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İNGİLİZCE İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNG.) BİLİM DALI

**ADIAPHORIC AGGRESSION:
HIDDEN FORMS OF AGGRESSION IN ORGANIZATIONS**

Doktora Tezi

İHSAN İLKER ÇİTLİ

İstanbul, 2023

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Advisor: PROF. DR. TÜLAY TURGUT

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ABSTRACT

Aggressive behaviors among employees may have devastating effects on the organizations. Thus, thorough ethical codes and regulations have been developed to prevent aggressive behaviors. Employees, on the other hand, may use hidden forms of aggression which are not easily understood by others or not mentioned in ethical codes to protect their position. The present study was aimed to investigate these hidden aggressions. For this purpose: (1) a new framework including hidden forms of aggression was drawn up, (2) an aggression scale, congruent with the framework, was developed, and (3) antecedents of aggression were investigated. Newly developed aggression framework differs from other aggression frameworks by using an ethical perspective for classifying aggression. In the framework, aggressive behaviors were classified as adiaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors. To test the developed framework and proposed antecedents' effects, four preliminary and one main study were conducted with the participation of 679 individuals in total. Initial research was conducted with qualitative content analysis method. 22 employees were interviewed, and aggressive behaviors mentioned by them were analyzed. Second quantitative research was conducted to see 88 practitioners' opinions about the congruency between aggressive behaviors and the developed framework. The third and fourth preliminary research were conducted to develop the initial version of Adiaphoric and Unethical Aggression Scale (AUAS). Lastly, main quantitative research was carried out with a sample of 500 employees. The findings indicated that: (1) AUAS is a valid and reliable measurement tool, (2) level of leader toxicity and job demands has an increasing affect on the employee aggression, and (3) these main effects are mediated by organizational injustice and negative affect. Present study contributes to the organizational aggression literature by investigating the hidden forms of aggression from an ethical perspective.

Keywords: Adiaphoric aggression, Unethical Aggression, Employee aggression, Workplace aggression

ÖZET

Çalışanların saldırgan davranışlarının örgütler üzerinde yıkıcı etkileri olabilir. Bu nedenle, örgütlerde bu tip davranışları engellemek için etik kodlar ve düzenlemeler geliştirilmiştir. Öte yandan çalışanlar da kendi konumlarını korumak için etik kodların kapsamı dışında kalan ve başkaları tarafından kolayca anlaşılamayacak gizli saldırganlık biçimlerini kullanabilmektedirler. Bu çalışmada bu tip gizli saldırganlıkların araştırılması hedeflenmiştir. Bu amaçla: (1) gizli saldırganlık biçimlerini içeren yeni bir kavramsal çerçeve önerilmiş, (2) kavramsal çerçeveye uygun ölçme aracı geliştirilmiş ve (3) saldırganlığın öncülleri araştırılmıştır. Geliştirilen kavramsal çerçevede saldırganlık, etik bir bakış açısıyla adiyaforik ve etik dışı saldırganlık olarak sınıflandırılmıştır. Bu yönüyle literatürdeki diğer saldırganlık sınıflamalarından farklılaşmaktadır. Önerilen kavramsal çerçeveyi ve öncülleri test etmek için toplam 679 kişinin katılımıyla dört ön ve bir ana çalışma yürütülmüştür. İlk araştırmada 22 çalışandan nitel yöntem ile veri toplanmış ve içerik analizi yapılarak saldırgan davranış türleri ve frekansları belirlenmiştir. İkinci araştırmada nicel yöntemle 88 sosyal bilimcinin ilk araştırmadan elde edilen saldırgan davranışlar ile geliştirilen çerçeve arasındaki uyum hakkındaki görüşleri incelenmiştir. Üçüncü ve dördüncü ön araştırmalar Adiyaforik ve Etik Dışı Saldırganlık Ölçeğinin (AEDSÖ) ilk versiyonunu geliştirmek amacıyla yürütülmüştür. Son olarak, 500 kişilik örneklem ile ana nicel araştırma yapılmıştır. Araştırmadan elde edilen bulgular; (1) AEDSÖ'nün geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçüm aracı olduğunu, (2) toksik liderlik ile iş taleplerinin, çalışan saldırganlığını arttırdığını ve (3) bu ana etkilere örgütsel adaletsizlik ile olumsuz duygulanımın aracılık ettiğini göstermiştir. Sonuç olarak bu çalışmanın çalışanlar arasındaki gizli saldırganlık türlerinin ve öncüllerinin özgün bir bakışla incelenmesi bakımından literatüre katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Adiyaforik saldırganlık, Etik dışı saldırganlık, Çalışan saldırganlığı, Örgütlerde saldırganlık

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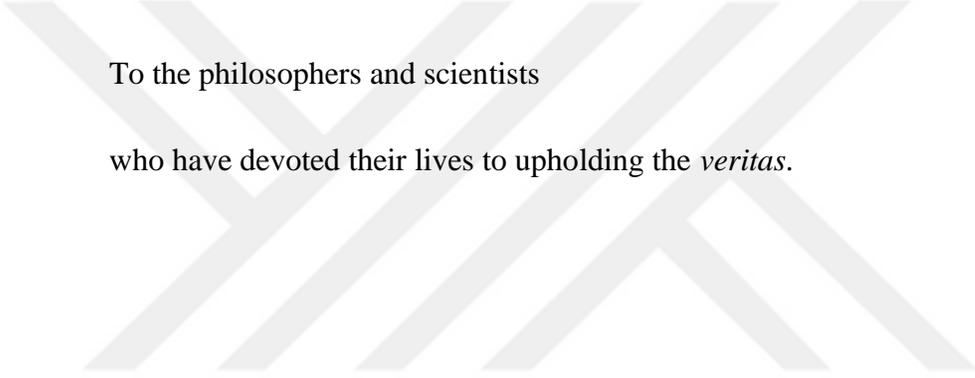
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İHSAN İLKER ÇİTLİ

Istanbul, 2023

DEDICATION



To the philosophers and scientists
who have devoted their lives to upholding the *veritas*.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Staying profitable in highly competitive markets is becoming increasingly difficult in modern business world. Staying profitable is a two-sided coin, one side is maximizing the revenues, while the other is minimizing the costs, and there is no doubt about the employees' effect on these two sides. Thus, creating a positive psychological environment that boosts the employee efficiency is important for organization management.

To create this positive psychological environment, unintended employee behaviors should be managed. In literature, *counterproductive work behaviors* (CWB) term is widely used to refer these kinds of employee behaviors. Widely accepted definition of CWB is “the behaviors that detract from organizational effectiveness rather than advancing it (Ones et al., 2017, p. 109)”

Since CWB decreases the efficiency of workforce, many scholars attracted to investigate the concept. By their rigorous efforts' literature of CWB (e.g., employee misbehavior, deviant employee behaviors, non-compliant behaviors, workplace aggression) has emerged. Moreover, they have used these broad concepts to assess the empirical relationships with other organizational behavior (OB) concepts.

Although it is tempting to define a framework which comprises whole CWB, it is quite difficult in terms of scientific methodology. Because CWB's may be the manifestation of different psychological factors (Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Ones et al., 2017; Sackett, 2002; Sackett & DeVore, 2001). For this reason, CWB studies contain many methodical errors. Their first common error source is mis-conceptualizations. Many behaviors which may be the outcomes of different psychological phenomena are assessed as the outcomes of one broad concept. Furthermore, researchers tried to categorize them according to level of damage and/or the directed target, instead of the psychological factors behind them.

Another problematic aspect of the CWB frameworks is limited representation of subtle and insidious forms aggression. Obvious and explicit forms of aggression which can easily reveal the identity of perpetrator, have been examined more elaborately. However, Kaukiainen et al. (2001), reported that people are more prone to exhibit indirect and minor forms than serious and major forms. Buss (1961) also mentioned that indirect and passive forms are more circuitous ways of inflicting harm rather than other forms. Thus, it is seen that, employees are likely to prefer insidious and subtle ways of aggression more than other forms to protect their selves from counter attacks, social exclusion, or ethical code sanctions.

Lastly, some aggressive behaviors mentioned in these models are outdated and many new forms of aggression (e.g., cyber incivility) have been invented in today's working life. Thus, a literature gap also exists on new forms of aggressive behaviors.

To sum up, counterproductive work behaviors: (1) may be the manifestation of aggression, (2) may be exhibited with an intent to benefit self, (3) or may be exhibited without any cognitive or affective reasons. Thus, conceptualizing all unwanted employee behaviors as a broad concept such as CWB cannot help to understand their reasons. Furthermore, already developed CWB measurement tools need revision.

Many scholars from organizational fields studied aggression with a similar perspective (e.g., Baron & Neuman, 1996; Baron & Neuman, 1998; Neuman & Baron, 2016). These studies contributed to aggression literature; however, they have an important shortcoming regarding their focal point. They addressed overt and serious forms of aggressive behaviors more elaborately than subtle and insidious forms. This narrow research perspective could have stemmed from the idea that serious forms are more harmful and investigating them will be more valuable for literature. When overt and serious forms are compared to subtle and insidious forms one by one, this assumption may be true for some cases. For instance, attacking to a target with a weapon is quite harmful than spreading rumors about the target. But comparing the cumulative effect of subtle and insidious forms with overt and serious forms is more difficult. Because, in daily life, subtle and minor forms

are more widespread than serious and major ones. Thus, cumulative effects of subtle and insidious forms' may be also devastating for organizations.

To get rid of these conceptional and methodical shortcomings, this study was conducted to examine the minor and subtle aggressive behaviors exhibited by employees. This limited focus narrows study's coverage; however, it may lead to a better understanding of subtle and insidious forms of aggressive behaviors among employees.

In this regard, *adiaphoric aggression* (AA) term was used to refer subtle and insidious forms of aggression. The term "adiaphoric" has quite similar meanings in different philosophical schools. But, in common use, it refers to ethically indifferent actions. In other words, if an action cannot be classified as ethical or unethical, then it will be referred as an adiphoric action. For instance, missing a phone call is an adiphoric action, because this action cannot be classified neither ethical nor unethical.

On the other hand, in modern organizations, almost all types of aggressive behaviors are considered as unethical behaviors, and perpetrators may face with sanctions. Thus, employees may prefer to deliver noxious stimuli by the behaviors which cannot be easily classified as unethical. In other words, employees likely to prefer harming the target with adiphoric actions. Furthermore, until the perpetrators admit that they exhibited the adiphoric action with an intention to harm, no one can easily accuse them. Hence, conceptualizing and measuring the adiphoric actions done with aggressive intentions would contribute to employee aggression literature.

The secondary objective of the present study was to investigate antecedents of aggression among employees. Regarding antecedents of aggression, it is obvious that one of the most important ones is leadership. In literature, many studies have been conducted to see the effect of leadership on aggression. Part of these studies' aim was to investigate negative leadership styles' predictive power on aggression (Burton & Hoobler, 2011; Hepworth & Towler, 2004; Kayani & Alasan, 2021; Fauzia Syed et al., 2021). However, number of studies investigating the relationship between toxic leadership and aggression directly is

limited. But fortunately, in a number of studies, researchers reported the predictive power of different leadership styles on the concepts (i.e., deviant workplace behaviors, counterproductive work behaviors) that covers aggressive behaviors partially (S. Y. B. Huang et al., 2021; Iqbal et al., 2021; Ozturk & Poyraz, 2021; Shen & Lei, 2022; Wulani & Junaedi, 2021). Thus, considering the literature, toxic leadership was defined as an antecedent of aggressive behaviors studied in present study.

Another problematic aspect of the modern organizations is high job demands. Employees working under excessive demands, are likely to feel emotions like anger and attitudes like hostility, which can increase the likelihood of aggression. Job demands' effect on the aggressive behaviors has been mentioned in a number studies (Chang et al., 2019; Demir et al., 2014; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). Like toxic leadership studies, concepts which are not focused to aggressive behaviors directly, but covering aggressive behaviors partially were also predicted by job demands. For instance, bullying (Rodwell & Demir, 2012), mobbing (Steele et al., 2020), deviant employee behaviors (Adeoti et al., 2017), and counterproductive work behaviors (Balducci et al., 2011) were predicted by job demands. In light of relevant literature, job demands was defined as second antecedent of aggressive behaviors studied in present study.

These negative antecedents may affect aggression directly or indirectly through other phenomena. Toxic leader's unethical behaviors and high demands may disrupt employees' perceptions about the organization's fairness. Similar to a chain reaction, increased injustice perception likely to trigger anger and hostility which in turn may increase the likelihood of the manifestation of aggressive behaviors. In literature; (1) toxic leadership's predictive power on injustice perception (Reyhanoglu & Akin, 2020; Zhu & Kou, 2014), (2) job demands' predictive power on injustice perception (Bechtoldt et al., 2007; Fox et al., 2001; Proost et al., 2015), and (3) injustice perceptions' predictive power on both aggression and counterproductive employee behaviors (Beugre, 1996; Chory & Hubbell, 2008; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Zhang & Inness, 2016) have been reported. Thus,

organizational injustice defined as a conveyor concept between the antecedents proposed in this study (i.e., toxic leadership, job demands) and aggressive behaviors.

Like organizational injustice perception, negative mood is another phenomenon that may have an increasing effect on exhibition of aggressive behaviors. Negative working conditions, such as working with a toxic superior and/or pressure of high job demands, may put employees in a negative mood. Once employee's mood turned to negative, their propensity to aggression may increase easily as well. Existing literature is also congruent with this theoretical implication. For instance, Weiss and Cropanzano's well regarded affective events theory was built with a similar perspective. According to authors affectivity mediates the relationship between perceived work events and employees' behavioral outcomes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to them, daily job events trigger affective reactions which in turn decreases job satisfaction and increases intention to quit levels. In addition, many other scholars have reported empirical supports on the relationship between: (1) job demands and negative affectivity (Balducci et al., 2011; C. Huang et al., 2021), (2) toxic leadership and negative affectivity (Okray & Huseyinzade Simsek, 2020), (3) negative affectivity and aggression (Aquino et al., 1999; Şulea et al., 2010). Hence, negative affectivity is defined as the second mediator, that acts as a conveyor between the antecedents (i.e., toxic leadership and job demands) and employees' adaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Main aim of present study was to investigate adiaphoric behaviors done with aggressive intentions and possible antecedents of these behaviors. In this regard, literature of aggression, (definitions, typologies) ethics philosophy, and the adiaphorism concept were reviewed in this section. Furthermore, regarding antecedents, literature of toxic leadership, job demands, organizational injustice, and negative affect were reviewed and summarized in this section as well.

2.1. DEFINITION OF AGGRESSION

The term *aggression* is derived from the Latin word *aggredi*, which means to attack, to approach, or to undertake (Merriam-Webster, n.d.-a). Today, it is used to refer the behaviors done with an intention to inflict harm. Similar to its dictionary meaning mostly cited scientific definitions of aggression are; “*a response that delivers noxious stimuli to another organism* (Buss, 1961, p. 2).” and “*any behavior directed toward another that is intended to cause harm* (Plotnik & Kouyoumdjian, 2011, p. 601).” Later, Baron expanded these basic definitions by adding target’s perspective. “*Aggression is any form of behavior directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment* (Baron, 1977, p. 7).” When taken together, it will be seen that all definitions refer to aggressive behaviors as an intentional behavior exhibited to harm the target. It is obvious that, aggressive behaviors are likely to risk the welfare of individuals and societal harmony. Thus, many philosophers and scientists have studied the phenomenon, and in light of these rigorous studies, societies have developed mechanisms (e.g., ethic codes, legal sanctions, preventive educations) to control the prevalence of aggressive behaviors.

2.1.1 Organizational Concepts Related with Aggression

Scholars also investigated the presence of aggression phenomenon within work settings. When these studies are evaluated from a classification point of view, it will be seen that scholars are divided into two schools (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). One of these schools was focused to conceptualize broad concepts such as counterproductive work behaviors , while the other was focused to investigate harmful employee behaviors vis-à-vis psychological factors trigger them (e.g., organizational retaliatory behaviors). Both methods have its own advantages but, unfortunately, they also share similar methodical errors.

One of these comprehensive frameworks was well-known Counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) framework. According to Sackett (2002) CWB refers to

“Counterproductive workplace behavior, at the most general level, refers to any intentional behavior on the part of an organization member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests (p. 5).”

Sackett argued that all behaviors against the interests of organization are counter-productive regardless of psychosocial factors behind them. Similar to Sackett, Gruys (1999) categorized eighty-seven different types of CWB in her comprehensive employee taxonomy (see Table 1). When this framework is assessed from a critical point of view, theoretical shortcomings will be seen. First, behaviors mentioned in this typology may be the behavioral outcomes of quite different psychological factors. Thus, they should be investigated in relation to the psychological phenomena that trigger them, rather than an arbitrarily defined concept such as counterproductive work behaviors. In other words, CWB defined in this framework, may be the outcomes of aggression, unethical selfish drives, laziness, tardiness, or even incivility. Hence, treating them as a single concept may lead to false scientific implications. Moreover, limited representation of aggressive behaviors narrows this framework’s capacity to assess employee aggression comprehensively.

Table 1: Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors

<i>Category</i>	<i>Behavior</i>
Theft and related behavior	theft of cash or property, giving away of goods or services, misuse of employee discount
Destruction of property	deface, damage, or destroy property; sabotage production
Misuse of information	reveal confidential information, falsify records
Misuse of time and resources	waste time, alter timecard, conduct personal business during work time
Unsafe behavior	fail to follow safety procedures, failure to learn safety procedures
Poor attendance	unexcused absence or tardiness, misuse sick leave
Poor quality work	intentionally slow or sloppy work
Alcohol use	alcohol use on the job, coming to work under the influence of alcohol
Drug use	possess, use, or sell drugs at work
Inappropriate verbal actions	argue with customers, verbally harass coworkers
Inappropriate physical actions	physically attack coworkers, physical sexual advances toward coworker

Note. Retrieved from “The dimensionality of deviant employee behavior in the workplace [Doctoral dissertation]” by Melissa L. Gruys, 1999, *University of Minnesota*.

Another early effort to investigate CWB, including aggressive behaviors, was Puffer’s framework. Puffer (1987) developed prosocial and noncompliant behaviors framework to examine both prosocial and noncompliant behaviors of employees. Like other CWB frameworks, employee aggression was also represented limitedly (See Table 2). Several behaviors which may be the manifestation of employee aggression, was mentioned in the framework. However, they were not classified regarding aggression. Furthermore, some behaviors mentioned in the typology (e.g., being late, taking excessive breaks) may not be related with aggression. For instance, employees may exhibit such behaviors due to laziness or incivility. Thus, shortages and lack of comprehensive examination of aggressive behaviors, limit this framework’s usefulness in terms of investigating employee aggression.

Table 2: Prosocial and Noncompliant Behaviors

<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Behavior</i>
Prosocial	Investigating post sale customer service problems
	Assisting other salespeople (e.g., handling their customers' post sale problems)
	Housekeeping (e.g., keeping product displays and catalogs tidy)
	Marking the floor for special sales (i.e., attaching sales tags to merchandise)
Noncompliant	Assisting in general store operations (e.g., opening and closing the store)
	Being late, taking excessive breaks
	Complaining about the company or coworkers
	Violating floor rules (e.g., taking sales from other salespeople)
	Making unrealistic promises to customers (e.g., promising early delivery dates)
	Failing to do fair share of noncommission sales promotions (e.g., phoning customers about upcoming sales, selling account insurance)

Note. Retrieved from “Prosocial behavior, noncompliant behavior, and work performance among commission salespeople” by S. M. Puffer, 1987, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72(4), pp. 615-621, Copyright 1987 by APA Inc.

Another research, which dominates the CWB literature is deviant workplace behaviors (DWB) of Robinson and Bennett (1995). Researchers postulated that counterproductive work behaviors can be defined in relation with two dimensions (See Figure 1). They aimed to measure all counterproductive behaviors as well as aggression in relation to level of seriousness and the target directed. However, the dimensions of their framework do not represent any psychological factor either. For instance, “sexual verbal abuse” and “verbal abuse” classified as serious interpersonal deviant behaviors. But the psychosocial factors behind these behaviors can be quite different from each other. In other words, serious interpersonal deviance cannot be defined as a psychological factor. Another problematic aspect of the model is limited representation of aggression forms. In all 4 deviance domains, only limited number of aggression types are mentioned, and many aggressive behavior types are neglected.

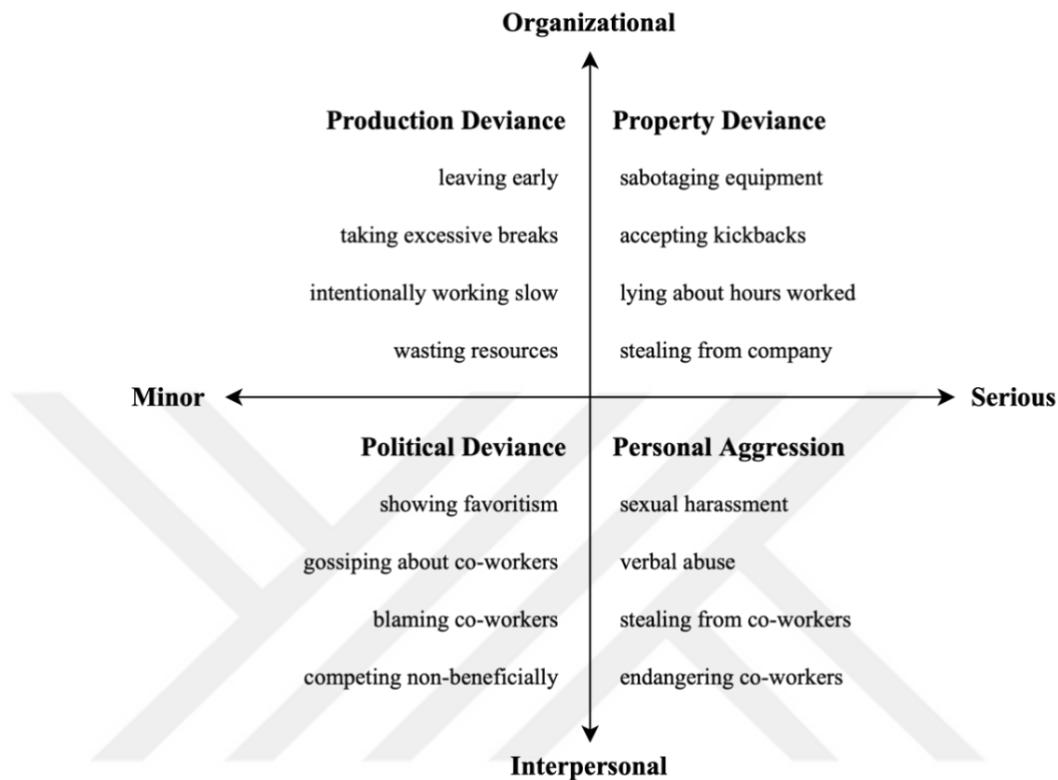


Figure 1: Deviant Workplace Behaviors

Note. Retrieved from “A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study” by S. L. Robinson and R. J. Bennett, 1995, *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(2), pp. 555-572, Copyright by JSTOR.

To sum up, DWB, one of the dominating studies of CWB literature, also contains methodical and conceptual errors. Therefore, using this framework for investigating aggression in organizations may not be appropriate.

Another frequently cited concept in OB literature is organizational betrayal. Unlike deviant work behaviors and noncompliant behavior models, organizational betrayal was aimed to define only the betrayal behaviors of employees. According to Moberg (1997), organizational betrayal consist of destructive and harmful behaviors towards organization with an intention to benefit self or others. Like other CWB frameworks, Moberg also classified these behaviors according to the level of seriousness (See Table 3). Some of these

behaviors likely to be triggered by aggressive drives, but Moberg argued that these behaviors are the exhibition of organizational betrayals related to gains rather than aggression. Even if these behaviors are forms of betrayal, betraying itself can be a subtle and insidious form of aggression. For instance, slowdowns can be the manifestation of aggression due to perceived injustice. Thus, this framework might have another dimension such as betrayal for benefit and betrayal for aggression. Moreover, scope of this model consists of only betrayal behaviors towards organization. But employees may manifest betrayal behaviors to punish other members of their organization as well. For instance, they can lie about the facts to harm other employees. Concisely, betrayal framework should be revised to get rid of these errors and to be more precise for understanding employee behaviors. Even if it is revised, this model to is not comprehensive enough for assessing employee aggression.

Table 3: Organizational Betrayal Concept

<i>Level Of Betrayal</i>	<i>Beneficiaries</i>	
	Self Alone	Self and Others
<i>High</i>	Embezzlement	Treason
	Insider Trading	Espionage
	Self-Dealing	Corruption
	Lying about Facts	Whistle Blowing
	Failure to Disclose Facts	Cover Up
	Shirking	Strikes
	Bureaucratic Opposition	Organized Slowdowns
	Padded Expense Accounts	Sick Outs
<i>Low</i>	Untimely Exit	Unsanctioned Partiality

Note. Retrieved from “On Employee Voice” by D. J. Moberg, 1997, *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 7(4), pp. 41-60, Copyright 1997 by Cambridge University Press Inc.

Retaliation propensity of employees has also been investigated by different scholars. According to Skarlicki and Folger (1997) retaliatory behaviors are employee's reactions against perceived injustice in their organizations (See Table 4). They also defined many retaliation behaviors that are also common in aggression. However, when the model assessed in more detail, conceptual discrepancies, and scholar's fallacy of creating a comprehensive model can be seen again. For instance, behaviors such as “spent time on personal matters while at work” can be triggered by selfish gains rather than retaliation, or “talked back to their boss.” can be the exhibition of aggression directly. Another problematic issue of this framework is the retaliation concept itself. For instance, retaliatory behaviors can be the

exhibition of aggression or manifestation of an obstructionism towards an occupational rival. Hence, claiming that these behaviors are exhibited only with an intention to retaliation may be misleading. Although retaliation and aggression concepts have a strong relationship, the model is not comprehensive enough for assessing all forms of aggression. Thus, this model too has shortages regarding the examination of aggression.

Table 4: Organizational Retaliatory Behaviors

<i>Retaliatory Behaviors</i>
On purpose, damaged equipment, or work process
Took supplies home without permission
Wasted company materials
Called in sick when not ill
Spoke poorly about the company to others
Refused to work weekends or overtime when asked
Left a mess unnecessarily (did not clean up)
Disobeyed a supervisor's instructions'
'Talked back' to their boss
Gossiped about their boss
Spread rumors about coworkers
Gave a coworker a "silent treatment"
Failed to give coworker required information
Tried to look busy while wasting time
Took an extended coffee or lunch break
Intentionally worked slower
Spent time on personal matters while at work

Note. Retrieved from “Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice” by D. P. Skarlicki and R. Folger, 1997, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(3), pp. 434-443, Copyright 1997 by APA Inc.

Weitz and Vardi (2008) proposed misbehavior framework to classify CWB, and they defined three misbehavior types. They named these types as: (1) misbehaviors intended to benefit self (TYPE S), (2) misbehaviors intended to benefit organization (TYPE O), and (3) misbehaviors intended to damage organization (TYPE D) (See Table 5). In the model, Weitz and Vardi classified unwanted employee behaviors regarding to intents of perpetrators. When it is evaluated in detail, similar theoretical shortcomings will be seen again. First, distinctiveness of the factors seems problematic. For instance, same behavior may be done for both self-benefits and organization's benefits. Likewise, same behavior may be exhibited for self-gains while damaging the organization. Hence measurements done with this model may contain errors in terms of scientific methodology. Second shortage is limited and superficial representation of aggression. Only aggressive behaviors directed to organization were included to model. Thus, many forms like aggression directed to other individuals, were neglected. Consequently, misbehavior framework of Weitz and Vardi (2008) may be useful for understanding some types of counterproductive work behaviors, but it is not comprehensive enough in terms of employee aggression.

Table 5: Organizational Misbehavior

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Behavior</i>
Type S	distorting data, stealing, and selling manufacturing secrets, harassing peers,
Type O	falsifying records or offering inducements to improve chances of obtaining a contract for the organization
Type D	sabotage

Note. Retrieved from "Understanding and managing misbehavior in organizations" by, E. Weitz and Y. Vardi, 2008, in C. Wankel (Eds.) *21st Century Management: A Reference Handbook*, pp. 220-230, Copyright 2008 by SAGE Publications Inc.

Another well-known unwanted behavior concept is mobbing. According to Leymann (1990), mobbing is a special communication type towards a person or a group, which exhibited almost every day and minimum of six months. This communication type should have hostile and unethical characteristics. Scholar also developed a mobbing scale which later revised by Zapf et al. (1996). The scale and its dimensions are one of the widely used mobbing frameworks in literature (see Table 6). Many of these mobbing behaviors can be also exhibited with aggressive drives, but the duration and the daily prevalence of the behaviors distinguishes mobbing from aggression. According to Leymann (1990), to define someone's behavior as mobbing, these behaviors must be exhibited for a minimum of six months period, and it must take place frequently (every day). For instance, temporary conflicts cannot be classified as mobbing. Considering Leymann's definition and mobbing behaviors defined by Zapf et al. (1996), it can be argued that some aggressive behaviors may be related with mobbing but not all of them. In other words, mobbing refers to systematic actions directed to a person or a group to force them quit their jobs or withdrawal from current job positions. On the other hand, aggression is aimed to harm the target and it may or may not be related with the target's withdrawal. Moreover, frequency of behavior is not a criterion while defining that action as an aggressive behavior.

Consequently, many types of the aggressive behaviors can be the manifestation of mobbing, but all aggressive behaviors cannot be seen as mobbing. Furthermore, concept is not covering all aggressive behaviors. Thus, mobbing concept too is not useful for investigating all aggressive behaviors.

Table 6: Mobbing

<i>Forms of Mobbing</i>
Attacking the victim with measures
Attacking the victim's social relationships
Attacking the victim's private life
Physical violence
Attacking the victim's attitudes
Verbal aggression
Rumors

Note. Retrieved from “On the relationship between mobbing factors, and job content, social work environment, and health outcomes” by D. Zapf, C. Knorz and M. Kulla, 1996, *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), pp. 215-237, Copyright by Psychology Press, an imprint of Erlbaum (UK) Taylor & Francis Ltd.

Another concept that also shares similar behavioral outcomes with aggression is organizational incivility. Organizational incivility refers to breaking social norms with ambiguous intentions (Maslach et al., 1996; Pearson & Porath, 2005). In contrast to organizational incivility, employee aggression is not limited to social norm breaches. Moreover, uncivil behaviors may or may not be done with an intention to harm, but aggression's distinctive characteristic is the perpetrator's intention to harm the target. Thus, organizational incivility concept is quite different from employee aggression

Like incivility, Duffy et al. (2002) proposed social undermining behaviors in workplace which has also behavioral overlaps with employee aggression. According to Duffy and co-authors, social undermining refers to the behaviors that are “intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation (p. 332).” They also proposed that social undermining has three distinctive characteristics. First, the behavior should be exhibited intentionally to disrupt targets’ social relationships, work success, or occupational reputation. Second, undermining behaviors are not overt or serious acts but insidious or forgivable acts that gradually weaken the target by time. In other words, they do not weaken the target if they are

infrequent, their overall effect adds up by time and repetition. Lastly, Undermining behaviors may take the form of direct actions (e.g., belittling the ideas), withholding actions (e.g., withholding the information), verbal actions (e.g., derogating the target), or physical actions (e.g., intentional slowdowns).

From a critical point of view, Duffy et al. (2002) have pointed out the conceptual, and methodical problems of the leading unintended employee behaviors studies (i.e., counterproductive work behaviors, deviant employee behaviors, antisocial behaviors, workplace aggression). Similar shortages are also argued elaborately and more detailed in present study. Furthermore, they also mentioned the importance of insidious or forgivable acts. However, their study seems to have some other conceptual and methodical shortages as well. First, as they stated in their definition, to classify a perpetrator's behaviors as social undermining that behaviors should be (1) intentional, (2) focused to disrupt social interactions, reputation, or success, (3) repetitive and insidious or forgivable. But in today's organizations, despite many aggressive behaviors are insidious, they may not be repetitive or intentionally exhibited within a plan to hinder the target on the social domains proposed by Duffy and co-authors. Rather, many of them may be triggered with a basic emotion, anger, to harm the target psychologically and/or physiologically. This anger may basically be stemmed from a perceived inequality in social exchanges or many other irritable occasions. Second, despite they stated that employee aggression and social undermining has clear differences, they also pointed out that aggression and social undermining have behavioral overlaps, and many social undermining behaviors are aggressive behaviors. This creates another contradiction regarding measuring or distinguishing social undermining from aggression. Consequently, social undermining may have an overlap with adiphoric aggression in terms of insidiousness, but it distinguishes from adiphoric aggression regarding other specifications proposed by Duffy.

In a nutshell, despite Duffy et al. (2002) pointed out the conceptual and methodical shortages in unintended employee behaviors, but the narrow and blur structure of social

undermining concept limits its ability for examining the workplace aggression comprehensively.

To sum up, many scholars have investigated various types of counterproductive employee behaviors. Through their rigorous investigations, valuable concepts have been developed and broadened scientific knowledge on different façades of counterproductive work behaviors. However, these models were addressing all kinds of counterproductive employee behaviors (e.g. Fox & Spector, 2005; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), and aggression was represented limitedly within their frameworks. Therefore, investigating aggression and its organizational antecedents is not possible by using these broad concepts.

2.1.2 Aggression Studies in Organizations

One of the most prevalent forms of CWB are aggressive behaviors among employees. Thus, some scholars investigated aggressive behaviors directly (e.g. Baron & Neuman, 1996; Björkqvist et al., 1994; Dupre & Barling, 2006; Hershcovis et al., 2007; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996), rather than studying broad CWB concepts. By these scholars' rigorous efforts, employee aggression literature has emerged. Despite, their valuable contributions to literature, these studies have shortcomings as well. But, still, they have illuminated the way for investigating aggressive employee behaviors effectively. Therefore, these models have been reviewed in this section.

One of the pioneering works on aggression was Buss' aggression model. Before working on aggression, scholar had worked on a similar concept—the hostility (Buss et al., 1956). He proposed five hostility dimensions, which were resentment, verbal hostility, indirect hostility, assault, and suspicion. One year after the hostility research, Buss and Durkee (1957) developed their popular Hostility-Guilt Scale with seven dimensions. Later, Buss changed his focus to the typology of aggression and published his well-known aggression typology.

According to him, all aggressive behaviors can be classified with three dimensions. These dimensions are passive/active, indirect/direct, and verbal/physical (see Table 7). It is conceivable that, perpetrators of active and direct forms likely to face with serious sanctions and/or social exclusion. For instance, in physical assault incidents, perpetrators can face strong sanctions such as termination of the employment contract. Thus, employees may avoid such behaviors for the fear of ruining their careers. On the other hand, behaviors like "hiding information from the target" are more insidious, and perpetrators cannot be accused of aggression, until they admit it. Therefore, within an organizational context, passive, and indirect forms could be preferred more than active and direct in forms. Many scholars, including Buss himself, postulated and emphasized similar notions about these insidious forms of aggression. According to Buss (1961, p. 9) "When the attack is passive, it would be difficult for the victim to blame the perpetrator. Dupre and Barling (2006) also argued that organizational aggression models' focus is on serious aggression however cumulative effects of less serious ones may be devastating as well.

Table 7: Aggression Typology of Buss

<i>Aggression Type</i>		<i>Behavioral Outcomes</i>
Verbal	Passive	Direct Not answer the phone
		Indirect Hiding information from the target
Verbal	Active	Direct Yelling and/or giving reprimand to target
		Indirect Gossiping about the target
Physical	Passive	Direct Blocks the things that can be beneficial for the target
		Indirect Not blocking the things that can be harmful to the target
	Active	Direct Physical assault
		Indirect Stealing or damaging targets property

Note. Retrieved from *The Psychology of Aggression* by A. H. Buss, 1961, Copyright 1961 by John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Furthermore, despite the plausibility of his theoretical framework, Buss have not investigated the aggressive behaviors on organizational level. He developed a measurement tool later, but the dimensions of this tool were quite different from his aggression typology framework. Nevertheless, he provided a useful framework for classifying aggressive behaviors.

Turgut (2007) classified common organizational aggressive behaviors, by using the aggression typology developed by Buss (See Table 8). In light of Turgut's organizational aggression classification, it can be argued that passive and indirect forms are more insidious due to their hidden nature, and thus they may be more common in today's working life. The secret nature of these aggression types makes them more difficult to be identified until the perpetrators admit that their intention was to harm the target. In other words, perpetrators can easily get rid of accusations just by refusing that they did this behavior with aggressive intentions. For instance, if an employee has been accused of missing the phone calls intentionally to make the target's work difficult, it is not easy to prove the accusation until the perpetrator admits it. However, insidious aggressions are not limited to indirect and passive aggression forms. Many other types may have been invented. In fact, ordinary behaviors can also be used as a way of inflicting harm. Even an altruistic like behavior can be disguised aggressive behavior

Table 8: Organizational Aggressive Behaviors Classification

<i>Aggression type</i>	<i>Behaviors</i>
physical/active/direct	sexual assault
physical/active/indirect	theft
physical/passive/direct	intentionally working slow
physical/passive/indirect	intentionally going to meetings late
verbal/active/direct	threatening the target
verbal/active/indirect	gossiping about the target
verbal/passive/direct	intentionally missing the phone calls of target
verbal/passive/indirect	intentionally slowing down the information sharing

Note. Adapted from “Kurumlarda ahlaka aykırı davranışlar ve saldırganlık” by T. Turgut, 2007 in S. Tevrüz (Eds.), *Etik Yaklaşımlar ve İş Ahlakı [Ethical Approaches and Work Morality]*, pp. 223-255, Copyright 2007 by Beta Basım.

Another well-known study on aggressive behaviors, without any doubt, is Baron and Neuman’s work. They defined overt and covert forms of organizational violence by using the typology of Buss. According to them, aggression in organizations has overt (physical, direct, active) and covert (verbal, indirect, passive) forms, and they argued that covert forms are more prevalent than overt ones. However, their study results showed that not only covert types but also all other passive types are prevalent among employees (Baron & Neuman, 1996). Hence, their research hypothesis was rejected but their study results provided empirical support about the prevalence of passive forms.

After their first research, Baron and Neuman conducted another study which was addressing workplace violence (Baron & Neuman, 1998). Their second study was aimed to

develop a measurement tool for workplace violence (See Table 9), and they renounced from the overt and covert typology of their previous study. When the dimensions shown in Table 9 evaluated from a critical perspective, theoretical and methodological discrepancies can be seen. The difference between the sub-dimensions is not clear. The hostility dimension consists of both active-physical-direct and active-verbal-indirect behaviors. Obstructionism dimension consists of both passive-indirect and active-direct types of aggression. Lastly, the overt aggression dimension consists of both active and passive forms of aggressive behaviors. Hence, it is plausible to think that theoretical discrepancies between dimensions may increase the number of errors in the measurements done by this scale.

Another problematic issue of this measurement tool is the content of items. According to Baron and Neuman “sexual harassment” is a hostile behavior. However, the combination of sexual drives and low moral development may also trigger such behaviors. Furthermore, in modern world, verbal sexual harassment cannot be regarded as a hostile behavior, but a sexual harassment. It is also considered as a violation of human rights, and perpetrators would face with serious sanctions. Therefore, this measurement tool needs a revision to become more precise and error free. Before an extensive revision, using this tool for studying more complex forms of aggression and its antecedents may be misleading.

Table 9: Workplace Aggression Dimensions

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Behaviors</i>
Hostility	Verbal sexual harassment
	Sending unfairly negative info to higher levels in the company
Obstructionism	Failing to warn the target of impending danger
	Needlessly consuming the resources needed by target
Overt Aggression	Failing to protect the target's welfare or safety
	Steals/removes company property needed by target

Note. Retrieved from “Workplace aggression - The iceberg beneath the tip of workplace violence: Evidence on its forms, frequency, and targets” by R.A. Baron and J.H. Neuman, 1998, *Public Administration Quarterly*, pp. 446-464, Copyright 1998 by SPAEF.

Studies reviewed above contributed to workplace aggression literature, however they also had some theoretical and methodical deficiencies. First, they were focused on obvious and serious forms rather than subtle and insidious forms of aggression. But, in today’s working life, employees tend to develop new subtle and insidious ways of aggression to get rid of sanctions and to protect their status. Thus, the cumulative effect of subtle and insidious aggression may be more devastating for organizations. Another problematic aspect is outdated items of the scales. For instance, many of them do not have items related with cyber incivility, discrimination, sexism, ageism, and other ethical concerns of contemporary work life. Thus, these models must be revised to be valid in today’s working life.

Consequently, in light of the literature and the reasons summarized above indicates a literature gap on examination of subtle and insidious forms of aggression in organizations. For this reason, main aim of present study was: (1) to investigate these behaviors, (2) to measure them, and (3) to reveal the relationships between possible antecedents.

2.2. ADIAPHORIC AGGRESSION: ORIGIN AND DEFINITION

It is known that humankind has a great ability to hide their real intentions by regulating their own behaviors, gestures, and facial impressions. They use this regulation ability more frequently when they do not want to take the responsibility of their behaviors, particularly when their intentions are aggressive. In a similar vein, employees who want to convey noxious stimuli to target, could use this regulation ability to protect themselves from negative consequences. In other words, employees could harm others by the behaviors which could not be classified as unethical by others easily. Wide variety of behaviors can be used for this purpose. For instance, not exhibiting a necessary behavior, may be serving to this purpose.

Classifying aggressive behaviors regarding to their ethical degree may pave the way for understanding these subtle and insidious aggression forms. For this purpose, moral (ethics) philosophy concepts can be used for classifying different types of aggression. Latin word *ethics* refers to a philosophical discipline which deals with defining ethic behaviors, beliefs, and universal moral principles (Merriam-Webster, n.d.-c). According to Socrates, father of moral philosophy, people must pursue moral virtuousness than happiness, because real happiness could only come with moral virtue. Hence, to achieve the moral virtue, people should have the capacity to distinguish good and evil. In other words, people who has the knowledge of ethical behaviors, will live a virtuous life, and thus they will be happy in their entire life (Rahman et al., 2002). Socrates' student and his successor, Plato, later argued that purpose of ethical behaviors is reaching to the *summum bonum*, a Latin expression which refers to ultimate good. According to philosopher, reaching summum bonum could only be possible by wisdom, temperance, and justice. Another ethics philosopher John Lock, the pioneer of political liberalism, defined ethics from human rights perspective. According to him, human rights are litmus test of ethics, and thus, actions that violates human rights are unethical (Aktan, 2009, p. 46).

To sum up, the common goal of these philosophers was to distinguish ethical and unethical actions by defining universal moral principles. These pioneering philosophers' ideas created the essence of ethics and embodied the moral principles that have been used to control the unethical behaviors in modern societies.

Scientists have studied ethics concepts as well. Accordingly, many types of ethics, (i.e., descriptive ethics, meta-ethics, normative ethics, and applied ethics which also comprises business ethics) have been developed (Tevrüz, 2007, pp. 2-3). While business ethics was emerging by these studies, members of organizations started to acknowledge the importance of universal ethics—and more willing to protect it (e.g., human rights, equity, inclusion, social justice). Hence, social reactions against ethical misconducts became stronger in today's working life, and organizations forced to create ethical codes to convince employees about fair working conditions and to protect themselves. For these reasons, today's organizations have detailed internal ethical codes to deal with ethical misconducts or unwanted employee behaviors. Many common types of unethical behaviors and sanctions against them are defined in these codes. However, many grey areas that are not mentioned—or cannot be mentioned—in these codes are still exist. Moreover, perpetrators likely to use these gaps to inflict harm.

In consideration of the ethics literature, it is seen that main goal of ethics is to define universal criteria for defining ethical actions. However, some actions cannot be defined either good or bad. For instance, ambitiousness cannot be classified as good or bad. Some people could classify ambitiousness with personal experiences or attitudes; however, it is not possible to define a universal criterion for classifying this personal characteristic. For instance, a social entrepreneurs' ambition to solve the social problems can be classified as ethical, but a corrupt entrepreneurs' ambition to become rich cannot be classified as ethical. Therefore, ambition alone cannot be classified as an ethical or unethical personal disposition.

Philosophers and scholars have used *adiaphoric* term to mention such actions. Greek word *adiaphoric* (i.e., *adiaphora*, *adiaphoron*, *adiaphorism*, *adiaphorist*) was used to

refer indifference in ancient Greece. Cynics used adiaphoric term to refer inaction. Aristotle used adiaphora to refer things that cannot be distinguished regarding to ethics. In stoicism, adiaphoric refers to actions that are indifferent in terms of societal ethics. According to Stoics, all objects of human pursuit are good, bad, or adiaphoric (Wikipedia, n.d.). In Lutheranism, term used to refer things which are neither commanded nor forbidden in the word of God. In other words, things that are indifferent for God are (Lueker et al., 2010).

In addition to philosophical definitions, Zygmunt Bauman used the “adiaphorism” term to refer: (a) things which are outside the content of ethical expectations of society, (b) things that are ethically unimportant, (c) things that are not mentioned in ethical codes by the ethical authorities due to their low importance (Bauman, 1998). Bauman also proposed novel concepts such as *adiaphoric organizations*, *adiaphoric members*, and *adiaphorization* to refer individuals or groups that are not taking into consideration the ethical rules (Bauman & Donskis, 2016). The term has been mentioned in organizational literature as well. Grigore et al. (2021), used Bauman’s adiaphorization to refer practices that are indifferent in terms of ethics. In their study, they theorized *Liquid Corporate Social Responsibility* as the ambivalence between “*adiaphoric practices* (i.e., instrumental morality, careerism, and self-interest) and *the moral impulse to do good* (Grigore et al., 2021, p. 1).” In Grigore’s research model *adiaphoric practices* refers to the practices which cannot be subjected to ethical assessments. For instance, careerism is neither good nor bad in terms of widely accepted societal and/or organizational ethic codes.

Considering these definitions, it is plausible that adiaphorism concept of moral philosophy can be a useful criterion to investigate subtle and insidious aggression as well. In other words, employees likely to use adiaphoric actions to protect their selves from negative consequences of being an aggressor. Because adiaphoric actions are ethically indifferent, and they are not mentioned in ethical codes or rules. Thus, in present study *adiaphoric aggression* is defined as:

“Subtle and insidious aggressive acts that cannot be subjected to ethical assessments easily by others.”

This perspective distinguishes from other workplace aggression models by the classification criterion. In well-known studies of aggression, scholars have classified aggression according to the degree of seriousness (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Dupre & Barling, 2006), but in present study aggressive behaviors were classified vis-à-vis ethics. In other words, aggressive behaviors are classified as: (1) adiaphoric aggressive behaviors, and (2) unethical aggressive behaviors

In this regard, aggression typology of Buss has been used as the fundament of the new typology proposed in present study. When his typology is evaluated from an ethical point of view, it is seen that indirect and passive forms mostly consist of adiaphoric actions, while active and direct forms mostly consist of unethical actions. Employees who do not want to face with negative consequences likely to choose adiaphoric actions rather than unethical actions. For instance, hitting someone will be perceived as an unethical behavior by others, but remaining silent—instead of sharing the necessary information—would be perceived as an adiaphoric action, which will protect the aggressor from negative consequences. Moreover, adiaphoric aggressions may be more prevalent due to their secret nature, and their cumulative effect may more devastating.

2.3. TOXIC LEADERSHIP AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH AGGRESSION

When literature is reviewed, it is seen that leadership style’s effect on many Ob concepts have been reported by the scholars. CWB and employee aggression are two of these concepts. Furthermore, subordinates of dark leaders are likely to manifest insidious and subtle forms of aggression. Thus, this part was dedicated to review leadership literature especially the toxic leadership framework due to its comprehensive nature.

2.3.1 Leadership: Definition and Theories

The lexical meaning of *leadership* is “to guide on a way especially by going in advance” (Merriam-Webster, n.d.-d). It is derived from old English *leden* or *leoden* which refers to guiding or showing the way (Rost, 1993). Lexical and historical means of the word emphasizes that leaders, somehow, persuades people to act towards a goal. In general organizations can be seen as a group of people, which are acting to achieve common goals (Robbins & Judge, 2013), and leaders are the key members of effective organizations. For this reason, many scholars have studied leadership characteristics, traits, and styles.

According to Stogdill (1950, p. 2) leadership is “the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement”. Another well-known leadership definition is “Leadership is an attribute that involves combination of a meaningful vision with the ability to influence others by non-coercive means to act in a certain way” (Kotagal & Pellegrini, 2015, p. 1). Robbins and Judge (2018) defined leadership as the ability to lead people for achievement of a goal. Considering these definitions, it is seen that an effective leader should have three capabilities: (a) ability of influencing the group, (b) setting common goals, and (c) guiding the group towards the goals with effective and supportive ways.

Scholars have a consensus on some characteristics of an effective leader, however their perspective on how one can become an effective leader is quite different from each other. Regarding this difference, leadership theories can be classified in two different classes: (a) trait theories which are focused to define personal characteristics of a good leader, and (b) behavioral theories which are focused to define effective leadership behaviors in order to train leaders (Robbins & Judge, 2013). In other words, these theories investigate “whether one is born or made as a leader” (Schein, 2004, pp. 1-2). According to trait theoreticians, leaders are born, not made. Hence, theories like big five (Goldberg, 1992) and 16 personality factors (Cattell, 2001) have been focused to investigate personality types of good leaders. On the other hand, behavioral theoreticians argued that leaders are made, not born, and good

leadership is related with learned skills, not with personal dispositions. Thus, behaviorists' focus was defining behavioral patterns which are necessary for becoming an effective leader. Leadership styles such as authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), transformational & transactional leadership (Burns, 1978), ethical leadership (Brown et al., 2005), shared leadership (Carson et al., 2007) are some of the well-regarded behavioral models.

In both school, vast majority of studies aim was to investigate how "good leaders" should be in terms of ethics. However, in modern world, behaviors of leaders are far more complex than argued in these studies models. They are not exhibiting effective and humanistic behaviors on every occasion. In fact, some leaders, such as Hitler, are considered as the stereotype of evil. Hence, dark side of leadership has also attracted scholars and some scholars aimed to investigate dark side of leadership.

2.3.2 Dark Side of Leadership

One of the pioneers who mentioned dark side of the leadership on literature was Kotter. According to the researcher, leadership is: "the process of moving a group (or groups) in some direction through mostly non-coercive means" (Kotter, 1988, p. 16) . This definition differs from other leadership definitions by its emphasis on "mostly non-coercive means". In other words, leaders can use coercive methods on some occasions.

Another well-known dark-side leadership theory is *abusive leadership*. According to Tepper (2000, p. 178), abusive leadership refers to "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact." Despite Tepper's definition exclude physical contact, definition covers all other abusive behaviors, and researcher reported the negative effect of abusive supervision on turnover, commitment, work and family conflict and distress.

Tyrannical leaders are also examined by scholars, Ashforth (2016), proposed *petty tyranny* concept to acknowledge dark side of leadership. According to scholar, petty tyrants are "one who lords his or her power over others" (p.755). Petty tyrants distinguish from others

by exhibiting behaviors including arbitrariness, self-aggrandizement, belittling other, lack of consideration, a forcing style of conflict resolution, discouraging initiative, and noncontingent punishment. Moreover, scholar also investigated antecedents and consequences of petty tyranny leadership style. Despite Ashforth's study efforts contributed to the body of dark side leadership literature, petty tyranny model had two shortcomings, (1) the model was not addressing all harmful leadership behaviors, and (2) consequences proposed by Ashforth were limited with withdrawal behaviors.

Destructive leadership of Einarsen is another well-regarded dark-side leadership concept. According to scholar destructive leadership refers to:

“The systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, supervisor, or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organization by undermining and/or sabotaging the organization's goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction of subordinates (Einarsen et al., 2007, p. 2).”

Furthermore, Einarsen argued that four leadership styles can be defined regarding to two dimensions which are named as pro-organizational or anti-organizational behaviors, and pro-subordinate or anti-subordinate behaviors (See Figure 2). Within these styles, derailed and tyrannical ones are the most destructive one's.

Destructive Leadership model was more comprehensive than previous dark side leadership models, and it was covering both destructive behaviors towards organization and subordinates (Einarsen et al., 2007). However, its coverage was limited.

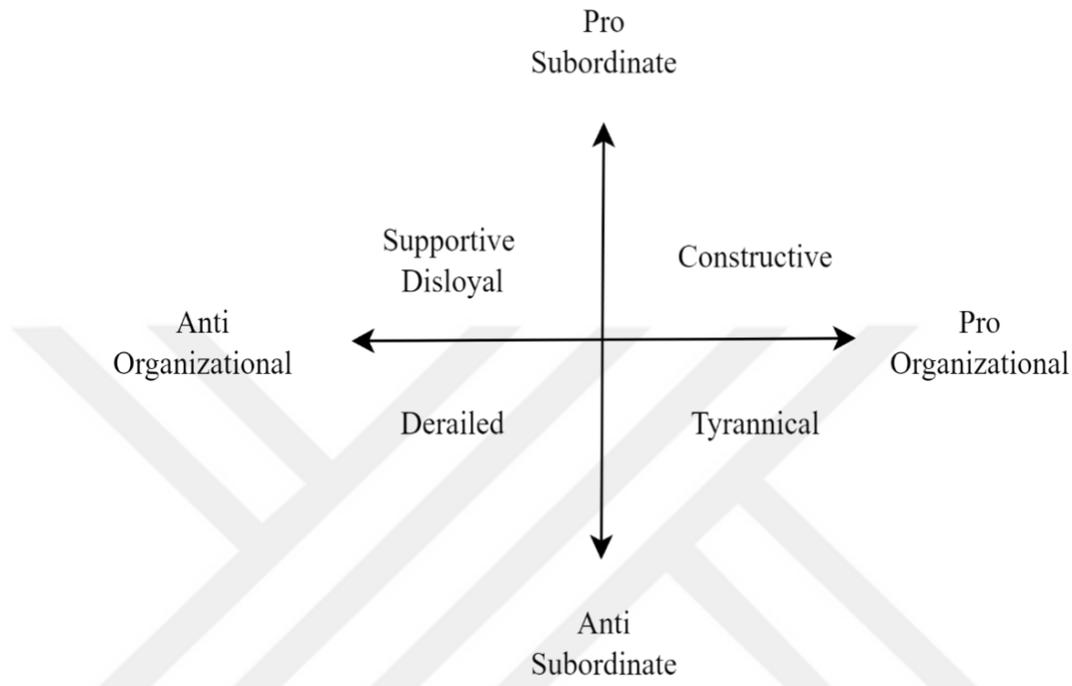


Figure 2: Destructive Leadership Behaviour: A Definition and Conceptual Model

Note. Retrieved from “Destructive leadership behaviour: A definition and conceptual model” by S. Einarsen, M. S. Aasland and A. Skogstad, 2007, *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), pp. 207-216, Copyright 2007 by Elsevier.

2.3.3 Toxic Leadership: Definition and Dimensions

One of the most comprehensive dark-leadership models is *toxic leadership* (TL) model of Lipman-Blumen (2005a). Due to its comprehensive nature and elaborated sub-dimensions it is widely used in organizational literature. According to Lipman-Blumen (2005b, p. 2) Toxic Leaders are: “*those individuals, who by dint of their destructive behaviors and dysfunctional personal qualities generate a serious and enduring poisonous effect on the individuals, families, organizations, communities, and even entire societies they lead.*”

In toxic leadership model researcher's main aim was to investigate toxic behaviors exhibited by the leaders. She also reported that toxicity of a leader differs time to time. Same leader may dispose different types and levels of toxicity. Moreover, leaders can manifest different types of toxic behaviors to certain employees. In other words, same leader may be an evil for one employee, but a hero for another (Lipman-Blumen, 2005b).

When literature is reviewed regarding measurement of toxic leadership, it is seen that measurement tool developed by Schmidt (2008), have been used in vast majority of TL studies. According to scholar, toxic leadership consists of abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, narcissism, self-promotion, and unpredictability dimensions. In other words, toxic leadership can be seen as an umbrella concept which covers many traits mentioned in other dark-side leadership models.

Abusive supervision dimension refers to leaders' abusive behaviors (e.g., threats about terminating work agreement). In literature abusive leadership is defined as "*sustained display of hostile and verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact*" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). According to Schmidt (2008), abusive supervision is one of the dimensions of toxic leadership since it includes "nonverbal and intentional destructive behaviors (p. 7)." Scholar also argued that Tepper's measurement tool should be revised to be more comprehensive and precise.

Authoritarian leadership refers to leaders' decisions which are done without consultation with followers. These kinds of leaders expect unquestioned obedience from followers. In situations such as crisis management or routine tasks authoritarian leadership style may be effective to some extent, but in normal situations this leadership style may increase followers dissatisfaction (Kotagal & Pellegrini, 2015). According to Schmidt (2008) authoritarian leadership behaviors are also manifested by toxic leaders regardless of the situation. In other words, toxic leaders, exhibit these behaviors when they are not necessary. In literature authoritarian leadership styles' negative effect on task performance, (Chan et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2011), in-role and extra-role performance (Schuh et al., 2013;

Shen et al., 2019), employee silence and organizational citizenship behaviors (Ahmad Bodla et al., 2019; Chan et al., 2013) have been reported by scholars. Furthermore, authoritarian leadership behaviors' effect on CWB concepts (Aydinay et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2017) was also reported by scholars.

Narcissism dimension is related with grandiose self-importance feelings of leaders (Schmidt, 2008). When narcissism literature is reviewed, it is seen that one of the most common definition of concept is: “ *a pattern of grandiosity, need for admiration, and lack of empathy (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 645).*” Narcist personalities distinguish from other personalities by: (a) grandiose sense of self-importance, (b) unlimited success, power, or beauty fantasies, (c) beliefs about the being a “special” person (d) require excessive admiration, (e) sense of entitlement for favorable treatment, (f) exploitative behaviors, (g) lack of empathy, (h) envious of others, and (i) arrogant behaviors (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Concept also attracted scholars' attention. Kets de Vries and Miller (1985) argued that, narcissistic personal characteristics is an important factor on the orientation of leaders, and narcissism types defines many behaviors of leaders. Schmidt (2014) reported that narcissism is one of the dimensions of toxic leadership.

Self-promotion refers to leaders behaviors that are done to promote self (Schmidt, 2008). These behaviors can be seen as normal in today's working life since every employee exhibit self-promotion behavior for careerism. Indeed, curriculum vitae are kind of self-promotion documents prepared by employees. However, self-promotion behaviors of toxic leaders consist of unrealistic behaviors. For instance, changing behaviors in the presence of supervisor, or denying responsibility of mistakes are self-promotion behaviors of a toxic leaders.

Unpredictability dimensions consist of toxic leaders' arbitrary behaviors. Schmidt (2008) reported that leader's arbitrary toxicity may be perceived more toxic by the followers than consistently toxic behaviors. In other words, daily changes in leader's supportive and toxic behaviors creates more distress than a leader who consistently exhibits toxic behaviors.

Indeed, subordinates of toxic leaders stated that, they rather prefer to work with a consistent toxic leader rather than working with an inconsistent toxic leader. Thus, Schmidt (2008), defined unpredictability as another dimension of toxic leadership.

2.3.4 The Relationship Between Toxic Leadership and Adiaphoric Aggression

Number of studies investigated the relationship between toxic leadership and employee aggression is limited. However, relationships between other leadership styles and the concepts that includes aggression were reported in a number of studies. The positive relationship between dark leadership styles (i.e., destructive, toxic, laissez faire, despotic, narcissistic, and abusive) and; (1) aggressive reactions (Burton & Hoobler, 2011), (2) deviant employee behaviors (Haider et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2017), and (3) counterproductive work behaviors (Aydinay et al., 2021; Puni et al., 2016; Qayyum et al., 2020) have been reported. On the other hand, constructive leadership styles' (i.e., transformational, and ethical) hindering effect on; counterproductive work behaviors (Budiasih & Yogasari, 2019; Göktaş Kulualp & Koçoğlu, 2019), and deviant employee behaviors (Evans et al., 2021; Pradhan, 2014) was reported as well. Hence, in light of empirical support provided by these studies, it can be argued that leadership styles have an effect on aggressive behaviors of employees.

From a similar perspective, behaviors of a toxic leader, may adversely influence subordinates, and these subordinates: (1) may feel irritated and thus, they may exhibit aggression, or (2) may perceive the aggressive behaviors of leader as the key to success in that organization and copy them. In both psychological states, level of adiaphoric and unethical aggression may increase.

To sum up, it is plausible that subordinates of a toxic leader, likely to demonstrate both adiaphoric and unethical forms of aggression. Thus, first hypothesis was stated as;

H_{1a}: Toxic leadership has a positive relationship with adiaphoric aggression.

H_{1b}: Toxic leadership has a positive relationship with unethical aggression.

2.4. JOB DEMANDS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH ADIAPHORIC AGGRESSION

When the literature is reviewed to gain insight about the high demanded jobs' effect on employees, it will be seen that job demands affects many organizational concepts. CWB (Balducci et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2017), aggression (Enwereuzor et al., 2018), employee deviance (Hammes & Walsh, 2017), and workplace incivility (Koon & Pun, 2018) are some of these concepts. Hence, the probability of job demands to have an increasing effect on adiphoric aggression is high as well. For this reason, this part of the present study was devoted to a review of job demands literature and its relationship with aggression.

2.4.1 Job Demands: Definition and Theories

In modern organizations managing the costs effectively is vital for the existence of organization. One of the important façades of costs efficiency is employee salaries. Thus, many organizations are trying to reduce the number of employees. However remaining employees are expected to cover the duties of those who laid off. Consequently, job demands on remaining employee increases. Scholars, with a similar perspectives, investigated high job demands effects on stress. One of the early efforts for understanding occupational stress was *demand-control model (DCM) of job strain*. In DCM, Karasek (1979), proposed that job strain is caused by the joint effect of work demands and decision latitude (job control). According to his framework: (1) Employees experience higher degrees of job strain when they are working in high demanded jobs with low decision latitude. (2) Employees, who are working under high demanded positions with a high decision latitude, are more active and they develop new behaviors. (3) Employees working in low demanded jobs with low control, are in a passive mode and their activity levels are limited. (4) Employees working in low demanded jobs with decision latitude, will feel lower strain, unlike high demands and low control environments. Karasek's model was the pioneering research for examining job demands effect on employee stress.

Like demand-control model, Demerouti et al. (2001) , developed job demands-resources (JDR) model of occupational stress. Demerouti proposed that different jobs have their own characteristics, and these characteristics may alter the stress levels of employees. Despite, characteristics of jobs vary among the organizations, it is possible to categorize them as demands and resources (Rothmann et al., 2006). According to Demerouti et al. (2001, p. 501), demands are “physical, social, or organizational aspects of the jobs that are associated with physiological and mental costs (e.g., exhaustion)”. Moreover, they defined job resources as (1) functional things which makes achieving goals easier, (2) the things that decrease the job demands’ effects on employees, and (3) the things that stimulate personal growth and development. Demands defined by them were workload, time pressure, recipient contact, and physical environment, while job resources are, feedback, rewards, job control, participation, job security, and supervisor support. In sum, job demands & resources model of Demerouti et al. (2001) can be seen as an extended version of demand control model (Karasek, 1979). Main difference between Karasek’s and Demerouti’s model was their perspective about job resources. According to Karasek, control on job is the only psychological resource, however, in JDR, Demerouti offered many resources which may hinder employees’ strain levels.

Another model of job strain is effort-reward imbalance (ERI) model of Siegrist (1996). Siegrist postulated that strain levels of employees is related with the balance between given efforts and gained rewards. According to scholar, efforts can be intrinsic (e.g., need for control), or extrinsic (e.g., obligations, demands), while rewards are money, esteem, and status control. One of the unique characteristics of ERI is *status control*. According to Siegrist, every work setting has its own characteristics. Some of these characteristics may threaten, employees’ feelings about their own knowledge, efficacy, and esteem, which, may interrupt their feeling of control over intrinsic rewards. To define this feeling Siegrist proposed self-control concept and added that self-control is one of the most important perceived rewards. To sum up, Siegrist’s job stress model differs from other models by its emphasis on rewards. Author claims that high demands may not increase job stress if sufficient rewards are given to employees.

According to Caplan (1987), who proposed well-known *person-environment fit* model, job strain is related with fit between person and environment. person environment fit refers to “process of adjustment between organizational members and their working environment” (Caplan, 1987, p. 249). Moreover, stress arises neither from the person nor from the environment. Stress arises because of the incongruity between person and environment. And this simple but powerful notion was used as a fundament for many stress and well-being theories (Edwards et al., 1998). In today’s working life, many HR professionals are using Caplan’s fit concept to recruit the nominees who fits best to their organization and to make efficient job placements.

Hackman and Oldham’s job characteristics (JC) model is another well-known model of job stress. According to authors, critical job dimensions (i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) create positive psychological states (i.e., meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge about results), and these positive psychological states: (1) increase the employees’ performance, and (2) decrease their turnover intention (Hackman & Oldham, 1974).

Scholars also investigated dimensions of job demands concept. One of the widely accepted factor structures was developed by Xanthopoulou et al. (2007). Their research has provided empirical support for workload, emotional demands, emotional dissonance, and changes at work dimensions. Workload dimension refers to the degree of physical loads. If employees perceive high physical demands relative to their daily shift or the salary, they perceive high levels of workload. Emotional demands dimension is related with the degree of emotionally challenging situations in the work. Employees working in emotionally challenging roles feel more demands because of the additional efforts they give to regulate their emotions. Emotional dissonance dimension is related with emotion labor expected from employees. In other words, it refers to discrepancy between employee’s real emotions and expected emotions from them. If the discrepancy is high, that employees feel higher levels of emotional dissonance at work. Lastly, changes at work dimension refers to the degree of perceived unexpected changes in their work settings. Unexpected role changes and duties

increase the degree of perceived job demands because adaptation to new situation brings additional intellectual demand.

2.4.2 The Relationship Between Job Demands and Aggression

Scholars also studied results of job demands. In vast majority of these studies job demands' relationship with negative employee behaviors have been reported. Distress related with high demands has a positive relationship with soldier's counterproductive work behaviors (Chen et al., 2017; Tucker et al., 2009). High demands have an increasing effect on bullying behaviors among employees (Smoktunowicz et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2011). High demands increasing effect on incivility (Torkelson et al., 2016) have been also reported. Adeoti et al. (2017) reported a positive relationship between job demands and employee deviance.

In addition to these main effects, types of job demands and concepts including aggression or sharing common behavioral outcomes with aggression was also studied by scholars. Workload's relationship with cyber incivility (Zhou et al., 2022), cynicism (Viotti et al., 2021), interpersonal deviance (Adeoti et al., 2021) aggression and bullying (Bernstein & Batchelor, 2022) was reported by researchers. Moreover, Bechtoldt et al. (2007) found empirical support for the relation between changes at work and counterproductive work behaviors.

Scholars also studied high demands relationship with aggressive behaviors of employees. The positive relationship between work demands and aggression among nurses have been reported in several studies (Chang et al., 2019; Demir et al., 2014; Enwereuzor et al., 2018)

Considering the literature, it can be argued that employees faced with high job demands will experience more distress and they may likely to exhibit adiabatic and unethical aggressive behaviors. Thus, second hypothesis was stated as:

H_{2a}: Job demands has a positive relationship with adiphoric aggression.

H_{2b}: Job demands has a positive relationship with unethical aggression.

2.5. MEDIATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL INJUSTICE

Before *organizational justice* (OJ) was emerged as a concept in literature, pioneering researchers' aim was to examine inequity perceptions of employees. One of the well-known efforts was Adam's *Inequity Theory*. According to him, inequity arises when persons "whenever his perceived job inputs and/or outcomes stand psychologically in an obverse relation to what he perceives are the inputs and/or outcomes of other (Adams, 1963, p. 424)." Adams' theory paved the way to development of OJ concept. According to Fox et al. (2001), OJ refers to employees' perceptions about the fairness of the treatment on workplace. Like Fox, Cropanzano and Molina (2015) postulated that organizational justice refers to workers' perceptions about the fairness of their organization. When employees believe that the treatment among members is fair, they tend to show higher performance, better work attitudes. On the other hand when they believe that the treatment among members is unfair they tend to show unintended employee behaviors or attitudes.

As concept gained popularity among researchers, different sub-dimensions of OJ have been investigated. Widely accepted and studied sub-dimensions of OJ are distributive, procedural, and interactional justice types.

Distributive justice refers to fair allocation of resources. For doing so resources should be distributed according to equity, equality, and need components (Cropanzano et al., 2007). In literature, distributive injustice's relationships with bullying (Samsudin et al., 2020), CWB (Flaherty & Moss, 2007), anger (Stouten et al., 2013), deviant work behaviors (Khattak et al., 2021), and directly with aggression (Chory & Hubbell, 2008) were reported by scholars. These study results also support the possible relationship between distributive injustice and aggression forms (i.e., adiphoric, and unethical) studied in present study.

Procedural justice refers to appropriate allocation of the formal procedures. To guarantee the fairness; all employees should be treated equally, any discrimination should not be involved to allocation, decision making should be done with objective information, all stakeholders must involve in decision making processes related with themselves, and each step of the conduct must comply professional ethical codes (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Scholars studied the outcomes of procedural injustice as well. Procedural injustice's effect on CWB (Jones, 2009), negative employee behaviors (Greco et al., 2019), aggression towards supervisor (Greenberg & Barling, 1999), and psychological contract breach (Peng et al., 2016) have been reported in number of studies. Taken together, these research results can be seen as supports to proposed relationship between procedural injustice and aggression forms (i.e., adiaphoric, and unethical) studied in present study.

Lastly, interactional justice refers to authority figures' appropriate and fair treatments towards their subordinates. To do so, figures representing the authority should treat employees with dignity and relevant information should be shared with subordinates clearly (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Interactional injustice's relationship with organizational outcomes was also studied by various scholars. Its relationship with negative affect (Yi & Gong, 2008), retaliation (Skarlicki et al., 1999), CWB (Flaherty & Moss, 2007; Le Roy et al., 2012), and lastly aggression (Burton & Hoobler, 2011) was reported in literature. In light of the mentioned study results and theoretical explanations, it seems plausible to argue that interactional injustice may increase the occurrence of aggression forms (i.e., adiaphoric, and unethical) studied in present study.

Employees who perceive their organization as an unjust place are likely to develop negative feelings towards their organization which in return may trigger aggression. The relationship of perceived injustice and aggression was also mentioned in different fields of social sciences. For instance, According Dollard et al. (1939) aggression is a behavioral reaction triggered by frustration. Likewise, Homans (1974), postulated that if individuals do not get the rewards they expected or they get a punishment that they do not expect, they may exhibit aggression. Moreover, this relationship was also studied within organizational

context. Study results showed that perceived organizational injustice may trigger workplace aggression (Chory & Hubbell, 2008; Coşkun & Balcı, 2020). Furthermore, the relationship between injustice perceptions and CWB models covering aggression have been reported in literature as well. For instance, Polatçı and Özçalık (2015) found empirical support for the relationship between perceived injustice and counterproductive behaviors. Syaebani and Sobri (2013), reported a positive relationship between injustice and deviant work behaviors. In a nutshell, the relationship between organizational injustice and concepts which also include aggressive behaviors, have been mentioned by many scholars.

On the other hand, from an organization-wide perspective, many characteristics of an organization (e.g., salaries, succession plans, vested benefits, ethical policies) may be related with organizational injustice perceptions of employees, but some characteristics may have more devastating effects than others. Firstly, leadership style may predict organizational injustice perceptions of employees. This predictive power comes from leader's authority and power. If leaders' behaviors are arbitrary, abusive, coercive, destructive, or toxic, injustice perception of employees may easily increase. Moreover, leaders have the ability to alter many other organizational phenomena which in turn can increase the injustice perception among employees as well. Thus, leadership can be seen as one of the important predictors of organizational injustice.

This implication is also in line with relevant literature. For instance, increasing effect of abusive supervision (Aryee et al., 2007) and toxic leadership (Edwards, 2019; Reyhanoglu & Akin, 2020) on organizational injustice were reported by scholars. On the other hand, positive effect of transformational leadership (Akar & Üstüner, 2019; Mauludin & Sulistyorini, 2018), and ethical leadership (Bağrıyanık, 2017; Engelbrecht et al., 2018; Fox et al., 2001; Xu et al., 2014), have been also reported. Considering these studies, it can be argued that leadership style may have a predictive power on organizational justice. In other words, harmful leadership styles increase the injustice perception, while employees working with supportive leaders perceive less organizational injustice.

To sum up, it seems plausible to argue that toxic leadership may foster adiaphoric and unethical aggression via perceived organizational injustice. Thus, third hypothesis was stated as:

H_{3a}: Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and adiaphoric aggression.

H_{3b}: Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression.

Organizational injustice may have conveyor role on the relationship between job demands and adiaphoric aggression as well. Employees working in high demanded jobs, may feel that their effort is not reciprocated by the organization. This imbalance feeling, may nurture organizational injustice perception, which in turn may pave the psychological path for aggressive behaviors. Hence, employees more likely to demonstrate aggressive behaviors when they perceive the organization as an unjust place. Relevant literature also supports this theoretical implication. The association between high demands and injustice have been reported by scholars (e.g., Hassard et al., 2017; Narisada, 2020). Moreover, the relationship between models of job stress, including various job demands, and organizational injustice was also mentioned in literature. The relationship between job demands and distributive justice (Clements & Kinman, 2021; Narisada, 2020), and distress' effect on injustice perception (F. Syed et al., 2021) were reported in a number of studies.

In light of the theoretical implications and study results, it is plausible to argue that organizational injustice mediates the relationship between job demands and adiaphoric and unethical aggression. Thus, fourth hypothesis was stated as;

H_{4a}: Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between job demands and adiaphoric aggression.

H_{4b}: Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between job demands and unethical aggression.

2.6. MEDIATING ROLE OF NEGATIVE AFFECTIVITY

Affectivity is an umbrella concept, which refers to short-lasting but intense affective reactions (i.e., emotions) and long-lasting but less intense affective reactions (i.e., positive, and negative moods) Thus, to understand affective reactions clearly, emotions and moods should be understood.

The word emotion is derived from Old French *esmovoir* and from its Latin form *emovēre*, which means to remove or to displace (Merriam-Webster, n.d.-b). Nowadays, the emotion word is used to refer strong feelings like love, fear, etc. (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.). Emotions and their effects on human behaviors have been attractive topics for the scholars since the very beginning of psychology science. Thus, many studies have been conducted on these topics and many quite similar definitions of emotion concept have been emerged. One of the well-regarded ones is “subjective feelings that have a positive or negative value for the individual (Hayes & Stratton, 2022, p. 113).” Same scholars also reported that emotions may trigger physiological changes (e.g., hearth rate, blood pressure), and cognitive changes (e.g., limiting the intellectual skills) as well. Another distinctive characteristic of the emotions is facial impressions. Emotions can be distinguished by universal facial impressions which can be easily understood by others (McShane & Von Glinow, 2021).

Since the very beginning of emotion studies (i.e., approximately 120 years ago) researchers divided into two schools which are discrete and circumplex schools. Discrete Emotion scholars advocated that emotions are discrete (e.g., anger, fear, disgust) and must be studied one by one. For instance, a well-known discrete emotions study was conducted by Ekman (1973). According to scholar all humans have six basic emotions which are joy, surprise, contempt, sadness, disgust, and anger. Furthermore, facial impressions related with these emotions are universal, and each individual has the ability understand distinguish these facial impressions regardless of their cultural background.

On the other hand, circumplex scholars argued that, emotions are emerged in relation to some psychological dimensions (Rogelberg, 2007). One of the pioneering studies of circumplex school was conducted by Russell (1980). According to researcher, emotions can be described by an affect circumplex which consists of pleasure vs displeasure, and arousal vs sleepiness dimensions. These dimensions were also referred as valance and arousal dimensions. Russel also added that these dimensions are not independent but interrelated. In other words, all emotions are embodied by the combination of these dimensions. For instance, happiness could be related with both pleasure and arousal dimensions. (See Figure 3).

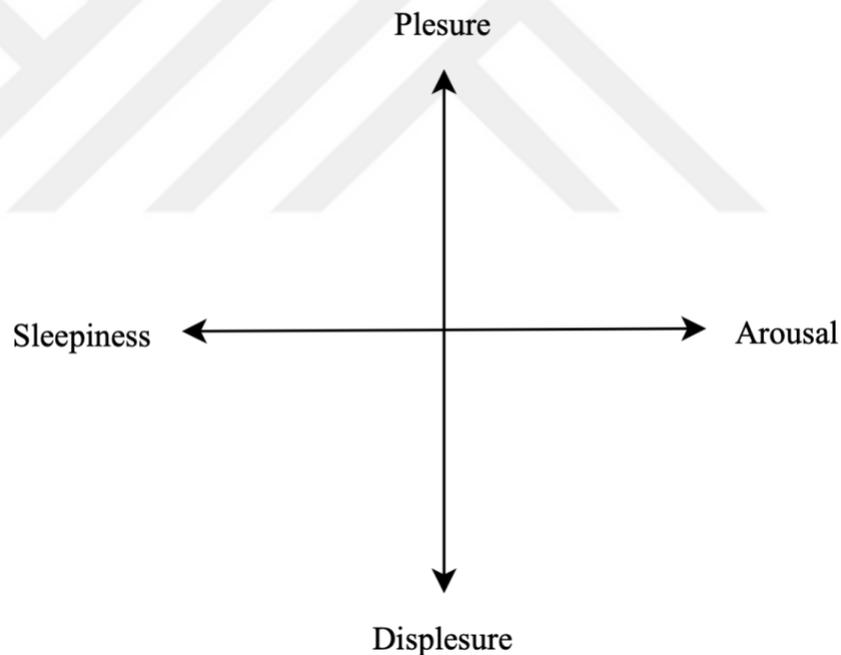


Figure 3: Circumplex Model of Emotions

Note. From “A Circumplex model of affect” by J.A. Russel, 1980, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39(6), p.1164, Copyright 1980 by APA Inc.

Regardless of the different perspectives of the schools, scholars from both schools have argued that emotions are intense but short-termed affective reactions towards a specific

source which may have psychological, cognitive, and physiological outcomes. Furthermore, many different types of emotions, such as pleasure, tenderness, exist.

On the other hand, mood is used to describe feelings which are less intense but last longer. Moods are not aroused by a specific stimulus, nor directed to a specific source in contrast to emotions. However, emotions could pave the psychological way for mood changes. For instance, when a particular work event makes an employee angry, its effect would become less intense by time, however the remaining less intense negative feeling may evolve to a negative mood. Furthermore, once the negative mood become dominant, that person would likely develop more negative emotions to other work events. Thus, it is seen that there is an interplay between emotions and moods (Robbins & Judge, 2013). For instance, when a manager directs insulting criticism to an employee in front of others, that employee would likely to feel negative emotions such as anger, shame, helplessness etc. After a while, that employee's negative emotions would lose their intensity, but less intense emotions may alter employee's mood from positive to negative. Hence the employee would develop more negative emotions to future work events and may exhibit unwanted behavioral responses such as aggression.

Scholars have also proposed different classifications for moods. For instance, Hersey (1932) classified moods as positive, negative, and neutral in relation with emotions. According to Watson et al. (1988), in vast majority of mood studies, two factor structure (i.e., positive, and negative moods) have been supported empirically. Positive mood consists of long-lasting positive emotions' (e.g., proud, enthusiastic, interested) combination, while negative mood consists of long-lasting negative emotions' (e.g., guilty, scared, hostile) combination. Watson also developed Positive Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS) which is a well-regarded and widely used measurement tools for measuring affectivity.

On the other hand, in early management era, which is named as classical management era, scholars were focused on assessing the best way of doing jobs. Thus, affective and cognitive sides of workers was neglected or represented limitedly (Robbins &

Coulter, 2012). scientific management (Tylor, 1911) and general administrative theory (Fayol, 1920; Weber, 1947) were the pioneering researches of this era. The purpose of the first was to investigate best way of doing a job while the latter was aimed to reveal how management should be done, but both were ignoring the psychological aspect of employees. Even, Max Weber himself, was advocating the impersonality principle, which means uniformed applications and rules must administered to every employee regardless of their personal characteristics (Robbins & Coulter, 2012).

After this initial management studies era, researchers focal point changed to human factor in organizations. The main distinction of the era could be seen as the emphasis to workers psychology; hence this era is also named as OB era. By this focal change, behavioral management era, which is shaped by the behavioral approach in psychology, have been started (Robbins & Coulter, 2012). One of the leading studies of this era was Hawthorne studies (Mayo, 1933). Hawthorne studies revealed that individuals are altering their behaviors according to social expectations when they are surveilled or when they are working as a part of group. This research was a breakthrough for management studies since early management studies were not emphasizing humanistic side of workers. They were seeing workers as the rational decision makers who are driven by the motivation of increasing self-gains. However, Hawthorne studies revealed that workers could behave irrationally on some occasions due to their emotions and attitudes. Thus, researchers acknowledged the importance of psychology and started to study psychological façades of organizations (Robbins & Coulter, 2012).

Job related affectivity concept is one of the concepts flourished by this behavioral management era. Revealing the affectivity phenomenon's effect on employees has also attracted scholars from OB field. By the rigorous efforts of these scholars, employees' emotional responses to daily work events have been investigated. Furthermore, many scholars studied causes and consequences of emotions in organizational context. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), in their well-known affective events theory (AET), argued emotions as the mediator concepts which conveys the daily work events' effects to behavioral responses

and work attitudes of employees. According to AET, work events trigger affective reactions, which may alter employees' work attitudes and behaviors. Thus, effect of affectivity on work settings is also important for increasing the efficiency of human resources. In other words, workers are not the computer programs or machine-like objects that makes logical decisions, but they are emotional creatures whose behaviors influenced by their affectivity. For this reasons workers affectivity should be taken into consideration during the investigation of employee behaviors.

Considering the relevant literature, it is plausible argue that, like social life, working life itself can alter employees' moods. Furthermore, their mood in social life and work can be quite different. Thus, from OB point of view, present study was aimed to investigate work related mood in relation with aggression. Scholars were also attracted with the effects of work life on moods of employees. When literature is reviewed with this perspective, the number of studies investigating the effect of toxic leadership on job related negative affectivity is limited, however other leadership styles' effect on affectivity was reported. For instance the relationship between abusive supervision and affective commitment of employees is reported by Aryee et al. (2007). Michel et al. (2013) found that abusive supervisions relationship with workplace deviance mediated by work related negative affect. On the other hand, the relationship between job related negative affect and aggression (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hepworth & Towler, 2004; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Toro et al., 2020) was also reported by scholars. In light of the theoretical implications and study results summarized above, the fifth hypothesis of this study was stated as;

H_{5a}: Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and adiphoric aggression.

H_{5b}: Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression.

High demands can also alter employees' affective states. Employees working in high demanded works, may feel extensive pressure which in return may make them more reactive to work events in an angry manner. Moreover, as mentioned above experiencing negative emotions such as anger, can put employees in a negative mood towards their job as well. Literature also supports this relationship. Balducci et al. (2011) reported that affectivity plays a conveyor role on the relationship between high job demands and CWB. (C. Huang et al., 2021) found empirical support for mediating role of negative affectivity on the relationship between job demands and distress. Lastly, Vantilborgh et al. (2016) also reported the mediator role of negative affectivity on the relationship between high demands and perceived psychological breach.

Considering these theoretical implications and study results summarized above, sixth hypothesis of this study was stated as:

H_{6a}: Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between job demands and adiphoric aggression.

H_{6b}: Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between job demands and unethical aggression.

Considering the literature review, theoretical implications, and hypotheses, the research model of this study is shown in Figure 4. Accordingly, toxic leadership and job demands are defined as the possible antecedents, while organizational injustice and negative affectivity as mediator variables which convey the antecedent concepts' effect on adiphoric and unethical aggression.

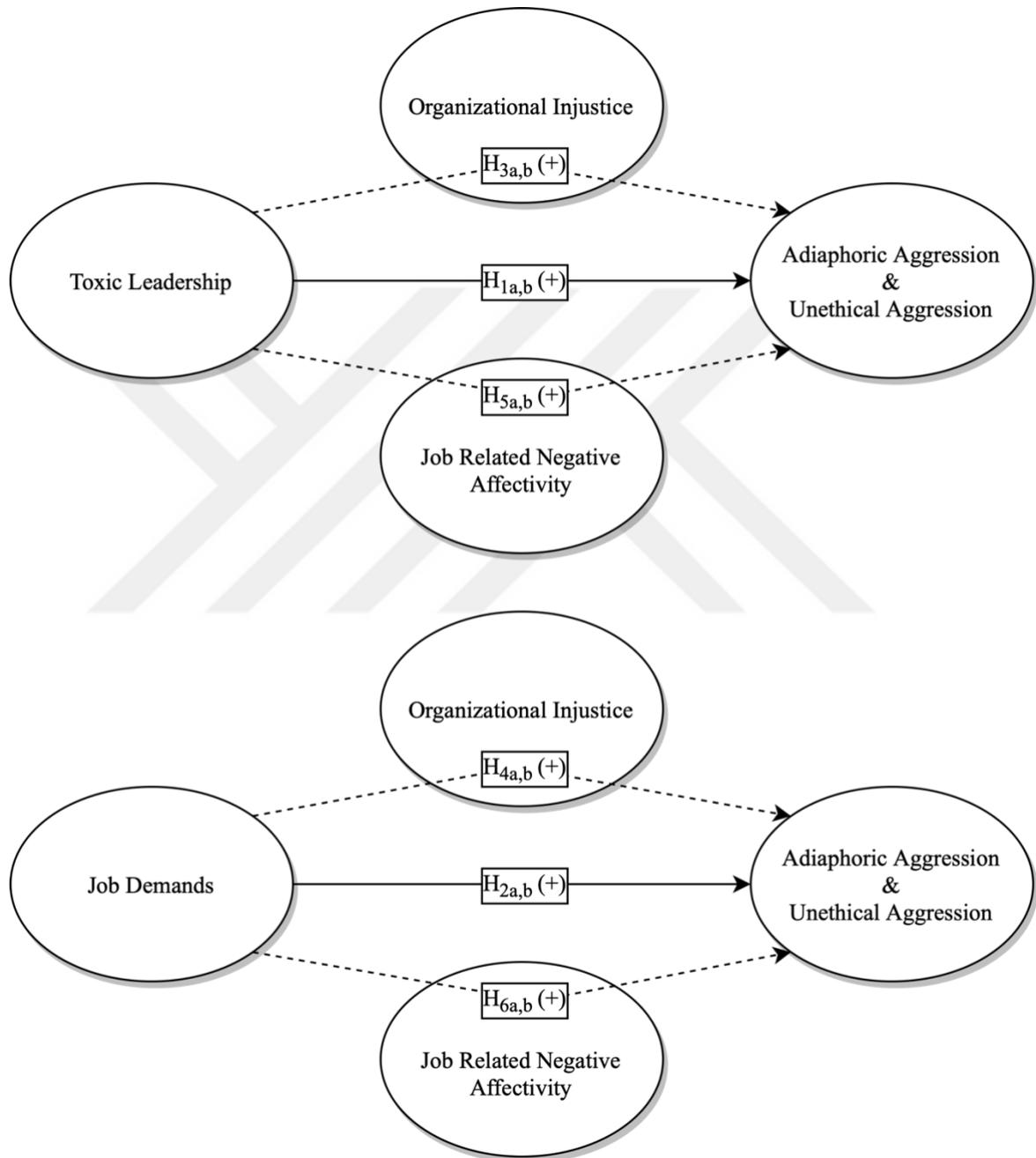


Figure 4: Research Model

3. METHOD

Ambiguous factor structures of unintended employee behavior models, and literature gap on hidden and insidious forms of employee aggression in organizations was the starting point of present study. In this respect, subsequent preliminary studies were conducted before main study.

First preliminary study was a qualitative study which was conducted with an exploratory spirit to gain a better understanding about experienced aggression forms by the employees. Furthermore, in light of this research, a new framework (i.e., adiaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors) was developed. Second preliminary study was conducted to see the experts' opinions about the proposed new concept's coverage. A checklist, consists of aggression forms derived from initial research, was sent to experts to see their opinions about the clarity of proposed hypothetical framework. Third preliminary research was conducted to collect experts' scorings about the item pool developed in light of first and second preliminary research. In this regard, item pool was sent to eight academicians from related fields to get their feedbacks about face and content validity. Afterwards, item pool was revised according to their feedbacks. Last preliminary research was the pilot research of newly developed aggression scale. A survey consist of item pool and scales of research model was sent to 88 white-collar employees. In light of this pilot study item pool was reviewed and necessary revisions were made again.

After preliminary studies main quantitative research was conducted to assess the relationships between adiaphoric and unethical aggression, toxic leadership, job demands organizational injustice, and negative affect. To gain a better understanding about parallel mediation proposed in model, conditional process analysis method developed by Hayes and Stratton (2022) was used.

3.1. PRELIMINARY STUDIES

To develop a measurement tool for investigating adiaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors, a series of preliminary studies have been conducted. These studies were aimed to: (1) explore new types of both adiaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors, (2) explore their prevalence, and (3) investigate the relationships with possible antecedents.

3.1.1 Preliminary Study 1: Exploration of Adiaphoric and Unethical Forms of Aggression

Main aim of this preliminary study was to define aggressive behavior patterns, categorize them, evaluate their prevalence, and address the antecedents perceived by private sector employees. In this regard, an exploratory qualitative study was conducted.

3.1.1.1. Sample

Snowball sampling technique was used to invite participants from researcher's professional network. Twenty-seven white-collar employees, working for private sector organizations based in Istanbul accepted to participate the study. Three of them were excluded from the sample due to their jobs' inadequate structure (one was running his own company, two were working remotely as a freelancers) and two of them refused to participate after they read the informed consent. Consequently, study was conducted with a sample of 22 respondents. Regarding demographical distribution, of the participants, 13 were female, 9 were male, ages were between 22 and 53 years, tenures were between 2 and 30 years, and 10 of them had managerial positions.

3.1.1.2. Procedure & Instrument

Before starting the interviews, an online informed consent form (See Appendix A) has been sent to all participants to take their written consent. Due to Covid-19 restrictions, interviews were conducted with video conferencing method. Length of video interviews were varied between 20 and 70 minutes.

Interviews started with short answered demographical questions. These questions were addressing respondents' age, gender, tenure, educational level, number of the employees working in their organizations, and their managerial position.

After the demographical questions part, sixteen open-ended questions were directed to participants (See Appendix B). First ten questions were aimed to address (a) perceived aggression types, (b) behaviors related with these aggression types, and (c) prevalence of these behaviors (e.g., Are you witnessing aggressive behaviors among your colleagues, how often?). Last six questions were aimed to investigate perceived antecedents of aggressive behaviors (e.g., what is the most important reason that triggers your colleague's aggression).

3.1.1.3. Findings

In first step, interviews have been transcribed. To get a better understanding of the data, the researcher has read these transcripts several times. Afterwards, transcripts were analyzed with inductive coding method and thematic analysis by qualitative data analysis package (Ronggui, 2012) of R statistical computing program (R Core Team, 2013). Aggressive behavior forms mentioned by respondents coded, and these codes have been grouped under the predefined themes of Buss' typology.

After categorization of aggression codes and themes, frequencies were calculated. It was seen that many new forms of aggression (e.g., sending bcc mails to administrators to reveal the targets mistakes, making things to expose target to the monotonous job tasks, psychological violence) which have not stated in previous studies were mentioned by employees. Furthermore, in-line with the aim of the present study, calculated frequencies supported that indirect and passive forms were more prevalent than active/direct forms (See Table 10).

Table 10: Themes and Frequencies

<i>Coded Aggressive Behaviors</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>Themes</i>	<i>Forms of Aggression</i>
Agresif tavırlar	18		
Alay etmek, iğnelemek	22		
Aşağılama, küçümseme	27		
Bağırma/Ses Yükseltme	36	<i>Active-Direct</i> <i>f= 147</i>	<i>Unethical Aggression</i> <i>f= 147</i>
Fiziksel Saldırı	7		
Hakaret, Küfür	20		
İftira atmak	5		
Sözel kavga	4		
Tahdit etmek	8		
Dedikodu	44		
Hatalarını aleyhte kullanma	38		
İş yükünü arttırmak, angarya işler, imkânsız işler, monoton işler	23		
Kaba/nezaketsiz iletişim	30	<i>Active-Indirect</i> <i>f= 170</i>	<i>Adiaphoric Aggression</i> <i>f= 246</i>
Memnuniyetsiz davranışlar, söylemler, söylenerek iş yapma	7		
Sabotaj	3		
Yanlış yönlendirme	3		
Yönetici yetkilerini olumsuz biçimde kullanmak	4		
Yöneticiye şikayet	18		
İletişim kurmama, yok sayma, görmezden gelme	18	<i>Passive Direct</i> <i>f=24</i>	
Sosyal İzolasyon, dışlama	6		
Bilgi saklama	12		
İşi eksik, geç, özensiz yapma, hiç yapmama	21	<i>Passive-Indirect</i> <i>f=52</i>	
Yanlış uyarmamak	5		
Yardım etmemek	14		

Note. *f* = Frequencies

3.1.2 Preliminary Study 2: Expert Options

Preliminary Study 2 was conducted to see the options of experts from related social science fields (i.e., psychology, psychological counselling) about the aggressive behaviors extracted from initial research and their congruence with the typology of Buss.

3.1.2.1. Sample

Snowball sampling technique have been used to reach the participants from researcher's professional network. 102 respondents answered the survey questions, but 19 of them excluded from the sample due to their inadequate expertise. Remaining 83 was defined as the sample of study. Of the respondents, 31 were university students, 51 had bachelor's degree, one had master's degree and two had doctoral degrees

3.1.2.2. Procedure & Instrument

To collect the data, due to Covid-19 restrictions online survey method was chosen. Aggressive behavior forms extracted from the first preliminary research, were sent to respondents and they were asked to classify these behavior patterns according to passive/active and direct/indirect aggression types proposed by Buss (see Appendix C).

First part of the survey was consisting of informed consent and short answered questions about university degree and field of study. Second part of the survey was consisted of descriptions about the aggression typology of Buss (1961), and aggression codes of Preliminary Study 1. Respondents were asked to choose the best category for each aggression code presented in this part. Categories were defined as AD = active-direct, AI = active-indirect, PD = passive-direct, or PI = passive-indirect.

3.1.2.3. Findings

After data collection process, data was analyzed with R statistical computing program (R Core Team, 2013). To see the respondents' total categorization, percentages of each category for every code (See Table 11) was calculated. To assess whether the results significantly differ from chance probability or not, Chi-square test of probabilities method was used. This method is a statistical test for investigating the statistical difference between a given distribution and chance distribution (Navarro, 2016).

Proposed themes and experts' opinions about the congruence of the categories largely matched with each other (see Table 11). However, "Hedef kiřiyle kaba ve nezaketsiz řekilde iletiřim kurmak." and "Hedef kiřiye yardım etmemek." behaviors were classified in different themes. Despite respondents did not classify these two items under the proposed themes, they were still in-line with the adiphoric aggression and unethical aggression typology postulated in present study. Another problem was seen in "Hedef kiřiyi sosyal izolasyona maruz bırakmak, dıřlamak." behavior. Respondents' scores were equal for active-direct and passive-direct themes. This equality may have been caused by the confusing lexical meaning of the code. Some respondents may have thought that code was referring to doing something for social exclusion, however, the code was referring to staying in a passive mode to create a social exclusion for the victim. For instance, not inviting victim to coffee-breaks or lunches. To get rid of this error, items related with this code were revised before pilot study. Calculated percentages and significance levels of the distributions are shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Test of Probabilities

<i>ITEMS</i>	<i>Hyp.</i>	<i>AD</i> (%)	<i>AI</i> (%)	<i>PD</i> (%)	<i>PI</i> (%)	x^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Hedef kişiyi küçümsemek, aşağılamak.	AD	84.71	5.88	4.71	4.71	161.64	3	0.00
Hedef kişiye hakaret etmek, küfretmek.	AD	94.12	1.18	1.18	3.53	216.69	3	0.00
Hedef kişinin yüzüne karşı iftira atmak.	AD	84.71	5.88	3.53	5.88	161.73	2	0.00
Hedef kişiyle sözel kavga etmek.	AD	90.59	7.06	2.35	0.00	125.67	2	0.00
Hedef kişiyi tehdit etmek.	AD	82.35	12.94	3.53	1.18	151.75	3	0.00
Hedef kişiyle alay etmek, iğnelemek.	AD	78.82	14.12	7.06	0.00	79.79	2	0.00
Hedef kişiyle kaba ve nezaketsiz şekilde iletişim kurmak.	AI	69.41	11.76	12.94	5.88	90.39	3	0.00
Hedef kişiye ses yükseltmek, bağırarak.	AD	91.76	3.53	3.53	1.18	202.20	3	0.00
Hedef kişiye karşı agresif tavırlar sergilemek.	AD	91.76	5.88	2.35	0.00	130.75	2	0.00
Hedef kişiye fiziksel saldırıda bulunmak.	AD	91.76	2.35	1.18	4.71	202.29	3	0.00
Hedef kişiyi yöneticisine şikâyet etmek, yöneticiyi dolduruşa getirmek.	AI	9.41	70.59	8.24	11.76	94.44	3	0.00
Hedef kişinin arkasından dedikodu yapmak.	AI	9.41	68.24	10.59	11.76	84.84	3	0.00
Hedef kişiye ağır, yapılması imkânsız, monoton veya angarya işler vermek.	AI	25.88	49.41	16.47	8.24	32.32	3	0.00
Hedef kişinin tanık olabileceği şekilde memnuniyetsiz davranışlarda, söylemlerde bulunmak. Söylenerek işini yapmak.	AI	17.65	51.76	11.76	18.82	33.45	3	0.00
Hedef kişiyi sabote edecek davranışlarda bulunmak.	AI	38.82	41.18	10.59	9.41	30.72	3	0.00
Hedef kişiyi yanlış yönlendirmek.	AI	37.65	40.00	12.94	9.41	26.29	3	0.00
Hedef kişiye zarar vermek için yönetici yetkilerini olumsuz bir şekilde kullanmak.	AI	31.76	44.71	9.41	14.12	27.05	3	0.00
Hedef kişinin hatalarını onun aleyhinde kullanmak.	AI	36.47	38.82	12.94	11.76	21.87	3	0.00
Hedef kişiye yardım etmemek.	PI	8.24	3.53	69.41	18.82	93.59	3	0.00
Hedef kişiyle iletişim kurmamak, yok saymak, görmezden gelmek.	PD	9.41	12.94	63.53	14.12	67.71	3	0.00
Hedef kişiyi sosyal izolasyona maruz bırakmak, dışlamak.	PD	31.76	23.53	31.76	12.94	8.13	3	0.04
Hedef kişiden bilgi saklamak.	PI	9.41	12.94	51.76	25.88	37.59	3	0.00
Hedef kişinin yanlışlarını bilerek uyarmamak.	PI	8.24	9.41	57.65	24.71	54.06	3	0.00
Hedef kişiyi zor durumda bırakmak için işi eksik, geç, özensiz yapmak.	PI	4.71	24.71	22.35	48.24	32.60	3	0.00

Note. *Hyp* = Hypothetical factors proposed by researcher, *AD* = active-direct, *AI* = active-indirect, *PD* = passive-direct, *PI* = passive-indirect, x^2 = chi squared, *df* = degrees of freedom, *p* = p-values.

In conclusion, Preliminary Study 2 showed that respondents from behavioral science fields have also classified these behaviors similar to the classification proposed in present study. Only, three behavioral patterns were classified differently, 21 was classified in the same proposed classes. In other words, there was 87.5% match between the classes proposed by the researcher and the classification done by 83 respondents.

3.1.3 Preliminary Study 3: Item Pool, Face & Content Validity

Preliminary Study 3 was dedicated to refinement of initial item pool, defining permanent items for pilot study, and consider face and content validity. In this regard, items, written by researcher were sent to scholars from related fields to collect their ratings about face and content validity.

3.1.3.1. Sample

Eight academicians from researcher's academic network have been invited to score item pool and provide feedbacks about the items' validity. Of the academicians, five had PhD degrees on Organizational Behavior, one had PhD degree on management, one had PhD degree on psychology, and one was a PhD student on forensic psychology.

3.1.3.2. Procedure & Instrument

To collect data an online form was sent to respondents. The form was including 66 items and their expected dimensions. Respondents were asked to rate (0= totally incongruent, 10 = totally congruent) each item, regarding their congruency with the proposed dimensions and write their suggestions about the item.

3.1.3.3. Findings

After data collection part, average scores for every item was calculated by R programming language for statistical computing (R Core Team, 2013). Items with low averages excluded or rewritten considering the suggestions of academicians.

Considering the academicians' contributions about the face and content validity of items, pilot measurement tool was created with 48 assessed items.

3.1.4 Preliminary Study 4: Pilot Study

In light of the findings about the face and content validity of scale, some items are re-written or excluded, and a pilot study has been conducted to gain insight about the scales' reliability scores and correlations among study variables.

3.1.4.1. Sample

Pilot study was conducted with the participation of white-collar employees from İstanbul Province. Snowball sampling technique was used to reach the sample of the study and 88 employees responded to survey. Of the respondents, ages were between 26 and 50 years old, tenures were between 1 to 27 years, 63 were females, 25 were males, 64 were single, 24 were married, 2 had high school graduate, 58 had bachelor's, 23 had master's and 4 had PhD degrees,

3.1.4.2. Procedure & Instrument

Due to Covid-19 restrictions, online data collecting methods were used. An online survey link was sent to participants and their responses have been collected. Online survey form was consisted of three parts. First part was including informed consent and a check box for admitting the informed consent. Second part was consisted of demographical questions which were addressing gender, age, tenure, marital status, education, sector, department, number of workers, income, and managerial positions of participants. Third part was consisted of toxic leadership, job demands, organizational injustice, negative affectivity scales and item pool of Adiaphoric and Unethical Aggression Scale (AUAS) in present study (see Appendix D).

3.1.4.3. Findings

In order to evaluate the pilot survey data, means, standard deviations, correlation coefficients among variables and Cronbach's alpha scores were calculated (see. Table 12). Cronbach's alpha coefficients of all scales were higher than .70 cut-off point defined for social sciences (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Correlation coefficients among variables were also in line with present study's hypotheses. Thus, it was concluded that newly developed AUAS's item pool and scales chosen for measuring the proposed antecedents had enough reliability and correlation scores for conducting main study.

Table 12: Correlations of Pilot Study

Study Variables	M	SD	Aggression	Adiaphoric Agg.	Unethical Agg.	Toxic Leadership	Authoritarian T.L.	Narcissistic T.L.	Unpredictable T.L.	SelfPromo T.L.	Job Demands	Workload	Emo.Demands	Emo. Dissonance	Changes at Work	Org. Injustice	Distributive Inf.	Procedural Inf.	Interpersonal Inf.	Informational Inf.	Neg Affectivity	
Aggression	2.03	0.81	(.98)																			
Adiaphoric Agg.	2.19	0.92	.99**	(.98)																		
Unethical Agg.	1.47	0.54	.86**	.81**	(.83)																	
Toxic Leadership	2.57	1.02	.68**	.65**	.74**	(.96)																
Authoritarian T.L.	2.56	1.02	.62**	.58**	.69**	.83**	(.85)															
Narcissistic T.L.	2.52	1.22	.63**	.60**	.72**	.94**	.71**	(.94)														
Unpredictable T.L.	2.49	1.14	.60**	.58**	.66**	.91**	.72**	.80**	(.91)													
SelfPromo T.L.	2.70	1.13	.59**	.58**	.60**	.88**	.60**	.81**	.76**	(.88)												
Job Demands	3.29	0.72	.55**	.54**	.47**	.57**	.52**	.46**	.57**	.53**	(.93)											
Workload	3.70	0.89	.25*	.23*	.30**	.48**	.45**	.40**	.48**	.40**	.69**	(.84)										
Emo.Demands	3.12	0.92	.55**	.55**	.43**	.51**	.49**	.39**	.50**	.49**	.86**	.61**	(.86)									
Emo. Dissonance	3.45	0.94	.53**	.52**	.45**	.47**	.45**	.38**	.42**	.45**	.80**	.36**	.69**	(.94)								
Changes at Work	3.05	0.90	.36**	.36**	.29**	.37**	.29**	.30**	.41**	.34**	.77**	.40**	.47**	.41**	(.88)							
Org. Injustice	2.88	0.96	.70**	.68**	.68**	.79**	.74**	.67**	.76**	.69**	.63**	.44**	.60**	.57**	.39**	(.95)						
Distributive Inj.	3.47	1.15	.53**	.53**	.44**	.48**	.43**	.36**	.50**	.47**	.55**	.41**	.59**	.46**	.31**	.76**	(.93)					
Procedural Inj.	3.06	1.06	.59**	.58**	.56**	.60**	.61**	.49**	.55**	.55**	.58**	.39**	.54**	.54**	.37**	.89**	.68**	(.92)				
Interpersonal Inj.	2.11	1.20	.66**	.63**	.72**	.73**	.70**	.68**	.65**	.58**	.41**	.26*	.35**	.48**	0.19	.75**	.40**	.52**	(.96)			
Informational Inj.	2.75	1.27	.54**	.52**	.53**	.79**	.69**	.70**	.81**	.66**	.52**	.38**	.49**	.38**	.36**	.85**	.49**	.65**	.61**	(.94)		
Neg. Affectivity	2.49	0.98	.69**	.67**	.64**	.67**	.66**	.58**	.58**	.60**	.60**	.38**	.59**	.55**	.36**	.77**	.53**	.65**	.73**	.64**	(.92)	

Note. * p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001, Cronbach's alpha coefficients are shown in parenthesis

3.2. SAMPLE

Target population of the main study was the employees working at private sector companies in Istanbul province. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample sizes above 384 observations provides enough variability for investigating psychological phenomena. However, the newly developed AUAS was consisted of 48 items in total. According to Hair et al. (2014), to conduct factor analysis, minimum 5:1 observation item ratio is needed. Thus, in order to conduct EFA and CFA to different halves of dataset 480 observations were needed for present study. Consequently, sample needed for present study was defined as 500 participants by considering the probability of possible outliers, and data collection process conducted until reaching 500 respondents.

Sample distribution, in accordance with demographical factors, is shown in Table 13. Respondents were between 20 and 57 ($M= 37$, $SD=9$) years old. Their tenures varied between 1 and 35 years with an average of 7.13($SD=5.69$), in addition to sectoral tenure, their tenure in their present organizations varied between 1 and 28 years with an average of 4.85($SD=3.95$). To sum, ages and tenures of the respondents indicated that research sample was consisted of a working class mainly in the middle of their career. Of the respondents, 251 were female and 249 were male, 419 were married or living with a partner, and 81 were single, 79 had high school degrees, 367 had bachelor's degree, 48 had master's degrees and six had PhD degrees.

Regarding their organizations and departments, respondents were working in research & development, finance, public relations, law department, human resources, accounting, marketing, production, and management departments. They were employed by the various sized organizations. 86 were working in the organizations that employs 1 to 9 employees, 174 were working in the organizations that employs 10 to 49 employees, 114 were working in the organizations that employs 50 to 250 employees, and 126 were working in the organizations that employs more than 259 employees. In other words, according to legal code 2018/11828, which defines the classification of enterprises, 74.8% of sample were

working for SME's and 24.2% were working for large companies. Of the respondents, 34 were earning monthly salaries lower than 6,000 ₺, 246 were earning monthly salaries between 6.000-9.999 ₺, 117 were earning monthly salaries between 10,000-14,999 ₺, 61 were earning earning monthly salaries between 15,000-19,999 ₺, 23 were earning monthly salaries between 20,000-24,999 ₺, and 19 were earning monthly salaries more than 25,000 ₺. Net minimum wage defined by the government was 5,500 ₺ during the data collection process. Lastly, 262 of the respondents had managerial positions and 238 did not.



Table 13: Descriptive Statistics of Sample

	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>% Cum.</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>min</i>	<i>max</i>
<i>Age</i>				37.08	9.01	20	57
<i>Tenure in Sector</i>	500			7.13	5.69	1	35
<i>Tenure in Org.</i>	500			4.86	3.95	1	28
<i>Gender</i>							
Female	249	49.8	49.8				
Male	251	50.2	100				
<i>Marital Status</i>							
Living with a partner	419	83.8	83.8				
Single	81	16.2	100				
<i>Education</i>							
Highschool	79	15.8	15.8				
Bachelor's	367	73.4	89.2				
Master's	48	9.6	98.8				
PhD	6	1.2	100				
<i>Department</i>							
R&D	34	6.8	6.8				
Finance	46	9.2	16				
Public Relations	56	11.2	27.2				
Law department	16	3.2	30.4				
Human Resources	60	12	42.4				
Accounting	82	16.4	58.8				
Marketing	47	9.4	68.2				
Production	86	17.2	85.4				
Management	73	14.6	100				
<i>Number of employees in org.</i>							
1-9	86	17.2	17.2				
10-49	174	34.8	52				
50-249	114	22.8	74.8				
+250	126	25.2	100				
<i>Monthly Income (£)</i>							
-6000	34	6.8	6.8				
6000-9999	246	49.2	56				
10000-14999	117	23.4	79.4				
15000-19999	61	12.2	91.6				
20000-24999	23	4.6	96.2				
+25000	19	3.8	100				
<i>Managerial Status</i>							
Yes	262	52.4	52.4				
No	238	47.6	100				

Note. n=number of observations, % Cum.=Cumulative Percentage, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

To sum up, calculated demographical factor frequencies and percentages indicated that research sample was the representative of target population aimed for the present study in terms of major demographical classes.

3.3. PROCEDURE

In order to reach the target population, convenience sampling method was used. An online survey link was distributed from online occupational networks. To guarantee the respondents' membership to the target population, questions addressing type of their employment (i.e., public sector, private sector, part-time, full-time, self-employed, freelancer) have been included to online survey as well. Respondents out of the population were filtered according to answers given to these questions. Online survey was consisting of the same parts and measurement tools distributed on pilot study (see Appendix D).

3.4. INSTRUMENTS

Self-report surveys are sensitive to Social Desirability Bias (Randall & Fernandes, 1991) and controlling this bias is highly important for the accuracy of measurements. According to Krumpal (2013, p. 2025), social desirability occurs “Due to self-presentation concerns, survey respondents underreport socially undesirable activities and overreport socially desirable ones.” In present study to control this bias, Normative Technique developed by Sirken (1970) was used. According to scholar survey questions about others' behaviors are less affected by social desirability bias than questions about respondents' own behaviors. Thus, in main study survey, respondents were asked to rate other employees' behaviors, rather than rating their behaviors. In other words, all variables in the study were measured as perceived variables.

3.4.1 Adiaphoric and Unethical Aggression Scale (AUAS)

Adiaphoric and Unethical Aggression Scale (AUAS) was consisted of 48 items which were shaped after three preliminary studies, by the participation of 114 white collar employees and academicians from related fields. 35 of the items were related with adiaphoric

aggression forms and 13 items were related with unethical aggression forms. Respondents rated the items on a five points Likert scale from never (1) to always (5).

3.4.2 Toxic Leadership Scale

To assess toxic leadership, scale developed by Schmidt (2008's) was used. Turkish adaptation study of scale was conducted by Nuri (2020) and researcher reported .94 Cronbach's alpha score for the overall version of Turkish scale. Scale consists of authoritarian leadership (5 items), narcissism (6 items), unpredictability (5 items), abusive supervision (6 items), and self-promotion (4 items) dimensions. Respondents rated the items on a five points Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

3.4.3 Job Demands Scale

To assess job demands, scale developed by Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) and adapted into Turkish by Metin (2010) was used. Scale consists of workload (4 items), emotional demands (6 items), emotional dissonance (5 items), and changes at work (7 items) dimensions. Cronbach's alpha score of the Turkish adaptation was calculated as .81 by Metin. Respondents rated the items on a five points Likert scale from never (1) to always (5).

3.4.4 Organizational Injustice Scale

To assess organizational injustice, scale developed by Colquitt (2001) and adapted into Turkish by Sulu (2010) was used. Cronbach's alpha scores of all dimensions were calculated higher than .90 in adaptation study. Scale consists of distributive injustice (4 items), procedural injustice (7 items), interpersonal injustice (4 items), and informational injustice (5 items) dimensions. Respondents rated the items on a five points Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

3.4.5 Negative Affectivity Scale

To assess negative affectivity (mood) of participants, PANAS scale developed by Watson et al. (1988) was used. Turkish adaptation of scale was conducted by Tülin (2000),

scholar calculated .83 and .86 Cronbach's alpha scores for positive affectivity (10 items) and negative affectivity (10 items) dimensions. Respondents rated the items on a five points Likert scale from never (1) to always (5).

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS

After data collection process, to analyze data R coding program for statistical computing (R Core Team, 2013) was used. In first step, dataset was examined for missing data and outliers. 22 observations were deleted due to outliers and/or missing data. Afterwards, to ensure validity and reliability of measurement tools, factor analyses were conducted with structural equation modelling method, and Cronbach's alpha scores were calculated for each scale. In second step, hypotheses tests were conducted to check the relationships with proposed antecedents. To test the hypotheses conditional process analysis method developed by Hayes (2017) was used. This method was chosen because it is more comprehensive than conventional regression method regarding calculating indirect effects and confidence intervals for mediation. Last step was devoted to additional analyses which were related with assessing the relationships between demographical factors and aggression types. To assess the differences by demographical factor a series of One-way ANOVA's and t-tests were conducted.

4. FINDINGS

Findings of the main study have been summarized in this section. Factor analyses of scales, hypotheses tests, additional analyses were reported, respectively.

4.1. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE SCALES

To examine the reliability and validity of the scales used in the present study, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) methods have been used. To investigate factor structure of newly developed Adiaphoric and Unethical Aggressive Behaviors Scale (AUAS), dataset was divided into two equal halves. First half (n=239) was used for EFA, and the second half (n=239) was used for CFA (see Table 14). As shown in the table, regarding distribution of main demographical factors, two halves were equal to each other. Thus, it was concluded that these two halves could be used for EFA and CFA of newly developed AUAS.

Table 14: Demographical Distribution of Equal Halves

<i>Variables</i>	<i>1st half (n= 239)</i>					<i>2nd half (n=239)</i>				
	<i>f</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>min</i>	<i>max</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>min</i>	<i>max</i>
Age		37.13	8.78	23	54		36.54	9.17	20	57
Tenure		7.42	5.8	1	25		6.89	5.64	1	35
Gender										
female	115					124				
male	124					115				
Marital										
w. partner	201					199				
single	38					49				
Education										
highschool	36					39				
bachelor's	172					180				
master's	27					19				
PhD	4					1				
Org. size										
1-9	32					45				
10-49	90					79				
50-249	58					52				
+250	59					63				
Income (€)										
-6000	13					17				
6000-9999	117					121				
10000-14999	51					62				
15000-19999	34					22				
20000-24999	14					9				
+25000	10					8				
Managerial										
yes	125					122				
no	114					117				

Note. n=number of observations, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation, f=frequencies

In order to assess toxic leadership, job demands, organizational injustice, and negative affectivity scales' factor structure CFA have been conducted on entire dataset (n=478). Afterwards, CFA results were assessed to see whether calculated fit indices are acceptable (i.e., $\chi^2/df \leq 5^*$, CFI $\geq .90$, TLI $\geq .90$, RMSEA $\leq .08$, SRMR $\leq .08$) for social sciences or not (Awang, 2012; Hair et al., 2014; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Furthermore, average variance extracted (AVE) scores were calculated as well. According to Hair et al. (2014) AVE scores above .50 is acceptable for social sciences.

After the validity analyses, Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) scores of the scales were calculated for each scale. According to Hair et al. (2014) Cronbach's alpha scores higher than .70 indicates a good reliability and Netemeyer et al. (2003) stated that CR scores higher than .80 is a reasonable threshold for social sciences.

4.1.1 Adiaphoric and Unethical Behaviors Scale (AUAS)

In order to confirm the factor structure of newly developed AUAS, main data was divided into two equal halves. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) method was used to check the congruency between theoretical factors and factors extracted by first half of the dataset. Afterwards, to confirm the explored factor structure, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) method was conducted on second half.

By performing repetitive EFA analyses, items with cross or low factor loadings, were excluded from scale one by one. After this refinement step, scree plot was screened to decide the number of factors (see Figure 5). Scree plot supported the hypothetical two factor structure.

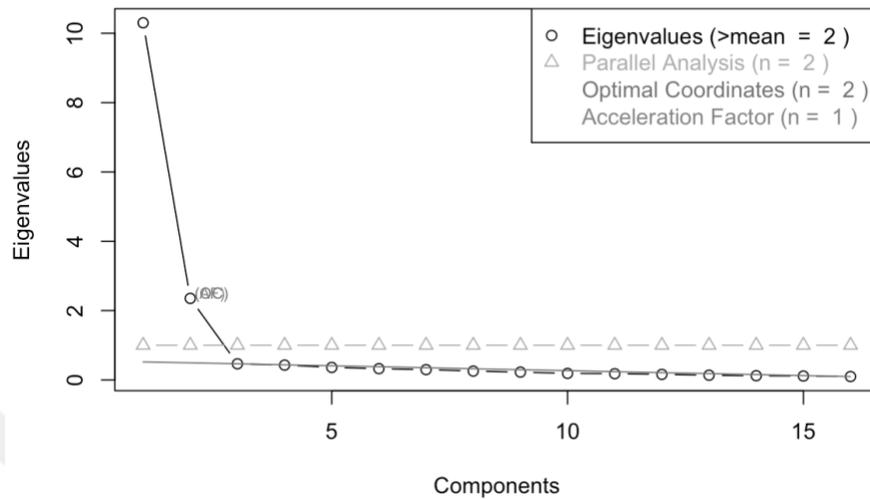


Figure 5: Scree Plot of AUAS

Thus, EFA conducted with two factors (See Table 15). In first step Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's sphericity tests were conducted to check the adequacy of dataset and variables. KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .95 which indicated that intercorrelations among the variables are sufficient for EFA. Bartlett's sphericity test result was also significant ($\chi^2(15) = 198.48, p < .001$) which indicated that total correlations among the items were sufficient. Regarding to explained variance, overall scale explained 76 % of the total variance. The first factor which consisted of 11 items was named as adiphoric aggression factor because the items in this factor were consisted of adiphoric aggressions (i.e., subtle and insidious actions that cannot be subjected to ethical assessments easily by others). The second factor which consisted of 5 items, was named as unethical aggression factor because the items were consisted of overt and serious aggressions that can easily classified as unethical by others.

Table 15: EFA Results of Aggression Scale

<i>Items</i>	<i>Adiaphoric</i>	<i>Unethical</i>
S48 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanları gereğinden çok eleştirirler.	.88	
S45 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından yapılan haksız yorumlara müdahale etmezler/düzeltilmezler.	.87	
S34 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanların yardım isteklerini bahaneler üreterek geri çevirirler.	.86	
S37 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanların iletişim çabalarını görmezden geldikleri olur.	.86	
S36 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanların olduğu ortamlarda onlar yokmuş gibi davranırlar.	.84	
S43 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanların işini zorlaştırmak için üstünkörü çalışırlar.	.84	
S26 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara monoton veya angarya görevlerin verilmesini sağlayacak şeyler yaparlar.	.83	
S38 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanlardan bilgi sakladıkları olur.	.83	
S46 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından küçümseyici/ aşağılayıcı yorumlar yaparlar.	.83	
S15 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanların hatalarını onlar ortamda yokken diğerlerinin duyacağı şekilde açık ederler.	.75	
S33 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanlar gözlerinin önünde yanlış yaptığında uyardıkları olur.	.70	
S8 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara omuz atmak/itmek gibi davranışlarda bulunurlar.		.90
S7 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanlarla fiziksel kavga ederler.		.86
S10 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanları fiziksel olarak zarar vermekle tehdit ederler.		.82
S5 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara alenen küfür ederler.		.80
S6 - Sinirlendikleri çalışanların yüzüne karşı iftara atarlar.		.77
Percentage of variance	.49 %	.27 %
Eigenvalue	10.3	2.3

Note. Factor loadings below .40 are not shown in table

Consequently, AUAS's EFA results and Cronbach's alpha scores showed that two factor scale was valid and reliable for conducting CFA. To confirm the factor structure extracted in EFA, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the second half of the data (see Figure 6). As shown in figure, regression coefficients of all items were above .70 and significant.

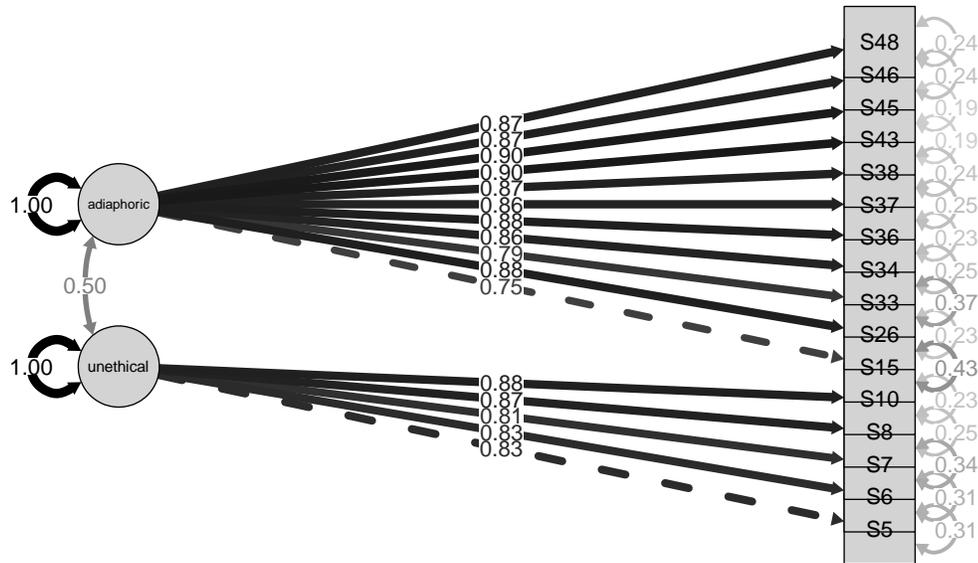


Figure 6: CFA Paths of Aggression Scale

Calculated fit indices are shown in Table 16. Fit indices were congruent with accepted with cut-off values in social sciences as well.

Table 16: CFA Fit Indices of Aggression Scale

<i>Model</i>	χ^2/df	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
Criterion	≤ 5	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\leq .08$	$\leq .08$
Two factor solution	2.64***	.95	.95	.081***	.042

Note. χ^2 =Chi-squared, df= degrees of freedom, CFI: comparative fit index, TLI: Tucker-Lewis index, RMSEA: root mean square error of approximation, SRMR: standardized root mean squared residual, ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05

To test the reliability of AUAS Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) scores of sub-scales and overall scale were calculated (See Table 17). Cronbach's alpha of

unethical aggression sub-scale was .93, adiphoric subscale was .96, and for overall scale was .95. Similar to Cronbach’s alpha scores, CR results of the scale were .96 for adiphoric sub-scale, .92 for unethical sub-scale, and .97 for overall scale.

To check the validity of AUAS, average variance extracted scores (AVE) were computed (See Table 17). Calculated AVE’s of the adiphoric aggression and unethical aggression subscale were .73 and .72, respectively.

Table 17: Reliability and Validity of AUAS

<i>Scales</i>	<i>α</i>	<i>CR</i>	<i>AVE</i>
Criterion	>.70	>.70	>.50
Adiphoric Aggression	.96	.96	.73
Unethical Aggression	.93	.92	.72
Total Aggression	.95	.97	NA

Note. α=Cronbach’s alpha, CR=composite reliability, AVE=average variance extracted, NA= not applicable.

In light of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses results, it was concluded that newly developed AUAS consists of adiphoric and unethical aggression dimensions was a valid and reliable scale for assessing aggressive behaviors among employees

4.1.2 Toxic Leadership Scale

To confirm the factor structure of Toxic Leadership Scale CFA was conducted on entire dataset(n=478). CFA path diagram and standardized regression coefficients of the items are shown in Figure 7. Items labelled as M5 (My manager considers alternative ideas presented by employees before making a decision.), M22 (My manager does not exploit the efforts of the employees, gives them credit for their efforts) and M23 (My manager makes everyone hear about his/her achievements) were excluded from analysis due to low or cross factor loadings. Factor loadings of remaining items were above the .70 and significant.

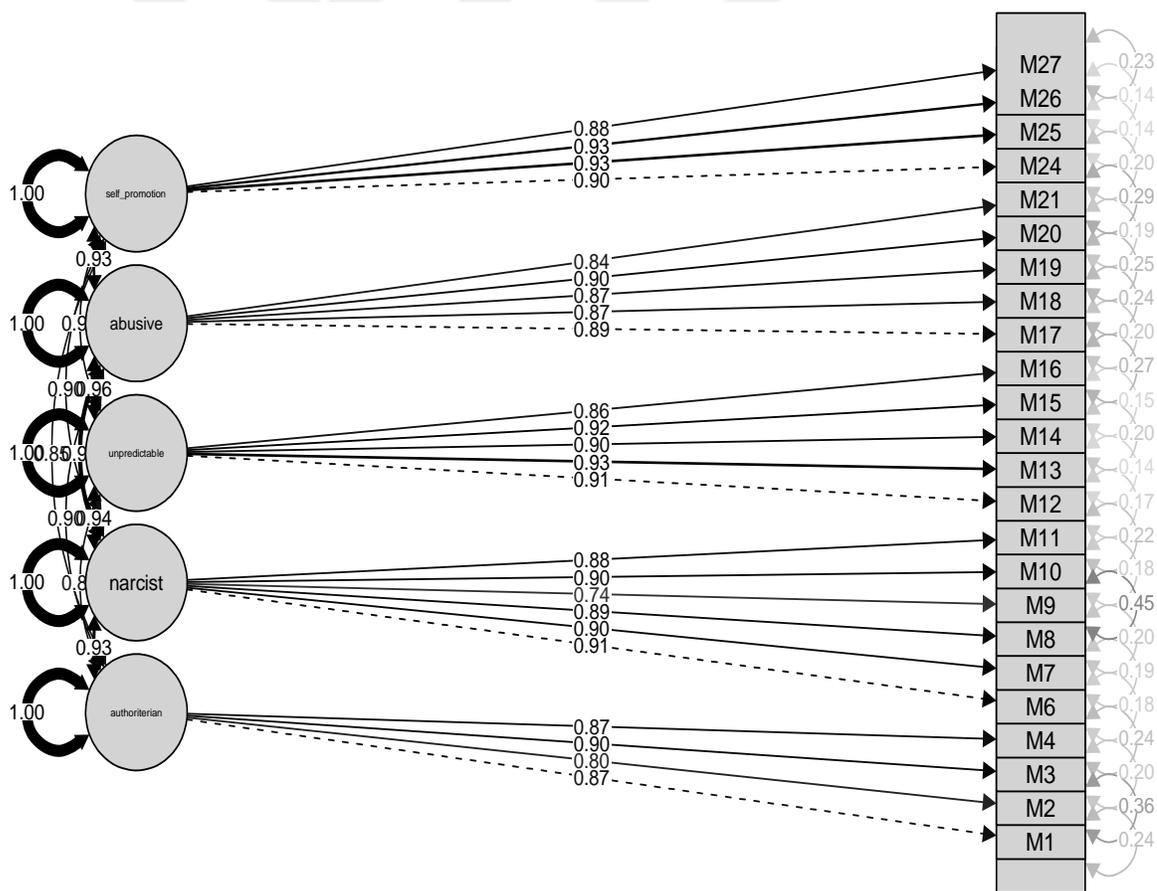


Figure 7: CFA Paths of Toxic Leadership Scale

Calculated fit indices of Toxic Leadership Scale showed that data and proposed structural model had good fit according to widely accepted cut-off values for social sciences (Table 18).

Table 18: CFA Fit Indices of Toxic Leadership Scale

<i>Model</i>	χ^2/df	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
Criterion	≤ 5	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\leq .08$	$\leq .08$
Five factor solution	4.66***	.94	.93	.086***	.028

Note. χ^2 =Chi-squared, df= degrees of freedom, CFI: comparative fit index, TLI: Tucker-Lewis index, RMSEA: root mean square error of approximation, SRMR: standardized root mean squared residual, ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05

To test the reliability of toxic leadership scale, Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability scores of each sub-scale and overall scale were calculated (See Table 19). Calculated Cronbach's alpha score of; authoritarian subscale was .92, narcissistic subscale was .94, unpredictable subscale was .95, abusive subscale was .94, self-promotion sub-scale was .94, and overall scale was .98. Similar to Cronbach's alpha scores, composite reliability (CR) results of the scale were .91 for authoritarian subscale, .94 for narcissistic subscale, .95 for unpredictable behaviors subscale, .94 for abusive supervision subscale, .94 self-promotion subscale, and .98 for overall scale. Taken together, Cronbach's alpha scores and CR scores indicated that scale had acceptable reliability.

To check the validity of Toxic Leadership Scale, average variance extracted by all subscales (AVE) were computed (See Table 19).

Table 19: Reliability and Validity of Toxic Leadership Scale

<i>Scales</i>	<i>α</i>	<i>CR</i>	<i>AVE</i>
Criterion	>.70	>.70	>.50
Authoritarian	.92	.91	.74
Narcissistic	.94	.94	.76
Unpredictable	.95	.95	.81
Abusive	.94	.94	.76
Self-promotion	.94	.94	.81
Toxic Leadership Total	.98	.98	

Note. α =Cronbach's alpha, CR=Composite reliability, AVE=average variance extracted

In light of the factor analysis results, it was concluded that Toxic Leadership Scale consists of 5 dimensions was valid and reliable for assessing toxic leadership behaviors among employees

4.1.3 Job Demands Scale

To confirm the factor structure of Job Demands Scale CFA was conducted with entire dataset (n=478). Items labelled as: E8 (Do employees encounter those who constantly complain despite doing everything to please them?), E9 (Do employees have to deal with demanding people?), E15 (How often do employees have to be considerate of people who annoy them?), E20 (Has your team structure changed recently?) and E21 (Has the content of the jobs of employees in your department changed recently?) were excluded due to low or cross factor loadings. Path diagram and standardized regression coefficients are shown in Figure 8. As shown in Figure 8, regression coefficients of all items were above .70 and significant.

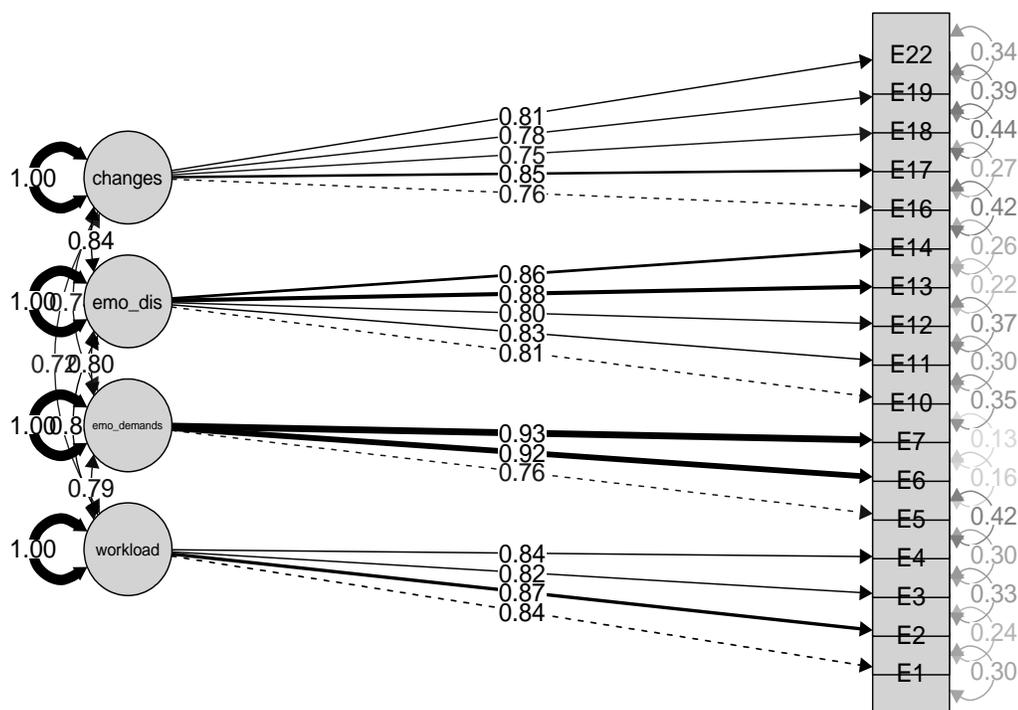


Figure 8: CFA Paths of Job Demands Scale

To assess the fit between data and factor structure of job demands scale fit indices were calculated. Results indicated data and model had an acceptable fit (Table 20) .

Table 20: CFA Fit Indices of Job Demands Scale

<i>Model</i>	χ^2/df	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
Criterion	≤ 5	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\leq .08$	$\leq .08$
Four factor solution	3.76***	.95	.94	.074***	.041

Note. χ^2 =Chi-squared, df= degrees of freedom, CFI: comparative fit index, TLI: Tucker-Lewis index, RMSEA: root mean square error of approximation, SRMR: standardized root mean squared residual, ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05

To test the reliability of scale, Cronbach’s alpha, and composite reliability (CR) scores of each sub-scale and overall scale were calculated. Calculated Cronbach’s alpha score of; workload subscale was .90, emotional demands was .89, emotional dissonance was .92, changes at work was .89, and overall scale was .95. Similar to Cronbach’s alpha scores, composite reliability (CR) scores were, .90 for workload subscale, .90 for emotional demands, .92 for emotional dissonance, .89 for changes at work, .96 for and overall scale. Taken together, Cronbach’s alpha scores and CR scores indicated that scale had acceptable reliability.

Lastly, to check the validity of job demands scale average variance extracted (AVE) by all subscales were computed (See Table 21). Calculated AVE scores of sub-scales were above the .50 which indicates acceptable validity according to widely accepted cut-off criterion for social sciences.

Table 21: Reliability and Validity Scores of Job Demands Scale

<i>Scales</i>	<i>α</i>	<i>CR</i>	<i>AVE</i>
Criterion	>.70	>.70	>.50
Workload	.90	.90	.70
Emotional Demands	.89	.90	.76
Emotional Dissonance	.92	.92	.70
Changes at Work	.89	.89	.62
Job Demands Total	.95	.96	NA

Note. α =Cronbach's alpha, CR=composite reliability, AVE=average variance extracted, NA= not applicable.

In light of factor analysis and reliability test scores, it was concluded that Job Demands Scale consists of five dimensions was a valid and reliable for assessing job demands perceived by employees

4.1.4 Organizational Injustice Scale

To confirm the factor structure of Organizational Injustice Scale, CFA was conducted to entire dataset (n=478). Path diagram and standardized regression coefficients of the scale are shown in the Figure 9. As shown in figure regression coefficients of all items were above .70 and significant.

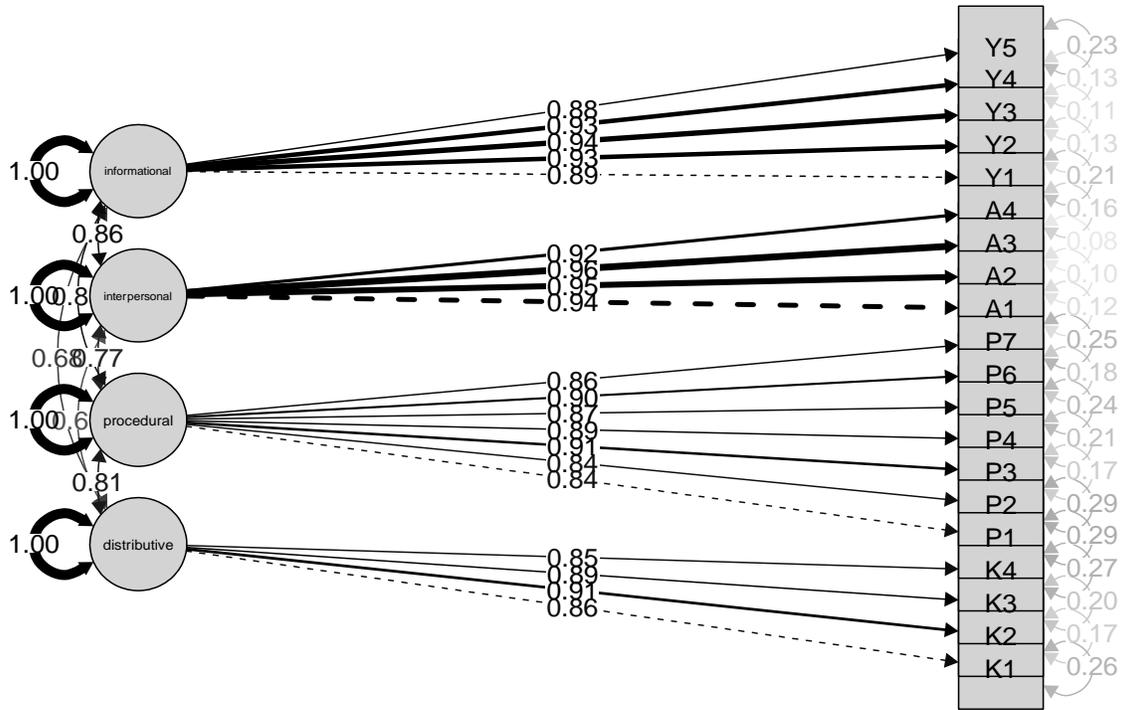


Figure 9: CFA Paths of Organizational Injustice Scale

To assess the fit between proposed factor model and data, fit indices for organizational injustice scale were calculated (See Table 22). As shown in table fit indices indicated an acceptable fit between the model and data.

Table 22: CFA Fit Indices of Organizational Injustice Scale

<i>Model</i>	χ^2/df	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
Criterion	≤ 5	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\leq .08$	$\leq .08$
Four factor solution	4.22***	.95	.95	.080***	.031

Note. χ^2 =Chi-squared, df= degrees of freedom, CFI: comparative fit index, TLI: Tucker-Lewis index, RMSEA: root mean square error of approximation, SRMR: standardized root mean squared residual, ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05

To test the reliability of the scale, Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) scores of each sub-scale and overall scale were calculated (See Table 23). Calculated Cronbach's alpha score of; distributive injustice subscale was .93, procedural injustice subscale was .95, interpersonal injustice subscale was .96, informational injustice subscale was .96, and overall organizational injustice scale was .97. Composite reliability scores of; distributive injustice subscale was .93, procedural injustice subscale was .95, interpersonal injustice subscale was .96, informational injustice subscale was .96, and overall scale was .98. Taken together, Cronbach's alpha and CR scores showed that scale had acceptable reliability.

Lastly, to check the validity of Organizational Injustice Scale, average variance extracted by all subscales (AVE) were computed (See Table 23). AVE scores were above .50 cut-off point which indicates acceptable validity for social sciences.

Table 23: Reliability and Validity Scores of Organizational Injustice Scale

<i>Scales</i>	<i>α</i>	<i>CR</i>	<i>AVE</i>
Criterion	>.70	>.70	>.50
Distributive	.93	.93	.74
Procedural	.95	.95	.76
Interpersonal	.96	.97	.88
Informational	.96	.96	.83
Org. Injustice Total	.97	.98	

Note. α =Cronbach's alpha, CR=Composite reliability, AVE=Average variance extracted

4.1.5 Negative Affect Scale

To confirm the factor structure of Negative Affect Scale, CFA was conducted with entire dataset (n=478). Path diagram and standardized regression coefficients of the negative affect scale are shown in Figure 10. Factor loadings of all items were above .70 and significant.

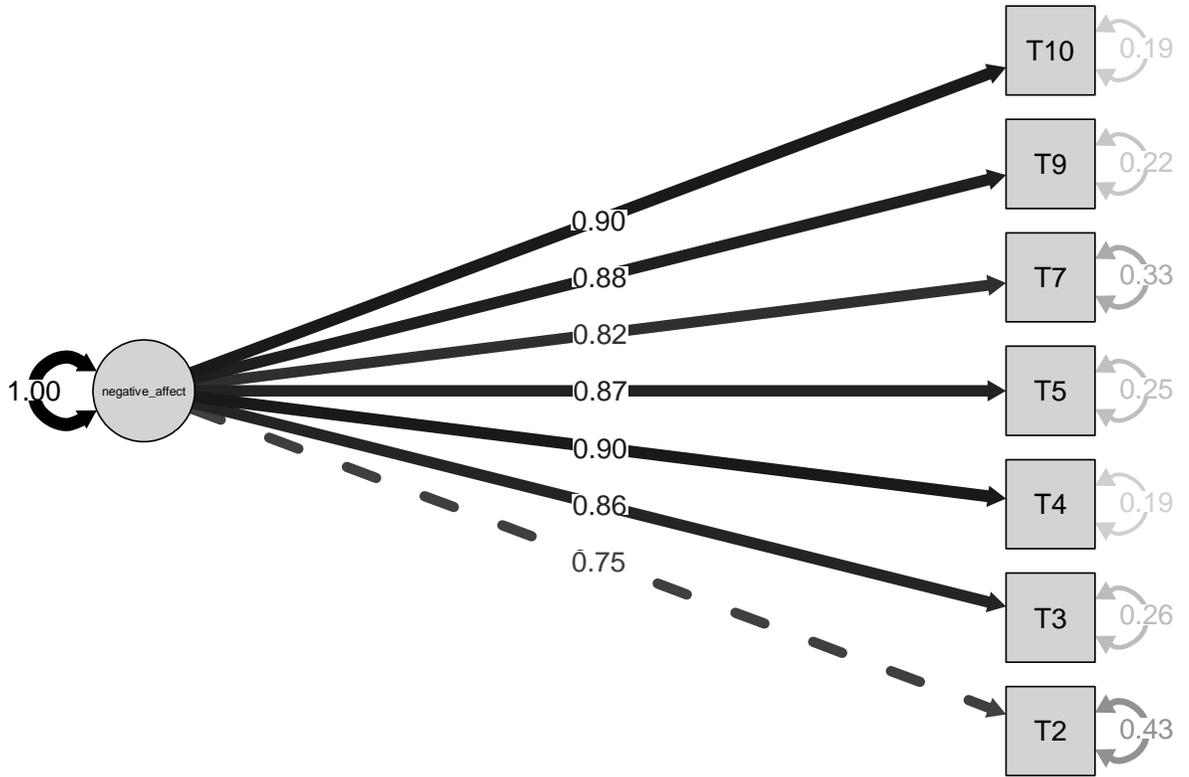


Figure 10: CFA Paths of Negative Affect Scale

To see the fit between data and factor model, fit indices were calculated (See Table 24). Calculated fit indices indicated a good fit between the data and model.

Table 24: CFA Fit Indices of Negative Affect Scale

<i>Model</i>	χ^2/df	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
Criterion	≤ 3	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\leq .08$	$\leq .08$
One factor solution	4.22***	.95	.95	.080***	.031

Note. χ^2 =Chi-squared, df= degrees of freedom, CFI: comparative fit index, TLI: Tucker-Lewis index, RMSEA: root mean square error of approximation, SRMR: standardized root mean squared residual, ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05

To test the reliability of scale, Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability(CR) scores were computed (See Table 25). Calculated Cronbach's alpha score was .94. and composite reliability score was .95. Taken together, it was concluded that negative affectivity scale used in this study meets the reliability criterion for social sciences.

To check the validity of negative affect scale, average variance extracted (AVE) have been computed (See Table 25). AVE score was above .50 which indicated that the scale had acceptable validity regarding widely accepted AVE cutoff criterion for social sciences.

Table 25: Reliability and Validity Scores of Negative Affect Scale

<i>Scales</i>	α	<i>CR</i>	<i>AVE</i>
Criterion	>.70	>.70	>.50
Negative Affect	.94	.95	.73

Note. α =Cronbach's alpha, CR=composite reliability, AVE=average variance extracted

4.2. COMMON METHOD BIAS TESTING

Common method bias is an important error source that may decrease the validity of studies in behavioral fields. According to Podsakoff et al. (2003) Common Method Bias (CMB) refers to the variance which may be caused by the data collection method itself rather than the relationships between predictor and criterion variables. If the data was obtained from same person with same context, CMB is more likely to increase the degree of error involved into that measurement. Thus, while conducting a behavioral study, the degree CMB must be assessed, and if necessary, methodological remedies should be administered.

Podsakoff et al. (2003) also proposed that Harman's single factor test can be used to test the degree of CMB involved to the data collection process. To use this method all observed variables are loaded to one exploratory factor and if that factor does not explain majority of variance ($< \% 50$) then it is concluded that CMB in that measurement is at an acceptable level.

In the present study the degree of CMB was also assessed by Harman's single factor test. Test results showed that when all items of the AUAS, toxic leadership, job demands, organizational injustice and negative affect scales loaded to one factor, extracted variance by that single factor was calculated as $\% 41.09$ which is below the $\% 50$ threshold. Thus, it was concluded that CMB was not present, and the data set was suitable for conducting hypotheses tests.

4.3. HYPOTHESIS TESTING

As mentioned in theoretical background section, toxic leadership, job demands, organizational injustice, and negative affectivity perceptions of employees are defined as the predictors of aggression forms studied in present study. Moreover, negative affect and organizational injustice were also proposed as the mediator variables which conveys the effect of toxic leadership and job demands to adiabatic aggression. To test these

relationships a series of regression analyses with conditional process analysis method (Hayes, 2017) were conducted. Results of the regression analyses are presented in this section.

Before starting regression tests, means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis scores of study variables were calculated (see Table 26). Except unethical aggression variable, skewness and kurtosis values of study variables were within the limits of acceptable normality (skewness & kurtosis = ± 2) for social sciences (George & Mallery, 2003; Hair et al., 2014). To fix the non-normal distribution of unethical aggression variable, logarithmic transformation method was used (Hair et al., 2014). After transformation, unethical aggression variable's skewness and kurtosis scores dropped to 1.51 and 1.20, respectively.

Thus, it was concluded that, all study variables met the normality assumption for regression analysis.

Table 26: Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

<i>Variables</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>	<i>SE</i>
Adiaphoric aggression	1.91	0.93	.96	0.78	3.48	-0.48	-1.07
Unethical aggression	1.27	0.48	.93	2.00	8.98	3.50	7.86
Toxic Leadership	2.47	1.11	.98	0.40	1.78	-0.78	-1.76
Job Demands	2.77	0.92	.95	0.14	0.61	-0.42	-0.94
Organizational Injustice	2.49	1.04	.97	0.28	1.25	-0.80	-1.80
Negative Affect	15.69	7.97	.98	0.62	2.77	-0.64	-1.43

Note. M=mean, SD= Standard deviation, α =Cronbach's alpha, SE=Standard error

Pearson Correlation coefficient among study variables, scatterplots, and histograms of variables were also analyzed (see Figure 11). As shown in figure, correlation coefficients among study variables were varied between .21 and .82. and scatter plots were indicating the

linearity between study variables, which shows the linearity assumption for linear regression was also met.

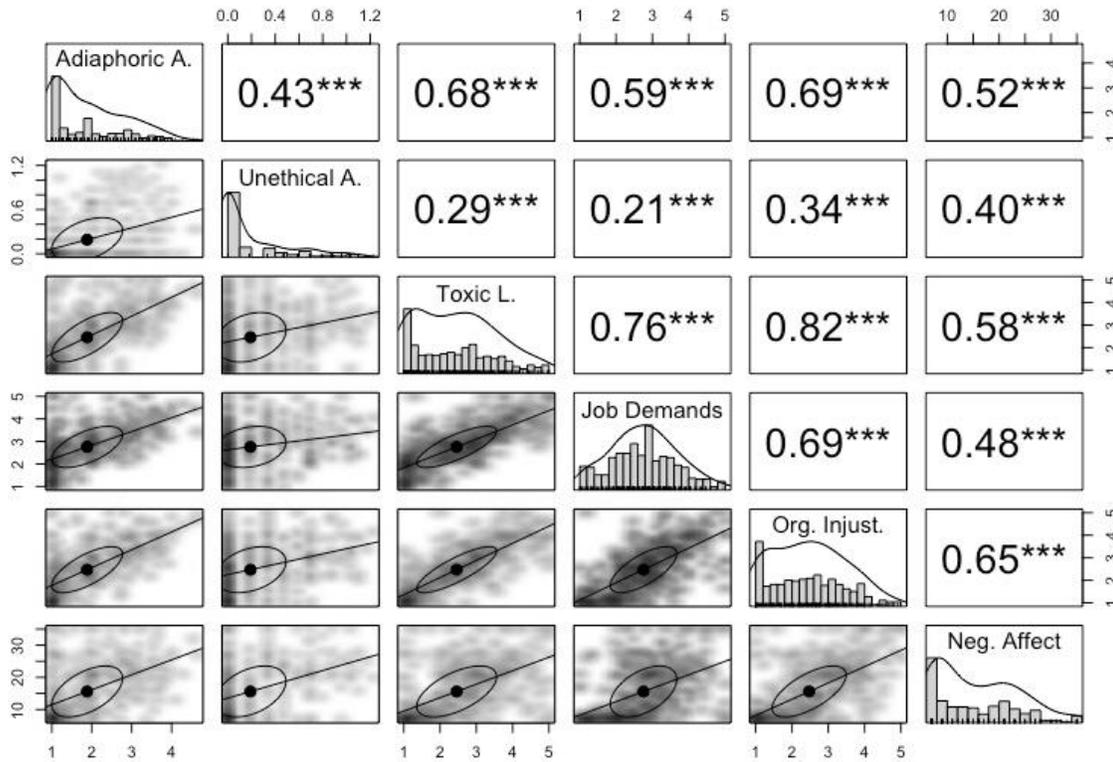


Figure 11: Correlations Among Study Variables

Note. *** $p < .001$,

In light of these initial analyses, it was concluded that collected data was normally distributed and relationship between the study variables were linear. Thus, to test the hypotheses linear regression analyses can be used.

4.3.1 The Relationship Between Toxic Leadership and Adiaphoric Aggression and The Mediating Effects of Organizational Injustice and Negative Affectivity.

To see the relationship between toxic leadership and adiaphoric aggression and the mediating effects of organizational injustice and negative affectivity, regression analyses was conducted with the conditional process analyses method developed by Hayes (2017). Results of regression analyses are shown in Figure 12

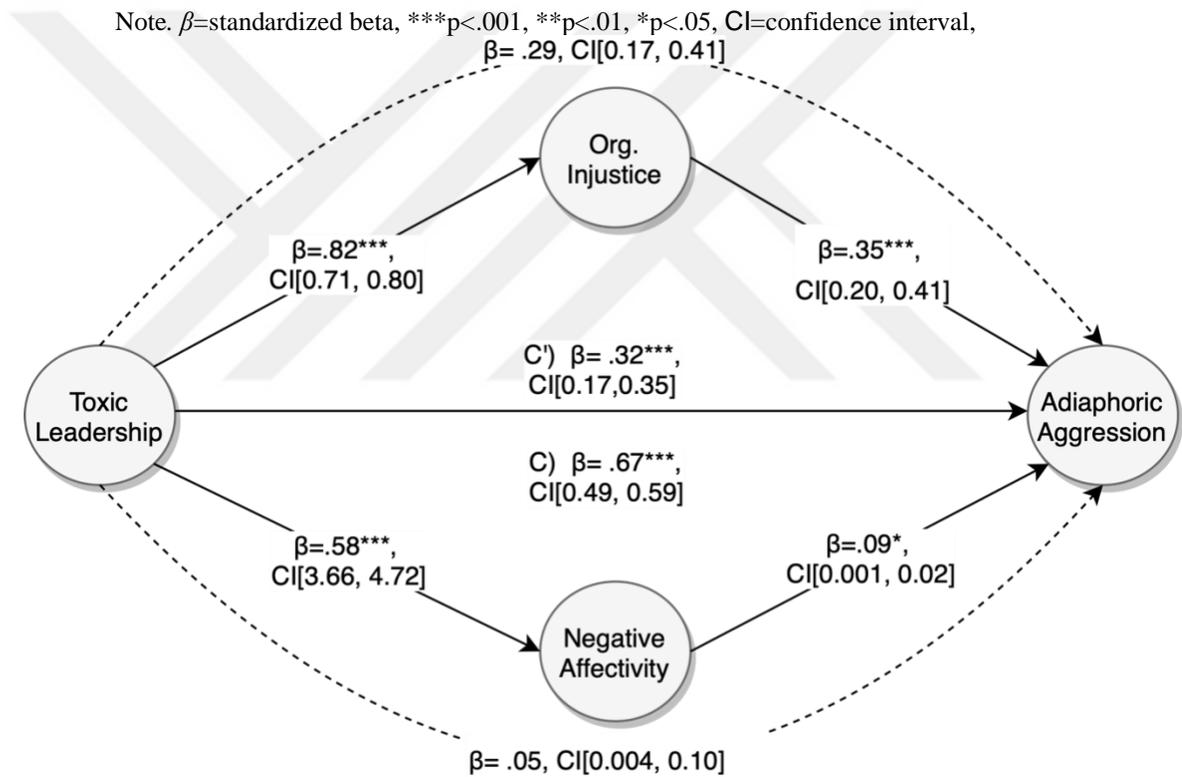


Figure 12: The Mediation Model Between Toxic Leadership and Adiaphoric Aggression

→ = direct effects, ---- =indirect effects, C =total effect, C' = direct effect

In first step (c), toxic leadership was included to analysis as the predictor of adiaphoric aggression. Regression results ($f(1,476)=401.9630$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.45$) showed that toxic leadership perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta = .67$, CI[0.49, 0.59]) adiaphoric

aggression perceived by the same employees. To see whether homoscedasticity assumption was met, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results (GQ=0.47, $p>.05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

Thus, H₁ (Toxic leadership has a positive relationship with adiphoric aggression) was accepted.

In second step, toxic leadership was included to the regression analyses as predictor of organizational injustice. Regression results ($f(1,476)=984.3658$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.67$) showed that toxic leadership predicted ($\beta= .82$, CI[0.71, 0.80]) organizational injustice perceived by the same employees. To see whether homoscedasticity assumption is met, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results (GQ=0.92, $p>.05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

In third step, toxic leadership was included to regression analysis as predictor of negative affectivity. Regression results ($f(1,476)=244.8336$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.33$) showed that toxic leadership perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta= .58$, CI[3.66, 4.72]) negative affect perceived by the same employees. Lastly, to see whether homoscedasticity assumption is met, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results (GQ=0.94, $p>.05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

In fourth step, to see the direct effects of organizational injustice and negative affect and their mediation role on the relationship between toxic leadership and adiphoric aggression all variables were included in regression analyses. Results indicated a significant regression equation ($f(3,474)=401.9630$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.45$). Organizational injustice predicted ($\beta= .35$, CI[0.20, 0.41]) adiphoric aggression significantly, moreover negative affect predicted ($\beta= .09$, CI[0.001, 0.02]) adiphoric aggression significantly as well. Toxic leadership's predictive power ($\beta= .32$, CI[0.17, 0.35]) decreased but it was still significant.

Furthermore, with combination of bootstrapping method and conditional process analysis indirect effects of toxic leadership was calculated separately. Toxic leadership had a significant indirect effect ($\beta= .29$, CI[0.17, 0.41]) on adiphoric aggression via

organizational injustice. Toxic leadership had a significant indirect effect ($\beta = .05$, CI[0.004, 0.10]) on adiphoric aggression via negative affectivity as well. Negative affectivity's mediation on the relationship between toxic leadership and adiphoric aggression was within the widely accepted cutoff values for significance, however, it was slightly higher than these cutoff points and its effect was relatively low.

To check the remaining assumptions for the regression analyses a series of tests were conducted. To check homoscedasticity, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results (GQ=0.54 $p > .05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic. To check multicollinearity between predictors, Variance Inflation Scores (VIF) was calculated. VIF scores of toxic leadership, organizational injustice and negative affect were 3.10, 3.57 and 1.76, respectively. According to Hair et al. (2014) VIF scores lower than 10, indicates an acceptable multicollinearity. Thus, multicollinearity assumption of regression analysis was also met. Lastly, to check the significance of indirect effects Sobel test was conducted (Sobel, 1982). Calculated test results were; $z = 5.81$, $p < .001$ for indirect effect via organizational injustice, and $z = 2.26$, $p < .05$ for indirect effect via negative affect which indicated the significance of indirect effects.

In conclusion, regression analyses indicated that, organizational injustice and negative affectivity perceptions of employees, partially mediated the relationship between toxic leadership and adiphoric aggression.

Thus, H_{3a} (Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and adiphoric aggression.) and H_{5a} (Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and adiphoric aggression) were accepted.

4.3.2 The Relationship Between Job Demands and Adiaphoric Aggression and The Mediating Effects of Organizational Injustice and Negative Affectivity.

To see the relationship between job demands and adiaphoric aggression and the mediating effects of organizational injustice and negative affectivity, a series of regression analyses were conducted with the conditional process analysis method developed by Hayes (2017). Results of regression analyses are shown in Figure 13.

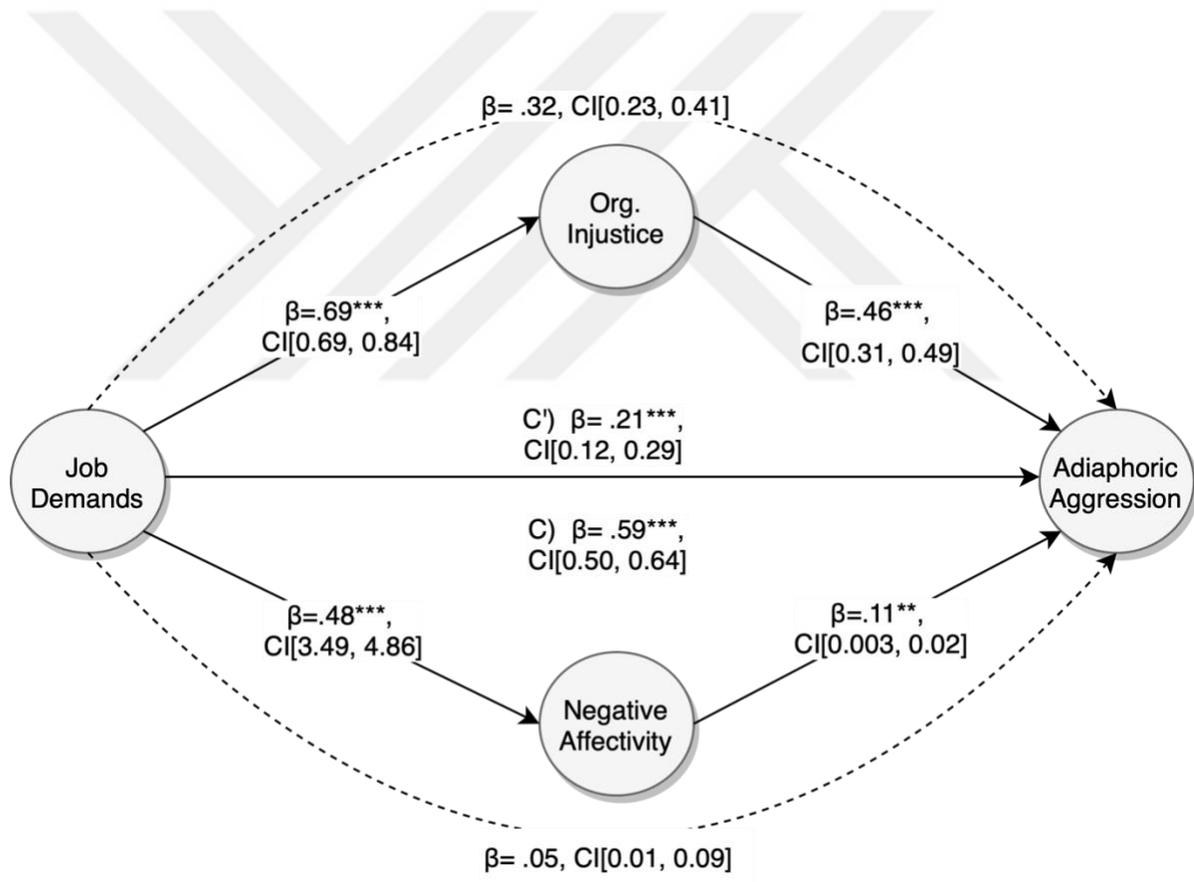


Figure 13: The Mediation Model Between Job Demands and Adiaphoric Aggression

Note. β =standardized beta, $^{***}p < .001$, $^{**}p < .01$, CI=confidence interval, \rightarrow = direct effects, $----$ =indirect effects, C =total effect, C' = direct effect

In first step (C), job demands was included to analysis as the predictor of adiphoric aggression. Regression results ($f(1,476)=258.4444$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.35$) showed that job demands perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta=.59$, $CI[0.50, 0.64]$) adiphoric aggression perceived by the same employees. To see the weather homoscedasticity assumption was met, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results ($GQ=0.43$, $p>.05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

Thus, H_{2a} (Job demands has a positive relationship with adiphoric aggression) was accepted.

In second step, job demands was included to regression analysis as the predictor of organizational injustice perception. Regression results ($f(1,476)=433.3969$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.47$) showed that job demands perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta= .69$, $CI[0.69, 0.84]$) organizational injustice perceived by the same employees. To test the homoscedasticity assumption, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results ($GQ=1.08$, $p>.05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

In third step, job demands was included to regression analyses as the predictor of negative affect perception. Regression results ($f(1,476)=144.4848$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.23$) showed that toxic leadership perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta= .48$, $CI[3.49, 4.86]$) negative affect perceived by the same employees. To check the homoscedasticity assumption, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results ($GQ=0.93$, $p>.05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

In fourth step, to see the direct effects of organizational injustice and negative affect and their mediation role on the relationship between job demands and adiphoric aggression all variables were included in regression analyses. Results indicated a significant regression equation ($f(3,474)=163.4683$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.50$). Organizational Injustice predicted ($\beta= .46$, $CI[0.31, 0.49]$) adiphoric aggression significantly, moreover negative affect predicted ($\beta= .11$, $CI[0.0031, 0.02]$) adiphoric aggression significantly as well. Job Demands' predictive power ($\beta= .21$, $CI[0.12, 0.29]$) decreased but it was still significant. With combination of

bootstrapping method and conditional process analysis, indirect effects of job demands were calculated separately. Job demands had a significant indirect effect ($\beta = .32$, CI[0.23, 0.41]) on adiphoric aggression via organizational injustice. Furthermore, job demands had a significant indirect effect ($\beta = .05$, CI[0.01, 0.09]) on adiphoric aggression via negative affectivity as well. Negative affectivity's mediator role on the relationship between job demands and adiphoric aggression was within the widely accepted cutoff values for significance, however, it is slightly higher than these cutoff points and its effect was relatively low.

Lastly, to check the significance of indirect effects, Sobel test was conducted (Sobel, 1982). Test results for indirect effects of organizational injustice ($z = 8.29$, $p < .001$), and negative affect ($z = 2.55$, $p < .05$), indicated that indirect effects were significant.

To check the remaining assumptions for this regression analysis a series of tests were conducted. For homoscedasticity assumption, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results ($GQ = 0.58$, $p > .05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic. To check multicollinearity between predictors variance inflation scores (VIF) were calculated. VIF scores of jobs demands, organizational injustice and negative affect were 1.91, 2.56 and 1.74, respectively. According to Hair et al. (2014) VIF scores lower than 10, indicates an acceptable level multicollinearity. Thus, multicollinearity assumption of regression analysis was also met.

In conclusion regression analyses indicated that, Organizational Injustice and negative affectivity perceptions of employees, partially mediates the relationship between job demands and adiphoric aggression.

Thus, H_{4a} (Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between job demands and adiphoric aggression) and H_{6a} (Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between job demands and adiphoric aggression) were accepted.

4.3.3 The Relationship Between Toxic Leadership and Unethical Aggression and The Mediating Effects of Organizational Injustice and Negative Affectivity.

To see the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression and the mediating effects of organizational injustice and negative affectivity, a series of regression analyses were conducted with the conditional process analyses method developed by Hayes (2017). Results of regression analyses are shown in Figure 14.

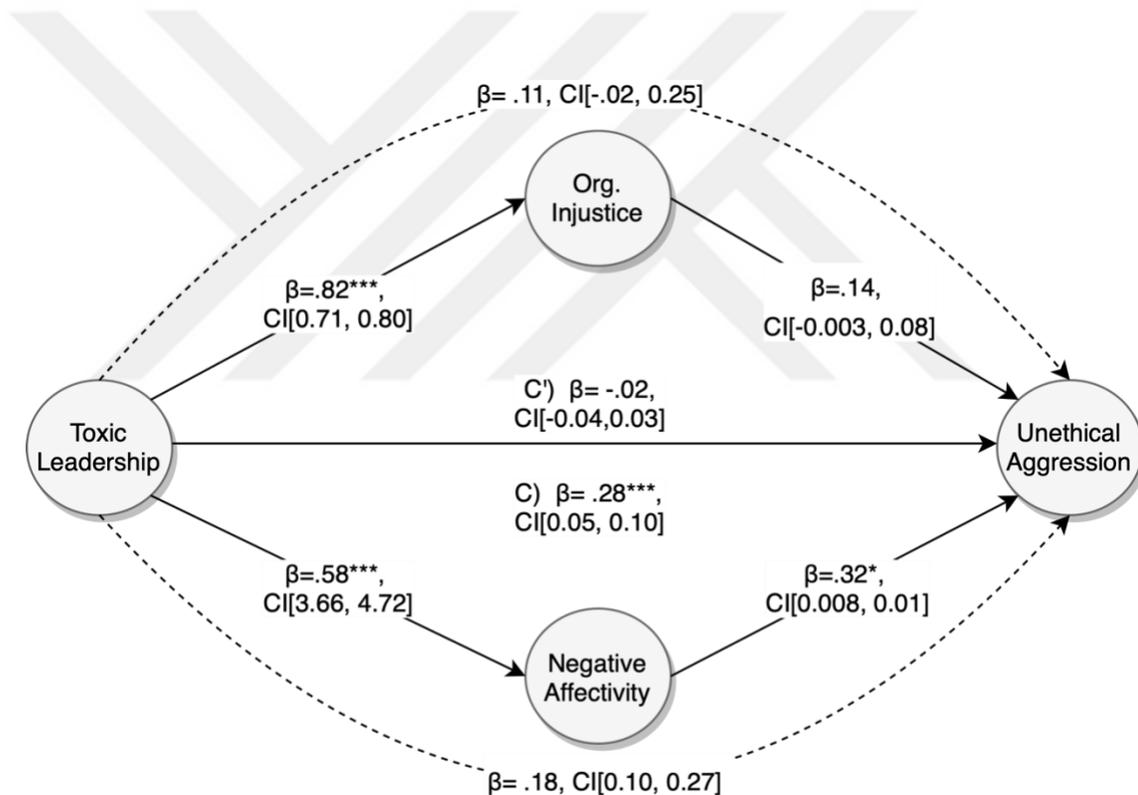


Figure 14: The Mediation Model Between Toxic Leadership and Unethical Aggression

Note. β =standardized beta, $^{***}p < .001$, $^*p < .05$, CI=confidence interval, \rightarrow = direct effects, $----$ =indirect effects, C =total effect, C' = direct effect

In first step (c), toxic leadership was included to regression analysis as the predictor of unethical aggression. Regression results ($f(1,476)=42.3356$, $p < .001$, $R^2=.08$) showed that

toxic leadership perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta = .28$, CI[0.05, 0.10]) unethical aggression perceived by the same employees significantly. To see whether homoscedasticity assumption was met, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results (GQ=0.12, $p > .05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

Thus, H_{1b} (Toxic leadership has a positive relationship with unethical aggression) was accepted.

In second step, toxic leadership was included to the regression analyses as the predictor of organizational injustice perception. Regression results ($f(1,476)=984.3658$, $p < .001$, $R^2=.67$) showed that toxic leadership perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta = .82$, CI[0.71, 0.80]) organizational injustice perceived by the same employees significantly. To see whether homoscedasticity assumption was met, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results (GQ=0.92, $p > .05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

In third step, Toxic leadership was included as the predictor of negative affectivity perception. Regression results ($f(1,476)=244.8336$, $p < .001$, $R^2=.33$) showed that toxic leadership perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta = .58$, CI[3.66, 4.72]) negative affectivity perceived by the same employees significantly. To see whether homoscedasticity assumption was met, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results (GQ=0.94, $p > .05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

In fourth step, to see the direct effects of organizational injustice and negative affectivity, and their mediation role on the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression all variables were added in regression analyses. Results indicated a significant regression equation ($f(3,474)=33.0386$, $p < .001$, $R^2=.41$), however, organizational injustice's effect ($\beta = .14$, CI[-0.003, 0.08]) on unethical aggression was not significant. But negative affectivity predicted ($\beta = .32$, CI[0.008, 0.01]) unethical aggression significantly, and toxic leadership's effect ($\beta = -0.02$, CI[-0.04, 0.03]) was insignificant as well.

Thus, H_{3b} (Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression.) was rejected, but H_{5b} (Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression) was accepted.

To see the effect of toxic leadership on unethical aggression via negative affectivity, indirect effect of toxic leadership was calculated. Toxic leadership had a significant indirect effect ($\beta = .18$, CI[0.10, 0.27]) on unethical aggression via negative affectivity.

To check the remaining assumptions for the regression analyses a series of tests were conducted. To check homoscedasticity, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results (GQ=0.13 $p > .05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic. To check multicollinearity between predictors, variance inflation scores (VIF) were calculated. VIF scores of toxic leadership, organizational injustice and negative affectivity were 3.10, 3.57 and 1.76, respectively. According to Hair et al. (2014) VIF scores lower than 10, indicates an acceptable multicollinearity. Thus, multicollinearity assumption of regression analysis was also met. To check the significance of indirect effects Sobel test was conducted (Sobel, 1982). Calculated test result ($z = 5.41$, $p < .05$) was significant which is an another indicator for significance of indirect effects.

Consequently, regression analyses indicated that, organizational injustice did not mediated the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression perceptions of employees. On the other hand, negative affectivity mediated the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression.

4.3.4 The Relationship Between Job Demands and Unethical Aggression and The Mediating Effects of Organizational Injustice and Negative Affectivity.

To see the relationship between job demands and unethical aggression and the mediating effects of organizational injustice and negative affectivity, a series of regression analyses were conducted with the conditional process analyses method developed by Hayes (2017). Results of regression analyses are shown in Figure 15.

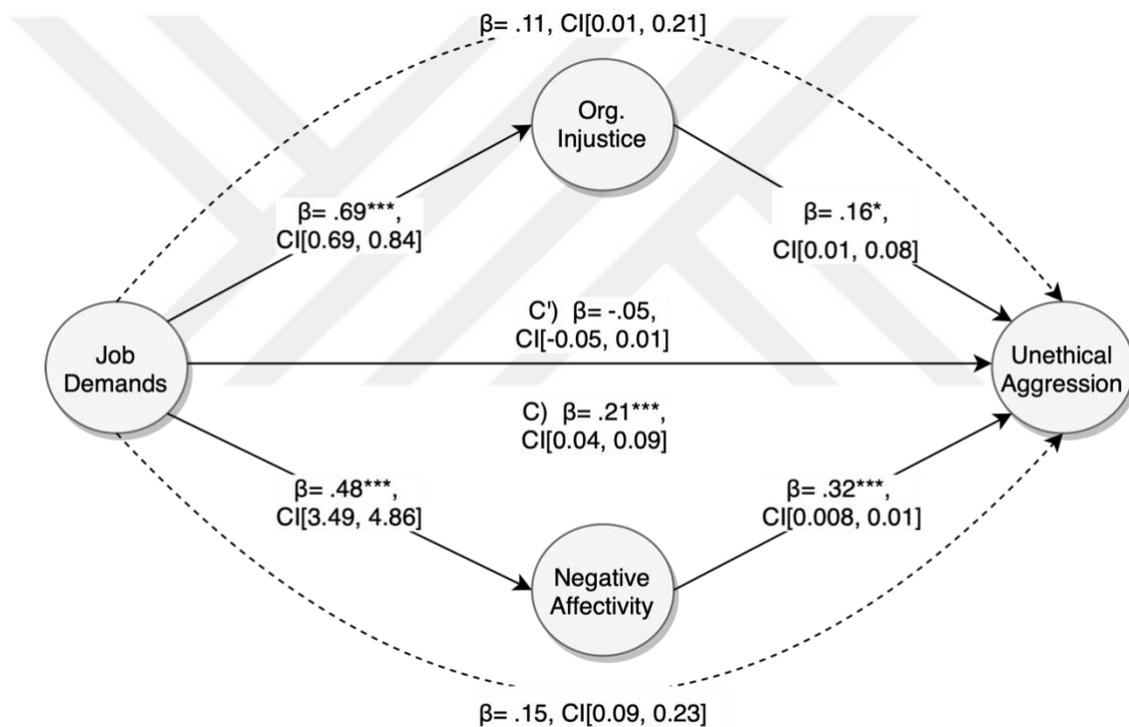


Figure 15: The Mediation Model Between Job Demands and Unethical Aggression

Note. β =standardized beta, $^{***}p < .001$, $^*p < .05$, CI=confidence interval, \rightarrow = direct effects, $----$ =indirect effects, C =total effect, C' = direct effect

In first step (C), job demands was included to analysis as the predictor of unethical aggression. Regression results ($f(1,476)=22.9962$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.04$) showed that job demands perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta= .21$, $CI[0.04, 0.09]$) unethical aggression perceived by the same employees. To see the weather homoscedasticity assumption is met, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results ($GQ=0.12$, $p>.05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

Thus, H_{2b} (Job demands has a positive relationship with unethical aggression) was accepted.

In second step, job demands was included to regression as the predictor of organizational injustice perception. Regression results ($f(1,476)=433.3969$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.47$) showed that job demands perceptions of employees predicted ($\beta= .69$, $CI[0.69, 0.84]$) organizational injustice perceived by the same employees. To test the homoscedasticity assumption, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results ($GQ=1.08$, $p>.05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

In third step, job demands was included to regression analyses as the predictor of negative affectivity perception. Regression results ($f(1,476)=144.4848$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.23$) showed that job demands predicted ($\beta= .48$, $CI[3.49, 4.86]$) negative affectivity perceived by the same employees. To check the homoscedasticity assumption, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results ($GQ=0.93$, $p>.05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic.

In fourth step, to see the direct effects of organizational injustice and negative affectivity and their mediation role on the relationship between job demands and unethical aggression all variables were included in regression analyses. Results indicated a significant regression equation ($f(3,474)=33.3751$, $p<.001$, $R^2=.17$). Organizational injustice predicted ($\beta= .16$, $CI[0.01, 0.08]$) unethical aggression significantly, moreover negative affectivity predicted ($\beta= .32$, $CI[0.008, 0.01]$) unethical aggression significantly as well. But, job demands' effect ($\beta= -.05$, $CI[-0.05, 0.01]$) was insignificant. Furthermore, by combination of

bootstrapping method and conditional process analysis, indirect effects of job demands were calculated separately. Job demands had a significant indirect effect ($\beta = .11$, CI[0.01, 0.21]) on unethical aggression via organizational injustice. Furthermore, job demands had a significant indirect effect ($\beta = .15$, CI[0.09, 0.23]) on unethical aggression via negative affectivity as well.

Lastly, to check the significance of indirect effects, Sobel test was conducted (Sobel, 1982). Calculated test results for indirect effects for organizational injustice ($z = 2.45$, $p < .05$), and negative affectivity ($z = 5.25$, $p < .05$), indicated the significance of indirect effects.

To check the remaining assumptions for this regression analysis a series of tests were conducted. For homoscedasticity assumption, Goldfeld-Quandt test was conducted (Goldfeld & Quandt, 1965). Test results ($GQ = 0.13$, $p > .05$) indicated that residuals were homoscedastic. To check multicollinearity between predictors variance inflation scores (VIF) have been calculated. VIF scores of jobs demands, organizational injustice and negative affectivity were 1.91, 2.56 and 1.74, respectively. According to Hair et al. (2014) VIF scores lower than 10, indicates an acceptable level multicollinearity. Thus, multicollinearity assumption of regression analysis was also met.

In conclusion regression analyses indicated that, organizational injustice and negative affectivity perceptions of employees, mediated the relationship between job demands and unethical aggression.

Thus, H_{4b} (Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between job demands and unethical aggression) and H_{6b} (Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between job demands and unethical aggression) were accepted.

4.4. ADDITIONAL ANALYSES: DEMOGRAPHICAL DIFFERENCES ON AGGRESSION

To check the demographical factors' (i.e., age, gender, level of education, marital status, tenure, size of organization, income, and managerial status) relationship with adiphoric and unethical aggression, a series of t-tests and One-way ANOVA were conducted.

Results showed that adiphoric aggression perception differed significantly according to respondents age and gender, did not differed according to tenure, marital status, level of education, size of organization, income, and managerial status factors. Regarding unethical aggression no difference was found between the demographical groups studied in present research.

4.4.1 Differences in Adiphoric Aggression by Age groups

In order to assess whether the age groups' perception about adiphoric aggression differs or not, One-way ANOVA was conducted. Test results indicated that the difference between age groups were statistically significant ($f(3)=3.624$, $p=.01$) (See Table 27).

Table 27: Adiphoric Aggression Perception by Age

<i>Age</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>p</i>
18-29	127	1.77	0.88	3.62	.01
30-39	157	1.97	0.91		
40-49	140	2.17	1.15		
50+	76	2.03	1.07		

Note. *n*=number of participants, *M*=mean, *SD*=standard deviation, *f*= f score, *p*= p-value

To see the significant differences between groups post-Hoc comparison was conducted with Tukey test method. Results indicated a significant difference between the 40-49 (M=2.17, SD=1.15) and 18-29 (M=1.77, SD=0.88) age categories. Thus, it is seen that employees between 40 and 49 ages perceived more adiaphoric aggression than the employees between 18 and 29 ages.

4.4.2 Differences in Adiaphoric Aggression by Gender

To investigate the adiaphoric aggression perception difference by gender, independent sample T-test method was used (See Table 28). Test results indicated that perceived adiaphoric aggression difference between women and men were statistically significant. As shown in Table 28 women respondents perceived more adiaphoric aggression than men respondents of the sample.

Table 28: Adiaphoric Aggression Perception by Gender

<i>Gender</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
women	249	2.11	1.05	2.69	.007
men	251	1.86	0.95		

Note. *n*=number of participants, *M*=mean, *SD*=standard deviation, *t*= t score, *p*= p-value

4.5. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

Hypothesis testing results and additional analysis done in present study summarized in the Table 29. Except one, all hypotheses were accepted. Moreover, additional analysis showed that adiaphoric aggression only differed by gender and age, unethical aggression was not differed by demographical factors assessed in present study.

Table 29: Summary of Findings

Study Hypotheses	Status
<i>H_{1a}: Toxic leadership has a positive relationship with adiphoric aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{1b}: Toxic leadership has a positive relationship with unethical aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{2a}: Job demands has a positive relationship with adiphoric aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{2b}: Job demands has a positive relationship with unethical aggression</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{3a}: Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and adiphoric aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{3b}: Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression.</i>	<i>Rejected</i>
<i>H_{4a}: Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between job demands and adiphoric aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{4b}: Organizational injustice mediates the relationship between job demands and unethical aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{5a}: Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and adiphoric aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{5b}: Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and unethical aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{6a}: Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between job demands and adiphoric aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H_{6b}: Negative affectivity mediates the relationship between job demands and unethical aggression.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>Additional Analyses</i>	
<i>Women respondents perceived more adiphoric aggression than man respondents</i>	
<i>Respondents between the ages of 40 and 49 perceived more adiphoric aggression than respondents between the ages of 18 and 29.</i>	

5. DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to, (1) draw up a theoretical framework for classifying aggressive behavior forms with ethical perspective (i.e., adiaphoric, unethical), (2) develop an aggression measurement tool, and (3) assess possible antecedents of aggressive behaviors within organizations. With this purpose, four preliminary exploratory studies and one quantitative main study were conducted. All studies provided empirical support for adiaphoric and unethical forms of aggression. Moreover, by the newly developed Aggressive and Unethical Aggression Scale (AUAS), the proposed antecedents' relationship with aggression was also investigated.

In first preliminary research 22 white collar employees' experience about the aggressive behaviors in their organizations were assessed by open semi-structured interviews. Afterwards interviews were transcribed and analyzed with content analysis method. Results showed that many new forms of aggressive behaviors which are not mentioned in literature were mentioned by the respondents. For instance, using target's mistakes against them (hatalarını aleyhte kullanma) was mentioned 30 times during these interviews. Transcribed aggressive behaviors were classified as adiaphoric (aggressive behaviors which cannot be evaluated as unethical easily by others) and unethical (aggressive behaviors which can be evaluated unethical easily by others) aggressive behaviors and their frequency were 246 and 147, respectively. These results underpinned the adiaphoric forms may be more prevail than unethical forms notion postulated in the present study. In literature, studies focused on insidious and subtle forms of aggression is limited, however in a limited number of studies relationships of similar concepts were reported. For instance, Buss (1961) mentioned that perpetrators may chose passive forms of aggression more than other forms to protect themselves from blame. Pacheco et al. (2016) reported that psychological and vicarious violence is more pervasive than physical violence in workplaces.

In light of this preliminary research and literature it is plausible to argue that adiabatic actions used for aggressive intentions are widespread in organizations. Thus, managerial staffs and HR departments must be aware of these behaviors, and necessary steps should be taken to prevent them. Otherwise, cumulative effects of these behaviors may have devastating effects on the organization. These preventive strategies may include, but are not limited to, trainings about anger management, stress management and importance of ethical conduct in the workplace. Furthermore, practices that embody inter-relational altruistic behaviors may be useful as well.

To check the practitioners' perspectives about the exploratory results of initial preliminary study, second preliminary study was conducted. Aggressive behavior forms derived from first study was sent to 83 practitioners and undergraduate students from behavioral science fields. They were asked to categorize aggressive behaviors according to given aggression typology. Results showed that, there was a 87% match between the 88 practitioners' classification and hypothetical classification made in the present study. Thus, in light of second preliminary study, it was concluded that practitioners approved the adiabatic and unethical aggressive behaviors framework. The study also implied that practitioners approved the ethical perspective to fill the literature gap on employee aggression. Thus, it is plausible to argue that adiabatic and unethical aggressive behaviors framework may be useful for investigation of aggression in organizations.

Third and fourth preliminary studies were dedicated to development of the item pool for adiabatic and unethical aggressive behaviors. Firstly, the item pool created with aggressive behaviors derived from initial studies was sent to eight academicians. Item pool was reviewed and revised, according to these scholars' ratings. Afterwards, a pilot study was conducted to see the correlations between items and study variables. 88 white-collar employees from Istanbul province responded to pilot survey. Results indicated that inter-item correlations and correlations among main study variables were in-line with the theoretical framework and hypotheses. Third and fourth preliminary researches provided empirical support for face and content validity of the newly developed AUAS as well.

After preliminary studies main study was conducted to: (1) check statistical validity and reliability of newly developed AUAS, (2) effects of toxic leadership, job demands, organizational injustice, negative affect, and demographical factors on adiaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors. Results indicated that, AUAS that consist of adiaphoric and unethical aggression sub-scales was a valid and reliable measurement tool for assessing aggressive behaviors. AUAS explained 76% of total aggression variance with .97 Cronbah's alpha score.

Regarding research model, firstly toxic leadership's effects on adiaphoric and unethical behaviors were assessed. Regression results showed that toxic leadership's total predictive power on adiaphoric and unethical aggression were, $\beta = .67$ and $\beta = .28$, respectively. Thus, it was concluded that employees working with toxic superiors are more prone to manifest adiaphoric aggression. This relationship could be caused by employees' fear of confrontation with toxic leaders. Hence employees may choose to stay anonymous by choosing adiaphoric aggression behaviors. Toxic leadership also predicted employees' unethical aggressive behaviors. This relationship can be flourished by two different psychological pathways. Employees may be learning aggression by observing toxic superiors as Bandura (1977) proposed in his well-known social learning theory. In other words, since toxic leadership behaviors includes many aggressive behaviors, employees may perceive these behaviors as the ways of doing job in that organization. Employees may also manifest unethical aggressive behaviors as a result of anger tantrums or aggression outbursts triggered with continuous exposure to toxic behaviors of their leaders. Moreover, both ways may be working as an underlying causality on the relationship between toxic leadership behaviors and unethical aggression.

In literature, number of studies investigating toxic leadership's relationship with employee aggression is limited. However many studies were conducted to investigate the relationships between other dark leadership styles and aggressive behaviors. Burton and Hoobler (2011) reported abusive supervision's relationship with aggression, Fauzia Syed et

al. (2021) reported a positive relationship between pseudo transformational leadership behaviors and aggression.

In light of the findings obtained in this study and those obtained in previous similar studies, it can be suggested that leader toxicity should be controlled in organizations. Preventing toxicity can be seen as a two-sided coin. One side is recruiting leaders who do not use toxic leadership behaviors, the other side is creating a continuous leadership development strategy to educate and develop managers' regarding supportive leadership skills.

Second antecedent proposed in the present study was job demands. Regression results showed that job demands' total predictive power on adiabatic and unethical aggression forms were, $\beta = .59$ and $\beta = .21$, respectively. This relationship can be explained by the distress related with high demands. High demanding jobs may easily increase the stress levels of employees and under the pressure of stress employee's propensity to aggression can easily increase. Organizational literature also supports the relationship between stress and employees' unintended behaviors. For instance, the relationship between stress and aggression was reported in a number of studies (Chang et al., 2019; Demir et al., 2014; Enwereuzor et al., 2018). Moreover, job demands' relationships with concepts like bullying and incivility (Bernstein & Batchelor, 2022; Smoktunowicz et al., 2015; Torkelson et al., 2016; Van den Broeck et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2022) were also reported. Thus, it was concluded that findings regarding job demands and aggression of the present the study was congruent with the literature.

Consequently, to prevent both types of aggression, job demands on employees must be adjusted to a normal level. Creating appropriate job descriptions, by rationally calculating the amount of work for each role and the amount of time needed can be seen as a starting point for managing the workload. Furthermore, staff needs, and existence of job creeping must be considered. On the other hand, emotional demands and changes at work setting must be controlled as well. Preventive strategies or actions should be administered to alleviate the effect of stress related with emotional demands and changes at work.

Another organizational phenomenon assessed in the present study was organizational injustice's mediation role on the relationships between proposed antecedents and aggression among employees. Regression analyses results indicated that organizational injustice partially mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and adiabatic aggression. As proposed in the theoretical framework chapter, employees working with toxic superiors likely to develop an injustice perception towards their organization, because toxic leaders' arbitrary and toxic behaviors can change employees' perception about distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. As a result of perceived injustice employees may likely to reciprocate with adiabatic aggressive behaviors, to protect themselves from blame. Number of studies investigating this mediation relationship is limited. However, main notion of Skarlicki and Folger (1997); Skarlicki et al. (1999) were similar while they were developing their well-known organizational retaliatory framework. According to scholars, employees who perceive their organization as an unjust place may likely to involve in retaliation behaviors including aggression.

Organizational injustice's mediation role between job demands and aggression was also assessed. Regression results showed that, organizational injustice mediated the relationships between job demands and both forms of aggression. This empirical result can be related with high demands effect on employees' injustices perception. Employees working in high demanded jobs may perceive that they are not getting the reward of their efforts, and, thus they may choose to respond with aggression. In literature, empirical study results supporting this relationship were also mentioned by scholars. For instance, injustice perceptions' relationships with bullying, anger, aggression were reported (Chory & Hubbell, 2008; Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Samsudin et al., 2020) in a number of studies.

Thus, in addition to preventive strategies proposed in this chapter, managerial staff and HR professionals, must consider the injustice perceptions of employees. Because by preventing injustice, number of aggressive behaviors among employees may decline. To create a justice perception, distribution of resources must be done with equity principle,

furthermore, managers must also pay more attention to equality and equity during their social interactions with employees.

Negative affectivity's mediation role between antecedents proposed in present study and aggression was assessed as well. Regression results showed that negative affectivity mediated the relationships between toxic leadership and both forms of aggression. Moreover, negative affectivity also mediated the relationship between job demands and aggression.

Negative affectivity's mediation role on the relationship between toxic leaderships and both forms of aggression could be caused by Leader's authority and power. The behaviors of toxic superiors may easily change employee's mood to negative. Once employee's mood turned to negative, they will be more likely to develop more negative emotions to job events. These emotions may include anger and irritation which in turn may increase the likelihood of aggression. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996)'s well known affective events theory also explains the relationships between job events, affect and behavioral outcomes. According to scholars, negative daily work events, such as toxic leaders' arbitrary behaviors, can create affective reactions which in turn may embody affect driven behaviors such as aggression. In literature negative affectivity's relationship with aggressive behaviors was also mentioned in a number of studies (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hepworth & Towler, 2004; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Toro et al., 2020).

Negative affectivity had also mediated the relationships between job demands and both forms of aggression. As mentioned in theoretical framework, distress related with high demands likely to put employees in negative mood which in turn may make employees more aggressive about job related interactions.

Taken together, it was seen that, job related negative affectivity is an another conveyor concept between the antecedents and employee aggression. For this reason, employees' affectivity should be considered as well. Practices related with increasing employees' positive emotions, or incentives to make employees develop more positive emotions towards their organizations may be planned. Furthermore, strategies and

development plans directly related with employees' job related well-being can also flourish positive emotions towards the organizations.

Lastly, demographical factors' effect on adiphoric and unethical aggression was examined. Results provided empirical support for age and gender factors. Employees between 40-49 ages perceived more adiphoric aggression than employees between 18-29 ages. This difference may be caused by tenure because more experienced employees probably witnessed more adiphoric aggression incidents due to the time spent in work. Furthermore, adiphoric aggression is more subtle and insidious, thus, to detect and understand adiphoric aggression one must have knowledge about how things are done on that workplace.

Perceived adiphoric aggression also differed according to genders of respondents. Women respondents perceived more adiphoric aggression than men. This difference may be caused by women's better verbal abilities and higher emotional sensitivity. Research results indicated that females outperform male's regarding verbal abilities and emotional understanding of other (Berk, 2013). Thus, women may be distinguishing and understanding adiphoric type of aggression more easily than men.

6. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Even if the present study was conducted rigorously in terms of methodology, like all studies it has limitations as well. Firstly, sample of the study was consisted of mainly white-collar employees from İstanbul province. Thus, to increase the generalizability of results, similar studies must be conducted on different cultures and different employee samples.

Another limitation of the present study was newly developed Adiaphoric and Unethical Aggression Scale (AUAS). Despite, validity and reliability results of the scale were above the acceptable cut-off values for social sciences, correlations with similar scales were not assessed yet. Thus, to provide empirical support for convergent and discriminant validity, AUAS should be administered, with previously developed similar scales and results must be checked in terms of validity. Furthermore, AUAS was developed in Turkish, its adaptation to other languages and validity studies for that languages must be done, because societal norms about adiaphoric and unethical behaviors may differ between cultures.

In the present study a mixed method has been used, however, adiaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors can be investigated by other methods like experimental design or focus groups. Adding various research methods may provide more detailed information about the framework.

Regarding future research directions, AUAS adaptation to other languages can contribute to literature and researchers from other cultures. Furthermore, adaptation studies, may help for comparative intercultural studies. Another research direction can be seen as adiaphoric aggressive behaviors' relationships with other organizational phenomena. As mentioned in the theoretical background part, cumulative effects of adiaphoric aggression may be devastating for organizations. Thus, understanding its antecedents will contribute to development of prevention strategies and practices. Apart from organizational concepts,

adiaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors' individual antecedents may be examined as well. Culture, family norms, moral development and many other individual factors may be affecting adiaphoric and unethical aggression.

Lastly, it is also important to prevent adiaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors among employees, thus studying and developing prevention strategies and applications can be another research direction. By these practices organizations may protect both their existence and members' psychological well-being from the negative effects of adiaphoric and unethical aggressive behaviors.

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8. APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. PRELIMINARY STUDY 1: INFORMED CONSENT

FORM

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

Sayın Katılımcı,

Yukarıda adı yazılı araştırmaya katılmak üzere davet edilmiş bulunmaktasınız. Bu araştırmada yer almayı kabul etmeden önce, araştırmanın ne amaçla yapılmak istendiğini anlamanız ve bu bilgilendirme sonucunda kararınızı vermeniz gerekmektedir. Aşağıdaki bilgileri lütfen dikkatlice okuyunuz, sorularınız olursa sorunuz ve açık yanıtlar isteyiniz.

Bu araştırma Marmara Üniversitesi İngilizce İşletme Bilim Dalı, Örgütsel Davranış Anabilim Dalı'nda öğrencisi olan İhsan İlker ÇİTLİ'nin doktora tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir.

Araştırmanın amacı, kurumlarda çalışan bireyler arasında ortaya çıkan saldırgan davranışların niteliğinin ve niceliğinin incelenmesidir. Araştırma sonucunda bu tip davranışların anlaşılması ve azaltılması bakımından mevcut literatüre katkı sağlanması hedeflenmiştir. Araştırma için **Marmara Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Etik Kurulundan** izin alınmıştır. Araştırma sırasında İhsan İlker ÇİTLİ ile yüz yüze bir görüşme yapmanız istenecektir. Bu görüşmenin 45 ile 60 dakika arasında sürmesi planlanmaktadır. Onay verirseniz, görüşmeler kayıt cihazıyla kaydedilecek olup, görüşme sonrasında araştırmacı tarafından bu kayıtlar dinlenerek, metin haline getirilecektir. Kayıtlar metin haline getirilirken tüm kişisel ve kurumsal veriler demografik veri halinde kodlanarak gizliliğiniz korunacaktır. Kayıtlar başka bir cihaza ya da başka kurum ve kişilere aktarılmayacaktır. Bu araştırma dışında hiçbir amaçla kullanılmayacaktır. Sağlamış olduğunuz bilgilerin, kullanılması ve imha edilmesi aşamalarında Kişisel Verileri Koruma Kanunu, ilgili diğer mevzuat ve bilimsel etiğe uygun hareket edilecektir. Bu görüşmenin size ve yakınlarınıza hiçbir zararı olmayacaktır. Çalışmaya katılmakla parasal yük altına girmeyeceksiniz ve size de herhangi bir ödeme yapılmayacaktır.

Yukarıdaki açıklamalar ışığında bu araştırmaya katılıp katılmamakta tümüyle özgürsünüz. Gerek duyduğunuz tüm bilgileri istemeye ve doğru, açık, anlaşılır bilgi almaya hakkınız vardır. Gerekli gördüğünüz takdirde araştırmanın herhangi bir kısmında araştırmadan çıkabilir, istediğiniz soruya cevap vermeyebilir ve sağladığınız tüm verinin imha edilmesini isteyebilirsiniz. Araştırma ile ilgili daha fazla bilgiye ihtiyaç duyarsanız araştırmacıya ulaşabilirsiniz.

Yukarıda açıklanan araştırmaya başlanmadan önce katılımcılara verilmesi gereken bilgileri içeren metni okudum (ya da sözlü olarak dinledim). Bir örneğini aldım. Araştırma kapsamında elde edilen şahsıma ait bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılmasını, gizlilik kurallarına uyulmak kaydıyla sunulmasını ve yayınlanmasını, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama altında kalmaksızın, kendi özgür irademle kabul ettiğimi beyan ederim.

İmza/Tarih

Katılımcının adı soyadı

İmza/Tarih

**Sorumlu Araştırmacı
İhsan İlker ÇİTLİ**

APPENDIX B. PRELIMINARY STUDY 1: SEMI STRUCTURED
QUESTIONS

No	Semi-structured Questions
1	Çalıştığınız kurumda çalışanlar arasında agresif davranışları oluyor mu? Sizce yaygınlığı nedir?
2	Çalıştığınız kurumda çalışanlar agresif davranışları nasıl sergilemeyi tercih ediyor. Açıkta (alenen) mı yoksa daha gizli yollardan kimliklerini belli etmeyecek şekilde mi?
3	Hangi tipin daha yaygın olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
4	Açıkta (alenen) yapılan agresif davranışları düşündüğünüzde hangi davranışlarla karşılaşmaktasınız?
5	Gizli yollardan ya da yapanın kimliğini belli etmeyecek şekilde yapılan agresif davranışları düşündüğünüzde hangi davranışlar ile karşılaşmaktasınız?
6	Diğer çalışanların bilinçli bir şekilde görevlerini yapmayarak, olumsuz şeylerin önüne geçmeyerek ya da faydalı şeyler yapabilecekken yapmayarak agresiflik sergilediklerini düşünüyor musunuz? Ne gibi örnekler gözlemliyorsunuz?
7	Sizin, konuştuğumuz agresif davranışları sergilediğiniz oluyor mu? / Hangilerini?
8	Çalışma arkadaşlarınız üstelerine karşı en çok hangi agresif davranışları sergiliyor?
9	Çalışma arkadaşlarınız astlarına karşı en çok hangi agresif davranışları sergiliyor?
10	Çalışma arkadaşlarınız ast üst ilişkisinin olmadığı iş arkadaşlarına karşı en çok hangi agresif davranışları sergiliyor?
11	Çalışma arkadaşlarınızın agresif davranışlarını sergileme biçimlerinin kişiliklerinden etkilendiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?
12	Çalışma arkadaşlarınızın agresif davranışlarını sergileme biçimlerinin cinsiyetlerinden etkilendiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?
13	Çalışma arkadaşlarınızın agresif davranışlarını sergileme biçimlerinin yaşlarından etkilendiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?
14	Çalışma arkadaşlarınızın agresif davranışlarını sergileme biçimlerinin kıdemlerinden etkilendiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?
15	Çalışma arkadaşlarınızın agresif davranışlarını sergileme biçimlerinin kurumun özelliklerinden etkilendiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?
16	Sizce, çalışma arkadaşlarınızın agresif davranışlarını sergileme biçimlerini etkileyen başka önemli etmen(ler) var mı?

APPENDIX C. PRELIMINARY STUDY 2: ONLINE SURVEY

Sayın Katılımcı,
 Bu araştırma, Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü doktora öğrencisi İhsan İlker ÇİTLİ tarafından yapılan ve Prof. Dr. Tülay TURGUT danışmanlığında yürütülen akademik bir çalışmadır. Cevaplarınız sadece ilgili bilimsel araştırma dahilinde kullanılacak ve kesinlikle üçüncü şahıslarla paylaşılmayacaktır. Desteğiniz için teşekkür ederiz.
 İhsan İlker ÇİTLİ

Aşağıda Saldırganlık davranışıyla ilgili bazı açıklamalar verilmiştir. Sorulara başlamadan önce bu açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyunuz.

Literatürde saldırganlık davranışı farklı boyutlarda incelenmiştir. Bu çalışmada incelenen boyutlar aktif/pasif ve doğrudan/dolaylı saldırganlık boyutlarıdır.

Aktif Saldırganlık belirli davranışların sergilenmesi yoluyla hedef kişiye çektilen acıdır.

Pasif Saldırganlık ise belirli davranışların yapılmaması yoluyla hedef kişiye acı çektilme durumudur.

Doğrudan Saldırganlık hedef kişiye doğrudan yöneltilmiş saldırganlık davranışıdır.

Dolaylı Saldırganlık hedef kişinin değer verdiği bir şeye yöneltilmiş olan davranıştır

Bu açıklamalara göre aşağıda verilen saldırganlık örneklerinin hangi saldırganlık tipine daha uygun olduğu konusundaki görüşünüzü belirtmenizi rica ederiz.

Örnek: Eşyalara zarar vermek	Aktif	Dolaylı
Saldırgan Davranışlar	Aktif/Pasif	Doğrudan/Dolaylı
Agresif tavırlar		
Alay etmek, iğnelemek		
Aşağılama, küçümseme		
Bağırma/Ses Yükseltme		
Fiziksel Saldırı		
Hakaret, Küfür		
İftira atmak		
Sözel kavga		
Tahdit etmek		
Dedikodu		
Hatalarını aleyhte kullanma		
İş yükü arttırmak, angarya işler, imkânsız işler, monoton işler		
Kaba/nezaketsiz iletişim		
Memnuniyetsiz davranışlar, söylemler, söylenerek işi yapma		
Sabotaj		
Yanlış yönlendirme		
Yönetici yetkilerini olumsuz biçimde kullanmak		
Yöneticiye şikâyet		
İletişim kurmama, yok sayma, görmezden gelme		
Sosyal İzolasyon, dışlama		
Bilgi saklama		
İşi eksik, geç, özensiz yapma, hiç yapmama		
Yanlış uyarılmamak		
Yardım etmemek		

APPENDIX D. MAIN STUDY SURVEY

Bu form, Marmara Üniversitesi, Örgütsel Davranış ana bilim dalında doktora yapan İlker ÇİTLİ'nin tezi için veri toplamak amacıyla oluşturulmuştur.

Formda kimliğinizi ortaya çıkartabilecek hiçbir soru bulunmamaktadır. Sağladığınız veriler bilimsel amaçlarla anonim olarak değerlendirilecektir. Verilerin kullanılabilmesi için formdaki tüm soruların cevaplanması gerekmektedir.

**Araştırmama verdiğiniz destek için çok teşekkür ederim.
Talep ve önerileriniz için iletişim bilgilerim aşağıdaki gibidir.**

**İlker ÇİTLİ
Marmara Üniversitesi
Örgütsel Davranış Ana Bilim Dalı**

Sağladığım verilerin bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılmasını onaylıyorum.	Evet () Hayır ()				
Bu bölümde demografik ifadeler yer verilmiştir. İfadelerin altındaki seçeneklerden size en uygun olanı işaretleyin lütfen.					
Yaşınız (rakamla)				
Cinsiyetiniz	Kadın ()	Erkek ()	Diğer ()		
Medeni durumunuz	Evli ()	Bekar ()	Diğer ()		
Eğitim durumunuz	İlköğretim ()	Lise ()	Lisans ()		
	Master ()	Doktora ()			
Çalıştığınız kurum (bu soru kamuda çalışan ve kendi işini yapanları elemek için)	Özel sektör ()	Kamu ()	Kendi İşimi yapıyorum ()		
Çalıştığınız Pozisyon	Beyaz yaka ()	Mavi yaka ()	Diğer ()		
Çalıştığınız Sektör				
Kaç yıldır bu sektörde çalışıyorsunuz? (rakamla)				
Son iş yerinizde kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız? (rakamla)				
Çalıştığınız departman				
Çalıştığınız kurumdaki toplam çalışan sayısı	1-9 ()	10-49 ()	50-249 ()	50- 249 ()	+250 ()
Aylık Ortalama Geliriniz	6.000 ₺ den daha az ()		6.000 - 9.999 ₺ ()		
	10.000 -14.999 ₺ ()		15.000 -19.999 ₺ ()		
	20.000 - 24.999 bin ₺ ()		+25.000 bin TL ()		
Yöneticilik pozisyonunuz var mı?	Evet () Hayır ()				
Bu bölümde departmanınızdaki / kurumunuzdaki çalışanların davranışlarıyla ilgili ifadeler yer verilmiştir. İfadelerin altındaki seçeneklerden en uygun olanı işaretleyin lütfen.					
S1-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların yüzlerine karşı	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()

yaptıkları işleri küçümseyici/aşağılayıcı yorumlar yaparlar.					
S2-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara kişisel özellikleri hakkında küçümseyici/aşağılayıcı yorumlar yaparlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S3-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara hakaret ederler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S4-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara bağırırlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S5-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara alanen küfrederler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S6-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların yüzüne karşı iftara atarlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S7-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlarla fiziksel kavga ederler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S8-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara omuz atmak/itmek gibi davranışlarda bulunurlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S9-Sinirlendikleri çalışanları kariyerlerine/pozisyonlarına zarar vermekle tehdit ederler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S10-Sinirlendikleri çalışanları fiziksel olarak zarar vermekle tehdit ederler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S11-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların yüzlerine karşı küçümseyici aşağılayıcı yorumlar yaparlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S12-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlarla iletişimlerinde daha kaba bir üslup kullanırlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S13-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara karşı daha saldırgan tavırlar sergilerler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S14-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara zarar vermek için yetkilerini onların aleyhine kullanırlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S15-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların hatalarını onlar	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()

ortamda yokken diğerlerinin duyacağı şekilde açık ederler.					
S16-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından yaptıkları işleri küçümserler/aşağılarlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S17-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından kişisel özelliklerini küçümserler/aşağılarlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S18-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından hakaret ederler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S19-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından küfür ederler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S20-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından iftira atarlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S21-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların yöneticilerini o kişiler hakkında dolduruşa getirirler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S22-Sinirlendikleri çalışanları yöneticilerine şikayet ederler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S23-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların yaptıkları işler hakkında diğer çalışanlarla dedikodu yaparlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S24-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların kişisel özellikleri veya yaşam tarzları hakkında diğer çalışanlarla dedikodu yaparlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S25-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara ağır görevlerin verilmesini sağlayacak şeyler yaparlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S26-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlara monoton veya angarya görevlerin verilmesini sağlayacak şeyler yaparlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S27-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından yaptıkları işleri sabote ederler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S28-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()

kariyerlerini/pozisyonlarını sabote ederler.					
S29-Diğer çalışanları sınırladıkları çalışanlara karşı dolduruşa getirirler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S30-Sınırladıkları çalışanlar hakkında diğer çalışanları örgütleyerek onları dışlatmaya çalışırlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S31-Sınırladıkları çalışanların işlerini gereğinden çok eleştirirler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S32-Sınırladıkları çalışanların mesleki becerilerini gereğinden çok eleştirirler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S33-Sınırladıkları çalışanlar gözlerinin önünde yanlış yaptığında uyarmadıkları olur.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S34-Sınırladıkları çalışanların yardım isteklerini bahaneler üreterek geri çevirirler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S35-Sınırladıkları çalışanların yardıma ihtiyacı olduğunda görmezden gelirler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S36-Sınırladıkları çalışanların olduğu ortamlarda onlar yokmuş gibi davranırlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S37-Sınırladıkları çalışanların iletişim çabalarını görmezden geldikleri olur.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S38-Sınırladıkları çalışanlardan bilgi sakladıkları olur.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S39-Sınırladıkları çalışanlar kendileri uğraşsın bulsun diye bilgi paylaşmadıkları olur.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S40-Sınırladıkları çalışanların işine olumsuz etki edebilecek şekilde yavaş çalıştıkları olur.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S41-Sınırladıkları çalışanların beklediği işleri geç veya eksik yaparlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()

S42-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların beklediği işleri yapmazlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S43-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların işini zorlaştırmak için üstünkörü çalışırlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S44-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların işini zorlaştırmak için yavaş çalışırlar veya iş yapmazlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S45-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından yapılan haksız yorumlara müdahale etmezler/düzeltilmezler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S46-Sinirlendikleri çalışanların arkasından küçümseyici/ aşağılayıcı yorumlar yaparlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S47-Sinirlendikleri çalışanlar hakkında dedikodu yaparlar.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
S48-Sinirlendikleri çalışanları gereğinden çok eleştirirler.	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
Bu bölümde departmanınızda / kurumunuzda çalışanların elde ettiği kazanımlarla ilgili ifadelere yer verilmiştir. İfadelerin altındaki seçeneklerden en uygun olanı işaretleyin lütfen.					
K1-Elde ettiğimiz kazanımlar, işimizde sarf ettiğimiz çabayı yansıtmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
K2-Elde ettiğimiz kazanımlar, tamamladığımız işlere uygun değil.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
K3-Elde ettiğimiz kazanımlar, kuruma sağladığımız katkıyı yansıtmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
K4-Elde ettiğimiz kazanımlar, sergilediğimiz performansı yansıtmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
Bu bölümde departmanınızda / kurumunuzda çalışanların işten elde ettiği kazanımların belirlendiği karar alma süreçleriyle ilgili ifadelere yer verilmiştir. İfadelerin altındaki seçeneklerden en uygun olanı işaretleyin lütfen.					
P1-Süreç boyunca görüşlerimizi ve duygularımızı ifade edemiyoruz.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()

P2-Süreç sonucunda elde ettiğimiz kazanımlar üzerinde etkimiz yok.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
P3-Süreçin uygulanmasında tutarsızlıklar var.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
P4-Süreç önyargısız biçimde uygulanmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
P5-Süreç, eksik ve yanlış bilgiye dayalıdır.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
P6-Süreç sonucu elde ettiklerimizin düzeltilmesini talep edemiyoruz.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
P7-Süreç, etik ve ahlaki standartlara uygun değil.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
Bu bölümde bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinin davranışlarıyla ilgili ifadelere yer verilmiştir. İfadelerin altındaki seçeneklerden en uygun olanı işaretleyin lütfen.					
A1-Çalışanlara kibar biçimde davranmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
A2-Çalışanlara saygın şekilde davranmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
A3-Çalışanlara saygılı davranmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
A4-Çalışanlara karşı, haksız sözler ve yorumlar sarfediyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
Bu bölümde bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinin yaptığı açıklamalarla ilgili ifadelere yer verilmiştir. İfadelerin altındaki seçeneklerden en uygun olanı işaretleyin lütfen.					
Y1-Yöneticimiz çalışanlarla iletişiminde içten davranmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
Y2-Kararlarla ilgili süreçleri çalışanlara tam açıklamıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
Y3-Karar alma süreciyle ilgili çalışanlara mantıklı açıklamalar yapmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
Y4-Süreçin ayrıntılarını çalışanlara zamanında aktarmıyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
Y5-Bilgi aktarırken çalışanların anlayabileceği dilden konuşmuyor.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()

Bu bölümde bazı his ve duygulara ilişkin ifadelere yer verilmiştir. Departmanınızdaki / kurumunuzdaki çalışanların ne sıklıkta böyle hissettiğini gözlemliyorsunuz (1 = çok az veya hiç, 5= çok fazla).					
T1-Sıkıntılı hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
T2-Mutsuz hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
T3-Suçlu hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
T4-Ürkmüş hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
T5-Düşmanca hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
T6-Asabi hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
T7-Utanmış hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
T8-Sinirli hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
T9-Tedirgin hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
T10-Korkmuş hissederler	Çok az/hiç (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Çok fazla (5)
Bu bölümde bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinin nasıl biri olduğuyla ilgili ifadelere yer verilmiştir. İfadelerin altındaki seçeneklerden en uygun olanı işaretleyin lütfen.					
M1-Yöneticim, çalışanlara her zaman emredici şekilde davranır.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
M2-Yöneticim, çalışanlar üzerinde sıkı bir disiplin uygular.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
M3-Yöneticim, önemli olsun ya da olmasın tüm kararları kendisi alır.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
M4-Yöneticim, çalışanların talimatları sorgulamadan yerine getirmesini bekler.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
M5-Yöneticim, bir karara varmadan önce çalışanlar tarafından sunulan alternatif fikirleri dikkate alır.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
M6-Yöneticim, kurumun başarı kaynağının, sadece kendisi olduğunu düşünür.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
M7-Yöneticim, herkesten daha yetenekli olduğunu düşünür.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()
M8-Yöneticim, çalışanların kendisine minnet duymasını gerektiğini düşünür.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()	Kesinlikle <u>katılmıyorum</u> ()

M9-Yöneticim, kendisine yapılacak kişisel iltifat ve övgüye çok değer verir.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M10-Yöneticim, bencil davranışlar sergiler.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M11-Yöneticim, kibirli bir insandır.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M12-Yöneticimin, sürekli değişkenlik gösteren bir ruh hali vardır.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M13-Yöneticimin, söylemleri ile eylemleri tutarsızdır.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M14-Yöneticim, keyfi kararlar alır.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M15-Yöneticim, geçerli bir neden belirtmeksizin kararlarını değiştirebilir.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M16-Yöneticim, çalışanların, çalışma koşulları (çalışma saatleri, sorumluluk alanları, ücret, tatil vb.) hakkında net standartlar ortaya koymaz.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M17-Yöneticim, çalışanları iş tanımlarında olmayan görevlerden sorumlu tutar.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M18-Yöneticim, çalışanları kendi kişisel işlerinin gerçekleştirilmesinde kullanır.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M19-Yöneticim, çalışanlara makul olmayan bitirme sürelerine sahip görevler verir.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M20-Yöneticim, çalışanların hak ve çıkarlarını işletme başarısı uğrana göz ardı eder.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M21-Yöneticim, çalışanları işini sonlandırmakla tehdit eder.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M22-Yöneticim, çalışanların emeklerini sömürmez, haklarını teslim eder.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M23-Yöneticim, başarılarından herkesin haberdar olmasını sağlar.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()

M24-Yöneticim, kurumca ulaşılan ortak başarıları kendi başarısı gibi gösterir.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M25-Yöneticim, üst yönetimin ve patronların gözüne girebilmek için tutum ve davranışlarını belirgin biçimde değiştirir.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M26-Yöneticim, kurumda meydana gelen başarısızlıkların sorumluluğunu üstlenmez.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
M27-Yöneticim, kuruma kazandırdıklarını her fırsatta gündeme getirir.	Kesinlikle katılıyorum ()	Oldukça katılıyorum ()	Biraz katılıyorum ()	Pek katılmıyorum ()	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum ()
Bu bölümde departmanınızdaki / kurumunuzdaki çalışanların karşılaştığı bazı durumlarla ilgili ifadelere yer verilmiştir. İfadelerin altındaki seçeneklerden en uygun olanı işaretleyin lütfen.					
E1-Çalışanlar hızlı çalışmak mı zorunda?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E2-Çalışanların yapması gereken çok fazla işi mi var?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E3-Çalışanların bir işi zamanında yetiştirmek için ne sıklıkla fazla mesai yapması gerekir?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E4-Çalışanların üzerinde zaman baskısı var mı?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E5-İşiniz, çalışanlar için duygusal açıdan talepkâr mı?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E6-Çalışanlar duygusal olarak dokunaklı olaylarla karşı karşıya kalır mı?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E7-Çalışanların duygusal anlamda yoğun durumlarla karşılaştığı olur mu?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E8-Çalışanlar onları memnun etmek adına her şeyi yapmasına rağmen yine de sürekli şikâyet eden insanlarla karşılaşır mı?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E9-Çalışanlar talepkâr insanlarla uğraşmak zorunda kalır mı?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E10-Çalışanlar hak ettikleri saygı ve nezakette davranmayan insanlarla karşılaşır mı?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E11-Çalışanlar doğal görünmek adına ne sıklıkta	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()

gerçek hislerini bastırır (örn. Kızgınlık)?					
E12-Çalışanlar spontane duygularını göstermeye ne sıklıkta engel olur (örn. Antipati)?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E13-Çalışanlar, insanlara ne sıklıkla asıl hissettiği duygulardan farklı olan belirli duyguları göstermek zorunda kalır?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E14-Çalışanlar, insanlara karşı başka türlü hissetmelerine rağmen ne sıklıkta olumlu duygular göstermek durumunda kalır?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E15-Çalışanlar canlarını sıkın insanlara ne sıklıkla anlayışlı davranmak zorunda kalır?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E16-Çalıştığınız departman değişikliklerin (örn: personel, ürün ya da süreç) olduğu bir yer midir?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E17-Çalıştığınız departmanda herhangi bir yeniden düzenlemeyle karşılaştınız mı?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E18-Çalışanlar kendini iş yerinizdeki değişikliklere uydurmak zorunda mıdır?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E19-Son zamanlarda çalıştığınız departmanın organizasyon yapısında bir değişiklik meydana geldi mi?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E20-Son zamanlarda takımınızın yapısı değişti mi?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E21-Son zamanlarda departmanınızdaki çalışanların işlerinin içeriği değişti mi?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()
E22-Departmanınızdaki çalışanlar değişen görevlerle karşı karşıya kaldı mı?	Her zaman ()	Sıklıkla ()	Bazen ()	Nadiren ()	Hiçbir zaman ()