harachi, T. W., Gillmore, M. R., & Catalano, R. F. (2006). Are multiracial adolescents at greater risk? Comparisons of rates, patterns, and correlates of substance use and violence between monoracial and multiracial adolescents. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 76*(1), 86-97.

Chu, L. C. (2014). Mediating toxic emotions in the workplace-the impact of abusive supervision. *Journal of Nursing Management, 22*(8), 953-963.

Çirpan, Y., & Ozdogru, A. A. (2017). Bemas haset ve gıpta ölçeğinin türkçe uyarlaması: dilsel eşdeğerlik, güvenilirlik ve geçerlilik çalışması. *Anatolian Journal of Psychiatry/Anadolu Psikiyatri Dergisi*, 18(6).

Clanton, G. (2006). *Jealousy and Envy*. In Handbook of the Sociology of Emotions (Pp. 410-442). Springer, Boston: USA.

Coccia, C. (1998). Avoiding a" toxic" organization. *Nursing Management, 29*(5), 32-33.

Cohen-Charash, Y. (2009). Episodic envy. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 39*(9), 2128-2173.

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Mueller, J. S. (2007). Does perceived unfairness exacerbate or mitigate interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors related to envy? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(3), 666-680.

Çokluk, Ö., Şekercioğlu, G., & Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2016). *Sosyal Bilimler için Çok Değişkenli İstatistik Spss ve Lisrel Uygulamaları*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.

Colbert, A.E., M.K.Mount, J.K Harter, L.A. Witt, M.R.Barrick (2004). Interactive effects of personality and perceptions of the work situation on workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 599–609.

Cole, J. M., & Scrivener, H. (2013). Short Term effects of gossip behavior on self-esteem. *Current Psychology, 32*(3), 252-260.

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Rodell, J. B., Long, D. M., Zapata, C. P., Conlon, D. E., & Wesson, M. J. (2013). Justice at the millennium, a decade later: a meta-analytic test of social exchange and affect-based perspectives. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*(2), 199.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1987). Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review, 12*(4), 637-647.

Conger, J. A., Kanungo, R. N., & Menon, S. T. (2000). Charismatic leadership and follower effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal*

of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, *21*(7), 747-767.

Conlon, D. E., Meyer, C. J., & Nowakowski, J. M. (2005). *How Does Organizational Justice Affect Performance, Withdrawal, And Counterproductive Behavior*? In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), Handbook of Organizational Justice, 301-327, New Jersey: USA.

Conway, J. M. (1999). Distinguishing contextual performance from task performance for managerial jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(1), 3.

Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1980). New work attitude measures of trust, organizational commitment and personal need non-fulfilment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 53*(1), 39-52.

Cooper , C . P .& Wanhill, S. (1998). *Tourism* a*nd Development: Environmental and Community Issues.* Chichester: Wiley &Sons, USA.

Cooper, C. L., & Cartwright, S. (1994). Healthy Mind; healthy organization-a proactive approach to occupational stress. *Human Relations, 47(*4), 455-471.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). The Antecedents Of Self – Esteem. (Eds. W.H. Freeman), USA: San Fransico ISSN: 0716709120 9780716709121

Çöp, S. (2008). *Türkiye ve Polonya'da turizm sektörü çalışanlarının örgütsel adalet ve örgütsel bağlılık algılarına ilişkin bir uygulama*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Gazi University, Ankara.

Corbetta, P. (2003). *Social Research. Theory, Methods and Techniques*. Sage, London, UK.

224

Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 6*(1), 64.

Costa Jr., P.T., Mccrae, R.R. (1997). Stability and change in personality assessment: the revised neo personality inventory in the year 2000. *Journal of Personal Assessment*, 68, 86–94

Cox, T., Griffiths, A., & Rial-Gonzalez, E. (2002). Work-related stress: the European picture. *Magazine of the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work*, 5, 4-6.

Creswell, J. W. (2002). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. New York: Sage Publication, USA.

Creswell, J. W., Klassen, A. C., Plano Clark, V. L., & Smith, K. C. (2011). *Best Practices for Mixed Methods Research in The Health Sciences*. Bethesda (Maryland): National Institutes of Health, 541-545, USA.

Crocker, J. (2002). The costs of seeking self–esteem. *Journal of Social Issues, 58*(3), 597-615.

Crocker, J., & Park, L. E. (2004). The Costly pursuit of self-esteem. *Psychological Bulletin, 130*(3), 392.

Cropanzano, R., Goldman, B., & Folger, R. (2005). Self-interest: defining and understanding a human motive. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 26*(8), 985-991.

Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D. E., & Byrne, Z. S. (2003). The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(1), 160.

Crusius, J., & Lange, J. (2014). What catches the envious eye? Attentional biases within malicious and benign envy. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 55, 1-11.

Cuhadaroglu, F. (1986). *Self-esteem in the adolescent*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey

Czarnota-Bojarska, J. (2015). Counterproductive work behavior and job satisfaction: a surprisingly rocky relationship. *Journal of Management & Organization, 21(*4), 460-470.

Dahlin, M., Joneborg, N., & Runeson, B. (2007). Performance-based self-esteem and burnout in a cross-sectional study of medical students. *Medical Teacher, 29*(1), 43-48.

Dahlen, E. R., & Martin, R. C. (2006). Refining the anger consequences questionnaire. *Personality and Individual differences*, 41(6), 1021-1031**.**

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A Meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 90, 1241- 1255.

Danish, R. Q., & Usman, A. (2010). Impact of reward and recognition on job satisfaction and motivation: an empirical study from Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Management, 5*(2), 159.

Day, R., & Allen, T. (2004). The relationship between career motivation and self-efficacy with protege career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 64, 72–91. Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1016/S0001-8791(03)00036-8

De Hoogh, A. H., Den Hartog, D. N., & Nevicka, B. (2015). Gender differences in the perceived effectiveness of narcissistic leaders. *Applied Psychology, 64*(3), 473-498.

De Vries, M. F. K., & Miller, D. (1985). Narcissism and leadership: An object relations perspective. *Human Relations, 38*(6), 583-601.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The" what" and" why" of goal pursuits: human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry, 11*(4), 227-268.

Delbecq, A. L., & Friedlander, F. (1995). Strategies for personal and family renewal: how a high-survivor group of executives cope with stress and avoid burnout. *Journal of Management Inquiry, 4*(3), 262-269.

Deluga, R. J. (1997). Relationship among American presidential charismatic leadership, narcissism, and rated performance. *The Leadership Quarterly, 8*(1), 49-65.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 499.

Demir, M. (2011). Effects of organizational justice, trust and commitment on employees' deviant behavior. *Anatolia: Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *22*(2), 204-221.

Demir, M., & Tutuncu, O. (2010). Relationship between organizational deviance and turnover intentions in hospitality businesses. *Anatolia: Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research, 61*(1), 64-74.

Demir, M., Ayas, S., & Yıldız, B. (2018). Örgütsel sinizm ve işe yabancilaşma ilişkisi: beş yıldızlı otel çalışanları üzerine bir araştirma. *Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi, 16*(32), 231.

Denison, D. (1996). What is the difference between organisational culture and organisational climate? A native's point of view on a decade of paradigm wars". *Academy of Management Review 21*(3), 619–54.

Desteno, D. A., & Salovey, P. (1996). Evolutionary origins of sex differences in jealousy? Questioning the "fitness" of the model". *Psychological Science, 7*(6), 367-372.

Devonish, D., & Greenidge, D. (2010). The effect of organizational justice on contextual performance, counterproductive work behaviors, and task performance: investigating the moderating role of ability-based emotional intelligence. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 18*(1), 75-86.

Dewall, C., Baumeister, R., Stillman, T., & Gailliot, M. (2007). Violence restrained: effects of self-regulatory capacity and its depletion on aggressive behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology,* 43, 62-76.

Dickinson, K. A., & Pincus, A. L. (2003). Interpersonal Analysis of Grandiose And Vulnerable Narcissism. *Journal of Personality Disorders, 17*(3), 188-207.

Diefendorff, J. M., & Mehta, K. (2007). The relations of motivational traits with workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(4), 967.

Dilchert, S., Ones, D. S., Davis, R. D., & Rostow, C. D. (2007). Cognitive ability predicts objectively measured counterproductive work behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(3), 616.

Dineen, B. R., Noe, R. A., Shaw, J. D., Duffy, M. K., & Wiethoff, C. (2007). Level and dispersion of satisfaction in teams: using foci and social context to explain the satisfaction-absenteeism relationship. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(3), 623-643.

Dion, K. L. (2001). Immigrants' Perceptions of housing discrimination in Toronto: The housing new canadians project. *Journal of Social Issues, 57*(3), 523-539.

Dodig-Crnkovic, G., & Anokhina, M. (2008). Workplace Gossip and rumor: the information ethics perspective. *In Proceedings of the Tenth Internafional Conference Living, Working and Learning Beyond,* Ethicomp, Mantova: Tipografia Commerciale: 211–23, (Pp. 193-201).

Dogan, K., & Vecchio, R. P. (2001). Managing envy and jealousy in the workplace. *Compensation & Benefits Review, 33*(2), 57-64.

Donnellan, M. B., Trzesniewski, K. H., Robins, R. W., Moffitt, T. E., & Caspi, A. (2005). Low self-esteem is related to aggression, antisocial behavior, and delinquency. *Psychological Science, 16*(4), 328-335.

Doty, J., & Fenlason, J. (2013). Narcissism and toxic leaders. *Army Combined Arms Center Fort Leavenworth Ks Military Review*, January-February, 55-61.

Douglas, S. C., & Martinko, M. J. (2001). Exploring the role of individual differences in the prediction of workplace aggression. *The Journal of Applied Psychology,* 86, 547−559.

Dubrin, A. J. (2012). *Narcissism in the Workplace: Research, Opinion And Practice*. Edward Elgar Publishing. Cheltenham: Northampton, MA.

Dubrin, A. J. (2018). Tolerating Ambiguity for Leadership and Professional Effectiveness. Page Publishing Inc. Cheltenham: Northampton, MA.

Dudenhöffer, S., & Dormann, C. (2015). Customer-related social stressors. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, *14*(4), 165–181

DOI: 10.1027/1866-5888/A000132

Duffy, M. K., & Shaw, J. D. (2000). The salieri syndrome: consequences of envy in groups. *Small Group Research, 31*(1), 3-23.

Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy Of Management Journal, 45*(2), 331-351.

Duffy, M. K., Shaw, J. D., & Schaubroeck, J. M. (2008). Envy in organizational life. *Envy: Theory and Research*, 167-189.

Duffy, M., & Sperry, L. (2012). *Mobbing: Causes, Consequences, And Solutions*. Published to Oxford Scholarship Online, USA.

Durmuş, B., Yurtkoru, E. S., & Çinko, M. (2013). *Sosyal Bilimlerde SPSS'le Veri Analizi* (5. Baskı), Beta Yayıncılık: Istanbul.

Edgar, F., Geare, A., & Zhang, J. A. (2017). A comprehensive concomitant analysis of service employees' well-being and performance. *Personnel Review, 46*(8), 1870-1889.

Edwards, M.S. & Greenberg, J. (2011). *What Is Insidious Workplace Behavior?: Insidious Workplace Behavior*. Edited By Jerald Greenberg. New York: Routledge, United States, 3-30. Https://Doi.Org/10.4324/9780203849439

Eisenberger, R., Cummings, J., Armeli, S., & Lynch, P. (1997). Perceived organizational support, discretionary treatment, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(5), 812.

Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-Lamastro, V. (1990). Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 75(1), 51.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507

Ekmekçioğlu, E. B., & Sökmen, A. (2016). Algılanan örgütsel desteğin işten ayrılma niyetine etkisinde örgütsel bağlılığın aracı rolü: Sinir birimi çalışanlari üzerine bir araştırma. *International Review of Economics and Management, 4*(2), 32-45.

Ellis, H. (1898). *Auto-erotism: A psychological study.* Studies in the Psychology of Sex 13. Edt), 1-196.American Medical Association: USA.

Ellonen, R., Blomqvist, K., & Puumalainen, K. (2008). The role of trust in organisational innovativeness. *European Journal of Innovation Management, 11*(2), 160-181.

Emler, N. (2001). *Self Esteem: The Costs And Causes Of Low Self Worth*. York Publishing Services, USA: New York.

Emmons, R. A. (1987). Narcissism: theory and measurement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*(1), 11.

Engelbrecht, A. S., & Van Aswegen, A. S. (2009). The relationship between transformational leadership, integrity and an ethical climate in organizations. *Journal of Human Resource Management, 7*(1), 1-9.

Ensher, E. A., Grant-Vallone, E. J., & Donaldson, S. I. (2001). Effects of perceived discrimination on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and grievances. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 12*(1), 53-72.

Epstein, J. (2003*). Envy: The Seven Deadly Sins*. Oxford University Press, United Kingdom: London.

Erdil, O., & Müceldili, B. (2014). The effects of envy on job engagement and turnover intention. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 150, 447-454.

Erentuğ, B., & Hamedoğlu, M. A. (2014). *Leaders, Followers and Their Personalities. In Chaos, Complexity and Leadership* (Pp. 519-531). Springer, Dordrecht, USA: New York.

Erkmen, T., (2010). *Örgüt Kültürü*. İstanbul: Beta Yayınları.

Erkorkmaz, U., Doğu, O., & Cinar, N. (2018). The relationship between burnout, self-esteem and professional life quality of nurses. *Journal of the College of Physicians And Surgeons Pakistan, 28*(7), 549-553.

Erkutlu, H. V., & Chafra, J. (2017). Leader Narcissism and subordinate embeddedness: the moderating roles of moral attentiveness and behavioral integrity. *Euromed Journal of Business, 12*(2), 146-162.

Erol, Y., & Akyüz, M. (2015). Dünyanın en eski medyası: dedikodunun örgüt düzeyindeki işlevleri ve algılanışı: sağlık örgütlerinde bir alan araştırması. *Zeitschrift Für Die Welt Der Türken/Journal of World of Turks,* 7(2), 149-166.

Erzi, S. (2019). Helping behavior in terms of Schadenfreude, self-esteem and self-threat. *Kastamonu Education Journal, 27*(3), 11-23.

Eslami, A., & Arshadi, N. (2016). Effect Of organizational competitive climate on organizational prosocial behavior: workplace envy as a mediator. *Age, 24* (30), 49.

Everton, W. J., Jolton, J. A., & Mastrangelo, P. M. (2007). Be nice and fair or else: understanding reasons for employees' deviant behaviors. J*ournal of Management Development, 26*(2), 117-131.

Anwar, F., Javed, A., & Shaukat, M. Z. (2018). Antecedents of work exhaustion, its mediating role and subsequent effects on turnover intentions. *Management*, *16*(18), 98-121.

Ferris, D. L., Brown, D. J., & Heller, D. (2009). Organizational supports and organizational deviance: the mediating role of organization-based self-esteem. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108, 279–286.

Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations, 7*(2), 117-140.

Field, A. P. (2005). Is the meta-analysis of correlation coefficients accurate when population correlations vary? *Psychological Methods*, *10*(4), 444.

Fisk, C. L. (2001). Humiliation at work. *William & Mary Journal of Race, Gender, and Social Justice*, 8, 44-73.

Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. (1991). *Social Cognition*. Mcgraw-Hill Book Company, USA: New York.

Flaherty, S., & Moss, S. A. (2007). The impact of personality and team context on the relationship between workplace injustice and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 37*(11), 2549-2575.

Flynn, G. (1999). Stop toxic managers before they stop you! *Workforce, 78*(8), 40-44.

Foster, G. M., Apthorpe, R. J., Bernard, H. R., Bock, B., Brogger, J., Brown, J. K., & Freeman, S. T. (1972). The anatomy of envy: a study in symbolic behavior. *Current Anthropology, 13*(2), 165-202.

Foster, G. M., Apthorpe, R. J., Bernard, H. R., Bock, B., Brogger, J., Brown, J. K., & Freeman, S. T. (1972). The anatomy of envy: a study in symbolic behavior. *Current Anthropology, 13*(2), 165-202.

Fothergill, A., Edwards, D., Hannigan, B., Burnard, P., & Coyle, D. (2000). Self-esteem in community mental health nurses: findings from the all-wales stress study. *Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing, 7*(4), 315-321.

Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (1999). A Model of work frustration–aggression. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(6), 915-931.

Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: some mediator and moderator tests for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 59*(3), 291-309.

Fredrickson, B. L. (2003). The value of positive emotions: the emerging science of positive psychology is coming to understand why it's good to feel good. *American Scientist, 91*(4), 330-335.

Freud, S. (1953). Three essays on the theory of sexuality. *In The Standard Edition of The Complete Psychological Works of Sigmund Freud*, VII, 123-246.

Freud, S. (1957). *Revision of the Theory of Dreams*. In: Strachy, J., Ed., The Standard Edition Of The Complete Works Of Sigmund Freud, The Hogarth Press, London: UK.

Freudenberger, H. J., & Richelson, G. (1981). *Burn-Out: The High Cost of High Achievement*. Bantam Books, USA.

Friesen, D., & Sarros, J. C. (1989). Sources of burnout among educators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 10*(2), 179-188.

Frijda, N. H. (1986). *The Emotions*. Cambridge University Press, USA.

Frost P. J. (2003). *Toxic Emotions At Work: How Compassionate Managers Handle Pain And Conflict*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press, USA.

Frost, A. (2007). Ensure dishonesty doesn't pay. *Human Resources*, 1, 1-71.

Frost, P. J., Dutton, J. E., Worline, M. C., & Wilson, A. (2000). *Narratives of Compassion In Organizations*. In S. Fineman (Ed.), Emotions In Organizations: 25-45. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, USA.

Frost, P., & Robinson, S. (1999). The toxic handler organizational hero-and casualty. *Harvard Business Review*, *77*(4), 97-97.

Fujishiro, K., Gee, G. C., & De Castro, A. B. (2011). Associations of workplace aggression with work-related well-being among nurses in the Philippines. *American Journal of Public Health, 101*(5), 861-867.

Fuller, P. J., Galvin, B. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (2018). Larger than life. *Organizational Dynamics, 47(*1), 8-16.

Furnham, A., Richards, S. C., & Paulhus, D. L. (2013). The dark triad of personality: A 10 year review. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 7(3), 199-216.

Gabbard, G. O. (1989). Two subtypes of narcissistic personality disorder. *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic, 53*(6), 527-532.

Gabriel, J. M. O. (2016). Supervisors' Toxicity as predictor of subordinates' counter-productive work behavior in Nigerian public hospitals. *Journal of Applied Business Research, 32*(5), 1363.

Gaines, J., & Jermier, J. M. (1983). Emotional exhaustion in a high stress organization. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*(4), 567-586.

Galić, Z., & Ružojčić, M. (2017). Interaction between implicit aggression and dispositional self-control in explaining counterproductive work behaviors. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 104, 111-117.

Galliani, E. M., & Vianello, M. (2012). The emotion of admiration improves employees' goal orientations and contextual performance. *International Journal of Applied Psychology, 2*(4), 43-52.

Galvin, B. M., Waldman, D. A., & Balthazard, P. (2010). Visionary communication qualities as mediators of the relationship between narcissism and attributions of leader charisma. *Personnel Psychology, 63*(3), 509-537.

Gerhart, B. A., Milkovich, G. T., & Murray, B. (1992). Pay, performance, and participation; competitiveness as the match that lights the fire. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 16*(2), 77-90. Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1027/1866-5888/A000181

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-Analytic review of leader–member exchange theory: correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(6), 827.

Ghadi, M. Y. (2018). Empirical examination of theoretical model of workplace envy: evidences from Jordan. *Management Research Review, 41*(12), 1438-1459.

Giacalone, R. A., & Greenberg, J. (Eds.). (1997). *Antisocial Behavior in Organizations.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, USA.

Gibson, D. E., & Callister, R. R. (2010). Anger in organizations: review and integration. *Journal of Management, 36*(1), 66-93.

Gilbert, J. A., & Tang, T. L. P. (1998). An examination of organizational trust antecedents. *Public Personnel Management, 27*(3), 321-338.

Gilbert, J. A., Carr-Ruffino, N., Ivancevich, J. M., & Konopaske, R. (2012). Toxic versus cooperative behaviors at work: the role of organizational culture and leadership in creating community-centered organizations. *International Journal of Leadership Studies, 7(*1), 29-47.

Giumetti, G. W., Hatfield, A. L., Scisco, J. L., Schroeder, A. N., Muth, E. R., & Kowalski, R. M. (2013). What a rude e-mail! Examining the differential effects of incivility versus support on mood, energy, engagement, and performance in an online context. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 18*(3), 297.

Glad, B. (2002). Why tyrants go too far: malignant narcissism and absolute power. *Political Psychology,* 23, 1-37.

Glomb, T. M., Steel, P. D., & Arvey, R. D. (2002). Office sneers, snipes, and stab wounds: antecedents, consequences, and implications of workplace violence and aggression. *Emotions in the Workplace: Understanding the Structure and Role of Emotions in Organizational Behavior*, 227-259.

Godkin, L., & Allcorn, S. (2011). Organizational resistance to destructive narcissistic behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *104*(4), 559-570.

Gogia, P. (2010). *Equity Theory of Motivation*. Retrieved From Http://Www.Businessihub.Com/Equity-Theoryof-Motivation/

Goldman, A. (2006). High Toxicity leadership: borderline personality disorder and the dysfunctional organization. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(8), 733-746.

González-Navarro, P., Zurriaga-Llorens, R., Tosin Olateju, A., & Llinares-Insa, L. (2018). Envy and counterproductive work behavior: the moderation role of leadership in public and private organizations. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 15*(7), 1455.

Gottfredson, M. R., & Hirschi, T. (1990). *A General Theory of Crime*. Stanford University Press, USA.

Grasmick, H. G., Tittle, C. R., Bursik Jr, R. J., & Arneklev, B. J. (1993). Testing the core empirical implications of Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, *30*(1), 5-29.

Greenberg, J. (1987). A taxonomy of organizational justice theories. *Academy of Management Review, 12*(1), 9-22.

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management, 16*(2), 399-432.

Greenberg, J. (1998). *The Cognitive Geometry of Employee Theft: Negotiating `The Line' Between Taking and Stealing*. In R.W. Griffin, A. O'Leary-Kelly And J.M. Collins (Eds) Dysfunctional Behavior In Organizations: Violent And Deviant Behavior. Stamford, CT: JAI Press, USA.

Greenberg, J., Pyszczynski, T., & Solomon, S. (1986). *The Causes And Consequences Of A Need For Self-Esteem: A Terror Management Theory*. In Public Self and Private Self (Pp. 189-212). Springer, New York, USA.

Grier, S. (2008). *Narcissism in the Workplace*. Mira Publishing; USA.

Griffin, R. W., O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., & Collins, J. M. (1998a). *Dysfunctional Work Behaviors in Organizations*. In C. L. Cooper & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), Trends In Organizational Behaviour (Pp. 65–82). New York: Wiley, USA.

Grijalva, E., & Harms, P. D. (2014). Narcissism: an integrative synthesis and dominance complementarity model. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 28*(2), 108-127.

Grijalva, E., Harms, P. D., Newman, D. A., Gaddis, B. H., & Fraley, R. C. (2015). Narcissism and leadership: a meta-analytic review of linear and nonlinear relationships. *Personnel Psychology, 68*(1), 1-47.

Gruys, M. L., & Sackett, P. R. (2003). Investigating the dimensionality of counterproductive work behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 11*(1), 30-42.

Gruys, M. L. (1999). *The dimensionality of deviant employee performance in the workplace*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University Of Minnesota, USA.

Gunderson, J. G., Ronningstam, E., & Smith, L. E. (1995). Narcissistic personality disorder. *Journal of Personality Disorders*. 5, 167–177.

Gundlach M, Zivnuska S, Stoner J. (2006). Understanding the relationship between individualism–collectivism and team performance through an integration of social identity theory and the social relations model. *Human Relations, 59*(12), 1603-3. Doi:10.1177/0018726706073193.

Gutek, B. A., Cohen, A. G., & Tsui, A. (1996). Reactions to perceived sex discrimination. *Human Relations*, *49*(6), 791-813.

Gutek, B., Larwood, L., & Stromberg, A. (1986). Women at work. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 217, 34-63.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation Through the design of work: test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 16*(2), 250-279.

Hackman, J. R., Oldham, G., Janson, R., & Purdy, K. (1975). A new strategy for job enrichment. *California Management Review, 17*(4), 57-71.

Hafidz, S. W. M., Hoesni, S. M., & Fatimah, O. (2012). The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Asian Social Science, 8*(9), 32.

Hallsten, L., Josephson, M., & Torgén, M. (2005). Performance-based self-esteem: a driving force in the burnout process. *Stockholm: National Institute for Working Life,* 4, 1-40.

Hanisch, K. A., & Hulin, C. L. (1990). Job attitudes and organizational withdrawal: an examination of retirement and other voluntary withdrawal behaviors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *37*(1), 60-78.

Hanisch, K. A., & Hulin, C. L. (1991). General Attitudes and organizational withdrawal: an evaluation of a causal model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 39*(1), 110-128.

Hartling, L. (2007). Humiliation: real pain, a pathway to violence. *Board of Secondary Education Rajasthan,* 6, 276-290.

Harvey, M., Treadway, D., Heames, J. T., & Duke, A. (2009). Bullying in the 21st century global organization: an ethical perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *85*(1), 27.

Harvey, P., Stoner, J., Hochwarter, W., & Kacmar, C. (2007). Coping with abusive supervision: the neutralizing effects of ingratiation and positive affect on negative employee outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*(3), 264-280.

Hayes, A. F. (2012). Process: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process modeling [White paper].

Hazzi, O. A., & Maldaon, I. S. (2012). Prosocial organizational behaviors: The lifeline of organizations. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, 54, 106-114.

Heider, Fritz (1958). *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, USA..

Heimpel, S. A., Elliot, A. J., & Wood, J. V. (2006). Basic personality dispositions, self-esteem, and personal goals: an approach-avoidance analysis. *Journal of Personality, 74*(5), 1293-1320.

Henden, E. (2008). What is self-control? *Philosophical Psychology*, *21*(1), 69-90.

Hepper, E. G., Hart, C. M., & Sedikides, C. (2014). Moving narcissus: can narcissists be empathic? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 40*(9), 1079-1091.

Hepworth, W., & Towler, A. (2004). The effects of individual differences and charismatic leadership on workplace aggression. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 9*(2), 176.

Heyde, A. V. D., Miebach, J., & Kluge, A. (2014). Counterproductive work behaviour in a simulated production context: an exploratory study with personality traits as predictors of safety-related rule violations. *Journal of Ergonomics, 4(*130), 2.

Higgs, M. (2009). The good, the bad and the ugly: leadership and narcissism. *Journal of Change Management, 9*(2), 165-178.

Himmler, O., & Koenig, T. (2012). Self-evaluations and performance: evidence from adolescence. *The 68th Congress of The International Institute of Public Finance in Dresden,1*, 1-46.

Hirschi, T. (1996). Theory without ideas: reply to akers. *Criminology*, 34, 249.

Hitchcock, M. J. (2015). The relationship between toxic leadership, organizational citizenship, and turnover behaviors among San Diego nonprofit paid staff. *University of San Diego, School of Leadership and Education Sciences*, 13(1), 112-143.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: a new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44*(3), 513.

Hobfoll, S. E., Johnson, R. J., Ennis, N., & Jackson, A. P. (2003). Resource loss, resource gain, and emotional outcomes among inner city women. *Journal of Personality and Social Psycholog*y, 84, 632–643.

Hoel, H., Einarsen, S., Keashly, L., Zapf, D., & Cooper, C. L. (2003). *Bullying At Work: The Way Forward. In Bullying and Emotional Abuse in The Workplace* (Pp. 430-434), CRC Press, France.

Hogan, J., & Hogan, R. (1989). How to measure employee reliability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(2), 273.

Holley, E. (2012). *A time for cognitive change: the reappraisal of anger, interpersonal injustice, and counterproductive work behaviors*, Doctoral Dissertation, University of Washington, USA.

Hollinger, R. C. (1986). Acts against the workplace: social bonding and employee deviance. *Deviant Behavior, 7*, 53–75.

Hollinger, R. C., & Clark, J. P. (1983). *Theft by Employees*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, USA.

Hollinger, R. C., Slora, K. B., & Terris, W. (1992). Deviance in the fast&food restaurant: correlates of employee theft, altruism, and counterproductivity. *Deviant Behavior, 13*(2), 155-184.

Hollinger, R., & Clark, J. (1982). Employee Deviance: a response to the perceived quality of the work experience. *Work and Occupations, 9*(1), 97-114.

Hoobler, J. M., & Brass, D. J. (2006). Abusive supervision and family undermining as displaced aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(5), 1125.

Horn, P. D., & Horn, J. C. (1982). *Sex in the Office*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, USA.

Hotchkiss, S. (2002). *Why Is It Always About You? Saving Yourself From The Narcissists In Your Life*. Free Press., USA.

Hsiung, H. H., & Tsai, W. C. (2009). Job definition discrepancy between supervisors and subordinates: the antecedent role of LMX and outcomes. *Journal Of Occupational And Organizational Psychology, 82*(1), 89-112.

Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1037/0003-066X.63.1.65

Humphreys, J., Zhao, D., Ingram, K., Gladstone, J., & Basham, L. (2010). Situational narcissism and charismatic leadership: a conceptual framework. *Journal of Behavioral And Applied Management, 11*(2), 118.

Hunthausen, J. (2000). Predictors *of task and contextual performance: frame-of-reference effects and applicant reaction effects on selection system validity.* Doctoral Dissertation, Philosophy in Systems Science, Portland State University, USA.

Hurtz, G. M., & Donovan, J. J. (2000). Personality and job performance: the big five revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(6), 869.

Huseman, R. C., Hatfield, J. D., & Miles, E. W. (1987). A new perspective on equity theory: the equity sensitivity construct. *Academy of Management Review, 12*(2), 222-234.

Hussain, L., Shafi, I., Saeed, S., Abbas, A., Awan, I. A., Nadeem, S. A. & Rahman, B. (2017). A radial base neural network approach for emotion recognition in human speech. *International Journal of Computer Science and Network Security*, 17(8), 52.

Hutman, E. (1999). The relationship between self-esteem and job performance. *Florida International University Review*, *1*, 62-70.

Hyde, P., Harris, C., & Boaden, R. (2013). Pro-social organizational behavior of health care workers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*(16), 3115-3130.

Ingold, P. V., Kleinmann, M., König, C. J., & Melchers, K. G. (2015). Shall we continue or stop disapproving of self-presentation? Evidence on impression management and faking in a selection context and their relation to job performance. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 24*(3), 420-432.

Innstrand, S.T., Espnes, G.A., & Mykletun, R. (2002). Burnout among people working with intellectually disabled persons: A theory up date and an example. *Scandinavian Journal of Caring Sciences*, 16, 272–279.

Isaacson, W. (2011). *Steve Jobs*. New York: Simon & Schuster, USA.

Jagusztyn, N. (2011). Perceived workplace discrimination as a mediator of the relationship between work environment and employee outcomes: does minority status matter? *Dissertation Abstracts International Review*, 71, 7132

Jahangir, N., Akbar, M. M., & Haq, M. (2004). Organizational citizenship behavior: its nature and antecedents. *BRAC University Journal, 1(*2), 75-85.

James, L. R., Choi, C. C., Ko, C. H. E., Mcneil, P. K., Minton, M. K., Wright, M. A., & Kim, K. I. (2008). Organizational and psychological climate: a review of theory and research. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 17*(1), 5-32.

Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., De Luque, M. S., & House, R. J. (2006). In the eye of the beholder: cross cultural lessons in leadership from project GLOBE. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 20*(1), 67-90.

Jawahar, I. M. (2002). A model of organizational justice and workplace aggression. *Journal of Management, 28*(6), 811-834.

Jena, L. K., & Pradhan, R. K. (2014). Deliverables towards HR sustainability: A conceptual review. *European Journal of Business Management, 6*(23), 95-102.

Jensen, J. M., & Patel, P. C. (2011). Predicting counterproductive work behavior from the interaction of personality traits. *Personality and Individual Differences, 51*(4), 466-471.

Jex, S. (1998). *Stress and Job Performance: Theory, Research, and Implications for Managerial Practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, USA.

Jimmieson N. L. (2000). Employee Reactions to behavioral control under conditions of stress: the moderating role of self-efficacy. *Work and Stress,* 14, 262–280.

Jin, W. M., Zhang, Y., & Wang, X. P. (2015). Job Burnout and organizational justice among medical interns in shanghai, People's Republic of china. *Advances in Medical Education and Practice*, 6, 539.

Jiwen Song, L., Tsui, A. S., & Law, K. S. (2009). Unpacking employee responses to organizational exchange mechanisms: the role of social and economic exchange perceptions. *Journal of Management, 35*(1), 56-93.

Johnson, J. V., & Hall, E. M. (1988). Job strain, work place social support, and cardiovascular disease: a cross-sectional study of a random sample of the Swedish working population. *American Journal of Public Health, 7*8(10), 1336-1342.

Johnson, P. R., & Indvik, J. (2001). Rudeness at work: impulse over restraint. *Public Personnel Management, 30*(4), 457-465.

Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *1*(2), 112–133.

Jones, G. (2009). *Youth Violence in Latin America: Gangs and Juvenile Justice In Perspective.* (Edt. Gareth A. Jones and Dennis Rodger), St. Martin's Press: UK, Springer.

Joy, M. M., & Balu, V. G. (2016). The impact of perceived organizational support on counterproductive work behaviors–an empirical study in Indian information technology sector. *International Journal of Commerce, Business and Management (IJCBM)*, *5*(4), 58-63.

Judge, T. A., Lepine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2006). Loving yourself abundantly: relationship of the narcissistic personality to self- and other perceptions of workplace deviance, leadership, and task and contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 91, 762–776.

Jung, H. S., & Yoon, H. H. (2012). The effects of emotional intelligence on counterproductive work behaviors and organizational citizen behaviors among food and beverage employees in a deluxe hotel. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(2), 369-378.

Kagitcibasi, C. (2005). Autonomy and relatedness in cultural context: implications for self and family. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 36*(4), 403-422.

Kahill, S. (1988). Symptoms of professional burnout: a review of the empirical evidence. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne, 29*(3), 284.

Kahya, E. (2007). The effects of job characteristics and working conditions on job performance. *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics, 37*(6), 515-523.

Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., Wanberg, C. R., Glomb, T. M., & Ahlburg, D. (2005). The role of temporal shifts in turnover processes: it's about time. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(4), 644.

Kane, K., & Montgomery, K. (1998). A framework for understanding dysempowerment in organizations. *Human Resource Management, 37*(3-4), 263-275.

Kanfer, R., Sawyer, J., Earley, P. C., & Lind, E. A. (1987). Fairness and participation in evaluation procedures: effects on task attitudes and performance. *Social Justice Research, 1*(2), 235-249.

Kanner, A., Kafry, D. & Pines, A. (1978). Conspicuous In its absence: the lack of positive conditions as a source of stress. *Journal of Human Stress*, 4, 33-39.

Kanten, P. (2014). The antecedents of job crafting: perceived organizational support, job characteristics and self-efficacy. *European Journal of Business and Social Sciences, 3*(5), 113-128.

Kanten, P., & Ülker, F. (2014). Yönetim tarzının üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışlarına etkisinde işe yabancılaşmanın aracılık rolü. *Mugla Sitki Kocman University Journal of Social Sciences*, 32, 12-37.

Karaeminoğulları, A. (2006). *Öğretim elemanlarının örgütsel adalet algıları ile sergiledikleri üretkenliğe aykırı davranışlar arasındaki ilişki ve bir araştırma.* Unpublished Master's Thesis, Istanbul University, Istanbul.

Karasek Jr, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 2(3), 285-308.

Karatepe, O. M., & Tekinkus, M. (2006). The effects of work-family conflict, emotional exhaustion, and intrinsic motivation on job outcomes of front-line employees. *International Journal of Bank Marketing, 24*(3), 173-193.

Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral Science,* 9, 131-146.

Keashly, L., Trott, V., & Maclean, L. M. (1994). Abusive behavior in the workplace: a preliminary investigation. *Violence and Victims*, 9, 341-341.

Keller Hansbrough, T., & Jones, G. E. (2014). Inside the minds of narcissists: how narcissistic leaders' cognitive processes contribute to abusive supervision. *Zeitschrift Für Psychologie, 222*(4), 214.

Keller, T., & Dansereau, F. (1995). Leadership and empowerment: a social exchange perspective. *Human Relations, 48*(2), 127-146.

Kellerman, B. (2004). Bad leadership: what it is, how it happens, why it matters. *Harvard Business Review, 12*(4), 23-45.

Kernberg, O. F. (1970). Factors in the psychoanalytic treatment of narcissistic personalities. *Journal of the American Psychoanalytic Association*, *18*(1), 51-85.

Kernberg, O. F. (1975). A systems approach to priority setting of interventions in groups. *International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 25*(3), 251-275.

Kernberg, O. F. (1979). Regression in organizational leadership. *Psychiatry*, *42*(1), 24-39.

Kernberg, O. F. (1998*). Ideology, Conflict, and Leadership in Groups and Organizations*. Yale University Press: USA.

Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a conceptualization of optimal self-esteem. *Psychological Inquiry*, *14*(1), 1-26.

Doi: 10.1207/S15327965PLI1401_01

Kernis, M. H., & Waschull, S. B. (1995). The interactive roles of stability and level of self-esteem: research and theory. In advances in experimental social psychology. *Academic Press,* 27, 93-141.

Kets De Vries, M. F. K., & Miller, D. (1985). Narcissism and leadership: an object relations perspective. *Human Relations, 38*(6), 583-601.

Kets De Vries, M. F., & Miller, D. (1997). Narcissism and leadership: an object relations perspective. *Human Relations, 57* (8), 345-376

Kets, D. V. M. (2004). Putting leaders on the couch. *Harvard Business Review, 82*(1), 64.

Khan, A. K., Peretti, J. M., & Quratulain, S. (2009). Envy and counterproductive work behaviors: is more fairness always preferred. *In 20th AGRH Conference (9th-11th September), Toulouse, France*, 22-31.

Khan, A. K., Quratulain, S., & M. Bell, C. (2014). Episodic envy and counterproductive work behaviors: is more justice always good? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35*(1), 128-144.

Khan, K., Abbas, M., Gul, A., & Raja, U. (2015). Organizational justice and job outcomes: moderating role of Islamic work ethic. *Journal of Business Ethics, 126*(2), 235-246.

Khoo, H. S., & Burch, G. S. J. (2008). The 'dark side'of leadership personality and transformational leadership: an exploratory study. *Personality and Individual Differences, 44*(1), 86-97.

Kim, H. J., Lee, C. C., Yun, H., & Im, K. S. (2015). An examination of work exhaustion in the mobile enterprise environment. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change,* 100, 255-266.

Kim, Y., Cohen, T. R., & Panter, A. T. (2016). Cause or consequence? the reciprocal model of counterproductive work behavior and mistreatment. *In Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2016 (1), 18071.

Kim, H., Ji, J., & Kao, D. (2011). Burnout and physical health among social work. *Social Work*, 6, 258-268.

Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1093/Sw/56.3.258

King III, G. (2007). Narcissism and effective crisis management: a review of potential problems and pitfalls. *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management, 15*(4), 183-193.

Kirbaş, M. (2013). *Eğitim örgütlerinde toksit liderlik*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Education Science Instuation, Inönü University, Malatya.

Klein, M. (1957). Envy & gratitude. *Psyche*, *11*(5), 241-255.

Kohut, H. (1972). Thoughts on narcissism and narcissistic rage. *The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, *27*(1), 360-400.

Kohut, H. (1976). Creativeness, charisma, group psychology. *The Search for the Self*, 2, 287-301.

Kohut, H. (1977). *The Restoration of the Self*. New York: International Universities Press, USA.

Korman, A. 1970. Toward a hypothesis of work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 54, 51-* 41.

Korman, A. K. 1971. Organizational achievement, aggression and creativity: some suggestions toward an integrated theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance,* 6, 593–613.

Koys, D. J. (2001). The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: a unit-level, longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology*, *54*(1), 101-114.

Krizan, Z., & Johar, O. (2012). Envy divides the two faces of narcissism. *Journal of Personality, 80*(5), 1415-1451.

Krueger, J. I., Vohs, K. D., & Baumeister, R. F. (2008). Is the allure of self-esteem a mirage after all? *American Psychologist, 63*(1), 64-65.

Kuster, F., Orth, U., & Meier, L. L. (2013). High Self-esteem prospectively predicts better work conditions and outcomes. S*ocial Psychological and Personality Science, 4*(6), 668-675.

Kusy, M., & Holloway, E. (2009). *Toxic Workplace! Managing Toxic Personalities And Their Systems Of Power*. John Wiley & Sons Press: USA.

Landau, J. (1995). The relationship of race and gender to managers'ratings of promotion potential. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 16, 391-400

Lange, J., & Crusius, J. (2015). Dispositional envy revisited: unraveling the motivational dynamics of benign and malicious envy. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 41*(2), 284-294.

Lanyon, R. I., & Goldstein, L. D. (2004). Validity and reliability of a pre-employment screening test: the counterproductive behavior Index (CBI). *Journal of Business and Psychology, 18*(4), 533-553.

Lax, R. F. (1975). Some comments on the narcissistic aspects of self-righteousness: defensive and structural considerations. *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis*, 56, 283-292.

Lazarus, R. S. (1966). *Psychological Stress and The Coping Process*. New York: Mcgraw-Hill, USA.

Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Cognition and motivation in emotion. *American Psychologist, 46*(4), 352.

Lazarus, R. S. (1999). *Stress and Emotion: A New Synthesis*. New York: Springer Publishing Company, USA.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, Appraisal, and Coping. Springer Publishing Company*, USA.

Lazarus, R.S. (1964). A laboratory approach to the dynamics of psychological stress. *American Psychologist*, 19, 400–411.

Leary, M. R. (1999). Making sense of self-esteem. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 8*(1), 32-35.

Leblanc, M. M., & Kelloway, E. K. (2002). Predictors and outcomes of workplace violence and aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 34-53.

Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: the role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(1), 131.

Lee, K., Ashton, M. C., & De Vries, R. E. (2005). Predicting workplace delinquency and integrity with the Hexaco and five-factor models of personality structure. *Human Performance, 18*(2), 179-197.

Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1993). A further examination of managerial burnout: toward an integrated model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*(1), 3-20.

Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 8*1(2), 123.

Leiter, M. P., & Maslach, C. (1988). the impact of interpersonal environment on burnout and organizational commitment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 9*(4), 297-308.

Leiter, M. P., & Schaufeli, W. B. (1996). Consistency of the burnout construct across occupations. Journal of *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping*, 9(3), 229-243.

Lepine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. (1998). Predicting voice behavior in work groups. *Journal f Applied Psychology, 83*(6), 853.

Levine, E. L. (2010). Emotion and power (as social influence): their impact on organizational citizenship and counterproductive individual and organizational behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 20*(1), 4-17.

Lewicki, R. J., & Tomlinson, E. C. (2003). Trust and trust building. *Beyond Intractability*, 5(2), 114-139.

Lewicki, R. J., & Wiethoff, C. (2006). Trust, trust development, and trust repair. *The Handbook of Conflict Resolution: Theory and Practice*, *2*, 92-119.

Lewicki, R. J., Mcallister, D. J., & Bies, R. J. (1998). Trust and distrust: new relationships and realities. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 438-458.

Lewin, K. (1936). A dynamic theory of personality: selected papers. *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 84*(5), 612-613.

Leymann, H. (1996). The content and development of mobbing at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 5*(2), 165-184.

Liden, R. C., & Maslyn, J. M. (1998). Multidimensionality of leader-member exchange: an empirical assessment through scale development. *Journal of Management, 24*(1), 43-72.

Liefooghe, A. P., & Mac Davey, K. (2001). Accounts of workplace bullying: the role of the organization. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 10*(4), 375-392.

Lim, S., & Cortina, L. M. (2005). Interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace: the interface and impact of general incivility and sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(3), 483.

Lim, S., & Lee, A. (2011). Work and nonwork outcomes of workplace incivility: does family support help? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 16*(1), 95.

Lim, S., Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2008). Personal and workgroup incivility: impact on work and health outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93(*1), 95.

Lipman-Blumen, J. (2005). The allure of toxic leaders: why followers rarely escape their clutches. *Ivey Business Journal, 69*(519), 1–8. Https://Doi.Org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004

Llorent, V. J., & Ruiz-Calzado, I. (2016). Burnout and its relation to sociodemographic variables among education professionals working with people with disabilities in Córdoba (Spain). *Ciencia & Saude Coletiva, 21*(10), 3287-3295.

Lonsdale, D. J. (2016). The effects of leader–member exchange and the feedback environment on organizational citizenship and withdrawal. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal, 19*(1), 41.

Lopez, S. J., & Snyder, C. R. (2003). *Positive Psychological Assessment*. Washington: APA Press, USAç

Lubit, R. (2002). The long-term organizational impact of destructively narcissistic managers. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *16*(1), 127-138.

Lunenburg, F. C. (2010). The principal as instructional leader. *In National Forum of Educational and Supervision Journal*, 2 (4), 1-7.

Luthans, F. (2002). Positive organizational behavior: developing and managing psychological strengths. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *16*(1), 57-72.

Luthans, F. (2002). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 23*(6), 695-706.

Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Li, W. (2005). The psychological capital of Chinese workers: exploring the relationship with performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 1(2), 249-271.

Maccoby, M. (1976). The gamesman: new corporate leaders. *Journal of Teacher Education, 28*(5), 39-51.

Maccoby, M. (1981). *The Leader*. New York: Simon and Schuster, USA.

Maccoby, M. (2000). Narcissistic leaders: the incredible pros, the inevitable cons'. *Harvard Business Review 78*(1), 69–77.

Maccoby, M. (2004). Narcissistic leaders: the incredible pros, the inevitable cons. *Harvard Business Review*, 82, 92-101.

Maccoby, M. (2007). *Narcissistic Leaders: Who Succeeds And Who Fails.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press, USA.

Mackenzie, C. A., Garavan, T. N., & Carbery, R. (2012). Through the looking glass: challenges for human resource development (hrd) post the global financial crisis-business as usual? *Human Resource Development International, 15*(3), 353–364. Http://Doi.Org/10.1080/13678868.2012.669236

Madsen, S., & Vance, C. (2009). Unlearned lessons from the past: an insider's view of Enron's downfall. *Corporate Governance: The International Journal of Business in Society*, *9*(2), 216-227.

Malakh-Pines, A., & Aronson, E. (1988). *Career Burnout: Causes and Cures.* New York, NY: Free Press, USA.

Malone, P. C. (2006). *Communicative responses to malicious envy at work*. Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Texas, Austin.

Manz, C. C., & Sims Jr, H. P. (1980). Self-management as a substitute for leadership: a social learning theory perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 5*(3), 361-367.

Marcus, B., & Schuler, H. (2004). Antecedents of counterproductive behavior at work: a general perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 647.

Marcus, B., Schuler, H., Quell, P., & Hümpfner, G. (2002). Measuring counterproductivity: development and initial validation of a german self-report

questionnaire. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1-2), 18-35.

Markoff, J. (2011). *Apple's Visionary Redefined Digital Age*. New York Times. Retrieved From Http:// Www.Nytimes.Com/2011/10/06/Business/Steve-Jobsof-Apple-Dies-At-56.Html?Pagewantedall&_R0

Marsh, H. W., & O'Mara, A. (2008). Reciprocal effects between academic self-concept, self-esteem, achievement, and attainment over seven adolescent years: unidimensional and multidimensional perspectives of self-concept. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34*(4), 542-552.

Marsh, H. W., Parker, J., & Barnes, J. (1985). Multidimensional adolescent self-concepts: their relationship to age, sex, and academic measures. *American Educational Research Journal, 22*(3), 422-444.

Marshall, J. (2003), *Children and Poverty - Some Questions Answered*. London: CHIP Briefing Paper 1, Save The Children, UK.

Martin, S. R., Côté, S., & Woodruff, T. (2016). Echoes of our upbringing: how growing up wealthy or poor relates to narcissism, leader behavior, and leader effectiveness. *Academy of Management Journal, 59*(6), 2157-2177.

Martinko, M. J., Gundlach, M. J., & Doglas, S. C (2002). Toward an integrative theory of counterproductive workplace behavior: a causal reasoning perspective. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 10, 36-50.

Maslach, C. (1982*). Burnout: The Cost Of Caring*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, UK.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1982). Burnout in health professions: a social psychological analysis. *Social Psychology of Health and Illness*, 227, 251.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*(1), 397-422.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, *50*(4), 370.

Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: the differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management Journal, 43(*4), 738-748.

Mathisen, G. E., Einarsen, S., & Mykletun, R. (2011). The Relationship Between Supervisor Personality, Supervisors' Perceived Stress And Workplace Bullying. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *99*(4), 637-651.

Matta, F. K., Erol-Korkmaz, H. T., Johnson, R. E., & Biçaksiz, P. (2014). Significant work events and counterproductive work behavior: the role of fairness, emotions, and emotion regulation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35*(7), 920-944.

Maxwell, J. A. (1998). *Designing A Qualitative Study.* In L. Bickman & D. J. Rog (Eds) Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods, Pp. 69–100. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE, USA.

Maxwell, L. (2015). Beyond Bullying: breaking the cycle of shame, bullying, and violence. *Human Relations. 68*(12). 321-357.

Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., & Barsade, S. G. (2008). Human abilities: emotional intelligence. *Annual Review Psychology*, 59, 507-536.

Mayo, M., & Mallin, M. L. (2010). The impact of sales failure on attributions made by" resource-challenged" and" resource-secure" salespeople. *Journal of Marketing TheoryaAnd Practice, 18*(3), 233-248.

Mccardle, G. J. (2007). *Organizational justice and wd: the role of organizational structure, powerlessness, and information salience*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Central Florida, Orlando.

Mccleskey, J. (2013). The dark side of leadership: measurement, assessment, and intervention. *Business Renaissance Quarterly*, 8, 21-33.

Mcgrath, D. L. (2011). Workplace envy: the methodological challenges of capturing a denied and concealed emotion. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences, 6*(1), 98-129.

Mchardy, M., & O'Sullivan, E. (2004). First nations community well-being in Canada: the community well-being Index (CWB). *Ottawa: Strategic Research and Analysis Directora*te, 5(2), 55-91.

Meier, L. L., & Semmer, N. K. (2012). Lack of reciprocity and strain: narcissism as a moderator of the association between feeling under-benefited and irritation. *Work & Stress, 26*(1), 56-67.

Meltzer, B. N., & Musolf, G. R. (2002). Resentment and ressentiment. *Sociological Inquiry*, *72*(2), 240-255.

Menon, T., & Thompson, L. (2010). Envy at work. *Harvard Business Review, 88*(4), 74-79.

Miceli, M., & Castelfranchi, C. (2007). The envious mind. *Cognition and Emotion, 21*(3), 449-479.

Miles, D. E., Borman, W. E., Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). Building an integrative model of extra role work behaviors: a comparison of counterproductive work behavior with organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1-2), 51-57.

Miles, M. B. (1969). Planned change and organizational health: figure and ground. *Organizations and Human Behavi*or, 1, 375-391.

Miller, J. D., Hoffman, B. J., Gaughan, E. T., Gentile, B., Maples, J., & Keith Campbell, W. (2011). Grandiose And vulnerable narcissism: a nomological network analysis. *Journal of Personality, 79*(5), 1013-1042.

Miller, J.G. (1960). Information input overload and psychopathology. *American Journal of Psychiatry,* 116, 695-704.

Miller, J.G. (1962). *Information Input Overload*. In M.C. Youits, G.T. Jacobi, & G. Goldstein (Eds.). Sell-Organizing Systems. Washington, D.C.: Spartan Books.

Miner, K. N., Settles, I. H., Pratt-Hyatt, J. S., & Brady, C. C. (2012). Experiencing incivility in organizations: the buffering effects of emotional and organizational support. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 42*(2), 340-372.

Mishra, P. (2009). Green-eyed monsters in the workplace: antecedents and consequences of envy. *In Academy of Management Proceedings*, *2009* (1), 1-6.

Moberg, D. J. (1997). On employee vice. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 7(*4), 41-60.

Monnastes, S.N. (2010). *Perceived organizational support andcounterproductive work behaviour: how personality moderates the relationship.* Unpublished Master's Thesis, San José State University, California.

Moore, J. E. (2000). Why is this happening? A causal attribution approach to work exhaustion consequences. *Academy of Management Review, 25*(2), 335-349.

Morf, C. C., & Rhodewalt, F. (2001). Unraveling the paradoxes of narcissism: a dynamic self-regulatory processing model. *Psychological Inquiry, 12(*4), 177-196.

Motowidlo, S. J., & Van Scotter, J. R. (1994). Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(4), 475.

Motowidlo, S. J., Barman, W. C. And Schmit, M. J. (1997). A theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance. *Human Performance*, 10, 71-83.

Mount, M., Ilies, R., & Johnson, E. (2006). Relationship of personality traits and counterproductive work behaviors: the mediating effects of job satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology, 59*(3), 591-622.

Muraven, M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). Self-regulation and depletion of limited resources: does self-control resemble a muscle? *Psychological Bulletin*, 126, 247–259.

Murphy, K. R. (1989). Is the relationship between cognitive ability and job performance stable over time? *Human Performance, 2*(3), 183-200.

Murphy, K. R., & Shiarella, A. H. (1997). Implications of the multidimensional nature of job performance for the validity of selection tests: multivariate frameworks for studying test validity. *Personnel Psychology, 50*(4), 823-854.

Murtaza, G., Shad, I., Shahzad, K., Shah, M. K., & Khan, N. A. (2011). Impact of distributive and procedural justice on employees' commitment: a case of public sector organization of Pakistan. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, 29, 73-80.

Musairah, S. K. (2015). Mediation and moderation analysis from the perspective of behavioral science. *Jurnal Intelek, 10*(1), 1-11.

Nadler, D., Hackman, J. R., & Lawler, E. E. (1979). *Managing Organizational Behavior.* TBS The Book Service Ltd, London: UK .

Suan, C. L., & Nasurdin, A. M. (2013). Role clarity, supervisory support, peer support, and work engagement of customer-contact employees in hotels: A future research agenda. *Tourisms: an International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism, 8*(1), 315-329.

Naumann, S. E., & Bennett, N. (2000). A Case for procedural justice climate: development and test of a multilevel model. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(5), 881-889.

Navarro-Carrillo, G., Beltrán-Morillas, A. M., Valor-Segura, I., & Expósito, F. (2018). The pernicious effects of malicious versus benign envy: perceived injustice, emotional hostility and counterproductive behaviors in the workplace. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 21, 76-89.

Nebioglu, M., Konuk, N., Akbaba, S., & Eroglu, Y. (2012). The investigation of validity and reliability of the Turkish version of the brief self-control scale. *Bulletin of Clinical Psychopharmacology, 22*(4), 340-351.

Neu, J. (1980). *Jealous Thoughts*. In A. O. Rorty (Ed.), Explaining Emotions, Los Angeles: University Of California Press. 425– 464, USA.

Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1997). Aggression in the workplace. *Antisocial Behavior in Organizations,* 37, 67-78

Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1998). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: evidence concerning specific forms, potential causes, and preferred targets. *Journal of Management, 24*(3), 391-419.

Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (2005). Aggression In the workplace: a social-psychological perspective. *Counterproductive Work Behavior: Investigations of Actors and Target*s, *7*, 13-40.

Nevicka, B., De Hoogh, A. H., Den Hartog, D. N., & Belschak, F. D. (2018). Narcissistic leaders and their victims: followers low on self-esteem and low on core self-evaluations suffer most. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*, 422.

Nevicka, B., De Hoogh, A. H., Van Vianen, A. E., & Ten Velden, F. S. (2013). Uncertainty enhances the preference for narcissistic leaders. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 43*(5), 370-380.

Nevicka, B., De Hoogh, A. H., Van Vianen, A. E., Beersma, B., & Mcilwain, D. (2011a). All I need is a stage to shine: narcissists' leader emergence and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(5), 910-925.

Nevicka, B., Ten Velden, F. S., De Hoogh, A. H., & Van Vianen, A. E. (2011b). Reality at odds with perceptions: narcissistic leaders and group performance. *Psychological Science, 22*(10), 1259-1264.

Newman, I & Benz, C.R. (1998). *Qualitative-Quantitative Research Methodology-Exploring the Interactive Continuum*. Southern Illinois University Press, USA.

Newstrom, J., Gardner, D., & Pierce, I. (1999). A neglected supervisory role: building self-esteem at work. *Supervision*, 60, 9-12.

Nielsen, M. B., Matthiesen, S. B., & Einarsen, S. (2010). The impact of methodological moderators on prevalence rates of workplace bullying. A meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83*(4), 955-979.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychological Theory*. New York, NY: Macgraw-Hill, 131-147, USA.

Nyamathi, A. M., Stein, J. A., & Swanson, J. M. (2000). Personal, cognitive, behavioral, and demographic predictors of HIV testing and standards in homeless women. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 23*(2), 123-147.

O'Leary-Kelly, A.M., Griffin, R.W., & Glew, D.J. (1996). Organization-motivated aggression: a research framework. *Academy of Management Review. 21*(1), 225 253

O'leary-Kelly, A. M., Griffin, R. W., & Glew, D. J. (1996). Organization-motivated aggression: a research framework. *Academy of Management Review, 21*(1), 225-253.

Ones, D.S. & Viswesvaran, C. (1998). *Integrity Testing in Organizations*. In R.W. Griffin, A. O'Leary-Kelly And J.M. Collins (Eds) Dysfunctional Behavior In Organizations: Violent And Deviant Behavior. Stamford, CT: JAI Press, USA.

Ong, C. W., Roberts, R., Arthur, C. A., Woodman, T., & Akehurst, S. (2016). The leader ship is sinking: a temporal investigation of narcissistic leadership. *Journal of Personality, 84*(2), 237-247.

O'Reilly III, C. A., Doerr, B., Caldwell, D. F., & Chatman, J. A. (2014). Narcissistic ceos and executive compensation. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25*(2), 218-231.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome.* Lexington Books/DC Heath And Company, USA.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A Meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology, 48*(4), 775-802.

Örmeci, E. (2013). *Örgütsel adalet algısının, örgüte bağlılık aracılığıyla üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışlarına etkisinde kuruma güvenin rolü*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Social Science Instutation, Marmara University, Istanbul

Orth, U., Robins, R. W., & Widaman, K. F. (2012). Life-Span development of self-esteem and its effects on important life outcomes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 102*(6), 1271.

Ortony, A., Clore, G. L., & Collins, A. (1988). The *Cognitive Structure of Emotion.* New York: Cambridge University Press, USA.

Ostroff, C., Kinicki, A. J., & Tamkins, M. M. (2003). Organizational climate and culture. Review of *Comprehensive Handbook of Psychology*, 12, 365-402.

Owens, B. P., Wallace, A. S., & Waldman, D. A. (2015). Leader narcissism and follower outcomes: the counterbalancing effect of leader humility. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(4), 1203.

Özcan, H.U. (2006). *Effects of integrity on counterproductive work behaviour: moderating role of organizational commitment*, Unpublished Master Thesis, Social Science Institution, Marmara University, Istanbul.

Özdemir, M., & Demircioglu, E. (2015). The relationship between counterproductive work behaviours and psychological contracts in public high schools. *Çukurova University Faculty of Education Journal*, 44(1), 41.

Özkalp, E., Aydin, U., & Tekeli, S. (2012). Sapkın örgütsel davranışlar ve çalışma yaşamında yeni bir olgu: sanal kaytarma (cyberloafing) ve iş ilişkilerine etkileri. *Çimento İşveren Sendikası Dergisi, 26*(2), 18-33.

Panayides, P. (2013). Coefficient alpha: interpret with caution. *Europe's Journal of Psychology, 9*(4), 11-15.

Parker, I. (2014). *Discourse Dynamics (Psychology Revivals): Critical Analysis for Social and Individual Psychology*. London: Routledge Press, UK.

Parker, S., Wall, T., 1998. Job and work design: organizing work to promote well-being and effectiveness. *Sage Publications*, 14(1), 23-41.

Parks, L., & Mount, M. K. (2005). The" dark side" of self-monitoring: engaging in counterproductive behaviors at work. *In Academy of Management Proceedings,* 2005 (1), 11-16.

Parrott, W. G. (1991). Experiences of envy and jealousy. *The Psychology of Jealousy and Envy,* 1991, 3-30.

Parrott, W. G., & Smith, R. H. (1993). Distinguishing the experiences of envy and jealousy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64*(6), 906.

Pathak, M. (2010). Managing organizational conflict. E*conomics of Knowledge, 2*(4), 2-12.

Patient, D., Lawrence, T. B., & Maitlis, S. (2003). Understanding workplace envy through narrative fiction. *Organization Studies, 24*(7), 1015-1044.

Paulhus, D. L. (1998). Interpersonal and intrapsychic adaptiveness of trait self-enhancement: a mixed blessing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 1197–1208.

Doi:10.1037/0022-3514.74.5.1197

Payne, R., & Clark, M. (2003). Dispositional And situational determinants of trust in two types of managers. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(1), 128-138.

Pearson, C. M., & Porath, C. L. (2005). On the nature, consequences and remedies of workplace incivility: no time for "nice"? Think again. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 19*(1), 7-18.

Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Porath, C. L. (2000). Assessing and attacking workplace incivility. *Organizational Dynamics, 29*(2), 123-137.

Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Wegner, J. W. (2001). When workers flout convention: a study of workplace incivility. *Human Relations, 54*(11), 1387-1419.

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2002). Narcissism and counterproductive work behavior: do bigger egos mean bigger problems? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1-2), 126-134.

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (cwb): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*(7), 777-796.

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2008*). Emotions And Counterproductive Work Behavior.* In N. M. Ashkanasy & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), New Horizons In Management. Research Companion To Emotion In Organizations 183-196. Northampton, MA:Edward Elgar Publishing, USA.

Perera, H. N. (2013). The role of dispositional optimism in college adaptation: testing a model of direct and indirect relations. I*n Proceedings of the 12th Australian Conference on Personality And Individual Differences (ACPID 2013).* Australian Psychological Society, 14, 23-32.

Perlman, B., & Hartman, E. A. (1982). Burnout: summary and future research. *Human Relations, 35*(4), 283-305.

Peters, L. H., & O'Connor, E. J. (1980). Situational constraints and work outcomes: the influences of a frequently overlooked construct. *Academy of Management Review, 5*(3), 391-397.

Peterson, D. (2002). The relationship between unethical behavior and the dimensions of the ethical climate questionnaire. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 41, 313-326

Pierce, J. L., & Gardner, D. G. (2004). Self-esteem within the work and organizational context: a review of the organization-based self-esteem literature. *Journal of Management, 30*(5), 591-622.

Pierce, J. L., Gardner, D. G., Cummings, L. L., & Dunham, R. B. (1989). Organization-based self-esteem: construct definition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal, 32*(3), 622-648.

Pines, A., Aronson, E. And Kafry, D. (1981) *Burnout: From Tedium to Personal Growth*. New York: The Free Press, USA.

Podsakoff, P.M., & Mackenzie, S.B. (1994). Organizational citizenship behaviors and sales unit effectiveness. *Journal of Marketing Research,* 31, 351-363.

Poggi, I., & Germani, M. (2003). Emotions at work. *In Processes 8th International Conference on Human Aspects of Advanced Manufacturing: Agility And Hybrid Automation (Haamaha'03)*, 461-468.

Polatci, S., & Akdogan, A. (2014). Psychological capital and performance: the mediating role of work family spillover and psychological well-being. *Business and Economics Research Journal, 5*(1), 1.

Potter, B. A. (1998). O*vercoming Job Burnout, How To Renew Enthusiasm for Work*. Berkeley, Ronin Pub., Inc., California: USA.

Puffer, S. M. (1987). Prosocial behavior, noncompliant behavior, and work performance among commission salespeople. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *72*(4), 615.

Pyszczynski, T., & Cox, C. (2004). Can we really do without self-esteem? *Psychological Bulletin, 130*(3), 425-429.

Qureshi, J. A., Zeb, A. S. F., & Saifullah, K. (2011). The effect of self-esteem and organizational identification on organizational citizenship behavior: a case of Pakistani Public Sector University. *African Journal of Business Management, 5(*9), 3448.

Rahimnia, F., Sadeghian, S., & Yazdani, P. (2017). The moderating role of self-esteem between burnout and social undermining in the nurses of charity hospitals In Mashhad. *Iran Journal of Nursing*, *30*(109), 67-79.

Rahman, M. S., Ferdausy, S., & Karan, R. (2013). Assessing the relationships between the components of emotional intelligence and job performance: an empirical study. *ABAC Journal, 33*(1), 1-22.

Ramamurthi, K., Vakilbashi, A., Rashid, S. Z. A., Mokhber, M., & Basiruddin, R. (2016). Impact of job stressors factors on employees' intention to leave mediated by job engagement and dispositional factors. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, 6(3), 528-531.

Ramshida, A. P., & Manikandan, K. (2013). Organizational commitment as a mediator of counterproductive work behavior and organizational culture. *International Journal of Social Science and Interdisciplinary Research, 2*(2), 59-69.

Randle, J. (2003). Changes in self-esteem during a 3 year pre-registration diploma in higher education (nursing) programme. *Learning in Health and Social Care, 2*(1), 51-60.

Raskin, R. N., & Hall, C. S. (1979). A narcissistic personality inventory. *Psychological Reports, 45*(2), 590.

Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.2466/Pr0.1979.45.2.590

Raskin, R., & Terry, H. (1988). A principal-components analysis of the narcissistic personality inventory and further evidence of its construct validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(5), 890.

Rawls J (1971*). A Theory of Justice*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge; UK.

Rayner, C., & Keashly, L. (2005). *Bullying at Work: A Perspective from Britain and North America*. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), Counterproductive Work Behavior: Investigations of Actors and Targets (Pp. 271-296). Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association. Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1037/10893-011

Redmond, B. F. (2010). Self-efficacy theory: Do I think that I can succeed in my work? Work attitudes and motivation. *Review of the Pennsylvania State University*, 1, 22-42.

Reed, G. E., & Olsen, R. A. (2009). Toxic leadership: part deux. *Army Combıned Arms Center Fort Leavenworth Ks Mılıtary Revıew*, 8.

Reichers, A. E., & Schneider, B. (1990). Climate and culture: An evolution of constructs. *Organizational Climate and Culture Review*, 1, 5-39.

Reilly, R. R., & Aronson, Z. H. (2012). *Managing Contextual Performance*. In J. W. Smither and M. London (Eds.), Performance management: Putting research into practice (pp. 327–358). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.Reinhold, USA.

Reinhold, B., B. (1996). *Toxic Work: How to Overcome Stress, Overload, And Burnout And Revitalize Your Career,* (P. 245). New York: Dutton, USA.

Resick, C. J., Whitman, D. D., Weingarden, S. M., & Hiller, N. J. (2009). The bright-side and the dark-side of CEO personality: Examining core evaluations,

narcissism, transformational leadership, and strategic influence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 1365–1381.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(4), 698.

Richard, P. J., T. M. Devinney, G. S. Yip & G. Johnson (2009). Measuring organisational performance: towards methodological best practice. *Journal of Management, 35*, 718- 804.

Riggio, R. E., Throckmorton, B., & Depaola, S. (1990). Social skills and self-esteem. *Personality and Individual Differences, 11*(8), 799-804.

Ritala, G.,& Falkowski, J. (2007). *Narcissism in the Workplace.* Red Swan Publishing, USA. ISBN-10: 1933703520.

Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2012). *Organizational Behavior/ Örgütsel Davranış*. Translation Editor: İnci Erdem, 4. Edition, Ankara, Nobel Yayıncılık.

Roberts, J. E. (2006). Self-esteem from a clinical perspective. Self-esteem issues and answers. *A Sourcebook of Current Perspectives*, *3,* 298-305.

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A Typology of deviant workplace behaviors: a multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*(2), 555-572.

Robinson, S. L., & Greenberg, J. (1998). Employees behaving badly: dimensions, determinants and dilemmas in the study of workplace deviance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (1986-1998), 1.

Robinson, S. L., O'Reilly, J., & Wang, W. (2013). Invisible at work: An integrated model of workplace ostracism. *Journal of Management, 39*(1), 203-231.

Roe, R. A. (1999). Work performance: a multiple regulation perspective. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 14, 231-335.

Rosch, P. J. (1998). Reminiscences of Hans Selye and the birth of 'stress'. *Stress Medicine, 14*(1), 1-6.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSE). *Acceptance and Commitment Therapy: Measures Package*, *61*(52), 1-159.

Rosenberg, M. (1979). *Conceiving The Self*. New York: Basic Books, USA.

Rosenthal, S. A., & Pittinsky, T. L. (2006). Narcissistic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 17*(6), 617-633.

Rosnow, R. L., & Foster, E. K. (2005). Rumor and gossip research. *Psychological Science Agenda*, *19*(4), 1-2.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: a cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 393-404.

Roussin, C. J. (2008). Increasing trust, psychological safety, and team performance through dyadic leadership discovery. *Small Group Research, 39*(2), 224-248.

Rubin, M., & Hewstone, M. (1998). Social identity theory's self-esteem hypothesis: a review and some suggestions for clarification. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 2*(1), 40-62.

Rustemeyer, R., & Wilbert, C. (2001). Jealousy within the perspective of a self-evaluation maintenance theory. *Psychological Report*, *88*, 799–804.

Saboor, A., Rehman, M., & Rehman, S. (2018). Organizational justice and employee contextual performance: the moderating effect of organizational respect. *Pakistan Business Review, 19*(4), 995-1011.

Sackett, P. R., & Devore, C. J. (2001). *Counterprooductive Behaviors at Work*. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.). Handbook of Industrial, Work, & Organizational Psychology, 1, 145-164, London, UK: Sage.

Sadoughi, F., & Ebrahimi, K. (2015). Self-esteem and organizational commitment among health information management staff in tertiary care hospitals in Tehran. *Global Journal of Health Science, 7*(2), 328.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *23*(2), 224-253.

Salgado, J. F. (2002). The big five personality dimensions and counterproductive behaviors. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *10*(2), 117-125.

Salgado, J. F., Moscoso, S., & Anderson, N. (2013). *Personality and Counterproductive Work Behavior*. In Handbook of Personality At Work, Routledge: New York, USA.

Salim, A. (2009). Narsistik kişilik envanteri'nin türkçe'ye standardizasyonu. *Gazi Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 11*(1), 181-196.

Salin, D. (2003). Ways of explaining workplace bullying: a review of enabling, motivating and precipitating structures and processes in the work environment. *Human Relations*, *56*(10), 1213-1232.

Salovey, P. (1991). *The Psychology of Jealousy and Envy*. New York: Guilford Press, USA.

Salovey, P., & Rodin, J. (1984). Some antecedents and consequences of social-comparison jealousy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *47*(4), 780.

Sankowsky, D. (1995). The charismatic leader as narcissist: understanding the abuse of power. *Organizational Dynamics*, *23*(4), 57-71.

Savcı, M. (2018). Akıllı telefon aşerme ölçeğinin geçerliliği ve güvenilirliği: penn alkol aşerme ölçeğinin türk kültürüne akıllı telefon aşerme ölçeği olarak değiştirilmesi ve uyarlaması. *Anadolu Psikiyatri Dergisi*, 20.

Schaubroeck, J., & Lam, S. S. (2004). Comparing lots before and after: promotion rejectees' invidious reactions to promotes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 94*(1), 33-47.

Schaufeli, W. B. (2017). Applying the job demands-resources model. *Organizational Dynamics, 2*(46), 120-132.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Taris, T. W. (2014). A critical review of the job demands-resources model: implications for improving work and health. *In Bridging Occupational, Organizational and Public Health,* 43-68, Springer, Dordrecht.

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, USA.

Schmidt, A. A. (2008). *Development and Validation of the Toxic Leadership Scale*, Master's Thesis, Maryland University, ABD.

Schneider, B., Ehrhart, M. G., & Macey, W. H. (2011). Organizational climate research. *The Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate*, 29, 23-47.

Schoeck, Helmut (1966). *Envy: A Theory of Social Behavior*. Translation by M. Glenny and B. Ross. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, USA.

Schwarzkopf, K., Straus, D., Porschke, H., Znoj, H., Conrad, N., Schmidt-Trucksäss, A., & Von Känel, R. (2016). Empirical evidence for a relationship between narcissistic personality traits and job burnout. *Burnout Research, 3*(2), 25-33.

Seçer, H. Ş., & Seçer, B. (2007). Örgütlerde üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları: belirleyicileri ve önlenmesi. *TISK Akadem*i, 2(4), 16-28.

Sedikides, C., Campbell, W. K., Reeder, G. D., & Elliot, A. J. (2002). The self in relationships: whether, how, and when close others put the self "In its place". *European Review of Social Psychology*, 12(1), 237-265.

Seeger, M.W., Ulmer, R.R., Novak, J.M. & Sellnow, T. (2005). Post-crisis discourse and organizational change, failure and renewal. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 18 (1), 78-95

Selye, H. (1950). *The Physiology and Pathology of Exposure to Stress.* Oxford, England: Acta, Inc.

Selye, H. (1974). *Stress Sans Détresse*. Lippincott, Oxford, England: Acta, Inc.

Sen, C., & Dulara, M. S. (2017). Job Characteristics and performance: the mediating role of job crafting. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*, *5* (1), DOI: 10.25215/0501.068

Sezici, E. (2015). Üretkenlik karşiti iş davranişlari üzerinde kişilik özelliklerinin rolü. *Uluslararası İktisadi Ve İdari İncelemeler Dergisi*, 14, 25-38.

Sezici, E. (2016). İzleyicilerin yıkıcı liderlik algısı ve sonuçları. *Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, (47), 106-121.

Shah, S. A., Mushtaq, S., Naseer, M. N., Ahmad, M. A., Sharma, G., & Kovur, H. (2017). *A Text Book of Psychopathology*. Navamuvada: RedSshine Publication, Lunawada.

Shih, S. P., Jiang, J. J., Klein, G., & Wang, E. (2013). Job burnout of the information technology worker: work exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. *Information & Management, 50*(7), 582-589.

Shore, L. M., & Tetrick, L. E. (1991). A construct validity study of the survey of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(5), 637.

Shu, C. Y., & Lazatkhan, J. (2017). Effect of leader-member exchange on employee envy and work behavior moderated by self-esteem and neuroticism. *Revista De Psicología Del Trabajo Y De Las Organizaciones*, *33*(1), 69-81.

Shurden, S. (2014). *Identifying the effects of narcissistic leadership on employee job satisfaction: a study within the accounting profession*. Doctoral Dissertation, Clemson University. USA.

Siegel, J. L. (2011). *A multi-level model examining the effects of unit- level culture on abusive supervision.* Doctorate Dissertation, University of Arizona, U.S.A.

Singh, J., Goolsby, J. R., & Rhoads, G. K. (1994). Behavioral and psychological consequences of boundary spanning burnout for customer service representatives. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 33, 558–569.

Situ, Q. M., Li, J. B., & Dou, K. (2016). Reexamining the linear and u-shaped relationships between self-control and emotional and behavioral problems. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, *19*(2), 177-185.

Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the Workplace: the roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *82*(3), 434.

Skarlicki, D. P., Folger, R., & Tesluk, P. (1999). Personality as a moderator in the relationship between fairness and retaliation. *Academy of Management Journal,* 42(1), 100-108.

Skinner, G. W. (1971). Chinese peasants and the closed community: an open and shut case. *Comparative Studies in Society and History*, *13*(3), 270-281.

Slat, I. (2015). *Implicit aggressiveness and self-control as predictors of different counterproductive work behaviors*. Unpublished Master Thesis, Zagreb, Crotia.

Sloan, M. M. (2004). The effects of occupational characteristics on the experience and expression of anger in the workplace. *Work and Occupations, 31*(1), 38-72.

Small, E. E., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2006). The impact of contextual self-ratings and observer ratings of personality on the personality-performance relationship. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *36*(2), 297-320.

Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *68*(4), 653.

Smith, R. H., & Kim, S. H. (2007). Comprehending envy. *Psychological Bulletin, 133*(1), 46.

Smith, R. H., Parrott, W. G., Ozer, D., & Moniz, A. (1994). Subjective injustice and inferiority as predictors of hostile and depressive feelings in envy. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *20*(6), 705-711.

Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *30*(4), 526.

Sonnentag, J., Volmer, J., & Spychala, A. (2010). Sage handbook of organizational behavior. *Yearly Bulletin Publication for Nurses*, 37, 423-426.

Soyer, R. B., Rovenpor, J. L., & Kopelman, R. E. (1999). Narcissism and achievement motivation as related to three facets of the sales role: attraction, satisfaction and performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 14, 285–304.

Sparks, K., & Cooper, C. L. (1999). Occupational differences in the work-strain relationship: towards the use of situation-specific models. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *72*(2), 219-229.

Spector, P. E. (2011). The relationship of personality to counterproductive work behavior (CWB): An integration of perspectives. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*(4), 342-352.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: some parallels between counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review*, *12*(2), 269-292.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2005). *The Stressor-Emotion Model of Counterproductive Work Behavio*r. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), Counterproductive Work Behavior: Investigations of Actors and Targets (Pp. 151-174). Washington, DC, American Psychological Association, USA.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2010). Counterproductive Work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: are they opposite forms of active behavior? *Applied Psychology*, 59(1), 21-39.

Spector, P. E., & Zhou, Z. E. (2014). The moderating role of gender in relationships of stressors and personality with counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 29*(4), 669-681.

Spector, P. E., Dwyer, D. J., & Jex, S. M. (1988). Relation of job stressors to affective, health, and performance outcomes: a comparison of multiple data sources. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*(1), 11.

Spector, P. E., Fox, S., & Domagalski, T. (2006). Emotions, violence and counterproductive work behavior. *Handbook of Workplace Violence*, 29-46.

Sperry, L. (2009). Mobbing and bullying: the influence of individual, work group, and organizational dynamics on abusive workplace behavior. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *61*(3), 190.

Spielman, P. M. (1971). Envy and jealousy an attempt at clarification. *The Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 40*(1), 59-82.

Stark, M. (2003). *Time to Treat Toxic Emotions at Work. Working Knowledge for Business Leaders Archive.* Harvard Business School, Boston, MA, USA.

Steffenhagen, R. A., & Burns, J. D. (1987). *The Social Dynamics of Self-Esteem: Theory to Therapy*. New York: Praeger, USA.

Sterling, C. M., Van De Ven, N., & Smith, R. H. (2016). S*tudying Benign and Malicious Envy in the Workplace. Envy At Work And In Organizations*. Oxford University Press, USA.

Sterling, C.M. & Labianca, G. (2015). Costly comparisons: managing envy in the workplace. *Organizational Dynamics*, *44* (4), 296-305

St-Pierre, I., & Holmes, D. (2010). The relationship between organizational justice and workplace aggression. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *66*(5), 1169-1182.

Stucky B., Gottfredson N., Panter A., Daye C., Allen W.,& Wightman L. (2011). An item factor analysis and item response theory-based revision of the everyday discrimination scale. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 17, 175–185.

Suan, C. L., & Nasurdin, A. M. (2013). Role clarity, supervisory support, peer support, and work engagement of customer-contact employees in hotels: A future research agenda. *Tourisms: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, *8*(1), 315-329.

Suls, J., Martin, R. & Wheeler, L. (2002). Social comparison: why, with whom and with what effect? *Current Direction Psychology Science*, 11, 159 −163. Doi:10.1111/1467-8721.00191.

Sutton, J., & Austin, Z. (2015). Qualitative research: data collection, analysis, and management. *The Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*, 68(3), 226.

Swann Jr, W. B., Chang-Schneider, C., & Larsen Mcclarty, K. (2007). Do people's self-views matter? Self-concept and self-esteem in everyday life. *American Psychologist*, 62(2), 84.

Swann, W. B., Jr., Chang-Schneider, C., & Mcclarty, K. L. (2008). Yes, cavalier attitudes can have pernicious consequences. *American Psychologist*, 63(1), 65-66.

Sweeney, J. T., & Summers, S. L. (2002). The effect of the busy season workload on public accountants' job burnout. *Behavioral Research in Accounting, 14*(1), 223-245.

Taguiri, R., & Litwin, G. H. (1968). *Organizational Climate: Exploration of a Concept.* Cambridge: Graduate School Of Business Administration, Harvard University, USA.

Tai K., Narayanan J., Mcallister D. J. (2012). Envy as pain: rethinking the nature of envy and its implictions for employees and organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 37* (1), 107-129.

Tan, H. H., & Lim, A. K. (2009). Trust In coworkers and trust in organizations. *The Journal of Psychology*, 143(1), 45-66.

Tangney, J., Baumeister, R. F., & Boone, A. L. (2004). High self-control predicts good adjustment, less pathology, better grades, and interpersonal success. *Journal of Personality*, 72, 271–324

Taştan, S., & Kalafatoğlu Y. (2015). An investigation of the moderating effect of work exhaustion on the relationship between perceived servant leadership and organizational commitment. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi Ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 20, 307-328.

Taştan, S. (2013). Bir negatif iş davranışı olarak üretkenliğe aykırı davranışların işyerinde örgütsel adaletsizlik ve agresif davranış algıları ile ilişkisinde psikolojik güçlendirme benlik değeri ve sosyal bütünleşmenin düzenleyici rolünün incelenmesi otizm tanısı almış çocuk sahibi çalışanlar üzerine karşılaştırmalı bir araştırma. *Sosyal Ve Beşeri Bilimler Dergisi*, 5, 466-481.

Taştan, S. B. (2014). Workplace anger as a personal and behavioral response to psychosocial and situational characteristics of work environment: an appraisal of social cognitive theory. *Uluslararası İktisadi ve İdari İncelemeler Dergisi*, (12).

Taştan, S. B. (2017). Toxic workplace environment: in search for the toxic behaviours in organizations with a research in healthcare sector. *Postmodern Openings, 8*(1), 83-109, http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.18662/Po/2017.0801.07â

Taştan, S., & Aydin Küçük, B. (2019). Üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışlarını açıklayan psikososyal yapılar olarak işyerinde kıskançlık duygusu ve strese yönelik esnekliğin incelenmesi. *Suleyman Demirel University Journal of Faculty of Economics & Administrative Sciences*, 24(1), 55-79.

Taylor, D. (2014). *Toxic Communities: Environmental Racism, Industrial Pollution, and Residential Mobility*. New York: NYU Press, USA.

Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(2), 178-190.

Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 33*(3), 261-289.

Tesser, A. (1988). Toward a self-evaluation maintenance model of social behavior. In L. Berkowitz (Eds.), *Advances In Experimental Social Psychology*, 21, 181–229, New York: Academic Press, USA.

Tesser, A., & Collins, J. E. (1988). Emotion in social reflection and comparison situations: intuitive, systematic, and exploratory approaches. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 55*(5), 695.

Tharenou, P. (1979). Employee self-esteem: a review of the literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *15*(3), 316-346.

Thomas, H. J., Connor, J. P., Lawrence, D. M., Hafekost, J. M., Zubrick, S. R., & Scott, J. G. (2017). Prevalence and correlates of bullying victimisation and perpetration in a nationally representative sample of Australian youth. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, *51*(9), 909-920.

Toegel, G., Anand, N., & Kilduff, M. (2007). Emotion helpers: the role of high positive affectivity and high self-monitoring managers. *Personnel Psychology*, *60*(2), 337-365.

Too, L., & Harvey, M. (2012). "Toxic" workplaces: the negative interface between the physical and social environments. *Journal of Corporate Real Estate, 14*(3), 171-181.

Töremen, F., & Çankaya, İ. (2008). Yönetimde Etkili bir yaklaşım: duygu yönetimi. *Kuramsal Eğitimbilim Dergisi*, *1*(1), 33-47.

Torun, A. (1997). *Stres Ve Tükenmişlik. Endüstri Ve Örgüt Psikolojisi Içinde*. (Ed.Suna Tevrüz), 2.Baskı, Türk Psikologlar Derneği ve Kalite Derneği Ortak Yayını, İstanbul, 43- 53.

Trice, H. M., & Beyer, J. M. (1993). *The Cultures of Work Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, US: Prentice-Hall, Inc, USA.

Trochim, W. M. (2006). Nonprobability sampling. *Research Methods Knowledge Base*, *1*(1), 1-10.

Trull, T. J., Vergés, A., Wood, P. K., Jahng, S., & Sher, K. J. (2012). The structure of diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders. *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment*, 3(4), 355.

Trzesniewski, K., Donnellan, B., Moffitt, T., Robins, R., Poulton, R., & Caspi, A. (2006). Low self-esteem during adolescence predicts poor health, criminal behavior, and limited economic prospects during adulthood. *Developmental Psychology,* 42, 381–390.

Tuna & Yahyagil (2014). *The influence of person-organization fit on contextual performance and its impact on organizational effectiveness: the moderating role of organizational climate*. Master's Thesis, Yeditepe University: Social Science Instuation, Istanbul.

Tuna, A. A., & Boylu, Y. (2016). Algılanan örgütsel destek ve işe ilişkin duyuşsal iyi oluş halinin üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları üzerine etkileri: hizmet sektöründe bir araştırma. *Journal of Business Research Turk*, *8*(4), 505-521.

Twenge, J. M., & Campbell, W. K. (2009). *The Narcissism Epidemic: Living in The Age Of Entitlement*. New York: Simon and Schuster, USA.

Uçar, M. E. (2017). Relationships Between vertical and horizontal individualism/collectivism self-construal's and autonomous, relatedness, autonomous-related self at university student. *Journal of Human Sciences*, *14*(2), 1865-1878.

Uche, I. I., George, O., & Abiola, W. (2017). Counterproductive work behaviors: a socio-demographic characteristic-based study among employees in the nigerian maritime sector. *Acta Universitatis Sapientiae, Economics and Business, 5*(1), 117-138.

Üçok, D. & Torun, A. (2014). Tükenmişliği etkileyen olumsuz tutum ve beklentiler: sinik tutum ve psikolojik sözleşme ihlali algısı üzerine bir araştırma. *Ataturk University Journal of Economics & Administrative Sciences*, *28* (1), 231-250.

Ulmer, J. T. (2012). Recent developments and new directions in sentencing research. *Justice Quarterly, 29*(1), 1-40.

Unger, A., Bi, C., Xiao, Y. Y., & Ybarra, O. (2016). The revising of the Tangney self-control scale for Chinese students. *Psych Journal*, *5*(2), 101-116.

Vaknin, S. (2015). *Malignant Self-Love: Narcissism Revisited*. Narcissus Publishing, Macedonia.

Van Coillie, H., Van Mechelen, I., & Ceulemans, E. (2006). Multidimensional individual differences in anger-related behaviors. *Personality and Individual Differences, 41*(1), 27-38.

Van Cutsem, J., Marcora, S., De Pauw, K., Bailey, S., Meeusen, R., & Roelands, B. (2017). The effects of mental fatigue on physical performance: a systematic review. *Sports Medicine*, *47*(8), 1569-1588.

Van De Ven, N., Zeelenberg, M., & Pieters, R. (2009). Leveling up and down: the experiences of benign and malicious envy. *Emotion*, *9*(3), 419.

Van Den Broeck, A., Vansteenkiste, M., De Witte, H., & Lens, W. (2008). Explaining the relationships between job characteristics, burnout, and engagement: the role of basic psychological need satisfaction. *Work & Stress, 22*(3), 277-294.

Van Der Meer, M., & Kjellson, I. (2012). *The impact of narcissistic and humble leadership styles: examining employee satisfaction and the role of the family business*. Master Thesis, Business Administration, Jön Köping University.

Van Dyne, L., Vandewalle, D., Kostova, T., Latham, M. E., & Cummings, L. L. (2000). Collectivism, propensity to trust and self-esteem as predictors of organizational citizenship in a non-work setting. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*(1), 3-23.

Van Fleet, D. D., & Van Fleet, E. W. (2012). Towards a behavioral description of managerial bullying. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *24*(3), 197-215.

Van Gils, G., Van Den Bogaerde, B., & De Lange, R. (2010). The use of modern information and communication systems and technology and experienced stress at work in mixed deaf-hearing teams. *Sign Language Studies*, *10*(2), 231-257.

Van Scotter, J. R., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1996). Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*(5), 525.

Van Scotter, J. R., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1996). Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*(5), 525.

Vardi, Y., & Wiener, Y. (1996). Misbehavior In organizations: a motivational framework. *Organization Science*, *7*(2), 151-165.

Vecchio, R. (2005). Explorations in employee envy: feeling envious and feeling envied. *Cognition & Emotion*, *19*(1), 69-8.

Vecchio, R. P. (1995). It's not easy being green: jealousy and envy in the workplace. *Research in Personnel And Human Resources Management*, 13, 201-244.

Vecchio, R. P. (1997). It's not easy being green: jealousy and envy in the workplace. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, 13, 202- 244.

Vecchio, R. P. (2000). Negative emotion in the workplace: employee jealousy and envy. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *7*(3), 161-179.

Vecchio, R. P. (2007). *Cinderella and Salieri in the Workplace: The Envied and the Envier*. In S. W. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, & D. P. Skarlicki (Eds.), Managing Social And Ethical Issues In Organizations: 109 −134.

Veiga, J. F., Baldridge, D. C., & Markóczy, L. (2014). Toward greater understanding of the pernicious effects of workplace envy. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*(17), 2364-2381.

Vinge, L. (1967). The narcissus theme in Western European literature up to the early 19th century. *Orbis Litterarum, Wiley Online Library*, *24*(4), 54-73.

Visser, B. A., Book, A. S., & Volk, A. A. (2017). Is Hillary dishonest and Donald narcissistic? A Hexaco analysis of the presidential candidates' public personas. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 106, 281–286. Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1016/J.Paid.2016.10. 053.

Volkan, V. D. (2009). Some psychoanalytic views on leaders with narcissistic personality organization and their roles in large-group processes. *Leadership in a*

Changing World: Dynamic Perspectives on Groups and their Leaders, 39(4), 67-89.

Von Känel, R., Herr, R. M., Van Vianen, A. E. M., & Schmidt, B. (2017). Association of adaptive and maladaptive narcissism with personal burnout: findings from a cross-sectional study. *Industrial Health*, *55*(3), 233-242.

Vrabel, J. K., Zeigler-Hill, V., & Southard, A. C. (2018). Self-esteem and envy: Is state self-esteem instability associated with the benign and malicious forms of envy*?. Personality and Individual Differences,* 123, 100-104.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and Motivation*. 54, New York: Wiley, USA.

Walliman, N. (2011). *Research Methods: The Basics*. London: Routledge, UK.

Wang, R., & Jiang, J. (2014). How narcissistic employees respond to abusive supervision: two roles of narcissism in decreasing perception and increasing deviance. *Psychological Reports*, *115*(2), 372-380.

Warren, D. E. & Smith-Crowe, K. (2008). Deciding what's right: the role of external sanctions and embarrassment in shaping moral judgments in the workplace. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 28, 81–105.

Wasylyshyn, K. M. (2005). The reluctant president. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 57, 57-70.

Watson, P. J., Grisham, S. O., Trotter, M. V., & Biderman, M. D. (1984). Narcissism and empathy: Validity evidence for the narcissistic personality inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *48*(3), 301-305.

Webber, A. M. (1998). The problem isn't that loyalty is dead or that careers are history. the real problem, argues Stanford's Jeffrey Pfeiffer, is that so many companies

are toxic-and that they get exactly what they deserve. How to change that? Become a phoenix and renew yourself. *Fast Company*, *2* (19), 152.

Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: a theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. *An Annual Series of Analytical Essays and Critical Reviews*, *1*(2), 1-74.

Werbel, J., & Balkin, D. B. (2010). Are human resource practices linked to employee misconduct? : A rational choice perspective. *Human Resource Management Review*, *20*(4), 317-326.

Wheeler, L., & Miyake, K. (1992). Social comparison in everyday life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *62*(5), 760.

Whelpley, C. E., & Mcdaniel, M. A. (2016). Self-Esteem and counterproductive work behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *31*(4), 850-863.

Wilhelm, P. W., Wilhelm, P. J., & Wilhelm, T. G. (2013). Testing Maccoby's theory of productive narcissism with us presidents: global competitiveness and dark triad implications. *Competition Forum. 11*(2), 43-64.

Williams, K. D., & Sommer, K. L. (1997). Social ostracism by coworkers: does rejection lead to loafing or compensation? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 23*(7), 693-706.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17*(3), 601-617.

Wink, P. (1996). *Narcissism*. In C. G. Costello (Ed.), *Personality Characteristics Of The Personality Disordered* (Pp. 146–172). New York: Wiley, USA.

Wobker, I. (2015). The price of envy: an experimental investigation of spiteful behavior. *Managerial and Decision Economics*, *36*(5), 326-335.

Wong, C. A., & Laschinger, H. K. (2013). Authentic leadership, performance, and job satisfaction: the mediating role of empowerment. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *69*(4), 947-959.

Wong, C.A., Spence-Laschinger, H.K. And Cummings, G.G. (2010). Authentic leadership and nurses' voice behaviour and perceptions of care quality. *Journal of Nursing Management, 18* (8), 889-900.

Wood, S., Braeken, J., & Niven, K. (2013). Discrimination and well-being in organizations: testing the differential power and organizational justice theories of workplace aggression. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *115*(3), 617-634.

World Health Organization. (1998). The World Health Report 1998: Life In The 21st Century A Vision For All.

Xiao, X., Liu, F., Zhou, F., & Chen, S. (2018). Narcissistic leadership and employees' knowledge sharing: influence of organizational identification and collectivism. Social behavior and personality. *An International Journal, 46*(8), 1317-1329.

Yan, Y., Zhou, E., Long, L., & Ji, Y. (2014). The influence of workplace ostracism on counterproductive work behavior: the mediating effect of state self-control. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, *42*(6), 881-890.

Yıldız, B. (2017). The Role Of Envy In Employees Abusive Supervision Perception And Contextual Performance. *Pressacademia Procedia*, *3*(1), 541-547.

Yip, J. A., & Martin, R. A. (2006). Sense of humor, emotional intelligence, and social competence. *Journal of Research in Personality, 40*(6), 1202-1208.

Yun, S., Takeuchi, R., & Liu, W. (2007). Employee self-enhancement motives and job performance behaviors: investigating the moderating effects of employee role ambiguity and managerial perceptions of employee commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(3), 745.

Yürür, Ş. (2011). Öğrenilmiş güçlülük, kıdem ve medeni durumun duygusal tükenmedeki rolü: kaynaklarin korunmasi teorisi kapsaminda bir analiz. *Atatürk Üniversitesi İktisadi Ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*, **25**(1), 107-126.

Zafar, N., Mubashir, T., Tariq, S., Masood, S., Kazmi, F., Zaman, H., & Zahidb, A. (2014). Self-esteem and job satisfaction in male and female teachers in public and private schools. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 1*2(1), 46.

Zapf, D., Knorz, C., & Kulla, M. (1996). On the relationship between mobbing factors, and job content, social work environment, and health outcomes. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 215-237.

Zellner, W. (2003). An insider's tale of Enron's toxic culture. *Business Week*, *3826* (16), 36-49

Zhao, H., Peng, Z., & Sheard, G. (2013). Workplace ostracism and hospitality employees' counterproductive work behaviors: the joint moderating effects of proactive personality and political skill. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33, 219-227.

Zhao, W., & Zhou, X. (2008). Intraorganizational career advancement and voluntary turnover in a multinational bank in Taiwan. *Career Development International*, *13*(5), 402-424.

Zheng, W., Wu, Y. C. J., Chen, X., & Lin, S. J. (2017). Why do employees have counterproductive work behavior? the role of founder's machiavellianism and the corporate culture in China. *Management Decision*, 55(3), 563-578.

Zimmerman, R. D. (2008). Understanding the impact of personality traits and individuals' turnover decisions: a meta-analytic path model. *Personnel Psychology*, 61, 309–348.

Zohar, D. M., & Hofmann, D. A. (2012). Organizational Culture and Climate. In S. W. J. Kozlowski (Ed.), Oxford Library of Psychology. *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Psychology*, *1*, 643-666.

APPENDIX

TANITICI BİLGİLER

1. Cinsiyetiniz :   1 ( ) Kadın   2 ( ) Erkek

2. Medeni Durumunuz nedir ?   1 ( ) Bekar   2 ( ) Evli

3. Yaşınız? ....

4. Mesleğiniz: ....

5. Eğitim Durumunuz nedir?
    1 ( ) İlk-orta derece   2 ( ) Lise   3 ( ) Üniversite

    4 ( ) Yüksek Lisans   5 ( ) Doktora

6. Meslek yaşamınızdaki tecrübeniz? (Yıl olarak belirtiniz).......................................

7. Şu anki kurumunuzda kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız? (Yıl olarak belirtiniz).................

8. Kurumunuzdaki göreviniz (unvanınız) nedir? ....

BÖLÜM I

Aşağıda, bir başkasının üstün özellik, başarı ve varlığına (statü, prestij, eşya vb.) sahip olmadığınızı düşündüğünüz ve bu üstünlüğü elde etmeyi arzuladığınız ya da diğerinin bu üstünlüğü kaybetmesini istediğiniz durumlarla ilgili maddeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her maddeye ne derecede katıldığınızı verilen ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Anket sorularının doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Aklınıza ilk gelen cevabı tereddüt etmeden işaretleyiniz. (1=**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum .... 6=Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**).

	Aşağıdaki durumların çalışmakta olduğunuz iş yerinde sizi ne derece ifade ettiğini düşünmektesiniz? **Lütfen her birini şuan çalışmakta olduğunuz iş yerinizi düşünerek yanıtlayınız.** **İş yerimde…**	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	… iş arkadaşlarımı kıskandığımda, gelecekte nasıl onlar kadar başarılı olabileceğime odaklanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	…benden üstün olan çalışma arkadaşlarımın üstünlüklerini kaybetmelerini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	… çalışma arkadaşımın benden daha iyi olduğunu fark edersem, kendimi geliştirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	…iş arkadaşlarımı kıskanmak hedeflerimi gerçekleştirme konusunda beni motive eder.	1	2	3	4	5	
5	… eğer kendim içim istediğim bir şeye başkaları sahipse, onu ellerinden almak isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	…kıskandığım çalışma arkadaşlarıma kötü duygular beslerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	… iş arkadaşlarımın elde ettiği üstün başarılara ulaşmak için ben de çabalarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	… kıskançlık hissi karşımdaki kişiye antipati duymama yol açar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	… eğer çalışma arkadaşlarım daha üstün özelliklere, başarılara, ya da varlığa sahipse onları kendim için elde etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	
10	… çalışma arkadaşlarımın başarılarını gördüğümde onlara içerler ve öfkelenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

BÖLÜM II

Aşağıda insanların işyerinde çalışırken **bazen yaptıkları davranışların** bir listesi verilmiştir. Listedeki maddeleri lütfen dikkatle okuyunuz. Daha sonra o davranışı **BUGÜN DAHİL, SON BİR KAÇ YIL YADA SON 6 AY İÇERİSİNDE NE KADAR YAPMIŞ OLUĞUNUZU** yandaki bölmede uygun olan yerde işaretleyiniz.

	Bugün dahil <u>SON BİR KAÇ YIL yada 6 AY</u> içerisindeki işyeri yaşamınızı düşündüğünüzde, aşağıdakiler sizi ne kadar tanımlıyor?	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
1	Hasta olmadığım halde hastayım diyerek işe gelmemezlik yaptığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	İş yerine ait bir eşyayı izinsiz olarak dışarı çıkardığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	İş yerinde çalışanlardan birisine karşı kaba davrandığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	İş yerinde çalışanlardan birisini herkesin içinde mahcup ettiğim oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	İş yerinde çalışmaya, hoş görülebilir süreden daha sık ve daha uzun bir şekilde mola verdiğim oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Bir işi gereğinden fazla uzattığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	İzin almadan işyerindeki bir eşyayı kendim için aldığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	İş yerinde amirimin/yöneticimin talimatlarını yerine getirmeyi göz ardı ettiğim oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	İşyerindeki aletlere bilerek zarar verdiğim oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Kendi yaptığım bir hata için başka bir çalışanı suçladığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	İşyerinde önemli olan bir bilgiyi sakladığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	İşyerinde başkasına ait gizli bir bilgiyi **öğrenerek bunu** iş arkadaşlarıyla paylaştığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	İşyerindeki materyal ve ekipmanları (kağıt, yazıcı, fax, vb..) gerekenden fazla kullandığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Sigara içmek, cep telefonumla ilgilenmek ya da diğer çalışanlarla sohbet etmek için işleri aksatıp bıraktığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Bilinçli olarak dikkatsiz ve/veya yavaş çalıştığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	İş yapar gibi gözüktüğüm oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Diğer çalışan veya amirlerime karşı iyi görünmek amacıyla, başka bir çalışana ait fikirleri kendi fikrimmiş gibi söylediğim oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Yaptığım hataları saklamaya çalıştığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	İş arkadaşlarım ya da amirlerim ile ilgili asılsız dedikodular yaydığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Bilinçli olarak bir işi sadece kendimin anlayacağı şekilde düzenlediğim oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Deneyimsiz bir çalışanı ufak tefek işlerim için çalıştırdığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Kendi çıkarım için başka bir çalışanı kandırdığım ya da yanılttığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Sinirlenip işyerimdeki eşya veya aletlere vurduğum oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	İşyerinde çalışanlardan birini herkesin içinde azarladığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	İşyerine ait eşyaları kendi çıkarlarım doğrultusunda kullandığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	İş yerinde çalışmak yerine farklı düşüncelere ve hayallere dalarak çok zaman harcadığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Yöneticim/amirim ofiste olmadığı zamanlarda işten daha erken çıktığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Verilen bir işi yapmamak için kaytarmanın yollarını aradığım	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
	oldu.						
29	Canım istemeyince işi baştan savma yaptığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	İşyerindeki kural ve yönetmeliklere uymadığım oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6

BÖLÜM III

	Lütfen, aşağıdaki durumları çalışmakta olduğunuz bir üst yöneticinizi (yönetici, müdür, amir vb.) düşünerek cevaplayınız. Bu ifadelerin ne derece yöneticinize uyduğunu, onun ne derece benzer davranışlar sergilediğini ve ifadelerin ne derece onu yansıttığını verilen ölçek ile değerlendiriniz.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	İnsanların ona iltifat etmesi ve övmesinden çok hoşlanır ve hiçbir mahcubiyet duymaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	İyi biri olduğunu düşünür ve zaten herkesin ona **bunu söylediğini** ifade eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	İlgi merkezi olmaktansa kalabalık içinde herkes gibi biri olmayı tercih eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Özel biri olduğuna inanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	İnsanlar üzerinde otorite kurmaktan hoşlanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Bir üstünden gelen emirlere gönülden itaat eder, uygulamaktan rahatsız olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	
7	İnsanları kolayca manipüle eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Layık olduğunu düşündüğü saygıyı elde etme konusunda ısrarcıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Gösterişi sever, fırsatını bulur bulmaz **insanlara gösteriş yapar, kendisini ortaya koyar.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Etrafında sürekli insanları toplamayı sever.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Daha çok bireysel kalmayı sever.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	İnsanlardan çok şey bekler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	İnsanlar için bir şeyler yapmaktan hoşlanmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Otorite olmak onun için çok önemlidir. Bu yüzden insanlar onun otoritesini kabul etmiş gibi görünür.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	İleride başarılarıyla adından söz ettiren önemli bir insan olacağını vurgular.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Kimseye fikrini sormaz ve ona akıl verilmesinden hoşlanmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	İnsanları istediği her şeye **inandırma konusunda** ustadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Başkaları ona bir şey öğretemez, o kendi kendine yeter.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Sıra dışı biri olduğuna inanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6

BÖLÜM IV

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Aşağıdaki ifadeleri kurumunuzda bir işi yaparken göstermiş olduğunuz performansınızı göz önünde bulundurarak samimi bir şekilde cevaplandırınız.						

1	Kendi işimin bir parçası olmayan işleri de yapmakta gönüllüyümdür.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Gerektiğinde çalışma **arkadaşlarıma yardım eder ve** onlarla işbirliği içerisinde çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Kurum hedeflerini onaylar, savunur ve desteklerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Yönetici veya kurumdaki diğer grup üyelerinin olmadığı anlarda bile talimatlara uyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Kurumdaki gruplarda yer alan diğer kişilerle iş birliği içinde olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Görevi tamamlamak adına engellerin üstesinden gelmek konusunda oldukça ısrarcıyımdır.	1	2	3	4	5	
7	Kurumumu iş dışında da temsil etmek üzere kurumuma uygun duruş sergilerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Kurumdaki bir işi yerine getirirken kestirme **yolları tercih etmek yerine** işin titizlikle yürütülmesi için gereken özveriyi gösteririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Kurumumda bana zorlu görevler verilse dahi üstesinden severek gelirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	İşlerin düzgün ilerlemesi adına ayrıntılara çok özen gösteririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Kurumdaki grup üyelerine **çalışmalarına yardımcı** olmayı teklif ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Herhangi bir yaptırım olmasa bile kurallara uyar ve kuralları savunurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Kurumdaki diğer grup **üyelerine karşı** yardımsever ve saygılıyımdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Bir sorun meydana geldiği zaman grup üyelerini destekler ve cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Kişisel disiplin ve öz denetim için çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Zorlu görevlerle uğraşma konusunda heveslıyımdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Kurumdaki **grubun iyiliği** için yapmamız gerekenden fazlasını yapmaya gönüllüyümdür.	1	2	3	4	5	6

BÖLÜM V

	Aşağıdaki ifadeleri iş ortamınızı, çalışma arkadaşlarınızı ve yöneticinizi kapsamak üzere işe yönelik günlük psikolojinizi göz önüne alarak değerlendiriniz.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	İşe yönelik duygusal olarak bitkin hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Mesai bitiminde kendimi yıpranmış hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Sabahları işe giderken yorgun ve isteksiz hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	İş yerinde bütün gün çalışmak benim için oldukça yorucudur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	İş yerinde bütün gün boyunca deneyimlediklerim mesai bitiminde bana kendimi bitkin hissettiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Aşağıdaki ifadeler kişinin kendisi ile dünya arasında daha iyi ve daha ideal uyuma sahip olması için kendisini değiştirme ve uyarlama teşebbüslerini temsil etmektedir. Hayatınızda olup bitenlere karşı sergilediğiniz durumları lütfen samimi bir şekilde değerlendiriniz.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	İnsanların beni kötülüğe yönlendirmesine karşı koymada başarılıyımdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Olumsuz alışkanlıklarımı **terk etme konusunda** iradeliyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Olumsuz durumlarla karşılaştığımda bile uygun olmayan şeyler **söylememek için** kendime hakim olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Eğlenceli olmaları durumunda benim için kötü olan bazı şeyleri yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Benim için kötü olan ve bana iyi geldiğini bildiğim şeyleri reddedebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Yeterince öz disipline sahip olduğumu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	
7	Diğer insanlar yeterince öz disipline sahip olduğumu söyler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Gerektiğinde hayır demesini bilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Elimdeki işi bırakmaktansa almış olduğum zevkli ve eğlenceli daveti reddetmeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Yorulsam bile bitirmem gereken iş konusunda konsantrasyon sorunu yaşamam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Yanlış olduğunu bildiğim şeyleri yapmaktan kendimi alıkoyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Herhangi bir davranışa geçmeden evvel neredeyse bütün seçenekler üzerinde düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6

BÖLÜM VII

	Aşağıdaki ifadeleri kendi benliğinize yönelik değerlendirmeleriniz ile yanıtlayınız.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Kendimi en az diğer insanlar kadar değerli buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Birçok olumlu özelliklerimin olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Ben de diğer insanların birçoğunun **yapabildiği şeyleri** yapabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Kendimde gurur duyacak birçok şey buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

5	Kendime karşı olumlu bir tutum içerisindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Genel olarak kendimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	
7	Genellikle yaptıklarımın ve kendimin önemli bir değerinin olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Kendime duyduğum saygı oldukça yüksektir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Genellikle kendimi yeterli bir insan olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Genellikle kendimi başarılı bir kişi olarak görme eğilimdeyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

BÖLÜM VIII

	Aşağıda çalışanların işyerinde problemler yaşamalarına neden olan, moral ve motivasyonlarını olumsuz yönde etkileyen ifadeler yer almaktadır. Bu durumlara ne sıklıkta maruz kaldığınızı lütfen samimi bir şekilde ifade ediniz.	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
	İşyerimde……..						
1	….. çalışanların **birbirleriyle dedikodu** yaptıkları ve bu dedikoduların kısa sürede yayıldığı oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	….. çalışanlar arasında küçük düşürücü yada rencide edici davranışları gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	….. bir çalışanın diğer **çalışma arkadaşına** başkalarının yanında küçük düşürücü davrandığını gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	….. çalışanlardan birinin diğerine karşı bezdirici ve yıldırıcı **davranışlar gösterdiğine** şahit oluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	… çalışanlardan birinin diğer(ler)inin sürekli eleştiri ve baskısına maruz kaldığını gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	… çalışanlardan birinin diğer(ler)i tarafından bilinçli olarak görmezden gelinip, dışlanmaya çalışıldığını gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	… çalışanlar arasında tehdit etme ve korkutma gibi **şiddete meyilli** davranışlara şahit oluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	… **tartışmalarda,** birine karşı uygun olmayan **sözel ifadeler kullanıldığını ve hakaret edildiğini** gözlemlediğim oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	… çalışanlardan birinin diğerine karşı **fiziksel saldırganlıkta** (itme, çekiştirme, vurma vb.) bulunduğu oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	… bazı çalışanların diğer kişi iletişim kurarken sürekli telefonuyla ya da bilgisayarıyla ilgilenip göz göze gelmeden konuştuğunu gözlemliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	….bir çalışanın diğeriyle karşılaştığında selamlaşmadığını, görmemezlikten geldiğini gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	… bir çalışanın diğerinin e-postalarına ya da aramalarına bilinçli olarak ya geri dönüş yapmadığı ya da geç yanıt verdiği oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	… bir yöneticinin astına karşı öfke patlaması yaşayarak ağzına gelen ifadeyi düşünmeden sarf ettiği oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	… bazı yöneticilerin etrafında çalışanlara karşı sert ve kaba ifadelerde ve davranışlarda bulunduğunu gözlemliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	… bazı yöneticilerin kendi streslerini ve hıncını diğer çalışanlardan çıkardığı ve saldırganlaştığı oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	… bir yöneticinin astını diğer çalışanlar arasında küçük	1	2	3	4	5	6

	düşürdüğüne ve komik duruma soktuğuna şahit olduğum oluyor.						
17	… bir yöneticinin çalışanlar arasındayken yersiz şakalar ve espriler yaparak tuhaflık yarattığı oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	… bir yöneticinin çalışana hitap ederken ya da kendisinden bahsederken **onu uygunsuz** ifadelerle (isim takma, lakap vb.) andığını gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	… bazı yöneticilerin çalışanların emeğini sömürdüğünü ve suiistimal ettiğini gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	… bir yöneticinin astına karşı düzenli olarak yıldırıcı ve bezdirici davrandığını gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	… bazı yöneticilerin kendi çıkarları ve kazançları için çalışanlara çoğu zaman değersiz ve özensiz davrandığı oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	… **bir yöneticinin, sürekli eleştirme ve baskı kurma yoluyla çalışanının** adeta her hareketini izlediği ve hakkında olumsuz konuşmaya **fırsat aradığı** oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	… bir yöneticinin kendi çıkarları ve kazancı için çalışanlara karşı fazladan ilgi gösterip, övgüler yağdırdığını gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	… bazı yöneticilerin kendi **çıkarları için üstlerine** kendilerini iyi göstermeye ve yaranmaya çalıştıklarını gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	… bir yöneticinin kendi işlerini yaptırana kadar çalışanına son derece güler yüzlü, sevimli ve övgü dolu görünüp, işi bittikten sonra buna son verdiğini gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	… **çalışanlardan** fazla mesai yapmaları ve uzun çalışma saatlerine katlanmaları isteniyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	…. en büyük sorunlardan biri, **çalışanlara kendi asıl işleri** haricinde fazladan iş ve görevlerin veriliyor olmasıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	…. sanki çalışanların insani yönü hiçe sayılıp, buraya ait bir eşyaymış gibi **görülerek durmadan çalışmaları** bekleniyor gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	… çalışanların mesleki ve kişisel gelişimleri için herhangi bir çaba ve uygulamada bulunulmuyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	… bir çalışanın kendisini **kariyer bakımından** geliştirmesi ve ilerlemesi neredeyse mümkün değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	… yeterli performans gösterdiği halde bir çalışanın zamanı geldiğinde terfi edebilmesi ya da kariyerinde ilerleyebilmesi pek mümkün değildir.						
32	…. çalışanların performansının hakkıyla ve adil şekilde değerlendirildiği hususunda şüpheliyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	… bazı çalışanların haksız yere itham edildiğini ya da doğru yaptıklarının dahi eleştirildiğini gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	… kurumdaki güçlü kişilerle arkadaşlığı olan ve üst yönetimle iyi ilişkilere sahip olan çalışanlar diğerlerine göre **daha elverişli ve rahat koşullara** sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	… çalışma ortamının sağlıksız olduğunu (**havalandırma**, ışık, ses, vb.) düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	….beni en çok yoran ve rahatsız eden unsurların başında çalıştığım fiziksel ortam geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	… çalışma ortamının bir gün bende veya çalışma arkadaşlarımda fiziksel-ruhsal hastalıklara neden olabileceğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	… bazı çalışanlara karşı önyargılı ve olumsuz tutumlar beslendiğini gözlemliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

39	… bir çalışana karşı onun kişisel özelliklerinden (inanç, görüş, dış görünüş, etnik köken, yaşam tarzı vb..) ötürü ayrımcılık yapıldığını gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	… birçok süreçte (işe alım, terfi, performans değerlendirme vb. gibi) bazı kişilere karşı öncelik tanındığını, fazladan haklar verilebildiğini ya da olumlu muamele gösterildiğini **gözlemlediğim oluyor**.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	… çalışanların ve yöneticilerin birbirlerine karşı güven duymadıkları izlenimine sahibim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	… çalışanların ve yöneticilerin birbirlerine sanki sadece belli bir karşılık beklentisiyle davrandıklarını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	… çalışanlar kendileriyle ilgili duygu, düşünce ve bilgileri bunun suiistimal edilebileceğini düşünerek diğerleriyle **paylaşmaktan kaçınır.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	… bazı yöneticilerin fiziksel ve ruhsal yönden kendilerini aşırı beğenen, üstün gören, sürekli beğeni, ilgi ve onay bekleyen bir yapıda olduklarını söyleyebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	… bazı yöneticilerin gücü elinde tutmak için astlarını korkutma, baskı kurma ve tehdit etme eğiliminde olduğunu gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	… bir yöneticinin astının duygu ve onurunu hiçe saydığını ve onu incitmiş olmaktan dolayı herhangi bir rahatsızlık dahi duymadığını gözlemlediğim oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47	… ortamın yoğunluğuna, problemlerine ve çalışanlarda yarattığı strese dayanmak gerçekten çok zor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48	… çalışanların üzerindeki yük daima çoktur ve işlerin biri bitmeden diğeri başlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49	… geçen her günün sanki çalışanlara yeni bir stres eklediğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

ANKETİMİZİ YANITLAMAK ÜZERE AYIRDIĞINIZ ZAMAN İÇİN ÇOK TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ.

T.C

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ARAŞTIRMA ETİK KURULU

Sayı:2018-_20_   Tarih: _22.02.2019_

PROJENİN ADI:" **Toksit Örgüt İklimi, Narsist Lider ve İşyerinde Kıskançlık Duygusunun Üretkenliğe Aykırı Çalışma Davranışı, İş Tükenmesi ve Bağlamsal Performans Bireysel Sonuçlarının Üzerindeki Etkisi: Özsaygı ve Öz Kontrol Değişkenlerinin Rolü"**

PROJE YÜRÜTÜCÜSÜ: **Burcu Aydın Küçük**

PROJEDEKİ ARAŞTIRICILAR: Doç.Dr. Seçil Taştan

ONAY TARİHİ VE ONAY SAYISI: 2018-_25/12_

Sayın: **Burcu Aydın Küçük**

2018-_6./4_. Protokol Nolu

"Toksit Örgüt İklimi, Narsist Lider ve İşyerinde Kıskançlık Duygusunun Üretkenliğe Aykırı Çalışma Davranışı, İş Tükenmesi ve Bağlamsal Performans Bireysel Sonuçlarının Üzerindeki Etkisi: Özsaygı ve Öz Kontrol Değişkenlerinin Rolü" isimli projeniz Üniversitemiz Sosyal Bilimler Araştırma Etik Kurulu tarafından incelenmiş ve etik yönden uygunluğuna karar verilmiştir.

Prof. Dr. İsmail Taşpınar

Kurul Başkanı

Prof.Dr. Bihterin Dinçkol   Prof.Dr. İnci Deniz Ilgın
ÜYE   ÜYE

Prof.Dr. Kemal Yıldız   Prof.Dr.A.Mete ÇİLİNGİRTÜRK
ÜYE   ÜYE

Prof.Dr. Nurhan Zeynep Tosun   Prof.Dr. Fatma Ayanoğlu
ÜYE   ÜYE

Prof.Dr.Kemalettin KÖROĞLU   Prof.Dr. Halil Ekşi
ÜYE   ÜYE