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Doktora Tezi

REMZİ GÜNEŞ

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REMZİ GÜNEŞ

Tez Danışmanı: DOÇ. DR. SEÇİL TAŞTAN

İstanbul, 2020

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My mom once brought me a jar, dozen of stones, some sand and a glass of water and told me to fill the jar with them. She gave me an invaluable advice as she told me that as long as I put the stones first, I may fill the jar to its fullest. I feel like I am putting the last large stone now.

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ÖZET

Psikolojik uyum, bireylerin ruh hallerini etkileyen, dünyaya ilişkin tutumlarını ve alacakları aksiyonları belirleyen hem de karşılaşılan yaşam olaylarına karşı göstereceği dayanıklılık üzerinde etkide bulunan önemli bir kavramdır. Benzer şekilde, psikolojik uyumsuzluğun da bireylerin adaptasyon süreçlerini olumsuz etkileme, bireyleri depresyon, anksiyete ve stres gibi durumlara karşı savunmasız bırakabilme potansiyeli bulunmaktadır. Kişisel psikolojik uyumsuzluk bireylerin duygusal durumlarını belirlemekle birlikte öncül faktörleri yalnızca bireylerin kendi yatkınlıkları ile kısıtlı olmayıp psikososyal pek çok faktör de bireylerin deneyimlediği psikolojik uyumsuzluk üzerinde de etkide bulunabilmektedir. Benzer şekilde, bireylerin, örgütlerin kendi çıkarları ötesinde önceliklendirdiği herhangi bir şey olmadığına ilişkin inancı, bu düşünceye verilen duygusal tepkiyi ve bunları takip eden davranışları kapsayan örgütsel sinizm de bireysel, örgütsel ve yönetsel pek çok kavram ile etkileşim halindedir.

Örgütsel davranış alanının temel amacı örgütler ve bireyler arasındaki etkileşimleri pozitif psikoloji perspektifi ile ele alarak hem örgütler hem de bireyler için yapıcı bir örgütsel çerçeve oluşturup çalışma yaşamının kalitesini arttırmaktır. Buradan hareketle, örgütsel davranış literatüründe örgütsel pek çok değişken, bireysel, yönetsel, iş ile alakalı ve örgütsel pek çok değişkenin etkileşimi ile açıklanmaktadır. Böylelikle, örgütsel değişkenler ve değişkenler arasındaki etkileşimlerin yalnızca kuramsal düzeyde yaklaşımlar oluşturulması değil, pratik kazanımlar sağlayacak iç görüler sağlaması da hedeflenmektedir.

Bu çalışmada da kişisel psikolojik uyumsuzluk ve örgütsel sinizm kavramlarının öncüllerine odaklanılarak kavramsal bir literatür araştırması yapılmıştır. Söz konusu kavramların ele alındığı teorik ve görgül çalışma sonuçlarının incelenmesi sonucunda bireylerin deneyimlediği kişisel psikolojik uyumsuzluk ve örgütsel sinizmin öncüllerine odaklanılarak kuramsal bir model geliştirilmiştir. Önerilen kuramsal model çerçevesinde, yıkıcı liderlik ve benlik kurguları çalışmanın bağımsız değişkenleri olarak modele dahil edilmiştir. Daha sonra, yıkıcı liderlik ile bireysel psikolojik uyumsuzluk arasındaki ilişkide psikolojik ihtiyaç engellenmesinin aracı rolde olduğu öne sürülmüştür. Buna ek olarak işin anlamlılığının da bu ilişkide düzenleyici rol oynayacağı ön görülmüştür. Ardından yıkıcı liderlik ile örgütsel sinizm arasındaki ilişkide psikolojik sözleşme ihlalinin aracı rol oynayacağı öne sürülmüştür. Son

olarak benlik kurguları ile örgütsel sinizm arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunması ön görülerek kuramsal çerçeveye dahil edilmiştir.

Bu doğrultuda, İstanbul ilinde özel ve kamu sektörlerinde çalışan 260 kişiden oluşan örneklem grubundan veri toplanmış ve bu veri Sosyal Bilimlerde Kullanılan İstatistik Paketi aracılığıyla çeşitli analizlere dahil edilmiştir. İstatistikler analizler sonucunda çalışmanın 4 hipotezinin desteklendiği, 2 hipotezinin ise desteklenmediği görülmüştür. Buna göre yıkıcı liderlik ile kişisel psikolojik uyumsuzluk ($r=0.341$, $p=0.000$) arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunduğu ve bu ilişkide psikolojik ihtiyaç engellenmesinin aracı rol oynadığı ($\beta=0.675$, $p=0.000$) görülmüştür. Buna ek olarak yıkıcı liderlik ile örgütsel sinizm ($r=0.627$, $p=0.000$) arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunduğu ve bu ilişkide psikolojik sözleşme ihlalinin aracı rol oynadığı ($\beta=0.489$, $p=0.000$) gözlenmiştir. Öte yandan, benlik kurguları ile örgütsel sinizm arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Bu durum, örgütsel sinizmin benlik kurgularından ziyade bireysel, yönetsel ve örgütsel diğer değişkenlerle daha güçlü bir etkileşimi olduğunu göstermektedir. Buna ek olarak, işin anlamlılığının yıkıcı liderlik ile kişisel psikolojik uyumsuzluk arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rol oynamadığı görülmüştür. Bu durum yıkıcı liderlik ile kişisel psikolojik uyumsuzluk arasındaki güçlü ilişkide işin anlamlılığının güçlü bir etkide bulunmadığını göstermektedir.

Bunun yanı sıra, araştırmanın değişkenlerine ilişkin ortalamalar, katılımcıların cinsiyet, yaş, eğitim durumu, toplam çalışma deneyimi ve toplam şirket deneyimine göre karşılaştırmalı analizler yapılarak değişkenler arasında demografik özellikler bazında farklılaşmalar bulunup bulunmadığı ele alınmıştır. Elde edilen bulgular, bazı demografik özelliklerin araştırmanın değişkenleri baz alındığında anlamlı ölçüde farklılaştığını göstermiştir. Elde edilen tüm sonuçlar bu çalışmanın tartışma bölümünde detaylı bir şekilde incelenmiştir.

Özet olarak, bu çalışma bireylerin kişisel psikolojik uyumsuzluk ve örgütsel sinizm eğilimlerinin öncüllerinin neler olabileceği ele alınmış ve yıkıcı liderlik, psikolojik ihtiyaç engellenmesi ve psikolojik sözleşme ihlalinin öneminin altı çizilmiştir. İlgili literatürde söz konusu kavramlar arasındaki etkileşimleri konu alan çalışmaların bulunmaması ya da az sayıda olması sebebiyle çalışmanın hem kavramsal hem de pratik açıdan ilgili literatüre katkıda bulunacağı ön görülmektedir. Ön görülen bu katkılar çalışmanın tartışma bölümünde kapsamlı bir şekilde incelenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Psikolojik Uyumsuzluk, Örgütsel Sinizm, Yıkıcı Liderlik, Benlik Kurguları, Psikolojik İhtiyaçların Engellenmesi, Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali, İşin Anlamlılığı

ABSTRACT

Personal psychological harmony is an important concept that affects individuals' moods, determines their attitudes and actions towards the world, and affects their resilience against the life events encountered. Similarly, personal psychological disharmony has the potential to negatively affect individuals' adaptation processes, leaving individuals vulnerable to conditions such as depression, anxiety, and stress. Although personal psychological disharmony determines the affective status of individuals, its preliminary factors are not only limited by the individuals' own predisposition, but many psychosocial factors, as well. Similarly, organizational cynicism, involving individuals' belief that there is nothing that organizations prioritize beyond their own interests, the emotional response to this idea, and the actions that follow them, interacts with many individual, organizational and managerial concepts.

The main mission of the organizational behavior field is to improve the quality of working life by creating a constructive organizational framework for both organizations and individuals by addressing the interactions between organizations and individuals within positive psychology perspective. From this point of view, majority of the concepts in organizational behavior literature is explained by the interaction of individual, managerial, work related and organizational variables. Thus, it is aimed that organizational variables and the interactions between these variables will not only create approaches at the theoretical level but also provide insights that will provide practical gains.

In this study, a conceptual literature research was conducted with a focus on the premises of personal psychological disharmony and organizational cynicism. As a result of the examination of the theoretical and empirical study results in which these concepts were addressed, a theoretical model was developed by focusing on the premises of personal psychological disharmony and organizational cynicism experienced by individuals. Within the proposed theoretical model, destructive leadership and self-construal are included in the model as independent variables of the study. It was argued that psychological need thwarting had a mediating role in the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. In addition, task significance was assumed to play a moderating role on this relationship. It was also suggested that psychological contract breach would play a mediating role in the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism. Finally, it

was argued that there was a significant relationship between self-construal and organizational cynicism.

Accordingly, data were collected from the sample group of 260 people working in the private and public sectors in Istanbul. Then, data was analyzed through the Statistics Package Used in Social Sciences. As a result of statistics analyses, it was revealed that 4 hypotheses of the study were supported and 2 hypotheses were not supported. Accordingly, it was observed that there was a significant relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony ($r = 0.341$, $p=0.000$) and psychological need thwarting played a mediating role on this relationship ($\beta= 0.675$, $p = 0.000$). In addition, it has been observed that there is a significant relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism ($r = 0.627$, $p = 0.000$) and psychological contract violation plays a mediating role in this relationship ($\beta= 0.489$, $p = 0.000$). On the other hand, there was no significant relationship between self-construals and organizational cynicism. It shows that organizational cynicism has a stronger interaction with individual, managerial and organizational variables rather than self-construals. In addition, it was found that task significance did not play a regulatory role in the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. It demonstrates that task significance does not have an impact on the strong relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony.

Moreover, means related to the variables of the research, participants' gender, age, educational status, total working experience and total company experience were analyzed to see if there were differences in terms of demographic variables among the variables. Age demographic was divided into five, considering the psycho-social development phases. The findings showed that some demographic variables differ significantly based on the variables of the study. All the results obtained were examined in detail in the discussion section of this study.

In summary, this study has addressed the precursors of individuals' personal psychological disharmony and organizational cynicism tendencies, and highlighted the importance of destructive leadership, psychological need thwarting and psychological contract breach. It can be argued that this study will contribute to the relevant literature both conceptually and practically due to the lack or absence of studies focusing on the interactions

between these concepts. These predicted contributions were thoroughly examined in the discussion section of the study.

Keywords: Personal Psychological Disharmony, Organizational Cynicism, Destructive Leadership, Self-Construal, Psychological Need Thwarting, Psychological Contract Breach, Task Significance

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LIST OF THE DEFINITIONS AND MAIN CONCEPTS

The main concepts that are covered in this study can be found below. Further information have been included in detail in the literature review section.

Destructive Leadership refers to variety of repetitive and deliberate leadership behaviors that have disruptive effect on performance and engagement of subordinates through diminished work motivation to pursue organizational goals (Larsson et.al., 2012). It embodies lack or inadequacy of leadership qualities, insensitivity towards subordinates' needs, and morally ambiguous tendencies, such as unethical behaviors and nepotism (Uymaz, 2013).

Self-Construal was defined as the extent to which the self can be defined as an incomparable and stand-alone phenomenon or interwoven concept of self and the social context (Voyer and Franks, 2014). Markus and Kitayama (1991) argued that it can be treated as the manifestation of the individualism and collectivism dimension of culture at an individual level.

Personal Psychological Disharmony is an umbrella concept that include range of emotional, cognitive and behavioral reactions to protracted stressful stimuli, event or environment (Taştan and Torun, 2016). It encapsulates depressive indications, anxious symptoms and agitated behaviors (Wilson, et.al., 2004).

Organizational Cynicism refers to the belief that both individuals and organizations behave in a self-serving manner and possess little concern and compassion to one another (Davis and Gardner, 2004). It involves both skeptic thoughts towards interacting parties, as well as feelings of resentment and avoidant behaviors (Byrne and Hochwater, 2008).

Psychological Need Thwarting refers to the detention of meeting one's fundamental psychological needs due to internal and environmental factors. It can be viewed as being unable to fulfill autonomy, competency and relatedness needs (Milyavskaya and Koestner, 2011).

Task Significance refers to the perceptions of added value of one's job on other parties, such as family, work groups and society. It is associated with sense or lack of pride and meaning regarding the tasks, responsibilities or jobs that one have at work (Grant, 2008).

LIST OF THEORETICAL ROOTS OF THE MODEL

Several theories have been referred in this study to make inferential associations on the hypothesized relationships of the research model. It is a well-known fact that Neo-Classical Management Paradigms, Contingency Theory, and Positive Organizational Behavioral Approach have been extremely influential to provide fundamental theoretical background to guide researchers to make causal relations between several variables in the last half-century. Leveraging from these seminal perspectives, various theories will be capitalized to conceptualize the hypothesized relationships between variables before diving deeper into details.

Affective Events Theory is a theory developed to explain the relationship between emotions in the organizational contexts and several individual outcomes, such as job performance, affective commitment, turnover intention and other behaviors. Weiss and Cronpanzano (1996) argued that components of work environment, including job characteristics, job demands and emotional labor associated with responsibilities, as well as work events and personal characteristics are associated with emotional reactions, which in turn lead to positive or negative individual outcomes. The theory has been referred to explain the connection between psychological need thwarting and personal psychological disharmony, and the relationship between psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism.

Cognitive Behavioral Theory is a theory that explains the relationship between environmental stimuli and affective and behavioral tendencies through an emphasis on underlying cognitions and mindsets. Lazarus (1991) argued that emotions are natural products of cognitive processing and they lead to behavioral consequences. Cognitive behavioral theory will be benefited in this study to further explain the connections between self-construal, psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism, as well as psychological need thwarting and personal psychological disharmony.

Cognitive Theory of Self-Regulation is a theoretical approach developed to unfold the relationship between emotional regulation mechanisms and cognition, affect, motivation and behavior. Bandura (1964) argued that self-regulation is derived from self-efficacy which is

shaped by social learning. It will be used to conceptualize the relationship between psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism.

Conservation of Resources Theory is the model designed to explain the underlying motivational factors that encourage employees' to preserve their current resources and seek new resources. Hobfoll (1989) argued that stress emerges when individuals face a loss or threat of loss to current resources or individuals fail to explore and reach new and personally rewarding resources. In this study, it will be tapped into explicate the associations between destructive leadership, psychological need thwarting and personal psychological disharmony.

Defiance Theory is the theory designed to unfold the relationship between opportunistic behavior and its multifaceted effects on behavioral orientations of interacted parties. Zehr (1995) argued that opportunistic behaviors, lead to disrespect from the interacted party, which lead to a vicious. The theory will be used to explain the relationship between self-construal, psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism.

Equity Theory is a theoretical model developed to explicate the relationship between perceptions of fairness and motivation. Adams (1965) argued that employees are motivated by perceived equity between themselves and their reference groups and lack of equity leads to decreased motivation in individuals which paves the way for unwillingness to cooperate. The theory will be utilized to shed light on psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism.

Employee Organization Relationship Theory is a conceptual approach constructed to unfold the complex perceptions of managers/organizations and employees and their effect on one another. Tsui and colleagues (1995) argued that both employees and managers/organizations have expectations from one another and to meet or failure to meet these expectations end up in behavioral change on corresponding party. The theory will be referred to conceptualize the relationship between psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism.

Field Theory is a psychological theory designed to examine the association between individual level cognitive, affective and behavioral tendencies and environmental factors. Inspired by Gestalt approach, Lewin (1936) argued that the conflict between psychological

needs and abilities of individuals, which drive them to achieve personally meaningful goals, and internal and external environmental factors, which constitute restraining factors, direct phenomenology of individuals. In this study, it will be used to explain the associations between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony, as well as self-construal and organizational cynicism.

Goal Setting Theory is the approach designed to clarify the relationship between personally meaningful goals, action plans and motivation to pursue these goals. Locke and Latham (1990) argued that determining specific, clear, realistic and challenging goals and comparting actions to pursue them to provide direction and encouragement for individuals. The theory will be further explained to elaborate the relationship between the associations between destructive leadership, psychological need thwarting and task significance.

Human Motivation Theory is the theory designed to penetrate what motivates individuals to pursue life goals. McClelland (1980) argued that individuals have tendency to pursue achievement, affiliation and power needs, which are shaped by unique interaction of personal predispositions and life experiences. The theory will be utilized to conceptualize psychological need thwarting and its connection to destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony.

Job Characteristics Model is the theoretical model to explicate the nature of the work tasks and employee motivation. Hackman and Oldham (1975) argued that tasks which involve personal meaning, autonomy and growth opportunity. It will be benefitted to explain the relationship between task significance and personal psychological disharmony.

Job Demands-Resources Model is the theoretical approach developed to explain job stress through the relationship between job-related constraints and internal mechanisms to cope with them. Bakker and colleagues (2007) argued that both individual and organizational factors play a determining role on employee motivation, which in turn lead to job performance. The model will be utilized to capture the associations between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony, as well as psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory is the approach built up to explain reciprocal behavioral orientations between leaders and members. Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975)

argued that dyadic relationships between leaders and their subordinates play a critical role on several individual and organizational outcomes. This approach will be used to cover the relationship between destructive leadership, psychological need thwarting and personal psychological disharmony.

Norm of Reciprocity is a theoretical concept that explains the tendency to reciprocate both favorable and unfavorable deeds. Gouldner (1960) argued that individuals feel obligated to repay benefits for benefits, and return harm for hostility or neglect. It will be tapped into conceptualize the relationships between self-construal, psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism.

Self-Construal Theory is the theory built up to conceptualize how individuals identify and signify the meaning of the self. Markus and Kitayama (1994) argued that the concept of self is shaped how individuals see it in relation to other people. The theory will be utilized to shed light on the connection between self-construal and organizational cynicism.

Self-Determination Theory is a theoretical framework that explains the association between human motivation, and external and internal motivators. Deci and Ryan (1985) argued that proactivity and engagement of individuals depend largely as a function of internal and external motivational factors. It will be benefitted to capture the relationship between destructive leadership, psychological need thwarting and personal psychological disharmony.

Social Comparison Theory is the theory developed to explain the perception of self-worth in relation with other people. Festinger (1954) argued that individuals specify their self-evaluations as they compare themselves with others. The theory will be tapped into the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony.

Social Exchange Theory is a theory which emphasize the importance of exchange processes on social behavior. Blau (1964) argued that personal value of a relationship is determined by the relative weight of benefits and costs. The theory will be referred to explain the relationship between self-construal, psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism.

Social Learning Theory is a theoretical framework designed to explain the relationship between environmental stimuli, associated behaviors and underlying tendencies that connect

them. Bandura (1977) argued that affective and behavioral reaction to an environmental stimuli is mediated by social cognitions, which are gathered through observational learning. The theory will be referred to explain the relationship between self-construal and organizational cynicism.

Theory of Alienation is a critique of stratification of social classes and capitalist economic system, as well as a theoretical approach to estrangement of employees from their work responsibilities. Marx argued that capitalist economy leaves little room for workers to control their labor and render them as a replaceable cog in a mass means of production (Archibald, 1976). The theory will be referred to capture the relationship between task significance and personal psychological disharmony.

Trust Theory is a conceptual approach developed to capture the behavioral intentions between individuals. Rotter (1967) argued that interpersonal trust manifests itself in prosocial actions intended to result in favorable outcomes for the corresponding party. In this study, it will be tapped into the connections between self-construal, psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism.

1. INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

Leadership has always been one of the most fundamental concepts in organizational research. Dating back to Antique Greece, innumerable scholars made several attempts to define what it takes to be a good leader. For centuries, leadership was equated with being an effective ruler or statesman, who would possess personal qualities like intelligence, good will and courage, intimidate rivals, influence and inspire large masses. As industrial revolution shifted the mindset from conventional viewpoint emphasizing the power of almighty state to modern perspective underlining the substantiality of private enterprise, leadership emerged as the cornerstone of management studies.

In the last century, organizational researchers spent tremendous effort to define "what is good leadership" and come up with numerous approaches (McCauley et.al., 2006). In most approaches, ineffective leadership was identified with lack of, or, inadequate favorable leadership behaviors. As research provided the insight that "bad" leadership characteristics was not simply the antithesis of "good" leadership, and an effective and successful leader can also possess unfavorable leadership qualities, "what is bad leadership" became a central question to organizational research. The approaches like abusive supervision (Hornstein, 1996), narcissistic leadership (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006), derailed leaders (Schackleton, 1995), and toxic leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2006) were developed to tackle the disruptive side of the leadership.

One of the concepts that have been developed to conceptualize suboptimal leadership behaviors was destructive leadership. It was defined as the repeated and systematic leadership behaviors that include ineffective use of human capital. In Shaw, Erickson and Harvey (2011)'s approach, there are six key aspects of destructive leadership. First, authoritarian leadership involves micro-managing and over-controlling behavior patterns. Second, inadequate leadership includes inadequate skills on concepts like ineffectual negotiation and persuasion, not having skills to match the job, inability to develop and motivate employees. Third, unethical behaviors involves inappropriate leadership uses such as brutal lying manner, lying and other unethical behaviors. Fourth, inability to deal with new technology and other changes includes incompetency in moderating work-related methods, as well as changes. Fifth, callousness

toward subordinates involves being ignorant and using poor communication skills. Sixth, nepotism involves favoring some employees over others. Since destructive leadership is associated with burnout (Harvey et.al., 2007), counterproductive work-place behavior (Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007), turnover intention and lower levels of job satisfaction (Tepper, 2000), affective commitment (Burris, Detert and Chiaburu, 2008), positive affectivity (Wu and Hu, 2009), and contextual performance (Aryee et.al., 2007) of employees, it is necessary for organizations to observe how leadership manifests itself and what the outcomes are. For this reason, two of the questions of the present study are as below.

Q_1: Do employees in organizations go through destructive leadership practices?

Q_2: What are the consequences of destructive leadership on employees?

In order to explicate these questions, observations of interactions between leaders and subordinates, task structures, and organizational characteristics have shaped our perceptions of our comprehension of destructive leadership. Then, we reviewed the literature to find out individual, organizational and task-related elements which may be associated with destructive leadership. Accordingly, the relationship between destructive leadership, personal psychological disharmony, psychological need thwarting and task significance was assumed in the literature review.

In relation to this, personal psychological disharmony is one of the suggested factors that have association with destructive leadership. It is an indisputable fact that leadership plays a vital role on organizational performance, such as financial performance (Xenikou and Simosi, 2006), profitability (Waldman et.al., 2001), customer satisfaction (Rhodes, Walsh, and Lok, 2008), organizational learning and innovation (Garcia-Morales, Jimenez-Barrionuevo, and Gutierrez-Gutierrez, 2012) and so on. In addition to the organizational aspect, leadership has long been known as a significant component of employee-related variables, such as job satisfaction (Aydın, Sarıer and Uysal, 2013), affective commitment (Van der Voet, Kuipers and Groenveld, 2015), turnover intention (Demirtaş and Akdoğan, 2015), to name a few. Additional research has also provided vision regarding the effect of leadership not only on employee as a contributor of organizations, but also on employee as a human-being.

From this perspective, personal psychological disharmony was developed as an umbrella concept to include negative affectivity, dysfunctionality, poor adaptability and

worsened physical health (Collins and Long, 2003). To be more precise, depression is one of the main concepts of personal psychological disharmony. For one thing, depression involves affective symptoms, including negative mood, apathy and inability to experience pleasure (Çetin et.al., 2012). Furthermore, at the cognitive level, depression is associated with pessimistic outlook on self, others and the future, feelings of meaninglessness and worthlessness (Sherry et.al., 2008). In addition, depression has psychosomatic symptoms, including lack of energy, low appetite, disturbed sleep and so on (Jiamei et.al., 2008). Apart from depression, anxiety is another component of psychological disharmony. Anxiety is associated with irritability, agitated mood, hypervigilance, catastrophizing, and so on (Lovibond and Lovibond, 1995). Finally, stress is another constituent of personal psychological disharmony. More specifically, stress is associated with hyper-reactivity, inability to relax, impatience and so on (Bicknell and Liefooghe, 2010).

Several attempts have been made to provide insights on the precursors of personal psychological disharmony of employees. From an integrative perspective, personal psychological disharmony have been shown to be associated with organizational factors, such as organizational climate (Wilson, et.al., 2010), and organizational culture (Santos, Hayward, and Ramos, 2012), as well as job characteristics, including autonomy and feedback (Ter Doest and de Jonge, 2006). In addition, links have been found between leadership and employee personal psychological disharmony. More specifically, unfavorable leadership behaviors, such as abusive supervision and authoritarian leadership have been demonstrated to have positive correlation with depression (Pyc, Meltzer and Liu, 2017), anxiety (Spector and Goh, 2001) and stress (Tepper, 2007), which are the components of personal psychological disharmony.

Another variable in the model is psychological need thwarting, which can be defined, which corresponds to being unable to fulfill fundamental psychological needs (Bartholomew et.al., 2014). Proponents of content theories of motivation argue that humans have certain psychological needs that need to be satisfied in order to live a happy and fulfilling life (Milyavskaya and Koestner, 2011). Scholars have made several attempts to provide a framework that encapsulate all fundamental psychological needs. Among these great scholars, McClelland (1961) argued that humans have three basic psychological needs, namely achievement, affiliation and power. Influenced from this perspective, Bartholomew (2011) developed a framework in which being unable to meet, that is to say thwarting these needs,

three fundamental psychological needs, namely autonomy, competence and relatedness. First, humans are in need of relatedness. In other words, we have a strong drive to establish strong bonds with other people, and feel belongingness and involvement to a group. Second, humans are driven by their need of competence. To put it differently, we tend to set challenging but achievable goals, enhance mastery and continuously improve ourselves. Third, need of autonomy is another psychological need that drive individuals' actions. In another saying, the desire to be self-reliant and being able to determine the course of our lives shape our values, attitudes and behaviors. Studies have revealed that psychological need thwarting is associated with decreased well-being (Ntoumanis, 2012; Ryan and Deci, 2000).

The other variable in the hypothesized model is task significance. Regarding the motivational factors on employee-level outcomes, task-related factors play a crucial role in addition to individual, managerial and organizational elements. In Hackman and Oldham (1975)'s job characteristics model, five profound job-related qualities have been defined which have been argued to promote job performance. In this model, Hackman and Oldham (1975) argued that jobs that involve autonomy, that is the freedom to organize one's tasks and choose the methods that one will use, drive individuals to feel involvement to one's work. In addition, jobs that involve feedback, which can be defined as having the opportunity to gather information regarding one's performance level, influence individuals positively to show superior performance. Moreover, jobs that involve skill variety, that is the opportunity to utilize one's potential and use different talents, and task identity, which is the level of personal meaning that one's job possess for the individual, may enhance motivation's to demonstrate exalted performance (Grant, 2008). Last but not least, task significance is a key factor that have a potential to improve one's task performance. Task significance can be defined as the perceptions of contribution one makes to other people's lives. Personally meaningful jobs encourage individuals to make use of one's full potential through decreased emotional dissonance and increased sense of relevance and pride. Studies showed that task significance has significant relationships with job satisfaction (Dal Santo, Pohl, and Battistelli, 2013), affective commitment (Pohl, 2002), and well-being (Graham and Shier, 2010).

To dive deeper into personal psychological disharmony, following questions have been generated in the current study.

Q_3: Do employees experience personal psychological disharmony?

Q_4: What are the variables that are associated with personal psychological disharmony of employees?

On the other side, the influence of culture on individuals have been assumed to have individual, affective and behavioral outcomes. From that point of view, self-construal has been assumed to have an influence on individuals' affect, cognition and behavior at the workplace.

Notion of self-concept has long been one of the cornerstones of social studies. In a general sense, it refers to our thoughts about ourselves regarding our unique attitudes, emotions, perceptions, values and behaviors. Beginning with early childhood, the concept of self is conceived and it is continuously shaped throughout our lives (Damarlı, 2006). In addition to individual life experiences, including upbringings, relationships with parents, peers and significant others, how individuals perceive themselves regarding their relation to social and cultural context is a fundamental component of their self-concept. In other words, not only how well we have been able to resolve personally-valued life crises, but also how effective we have been able to manage hectic interaction between our self and the culture in which we have been raised determine how we construct our perceptions about ourselves (Damarlı, 2006).

Heavily influenced by Hofstede (1980)'s GLOBE study, and the concept of individualism and collectivism, Markus and Kitayama (1991) underlined the magnitude of culturally internalized self-construal by arguing that individuals form their self-images and differentiate themselves from others as a result of different construal in relation to self and others. In their seminal work, Markus and Kitayama (1991) 5ontrol55 that two cultural influences play the key role. One of these influences is the independent self-construal, which refers to how individuals define themselves as a separate being. To put it in another way, independent self-construal involves value regarding whether one will assume agency to be a self-reliant individual and autonomously determine the course of their lives with relatively little external impact. The other cultural influence on self-construal is the interdependent self-construal, in which establishing and maintaining good connections, achieving interpersonal harmony, and fulfilling socially-valued identities (Çetin et.al., 2012).

Although individualism and collectivism are usually represented as the two poles of a spectrum, independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal are orthogonal. To put

it differently, individuals do not possess either of these tendencies exclusively, but two self-construals can co-exist at varying degrees (Oyersman, Elmore, and Smith, 2012). On the other hand, most individuals have "dominant" self-construal, which determine the fundamental orientation regarding values on autonomy and interpersonal harmony.

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the consequences of self-construal in multiple realms. To be more precise, self-construal play an important role on several psychological variables such as motivation, emotion and decision-making (Cross et.al., 2011; van Baaren et.al., 2003), mimicry (Ashton-James, Van Baaren, and Chartrand, 2007) and self-esteem (Baldwin and Sinclair, 1996). Self-construal has been widely studied in marketing domain and multiple associations have been found with product evaluation (Zhu and Myers-Levy, 2009), and brand recognition (Ahluwalia, 2008). In organizational behavior, self-construal have been shown to be associated with individual well-being (Cross, Morris and Gore, 2003), organizational citizenship behavior (Eagley, 2009), and negotiation behavior (Gelfrand, Erez and Aycan, 2007). To our knowledge, the relationship between self-construal and organizational cynicism have not attracted much empirical attention, but several studies found significant associations with perceived procedural fairness (Brockner et.al., 2005), perceptions of organizational events (Pekerti and Kwantes, 2011), and unethical behavior (Cojuharenco and Patient, 2011).

Another variable in the hypothesized model is psychological contract breach, which can be defined as the perceived violation of written or unwritten mutual obligation to look for employees' interest on behalf of organization (Zhao et.al., 2007). Ideally, employees expect organizations to treat fairly, reciprocate high performance with rewards, and keep its commitments. Perceived negligence of these norms may lead to perceptions of injustice (Dunn and Schweitzer, 2005) and lead to disappointment and resentment on employees (Kickul, Lester and Belgio, 2004). Studies have revealed that psychological contract breach is associated with workforce morale (Kacmar et.al., 2006), in-role performance (Turnley et.al., 2003), turnover intention and organizational commitment (Lum et.al., 1998), counterproductive workplace behavior (Kozlowski, et.al., 2009), workplace deviance (Chiu and Peng, 2018), as well as organizational cynicism (Griep and Vantilborgh, 2018).

To further investigate individuals preferences on these two self-construals, as well as identifying dominant self-construal, below questions have been generated in the current study.

Q_5: Do individuals have dominant orientation regarding independent and interdependent self-construal?

Q_6: What are the consequences of self-construal?

In order to fulfill their fundamental needs and reach their goals, both organizations and individuals look for alternative ways to maximize their outcomes. Especially in today's fierce economy, interacting parties need to make solid decisions on when to compete and when to cooperate. In an environment where interacting parties are autonomous to take opportunistic or altruistic actions, it might be useful to expect that other parties may behave in a self-serving manner. However, constantly doubting others' intentions in order to be "safe rather than sorry" has its costs both at a relational and an individual level.

Beginning with Antique Greece, scholars have always been curious about how to live a virtuous life. Stoics argued that a virtuous life involves avoidance of earthly pleasures and being temperate and lofty in everyday actions, while Cynics believed that living a secluded life is extremely difficult to practice. Having a more pessimistic outlook on humankind, cynics argued that what drives human action is self-centeredness (Brandes, Dharwadkar, and Dean, 1999). Accordingly, cynicism is a skeptic attitude towards contemplations of other individuals, groups or ideologies (Delken, 2004).

From this viewpoint, organizational cynicism involves a dissatisfaction towards organizations with an argument that organizations have strong tendency to engage in behaviors that involve little ethical concern, such as lack of fairness, integrity and cooperation (Özler and Atalay, 2011). The concept gained major influence in organizational research in the last two decades, since studies show that organizational cynicism is highly prevalent (Dean, Brandes, Dharwadkar, 1998; Andersson, 1996; Chiaburu et.al., 2013).

Organizational cynicism is a multi-faceted concept that has three sub-categories. At one level, organizational cynicism is a cognitive concept and individuals who score higher on organizational cynicism have a suspicious attitude about their organizations. For instance, these individuals expect little similarity between commitments and actualized outcomes, spot

mismatches between organizational policies and current practices more frequently, and show vigilance to notice the gaps between expected and rewarded behaviors (Özler and Atalay, 2011). As a consequence, cynical thoughts about the organization may lead to hurt feelings and disappointments. Thus, at the second level, organizational cynicism is also an affective concept. Individuals with organizationally cynical tendency go through unfavorable emotions, such as resentment, anger, worry and anxiety (Nair and Kamalanabhan, 2010). Finally, skeptic thoughts and frustrations may result in behavioral reactions. For this reason, at the third level, organizational cynicism is a behavioral phenomenon. Individuals with heightened organizational cynicism tend to complain more about the practices in the organization, criticize policies and procedures, and openly talk about the events with the people outside the organization (Işık, 2014).

Regarding the antecedents of organizational cynicism, several studies found significant relationship between organizational cynicism and positive organizational support (Byrne and Hochwater, 2008), organizational justice (Kovacevic, Zunic, and Mihailovic, 2012), perceived organizational politics (Hochwater and Ferris, 2010), and psychological strain (Giorgi et.al., 2017).

Finally, the differences between variables of the study in terms of demographics, such as gender, age, education, total work experience and total company experience were investigated in the current study.

Q_7: Are there differences on study variables in terms of gender, age, education, total work experience and total company experience?

To sum up, this study aims to explicate contextual, sociocultural and managerial variables influencing individual and organizational consequences with regard to psychological and task-related factors. Concordantly, the research model involves one independent, one mediator and one moderator variable on personal psychological disharmony, and one independent and one mediator variable on organizational cynicism, as in Figure 1, which demonstrates the assumed hypothetical relationships between variables. After the research model had been proposed, a questionnaire was applied to 260 employees from several sectors, including manufacturing, FMCG, telecommunication, energy, conglomerates, high technology, retail, pharmaceutical, education, and health. Thereafter, gathered data was analyzed with

relevant statistical analysis methods. Afterwards, literature review has been prepared in the light of research questions and hypotheses. Then, data and results are presented among a discussion that cover the relationship between hypotheses and findings. Finally, the study has been completed with future suggestions and limitations.

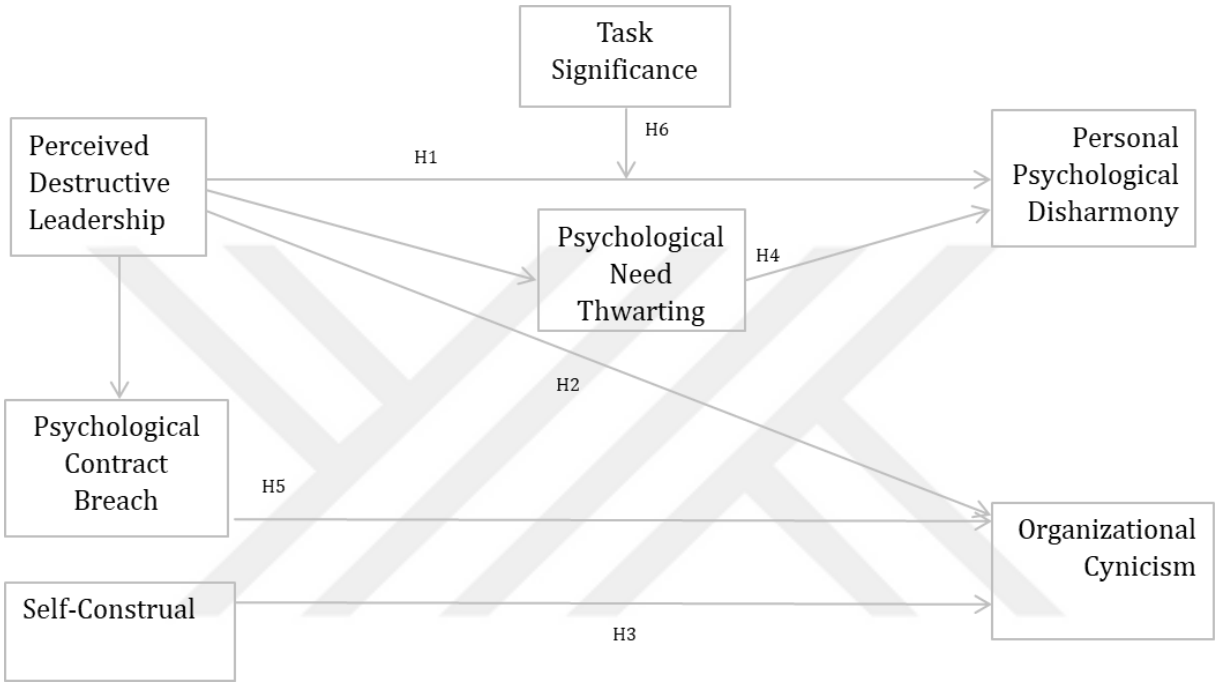

Figure 1. Pre-assumed Conceptual Framework of the Study

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. THE CONCEPT OF PERSONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL DISHARMONY

2.1.1. Definition of Personal Psychological Disharmony

As the last century has been witnessing constant perspective shifts as an elemental consequence of globalization, technological reformation, increased competition and substantial growth of service industry, employment and business conditions changed dramatically. Thus, these requirements rendered it obligatory for employees to be resilient, ambiguity tolerant and adaptable in the face of fierce working conditions, while research show that prospect on employee well-being is considerably worrisome.

Prevalence evidence on psychosocial hazards demonstrate that 36% of the European workforce work under intense working conditions and 25% of the employees in Europe experience work-related stress all or most of their working time (EWCS, 2015). Similarly, 12-16% of employees in Americas are under constant stress, 9-13% are experiencing sadness and depression, 13-19% go through sleep problems (Eurofound, 2011). Evidence from Asia-Pacific region showed that 48% of the employees face work demands that block individuals to maintain a healthy life-style, as well as 72% of workforce experience stress that have some impact on physical health, and 15% of the whole workforce experience high levels of stress that have strongly negative impact on physical health. Studies demonstrate that work-related stress is a major factor on cardiovascular diseases, musculoskeletal diseases, depression, anxiety, headache, insomnia, sleep and eating disorders, and even suicide (ILO, 2016).

A considerable evidence arriving from several resources necessitated the conceptualization of employees' psychological health, as well as the discovery of organizational causes and risk factors of the concept. Some of the attempts on developing a framework on psychological health were subjective well-being model (Diener, Suh, and Oishi, 1997), multi-dimensional psychological well-being model (Ryff and Keyes, 1995), new theory of well-being (Seligman, 2011) and employee well-being (Zheng et.al., 2015). In these models, scholar focused on improving life satisfaction through increasing positive emotions and

decreasing negative emotions. However, lack of well-being do not directly imply psychological ill-being, just as absence of ill-being do not guarantee well-being (Keyes, Shmotkin, and Ryff, 2002). Thus, researchers attempted to conceptualize psychological disharmony to tackle with negative psychological health outcomes.

Job performance has always been a fundamental concern in organizational behavior. Beginning with seminal Hawthorne studies, the overarching idea was that satisfied employees would demonstrate higher performance than unsatisfied employees (Zapf, 2002). This hypothesis had gained tremendous recognition, mainly because it had conceptual similarities with process theories of motivation. According to Adams (1965)'s equity theory, for example, employees believing that they are valued and fairly rewarded by their organization would have higher motivation to pursue organizational goals (Turabik and Baskan, 2015).

On the other hand, studies have revealed that job satisfaction is only moderately related with job performance. To be precise, meta-analyses showed that correlation between these two concepts were between .14 - .31 (Vroom, 1964; Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985; Judge, Heller, and Mount, 1998 in Wright and Cronpanzano, 2000). As job satisfaction has been considered as a term that covers only job-related attitudes, but not overall psychological functioning of employees, psychological well-being and relevant concepts like anger, depression and anxiety, gained larger scholarly attention in organizational research (Edosomwan, 2016).

Personal psychological disharmony is an umbrella concept that contains affective, cognitive and behavioral hardships that individuals face in the face of prolonged stressful stimuli, or environment in general. Thus, personal psychological disharmony stands for not only emotional reactions, such as sadness, irritability, low mood, decreased positive affectivity, or psychosomatic reactions, including loss of appetite, poor sleep, decreased energy and so on, but it also includes cognitive and behavioral components, social withdrawal, decreased self-efficacy, increased internal conflict, feelings of inferiority, to name a few (Taştan and Torun, 2016; Collins and Long, 2003).

According to cognitive theory, maladaptive emotions are not direct and definitive results of the environment. Appraisal, momentary cognitive processing mechanism, which is triggered by environmental stimuli, governs the emotional experience of an individual (Clark, Beck, and Alford 1999). On the other hand, appraisals are not based on the exact and objective evaluation

of the external environment. They are moderated by relatively stable cognitive conceptions of self, others and future, that are gained through recurrent and repetitive life experiences, also known as schemas. Thus, an individual who has a worthlessness schema is more vulnerable to depression; while a person with helplessness schema is more prone to anxiety and a person with danger schema has stronger propensity to anger (Clark and Watson, 1991).

The concept of psychological disharmony has long been studied in organizational literature under several constructs, such as distress, well-being, depression, anxiety, anger and so on, few attempts have been made to gather these concepts in a composite phenomenon. Derogatis and Melisaratos (1983), two of the first authors that constructed their research on the term "personal psychological disharmony", developed a 53-item questionnaire and categorized the concept into five components; anxiety, depression, negative self, somatization and hostility. Later, Lovibond and Lovibond (1995) studied personal psychological disharmony and come up with a shorter questionnaire, 42 items, and categorized the concept into three factors; depression, anxiety and stress.

Even though, psychological disharmony is a concept that has been studied in abnormal psychology realms, such as clinical psychology and psychotherapy, numerous studies have been conducted in order to observe the repercussions of the concept in organizational settings. In particular, psychological disharmony is associated with decreased positive organizational behavior, such as affective commitment, job satisfaction, extra role behavior, as well as increased negative organizational behavior, including burnout, counterproductive workplace behavior, and absenteeism (Kozlowski, 2009; Griep and Vantilborgh, 2018; Chiu and Peng, 2008; Pinder, 2011).

2.1.2. Related Concepts of Personal Psychological Disharmony

Relevant organizational literature has signified several direct and indirect premises on employees' personal psychological disharmony. The central concept in personal psychological disharmony is that it encapsulates more than one source of lack of psychological harmony and it has personal, organizational and leadership-related roots. As personal psychological disharmony is both detrimental and costly for both employees and organizations, underlying causes need to be closely investigated.

As to the precursors of personal psychological disharmony, studies have demonstrated the roles of organizational factors, such as organizational climate. More precisely, supportive and participative organizational climate is associated with lower levels of depression, anger, somatic symptoms, and poorer general health (Wilson et.al., 2004). In addition, job characteristics are other antecedents of employee well-being, as well. In particular, jobs that include feasible demands and provide autonomy is related to higher levels of employee well-being (Ter Doest and de Jonge, 2006).

One of the main components of personal psychological disharmony is depression. Since it has an enormous impact range, depression needs to be a critical concept that calls for comprehensive conceptualization and intervention. In addition to depression, the data on prevalence of anxiety is alarming as well. Lifetime prevalence rate of anxiety disorders is around 28%, as the studies show (Johnston and Schoen, 2009). From this perspective, closer look on the roots of anxiety in organizational realms is critical.

At the workplace, depression, anxiety and stress can be observed in several manifestations. Studies showed that lower morale, diminished will to cooperate, suboptimal levels of productivity, frequent absenteeism and drug abuse are among some of the symptoms of depression at work (Ramsey, 1995). On the other hand, the impact of depression, anxiety and stress is not limited to individual level incidences. Prevalence of depression, anxiety and stress among employees are costly for organizations considering the costs of sick leave, medical expenses, as well as diminished work performance (Johnson and Indvik, 1994).

Studies show that there are multiple variables that play a role on incidence of depression, anxiety and stress among employees, namely at organizational, managerial and work-related levels. From an organizational perspective, employee depression and stress has been associated with organizational climate. More specifically, studies demonstrate that an supportive and participative organizational climate is associated with higher levels of depression, stress and anxiety in employees (Wilson et.al., 2004). In addition to the climate, studies have found associations between organizational culture and components of personal psychological disharmony. In particular, an organizational culture that promotes or undermines fairness, inclusion and support is a major precursor of employee depression and anxiety (Findler, Wind and Barak, 2007). In addition, workplace bullying, which is characterized by repetitive negative

acts, including constant abuse, social exclusion and teasing, has been shown to have significant relationship with depression. Devonish (2013)'s study demonstrated that employees who are subject to one or more forms of workplace bullying are more predisposed to job stress and depression.

Constructs of personal psychological disharmony are also associated with job-related factors, as the studies demonstrate. Job autonomy, for example, is one of the key factors that may have an impact on employee depression. From the perspective of Hackman and Oldham (1975)'s job-characteristics model, Clark (2001) investigated the impact of job autonomy on depression and anxiety in employees and found out that these concepts have significant associations. Apart from the autonomy, work-life balance appears to be a significant precursor of stress and depression among employees. Thompson and Prottas (2006)'s study demonstrated that employees who are able to balance work demands with social life are less vulnerable to stress and depression.

Leadership is also another factor that has an impact on personal psychological disharmony that is experienced by followers. Several associations have been found between suboptimal leadership patterns such as abusive supervision, which is defined as display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors on leaders' behalf (Tepper et.al., 2004). Pyc and colleagues (2017) investigated the relationship between abusive supervision and depression, and found out that there is significant relationship between two constructs.

In addition, the relationship between authoritarian leadership, employee depression, anxiety and stress gathered scholarly attention. Authoritarian leadership has been characterized by repeated display of physical and non-physical hostility directed towards subordinates by leaders (Tepper, 2000). Several studies have investigated whether depression and stress are associated with authoritarian leadership. Spector and Goh (2001) and Tepper et.al. (2007)'s study demonstrated that authoritarian leadership and components of personal psychological disharmony are correlated. These findings correspond to leader-member exchange theory, which is centered upon the idea that unfavorable interaction patterns between leaders and subordinates may result in adverse psychological effects, particularly on subordinates.

In addition, several studies have demonstrated that leadership is a critical variable that has several associations with many other organizational consequences. Studies have shown, for

example, that favorable leadership orientations, such as transformational leadership, servant leadership, and authentic leadership is associated with lower levels of turnover intention (Demirtaş and Akdoğan, 2015; Jaramillo, Grisaffe, and Chonko, 2009), while unfavorable leadership behaviors, including toxic leadership and abusive supervision are correlated with increased turnover intention (Lavoie-Tremblay and Fernet, 2016). Apart from turnover intention, job satisfaction and organizational commitment have linkage with unfavorable leadership orientations. Studies demonstrate that toxic and abusive leadership are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mehta and Maheswari, 2013; Indradevi and Purusharta, 2016; Erickson and colleagues, 2015). Moreover, leadership is related to counterproductive work behavior of employees. Studies showed that toxic leadership and destructive leadership are associated with increased counterproductive workplace behaviors in employees (Mehta and Maheshwari, 2014). Relevant literature has revealed that leadership patterns are associated with absenteeism (Hassan, Wright and Yukl, 2014), work alienation (Sarros, Tanewski, and Winter, 2002).

2.2. THE CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CYNICISM

2.2.1. Definition of Organizational Cynicism

In the modern business world, the concept of organizations where employees are treated as crucial resource with utmost respect and consideration regarding their wishes and needs have gone through a fundamental shift. Organizations are in constant competition and paying equal attention to each party in organizations is not an easy task. However, the added value of employees to organizations is beyond any doubt and providing a work context that enable harmonious, as well as efficient work relations possess a vital importance and the organizations where employees are gathered around a shared goal and ensuring favorable work interactions for each party is central when it comes to survival (Naus, Van Iterson, and Roe, 2007).

On the other hand, some scholars believe that creating a work environment that are supportive and nourishing for each party is much of a modern ideal than of an actuality. According to Morgan and Hunt (1994), organizations, generally, are elitist entities where every party puts immense effort to make sure that some parties draw advantage from end product and profits. From this perspective, employees are likely to fall prey on loss of motivation to pursue

the goals they are expected to achieve, as they might be cynical about the underlying intentions of organizations.

As a philosophical term, cynicism dates back to Antique Greece, 4th century (B.C.). Beginning with Diogenes, some philosophers defined the virtue as avoiding earthly pleasures and problems, and following the path of determination, bravery and integrity. However, these philosophers, also known as cynics, argued that these individuals were rare to the utmost. To illuminate his point in an ironical sense, Diogenes once wandered around the city of Sinope in the day light and looked for a virtuous person with a lantern (Brandes et.al., 1999).

In the following centuries, on the other hand, the term has shifted in meaning and a cynic stood for a person who holds a worldview that every individual is utterly self-centered and looks only for his/her self-interest. In parallel, cynicism is defined as an insecure attitude towards a person, group, ideology, or a social tradition. From an organizational perspective, it refers to the belief that organizational choices are inconsistent, unreliable and based on concealed self-interest. It is a negative attitude towards one's employing organization which is characterized by the belief that each party would behave opportunistically if given the chance (Wilkerson, 2002).

In organizational behavior, organizational cynicism has been a trending topic in the last two decades, beginning with Anderson (1996)'s and Dean and colleagues' (1998) studies. In their influential work, Dean and colleagues (1998) argued that cynicism is so common and pervasive in organization that it is safe to say that "cynicism is everywhere". Preliminary studies demonstrated that 50-55% of the American workforce can be considered as organizationally cynic (Reichers, Wanous, and Austin, 1997). With the rise of global economic crises, corporate scandals, and mass layoffs, mutual distrust between employees and organizations have gradually deteriorated. In addition, since organizational cynicism may be beneficial for individuals by protecting them from emotional and economical damage, it becomes even more widespread among employees (Neves, 2012).

The concept of organizational cynicism emerged as a critique to the overarching idea that behaving in a self-serving manner and lack of motivation to share mutual goals is an individual-level issue. Although it might be tempting to believe that organizational cynicism may derive simply as a result of lack of work ethic or inability to conceptualize organizational

dynamics, it is also plausible to explicate it as the end product of unfavorable organizational interactions (Dean et.al., 1998). Apart from that, organizations suffer from organizational cynicism, since it is associated with wide variety of work outcomes, such as suboptimal performance, absenteeism, and turnover (Andersson, 1996). Thus, approaching the concept from an inclusive perspective is necessary.

Organizational cynicism can be identified as a deprecating attitude towards one's organization due to the lack of concern between different parties. Even though it is predominantly a cognitive construct, organizational cynicism includes emotional reactions and counterproductive behaviors. Thus, the fundamental framework that covers organizational cynicism consists of three sub-categories; cognitive, affective and behavioral (Neves, 2012).

At the cognitive level lies the belief that organizations do not behave fairly due to a lack of integrity. Individuals who demonstrate organizational cynicism tend to be hopeless about their circumstances, which eventually leads to a vicious circle (Davis and Gardner, 2004). Related with that, employees have frustration, resentment and anxiety towards their organization at the affective level. Finally, employees may tend to engage in pejorative behavior toward their organizations in accordance with their opinions and emotions (Andersson, 1996).

Organizational cynicism is widely studied in organizational behavior especially in the last decade, and apart from the empirical evidence, theoretical explanations have been generated to grasp the concept. For one thing, organizational cynicism can be explained through Rotter (1967)'s trust theory, in which it is argued that behavioral preferences in interpersonal relationships are moderated by the degree of trust that individuals have towards each other. Thus, if there is a relatively higher level of trust between leaders and subordinates, organizational cynicism is unlikely to occur. However, trust has a dispositional component, so that some individuals are more prone to rely on others, whereas others are more cautious in interpersonal relationships. Similarly, it can be argued that organizational cynicism has strong associations with individual variables (James, 2005).

As the manifestations of organizational cynicism are not limited to cognitive evaluations, it has powerful impact on affective reactions of employees. Affective Events Theory signifies the importance of work-related events as proximal causes of emotional reactions (Weiss and Cronpanzano, 1996). In an organizational context, employees constantly

update their motivation with respect to favorable or unfavorable work events. Unfavorable work events may trigger negative affectivity in employees, which may lead to decreased performance, diminished job satisfaction, and increased job-related stress (Tett and Meyer, 1993).

Moreover, Adams' (1965) Equity Theory provides a theoretical background to unfold the impact of organizational cynicism. According to Adams (1965), employees seek to maximize their profit and they are immensely sensitive to perceived inequity. If they notice an inequity or inability to meet mutual goals on organizations' behalf, employees might look for ways to resolve the issue, or react to it by diminishing the effort (Kanter and Mirvis, 1991).

2.2.2. Related Concepts of Organizational Cynicism

As a pervasive and multivariate construct, it is critical to spot the underlying dynamics of organizational cynicism, in order to conceptualize and tackle it effectively. Studies have demonstrated that organizational cynicism has both individual and organizational variables that has strong impact on it. To be more precise, organizational cynicism has contextual, job-related, and managerial precursors.

For one thing, organizational cynicism can be derived mainly from individual tendencies. More specifically, studies demonstrate that some individuals are more vulnerable to organizational cynicism, with little regard to contextual variables. From that perspective, researchers conceptualized trait cynicism, which is characterized by a fundamental belief that each individual is self-interested and tend to behave selfishly in order to increase their payoffs (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989). Studies have shown that individuals who have higher scores on trait cynicism also have a tendency to hold cynical attitudes toward their organizations (Chiaburu et.al., 2013).

In addition to individual antecedents, organizational cynicism is associated with organizational variables, as well. Numerous studies have identified several organizational antecedents of organizational cynicism. Positive organizational support, which can be defined as a belief that organization values individuals and their contribution, is one of the concepts that have significant association with organizational cynicism. In particular, the more individuals

feel supported by their organization, the less likely that they will adopt a cynical attitude towards their organizations (Byrne and Hochwater, 2008).

Furthermore, perceived organizational politics has been shown to be associated with organizational cynicism. Defined as the tendency to evaluate situations and behaviors of others as political moves, perceived organizational politics leads to suspicion among interacting parties. As a result, employees tend to have more organizational cynicism as political behaviors in organizations become more apparent and pervasive (Chiaburu et.al., 2013).

Organizational cynicism has been shown to have strong associations with leadership. More specifically, constructive leadership patterns are associated with lower levels of organizational cynicism in subordinates. For instance, studies have investigated the associations with transformational leadership. Results revealed that organizational cynicism is inversely correlated with transformational leadership (Wu, Neubert and Yi, 2007). Apart from transformational leadership, perceived support has significant impact on organizational cynicism in employees. Cole, Bruch and Vogel (2006)'s study investigated whether perceived supervisor support has association with organizational cynicism and come up with the finding that two concepts are negatively correlated. Moreover, the perceptions on leaders' reliability and benevolence are linked to whether employees would fall prey on organizational cynicism. From this point of view, benevolent leadership, which is characterized by leadership behaviors that promote common good and shared benefits between team members, has been shown to have inverse association with organizational cynicism (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2016). In another study, researchers investigated whether democratic leadership, associated with ethical concern, empowerment and delegation of responsibility, has correlations with organizational cynicism. The results revealed that the more a leader behaves in a democratic manner towards her subordinates, the less her followers engage in organizationally cynic tendencies (Terzi and Derin, 2016). Emotional intelligence of leaders is another critical factor that play a crucial role on employees' organizational cynicism. Ferres and Connell (2004) investigated two constructs and found out that leaders' emotional intelligence level has inversely correlated with organizational cynicism of employees.

On the other side of the coin, organizational cynicism has strong associations with suboptimal leadership patterns. A recent study conducted by Sungur and colleagues (2019), for

example, shed light on the relationship between paternalistic leadership and organizational cynicism. Researchers have found a linear relationship between paternalistic leadership and all three components of organizational cynicism. In addition, leaders' narcissistic tendencies have been shown to have significant associations with organizational cynicism. Erkutlu and Chafra (2017) investigated the relationship between two constructs and found out that two constructs have significant correlations. Apart from that, authoritarian leadership might have an impact on organizational cynicism level of employees. Jiang and colleagues (2017) studied two constructs and found out significant associations.

These findings can be explained through Blau's (1964) social exchange theory, in which it has been argued that social interactions in an organizational context is shaped by a reciprocity norm so that each individual behaves with an attitude that she has been exposed to.

2.3. THE CONCEPT OF DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

2.3.1. Definition of Destructive Leadership

Leadership has been one of the most exciting concepts among many people from several fields. History is full of many courageous and talented leaders who contributed to societies in military, political, religious and social realms. In fact, many important historical events are associated with leaders, who are usually both to be praised in victories and to be blamed in defeats. As key figures of the societies, what makes a great leader has long been an object of curiosity.

It is safe to assume that leadership studies, at least, date back to 5th century B.C. Great Ancient Greek philosopher Plato emphasized that leaders are key figures on social and political lives of societies and outlined four fundamental characteristics of good leadership in his book, *The Republic*. Naming them as "cardinal virtues", Plato argues that a good leader must possess traits like wisdom, justice, temperance, and courage (Annas, 1981).

6th century B.C. Chinese philosopher Sun Tzu, on the other hand, argued that leadership is an output of a mutual influence between the culture and the processes in which business is conducted. However, there are some key characteristics of leadership that would have a favorable effect on the organization, regardless of the *Tao*, the circumstances or the way the

things are. Sun Tzu defined these characteristics as intelligence, credibility, humaneness, courage and discipline (Sawyer, 2007).

Great 15th century Italian scholar Niccolo Machiavelli also made the assertion that leadership requires certain trait-like leadership characteristics, but there are also fundamental leadership principles that a good leader must excel at. He argues that a leader must possess high intelligence and good virtues, but he or she must also gather support through his actions and arouse respect. (Benner, 2009).

Though several perspectives have been developed on leadership before, leadership had been systematically investigated from a business perspective in 20th century. Beginning with trait approach to leadership, several attempts have been made to define what leadership is and what differentiate a favorable and an unfavorable one.

Currently, the definitions and resources on leadership are abundant. When the term "leadership" is searched in amazon.com, 40.000 leadership books show up. When it comes to academic resources, one can find more than 4.300.000 books and articles on leadership. However, the main themes that are emphasized on leadership are the characteristics of leaders, followers, and situations (Yukl, 2010). More specifically, leadership is defined as the process where collective effort gains a purpose and leads individuals to spend willing effort to achieve that purpose (Jacobs and Jaques, 1990), the process in which actions of an organized group toward a mutual goal (Rauch and Behling, 1984), the ability of an individual to influence, encourage, and provide opportunities to others to contribute to organizations' success and effectiveness (House et.al., 2004), It is argued that leadership is about determining vision, group values, and creating an organizational environment which tasks would be completed efficiently and effectively (Richards and Engle, 1986).

From the business perspective, one of the most influential approaches on leadership was proposed by Bernard (1926). According to Bernard (1926), leadership was characterized by traits, which are attributes derived by natural tendencies. Effective leaders possess these personality traits, including insightfulness, persuasive skills, determination, intuition and so on (Fleenor, 2006). The key assumption of trait approach to leadership was these characteristics were innate to individuals (Judge et.al., 2002). Thus, from this point of view, the main struggle

for the organizations was not to develop skill of leaders, but to find elegant candidates who owns fundamental leadership traits.

Trait approach to leadership gained tremendous significance and dominated organizational research for several decades. However, plenty of research failed to provide a set of traits that guarantee leadership success (Schein, 1985). One of the key challenges to trait approach was made by the proponents of behavior approach to leadership. From this point of view, personality traits were not treated as key determinant of leadership. The focus was shifted towards behavioral tendencies that are activities, responsibilities and functions of successful leaders (Seers, Keller, and Wilkerson, 2003). For this reason, proponents of behavior approach strove to find leadership behaviors that would be effective, regardless of the circumstances.

Beginning with Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, leadership had been investigated from a wider perspective and substantial effects of dyadic relation between leader and member, positional power held by the leader and the structure of the task gained prominence. In contingency theories, constant interaction between leaders' tendencies and situational moderators replaced the sole emphasis on leaders' traits and behaviors.

In the following decades, beginning with "new leadership" approaches, such as charismatic, visionary and transformational leadership, fundamental distinction had been made between a manager, who has limited interpersonal relationship with subordinates and who is responsible for conducting transactions and operating through pre-determined procedures, and a leader, who empowers subordinates, inspires vision and transforms existing practices. Thus, unique and thriving interaction between the leader and the followers gained as much importance as achieving task-related organizational results (Storey, 2004).

Currently, multi-level approach to leadership, which encapsulates several constructs to identify leadership and its effect on others, gained preeminent significance in organizational behavior. At first level, the characteristics of leaders, including traits, values, skills, and other related leadership behaviors are signified as fundamental constructs. How leaders manage their emotions, role expectations and resources, how they make decisions, and how they improve themselves provide the intra-individual aspect of leadership. At another level, the relationship between the leader and the follower, more specifically the ability of the leader to motivate, enable, develop, and influence subordinates, as well as ensuring a cooperative exchange

between them is emphasized. It corresponds to the dyadic level of the leadership. In addition, the nature of leader and member exchange, coordination of activities, in-group identification, conflict management and allocation of resources within a group are other key constituents, which are covered in group level of leadership. Last, but not least, how leadership is exercised from upper management to the lower levels, how organizational culture is shaped by leaders, how leadership is selected, developed and retained, and how human capital is viewed by the leaders are other critical components of the leadership, which can be categorized under organization level of leadership. Integrating several aspects of these levels into a comprehensive model of effective leadership is one of the key challenges organizational researchers tackle today (Yukl, 2010).

For many decades, researchers have focused primarily on constructive aspect of leadership. Beginning with classic leadership approaches, like Trait Approaches (Judge et.al., 2002), Ohio State Studies (Fleishman, Harris and Burtt, 1955), Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964), and followed by postmodern theories including transformational leadership (Bass, 1997), ethical leadership (Brown and Trevino, 2006), servant leadership (Rieser, 1995), scholars prioritized positive aspects of leadership, aiming to figure out "What makes a good leader?" However, leadership is a double-edged sword, and emergence of unfavorable leadership practices is a major concern for organizations. Thus, spotting detrimental properties of leadership would be almost equally contributory for the relevant literature (Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad, 2007).

Poor leadership manifests itself in several negative consequences on followers and organizations, and researchers traditionally concentrated predominantly on tackling these consequences. In fact, suboptimal leadership has been misdiagnosed or mismanaged as forms of organizational inefficiency and social stress (Shaw et.al., 2011). In the recent years, on the other hand, leadership scholars have shifted their attention to identifying organizationally unfavorable and rather malevolent leadership characteristics, in search of "What makes a bad leader?" (Collins and Jackson, 2015).

Destructive leadership is the repeated and systematic leadership behavior that has unfavorable effect on the organization through inefficient use of human capital by decreased motivation, well-being or job satisfaction (Brandebo, Nilsson, and Larsson, 2016). More

specifically, it arises from a volitional, maladaptive behavioral pattern of leaders, managers, or supervisors who discourage subordinates to pursue organizational goals. In other words, what distinguishes the concept of destructive leadership from suboptimal leader outcomes is the fact that destructive leaders deliberately use inefficient methods that would blatantly hinder the pursuit of organizational goals (Einarsen et.al., 2007). From that perspective, destructive leadership is mainly about supervisory behaviors that are mostly perceived as obstructive.

Apart from deliberate use of hostile behaviors, destructive leadership involves the use of those behaviors repeatedly and for a relatively long time (Larsson, Brandebo, and Nilsson, 2012). In most organizational context, use of suboptimal leadership behaviors can be considered as normal, since demands of the business and competition are in a constant change. Occasionally, employees from all levels would be required to adapt to changing conditions, which may have adverse effects on subordinates. However, destructive leadership involves repetitive use of maladaptive leadership behaviors. For this reason, the concept of destructive leadership excludes occasional, undeliberate misuse of power.

In addition, destructive leadership involves passive, as well as active behavioral patterns. In other words, not only deliberate and explicit hostile behaviors, but passive forms of inactive leadership is involved in the construct of destructive leadership. Thus, the concept includes maladaptive leadership than leads to job satisfaction, increased workplace stressors, bullying and psychological distress from a wider framework (Shaw et.al., 2011).

As the perspective on leadership widened and research on unfavorable leadership behaviors gained considerable prominence in the last decades, research on destructive leadership incrementally became a central topic in the organizational research. Since there are multiple approaches to unfavorable leadership practices and innumerable definitions have been made on such behaviors, including abusive supervision and bullying, a 24ontrol2424nea, yet comprehensive framework has been required (Lu et.al., 2012). From that perspective, Einarsen et.al. (2007) defined destructive leadership as systematic and repeated leadership behavior that violate fundamental professional interest of the organizations through ineffective use of human capital. In this approach, destructive leadership was conceptualized, but not limited to, as tyrannical, derailed, unsupportive, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors.

From that perspective, several researchers developed framework that shed light on ineffective leadership patterns. Kellerman (2004) is one of the scholars who worked on toxicity in leadership and developed a framework. In her approach, she focused on two fundamental leadership traits, namely ineffective and unethical leadership. In this respect, ineffective leadership is linked with leadership that is unable to actualize the change expected by followers, while unethical leadership is characterized by leadership that have relatively less concern for ethical subjects. More specifically, ineffective leadership is associated with incompetent, rigid, and intemperate leadership patterns, whereas unethical leadership has links with callous, corrupt, insular, and evil leadership patterns (Kellerman, 2004).

In addition, Nyberg and colleagues (2011) developed a framework on destructive managerial leadership, signifying what differentiate destructive leadership from optimal leadership patterns. From this viewpoint, they emphasized three fundamental patterns, namely autocratic, malevolent, and self-centered leadership. In this framework, autocratic leadership refers to the dominating, forceful and neglecting manner that a leader uses in the relationship with her subordinates. Apart from that, malevolent leadership is associated with agitated, emotionally unstable, insincere, and distant leadership behaviors that a leader primarily uses. Finally, self-centered leadership is linked with pursuing her own interest in relationship with her subordinates (Nyberg et.al., 2011).

Van de Vliert and Einarsen (2008) have also developed a framework signifying destructive leadership practices. From this perspective, they conceptualized the construct in three aspects. Linking the predominant leadership practices with country's culture, three of the main destructive leadership patterns were autocratic, self-protective and autonomous leadership (Çelebi, 2019).

From the framework of Erickson and colleagues' (2015) study, for instance, destructive leadership includes the components of autocratic behavior, poor communication, unable to effectively deal with subordinates, poor ethics, inability to use technology, inconsistent behavior, poor interpersonal behavior, micromanagement, poor personal behavior, excessive political behavior, and lack of strategic skills.

In addition, Shaw and colleagues (2011) had constructed a destructive leadership using 104 items in 17 factors and came up with six sub-categories. First, authoritarian leadership

involves micro-managing and over-controlling behavior patterns. Second, inadequate leadership includes inadequate skills on concepts like ineffectual negotiation and persuasion, not having skills to match the job, inability to develop and motivate employees. Third, unethical behaviors involves inappropriate leadership uses such as brutal lying manner, lying and other unethical behaviors. Fourth, inability to deal with new technology and other changes includes incompetency in moderating work-related methods, as well as changes. Fifth, callousness toward subordinates involves being ignorant and using poor communication skills. Sixth, nepotism involves favoring some employees over others.

2.3.2. Related Concepts of Destructive Leadership

For the most part, organizational research aimed to define leadership behavior that would help team members to thrive and fulfill their potential which would allow organizations to reach strategic goals. However, as Baumeister et.al. (2011) famously put it "Bad is stronger than good" when it comes to leadership, and research on disagreeable aspect of leadership provides crucial insights on how detrimental leadership practices can be both on employee and organization level.

Numerous empirical studies have demonstrated that destructive leadership is quite common and considerably costly for organizations. It is argued that all leaders are susceptible to darker sides of power, the prevalence of destructive leadership is more alarming than it can be predicted. In the Netherlands, 11% of leaders are within the spectrum of destructive leadership (Hubert and Van Veldhoven, 2001). Regarding the employees who have been subject to some type of destructive leadership, the rate is even higher. In US, 14% of employees claim to have been subject to destructive leadership practices, while almost one third of Norwegian workers undergo some form of it (Tepper, 2007; Aasland, Skogstad, and Einarsen, 2010). Tepper and colleagues' (2006) study showed that destructive leadership, manifested as employee absenteeism, turnover and decreased effectiveness, costs $23.8 billion for US companies (Schyns and Schilling, 2013).

The impact of destructive leadership goes beyond the organizational level consequences, as the studies demonstrate. As suboptimal leadership behaviors disturb employee motivation and thwart basic psychological need fulfillment, employees feel lower job

satisfaction, engage in more debilitative behaviors, lose their sense of commitment to their organizations, and eventually considers leaving their organizations. Relevant research explicated the relationship between destructive leadership and employees' job satisfaction (Tepper, 2000; Brandebo et.al., 2019), affective commitment (Einarsen et.al., 2007; Fors Brandebo et.al., 2016), counterproductive behavior (Penney and Spector, 2005; Brender-Ilan and Sheaffer, 2019), and turnover intention (Van Prooijen and De Vries, 2016). In addition to decreased subjective well-being, victims of destructive leadership demonstrate maladaptive behaviors more frequently than other employees. Research has shown significant association between destructive leadership and deviant work behavior (Duffy and Ferrier, 2003), and resistance behavior (Bamberger and Bacharach, 2006) in employees. Interestingly, recent research also showed that the effect of destructive leadership is even associated with poorer safety participation in employees, which may put employees in more dramatic hazards (Mullen, Fisset, and Rehaume, 2018). Apart from that, destructive leadership practices have the potential to undermine family interactions of employees. Research demonstrated that employees who are exposed to destructive leadership practices experience poorer family well-being than their peers (Hoobler and Brass, 2006).

Destructive leadership affects not only organizational effectiveness, but individual well-being of employees, as well. Relevant research has demonstrated that leadership behavior has severe impacts on employee adaptation and health. For instance, Harvey and colleagues (2007) investigated whether destructive leadership has any linkage to emotional exhaustion on employees. Results have revealed that destructive leadership has been associated with emotional depletion and burnout. Similarly, Trepanier, Boudrias and Peterson's (2019) study revealed that employees who are under constant destructive leadership practices go through disturbed senses of autonomy, competence and relatedness, which render them vulnerable to burnout and affective commitment. The impact of destructive leadership is not only limited to occupational outcomes. Skogstad and colleagues (2007), Bass and colleagues (2003), and Cortina and colleagues' (2001) studies provided critical insight on the relationship between destructive leadership and employee distress, discovering that the more employees are exposed to destructive forms of leadership practices the more they are unarmed to intense level of distress. These results are also consolidated by the link between constructive leadership, which are associated with proactive managerial behaviors and individualized concern targeted to

increase welfare of employees, and employee health. Einarsen and colleagues' (2007), and Montano and colleagues' (2017) studies shed light on the relationship between these two constructs, revealing that constructive leadership is linked to improved occupational health in employees.

Several theoretical approaches clarify the relationship between destructive leadership and employee-related outcomes. For instance the influence of destructive leadership on employees can be explicated through Leader-Member Exchange Theory. Danserau, Graen and Haga (1975), pioneers of this approach, argued that reciprocal relationship between leaders and members can be accounted for several individual and organizational outcomes. As a critical figure on the relationship between employees and organizations, they are able to create a supportive and rewarding work environment for their employees, as well as rendering them vulnerable to adverse consequences, including poorer personal psychological disharmony, lower job satisfaction, increased intention to turnover and so on, through ineffective use of power.

Moreover, the association between destructive leadership can be explicated through Ryan and Deci's (2000) Self-Determination Theory. In this framework, psychosocial adaptation, as well as work engagement, of employees are influenced by various internal and external factors. Doubtlessly, certain individuals have the tendency to be more vulnerable to various range of psychological symptoms, such as distress, anxiety and depression. From a more interactional perspective, on the other hand, external factors may harm psychological stability of individuals. Considering the context of employees, leaders may aggravate psychological health of their employees, through abuse, tyranny, neglect, or psychological need thwarting.

Last, but not least, Demerouti and Bakker's (2007) Job Demands-Resources Model may unravel the association between destructive leadership and employee-level adverse consequences. According to Demerouti and Bakker (2007), work environment places demands on employees that may vary in terms of controllability. To deal with intense demands of business context, employees need to utilize their psychological resources, and inability to balance demands and resources may adversely influence employees. Within this context, leaders have the ability to enhance or worsen the work environment experienced by their

members, and suboptimal forms of leadership practices may have negative outcomes on employees.

2.4. THE CONCEPT OF SELF-CONSTRUAL

2.4.1. Definition of Self-Construal

At an individual level, self-concept is largely influenced by a psychosocial development pattern. At different stages of their lives, individuals struggle to resolve psychosocial life crises, such as whether one will achieve personally-determined standards and feel confident about oneself or one will feel inferior to be unable to catch up with certain achievement norms, whether one will find unique qualities that distinguish one from other individuals and feel content with it or one will continuously chase to reach roles and feel overwhelmed to not construct own identity, or whether one will form and maintain intimate relationships in which one will flourish and mature or one will be avoidant, isolated and alienated (Dereboy, 1993). Successes and failures on these stages sculpt how individuals perceive themselves and address how confident they feel about their decisions and actions.

Beginning with Hofstede's (1980) GLOBE study, culture has been attempted to be conceptualized within a framework. Even though it is a complex phenomenon with innumerable properties, culture has been argued to be explained in five categories all of which can be spotted in spectra. More specifically, cultural differences between nations have been argued to be attributed to the attitudes towards power inequalities, that is power distance, level of autonomy and independence between individuals, that is individualism vs collectivism, considering uncertainty as normal or catastrophic, that is uncertainty avoidance, having a competitive or affectionate orientation in interpersonal relationships, that is masculinity vs femininity, and dominant time perspective, that is long term vs short term orientation (Brewer and Venaik 2010).

Even though nations can vary according to their position at each of these components, the construct that encapsulates individualism vs collectivism have been the most inclusive and dominant component of culture in both cultural and organizational studies. Within this framework, collectivistic cultures were identified as the communities where individuals are

predominantly identified as a part or a member of a larger structure, such as family, social class, or nation. In the individualistic cultures, on the other hand, each person is considered as an autonomous individual which opts for his or her preferences in interpersonal transactions. For this reason, individualistic and collectivistic cultures differ from each other regarding the agency, expectancy of obedience, prioritization of individual interests, and so on (Wasti and Erdil, 2007).

In the following years, the difference between individualism and collectivism have been demonstrated to be so pervasive that it would be more fruitful to explain the concept both at national level, and lower levels, such as social class, organization, and even individual. In other words, core values regarding single individual can differ from individual to individual (Triandis, 1995). Some people in individualistic cultures can have a predominantly collectivistic orientation and treat the concept of individual as an interdependent construct; whereas, in a similar manner, some individuals in collectivistic culture would have a more autonomous self-construct (Singelis et.al., 1999). From this perspective dominant self-construal may shape individuals' differences in attitudes, emotions and behaviors (Markus and Kitayama, 1991).

The manifestation of individualism and collectivism at an individual level has been a puzzling concept in organizational behavior roughly in the last three decades. At an individual level, culture has long been known to account for a significant variation in human behavior (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1997). In addition, it is an undoubtable fact that social norms are gathered through socialization process. Research has demonstrated that majority of individuals in individualistic cultures have predominant independent self-construal (Aaker and Lee, 2001). On the other hand, substantial proportion of individuals have primarily interdependent self-construal and values regarding social harmony and consensus are more prioritized than having self-agency (Triandis, 2004). Influenced by Hofstede's studies, attempts have been made to associate this tendency to the position of culture in the individualism-collectivism dimension. However, this approach failed to shed light on the co-occurrence of both individualistic and collectivistic tendencies on varying degree at an individual level, just as it did not provide adequate evidence to the fact that comprehensive proportion of individuals did not fit in to the fundamental characteristic of their culture (Escalas and Bettman, 2005). Thus, a new and robust perspective on the explanation of individual differences regarding the value of agency became prominent.

From this perspective, Triandis (1985) attempted to define the concept at an individual level. Putting cultural properties into the background, Triandis (1985) argued that differing values on independence and interdependence is a personality trait that has large influence on cognitive, affective, attitudinal and behavioral orientations. In this approach, valuing uniqueness, self-reliance and personal distance over sociability, self-sacrifice and conforming to group norms was named as idiocentrism. For idiocentric individuals, attaining social status that allow them to behave in an autonomous manner is valued. Thus, self-esteem is associated with gaining more power and having individual space to behave freely (Triandis, 2000). For idiocentric individuals, social norms are not strict rules, but mere behavioral guides. For this reason, idiocentric individuals get frustrated more easily when they are expected to conform to the group norms that have little personal significance. In addition, they allow more freedom for other individuals to exercise their individuality. As they value uniqueness more than mutuality, they identify themselves as separate entities and perceive their community as more heterogeneous (Hui, 1988).

On the other hand, valuing in-group goals and social harmony over self-agency and independence was named as allocentrism. Triandis (1985) asserted that allocentric individuals value cooperation more than competition. For these individuals, reaching social power is of secondary value as they primarily aim for attaining interpersonal congruity. Hence, self-esteem is based on establishing interpersonal relations rather than achieving dominance (Triandis et.al., 1985). Unlike idiocentric individuals, social norms are obligatory for allocentric individuals and deviance from these norms are less acceptable. As a consequence, they demonstrate more obedience to the societal norms and expect other individuals to do so. Putting less emphasis on uniqueness, allocentric individuals tend to notice common grounds more often than individual differences and perceive their communities as homogenous (Triandis and Suh, 2002).

Apart from Triandis' (1994) approach and one of the notable attempt to link cultural orientation and individual behavior has been made by Markus and Kitayama (1991). Treated as a modern classic in social psychology, it provides significant insight to the relationship between culture and self (Voyer and Franks, 2014).

In their theory, Markus and Kitayama (1991) provided perspective on conceptualizing individual consequences, and treated self-construal as the projection of the individualism vs

collectivism component of culture at an individual level. Even though it is predominantly influenced by cultural environment, including values, traditions, societal norms, and widespread philosophical attitudes, culture provides only one component regarding the self-construal (Cross, Bacon, and Morris, 2000). Within this framework, the sense of self was divided into two constructs; independence and interdependence.

Independence encapsulates the phenomenon where a unique and autonomous agent is separate from the context and behaves in a self-directed manner (Van Baaren et.al., 2003). Commonly observed in Western countries, independent agents predominantly strive for uniqueness in their actions and express their ingenuity. For those individuals, distinctive personality features that differentiate them from others, rather than mutual characteristics with reference groups, are emphasized (Moses et.al., 2018). Independent self-construal is associated with strong will to improve oneself. With respect to that, individuals with favorable attitude towards independent self-construal are more likely to shift their current values if they do not match idealized concepts (Graeff, 1996). For this reason, individuals with dominant independent self-construal have strong preference towards self-enhancement over self-consistency (Locke and Christensen, 2007). Before engaging in prosocial behavior, for instance, individuals with independent self-construal primarily look for correspondence with their values, rather than common social ground (Howard, Gardner, and Thomson, 2007).

Interdependence, on the other hand, is associated with more intertwined view of self and the social context (Baldwin and Sinclair, 1996). Prevailed among Eastern cultures, interdependent individuals primarily look for harmony and common ground. For individuals who are high in interdependent self-construal, social roles and characteristics that are similar in other people are fundamental aspects of self. Thus, they are more likely to feature social integration and connection (Cross et.al., 2011). Interdependent self-construal has strong link with being consistent over time and different occasions. In other words, favoring concepts that have resemblance with current values are more common with individuals with dominant interdependent self-construal. Thus, for individuals who have dominant preference towards interdependence place more emphasis on self-consistency rather than self-enhancement (Locke and Christensen, 2007). Engaging in charitable behavior more frequently than peers with independent self-construal, individuals with interdependent self-construal are particularly helpful for those who are perceived as a member of in-group (Duclos and Barasch, 2014).

Even though it is tempting to identify individuals to either category regarding their values on autonomy, what makes Markus and Kitayama's (1991) approach influential is the depth of providing substantial evidence on individuals' phenomenology, particularly to the varying magnitude of levels on both tendencies. According to Markus and Kitayama (1991), independent and interdependent self-construal can co-occur at the individual level. In other words, an individual who value self-reliance, personal space and uniqueness can also have favorable attitude towards group harmony, unity and intimate relationships. Similarly, it is not a prerequisite for individuals who do not have strong preference for independence and self-agency to be predominantly obedient, conformist and harmony-seeking (Agrawal and Maheswaran, 2005). Rather than placing them to the either side of the continuum, individuals are argued to have a dominant self-construal that have stronger influence on attitudes, affect and behaviors.

Self-construal is associated with the level individuals consider their selves as a separate unit or in relation with others. In this respect, it may account for several individual-level variables (Taştan, 2016). From this perspective, the effects of self-construal has been investigated.

2.4.2. Related Concepts of Self-Construal

In the light of the aforementioned information, definition and conceptualization on self-construal are centered upon the individual differences on the perception, affectivity, and behavior that are largely influenced by social and cultural background. In this respect, the key idea is that the interaction with others and base of the cognitive and affective orientation may closely resemble the dynamics of the societal background, as well as individual level variation. However, comprehending the underlying mechanism how self-construal may shape individuals' dispositions is critical both for the thriving of individuals and their behavioral propensities in the organizational context. From this perspective, researchers investigated the antecedents and consequences of self-construal (Duclos and Barasch, 2014; Taştan and İşçi, 2015; Wasti, 2003; Wasti et.al., 2007; Yang, 2012; Van Rijn, Yang and Sanders, 2013; Afsar, Badir, and Bin Saeed, 2014; Cross et.al., 2000; Howard et.al., 2007; Escalas and Bettman, 2005).

To understand why self-construal is determined in certain ways and the associations of self-construal with other individual and social differences, organizational variables need to be considered. It can also be argued that empirical research on the relationship between self-construal and organizational variables is still at its beginning. In addition, various scholars emphasized the assertion that even though individualism and collectivism are one of the key constructs in social psychology and national culture studies, individual level differences of the concept need to be taken into account delicately, as it may have relatively little influence (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1997; Hofstede, 2001).

Self-constructs provide individualized guidelines on the importance placed upon the relationship with other individuals, as relevant theoretical background underlines. Specifically, it shapes how valuable social harmony is and the amount of effort spent on ensuring it. From this perspective, researchers conducted studies to explicate the relationship between self-constructs and generalized social trust. Unsurprisingly, people in collectivist cultures tend to have higher levels of generalized trust than people in individualistic cultures (Georghiu, Vignoles, and Smith, 2009). Even though this finding overlaps with the findings of other studies (Smith, Bond, and Kağıtçıbaşı, 2006), Georghiu and colleagues' (2009) further analyses have revealed that self-construal has weak association with generalized social trust.

Chen, Wasti and Triandis (2007), for example, investigated the associations between self-construal, group identity and cooperation. As expected, individuals who share idiocentric orientation, the concept that is similar to independent self-construal, were found to be more sensitive to social clues, and possess higher levels of consideration into cooperation than individuals with allocentric orientation, the concept that is close to interdependent self-construal.

Other studies, on the other hand, underlined the moderating effect of group identity on prosocial orientation. De Cremer and Van Dijk's (2002) study, for instance, revealed that individuals who are identified as "pro-self", competitive people who seek ways to maximize their differences in terms of outcomes, are more likely to be influenced by group identity and transform their fundamental motives into increasing group outcomes than individualist individuals, who seek to maximize their own benefits regardless of the outcomes of others.

Wasti and Tan (2010) inquired on the relationship between self-construal, organizational commitment and turnover intention. Results revealed that both organizational commitment and turnover intention has weak associations with dominant self-construal. Particularly, not affective commitment, but continuance commitment was found to have stronger association with self-construal. On the other hand, results also demonstrated that individuals who share idiocentric orientation, the concept that is similar to independent self-construal, are not influenced by social values as much as individuals with allocentric orientation, the concept that is close to interdependent self-construal. In another study with similar research design, Yang, Sanders and Bumatay (2012) investigated the relationship between self-construal, organizational commitment and job-changing behavior. Congruently, self-construal were found to have slightly correlated with two constructs.

In addition, self-construal also have close association with organizational justice and withdrawal behaviors (Jackson et.al., 2006). Researchers who investigated the relationship between organizational justice and work withdrawal discovered that two constructs are closely associated regardless of the dominant self-construal. Further analyses have shown, on the other hand, that perceptions of organizational justice and work withdrawal is stronger for individuals with idiocentric tendencies than those who have dominantly allocentric predispositions (Wang and Yi, 2012).

In addition, the relationship between self-construal and organizational citizenship behavior have been investigated by several researchers. Considering the individuals with allocentric tendency are more sensitive to social norms and strong sense of priority on fulfilling their responsibilities towards others, they are more inclined to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors. Similarly, idiocentric individuals who place emphasis on individuality and distinctness are less likely to demonstrate organizational citizenship behavior (Ramamoorthy and Flood, 2004; Schmelling, 2001).

Various theoretical models may explicate the association between self-construal and individual variables. For example, Bandura's (1975) Social Learning Theory emphasizes that affective and behavioral tendencies are strongly influenced by life experiences. To be more precise, individuals learn both from their own experiences and the experiences of other individuals through observations. For this reason, cultural variables may play a considerable

impact on how and what individuals learn throughout their lives. In addition, the value placed upon obligations towards others and social harmony may be shaped and maintained by the information gathered through own life experiences and observational learning.

In addition, the associations between self-construal and individual variables may be clarified by Lewin's (1940) Field Theory. Inspired by Gestalt approach, Lewin (1940) argued that individual tendencies and all of the stimuli in the total field interact and shape individuals' cognitions, emotions and behaviors. Thus, cultural variables have the potential to influence individuals' values, the way they perceive their environment, and the way they form relationships with other individuals. As a consequence, propensity to identify social harmony as a primal concern may shape how individuals establish social interactions, including organizational contexts.

2.5. THE RELATIONS BETWEEN DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP AND PERSONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL DISHARMONY

Personal psychological disharmony have been studied in the literature as the inability to adapt to protracted stressful environment and experiencing cognitive, affective and behavioral difficulties as a result. Various studies have dived deeper into the concept and factors that exacerbate it. Several attempts have been made to define the components of personal psychological disharmony and psychometric tools have been developed to measure the concept. In addition, multiple studies have been conducted to figure out individual, managerial, task-related and organizational elements that are related to the personal psychological disharmony. Scholars have also underlined the fact that as the antecedents of the phenomenon can be identified, the effects of personal psychological disharmony may be rooted away or decreased. From this perspective, theories and conceptual models have been utilized, including, Affective Events Theory (Weiss and Cronpanzano, 1996), Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Danserau et.al., 1975), job demands-resources model (Bakker et.al., 2007), human motivation (McClelland, 1980), self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985), and job characteristic model (Hackman and Oldham, 1974), to illuminate at individual, managerial and organizational levels (Haagard, Robert and Rose, 2011; Erkutlu and Chafra, 2016; Dobbs, 2014; Bartholomew et.al., 2011; Raub and Blunschi, 2013).

Affective states play an essential role in adapting to the environment and they are determining several antecedents of individual behavior. From that perspective, anxiety is a significant emotion that may have a large impact both on a group and on an individual level. For one thing, anxiety is a universal affective state that have a potential to ensure adaptation for individuals. Thus, it has a favorable influence on individual lives. What makes anxiety destructive is, actually, the magnitude that may lead to dysfunction. From a similar viewpoint, stress is also a state that may stimulate the organism to grasp the fundamental characteristics of the environment and increase vigilance to respond to it (Spielberger and Reheiser, 2009). As long as the manifestations of stress, such as inability to relax, irritability, decreased tolerance, and agitated reactions, is at a moderate amplitude, it may be treated as natural and constructive set of reactions (Krohne et.al., 2002). Along with that suggestion, depression may lead individuals to extreme sadness and downheartedness, feelings of inferiority, and thoughts about the lack of meaning in life, but as long as it does not lead to dysfunction it may be treated as mild reactions to challenging life experiences (Jonge, Wardenaar and Wichers, 2015).

From an organizational perspective, unfavorable affective states may exacerbate individuals' behaviors at work at varying degrees. Based on the relevant literature, one of the most fundamental theories that shed light on the underlying mechanisms on this concept is Affective Events Theory. In this framework, adverse events and interactions at work are associated with unfavorable emotions which, in turn result in several individual outcomes, including depression, anxiety and distress (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Several studies have shown that the interaction between leader and employee take a significant place on destructive emotions at work for employees. Tepper (2000), for example, found out that employees who perceive their managers as abusive are more likely to quit their jobs, and those who do not quit their jobs are more prone to psychological distress. Thus, employees who perceive their managers as domineering, unfair and negligent may be under risk of personal psychological disharmony.

In addition to Affective Events Theory, Leader-Member Exchange Theory is one of the most useful approaches that explain the association between leadership practices and employees' personal psychological disharmony. Danserau and colleagues (1975) argued that dyadic interaction between leader and member may matter several individual outcomes for employees, both constructively and destructively. From that point of view, pressure from the

leader may result in decreased well-being while support from the leader may lead to higher levels of well-being (Sparks, Farragher and Cooper, 2001). As a result, employees who are provided organizational support, empowerment and feedback by their leaders are more likely to experience more favorable psychological states (Newton, and Maierhofer, 2005). On the other hand, employees who perceive their leaders as directive, oppressive and incompetent for leadership are likely to have higher levels of personal psychological disharmony.

Apart from these theories, job demands-resources model provides a multivariate framework on the association between leadership and employee's psychological states. In Bakker and colleagues' (2007) model, organization-related constraints together with internal psychological mechanisms provide a synergistic effect on several employee level outcomes, such as burnout, work engagement and job satisfaction. To be more precise, resources like social support, performance feedback and autonomy are some of the protective factors that prevent individuals to fall prey on negative outcomes, which include psychological factors such as sleeping problems, exhaustion and poor adaptation (Doi, 2005). Leaders have two different roles in these associations, so that they may both create an adverse work environment and lead to even more intense pressure, or they may provide a more human climate for the employees to adapt and flourish. Consequently, employees who perceive their leaders as oblivious, unjust, opportunistic and inconsiderate may be depleted of vital resources that support adjustment and motivation to demonstrate higher performance, which in turn may lead to poor psychological states.

Consequentially, leadership practices leading to increased pressure, little autonomy, unethical behaviors, callousness, and favoritism may cause employees to experience an unfavorable work environment. Feeling of unending scrutiny, lack of empathy, excessive emphasis on flawlessness and little focus on vision and meaning may discourage individuals to pursue organizational goals due to an impaired psychological health (van Dierendock et.al., 2004). Research has provided support on the relationship between leadership and poor psychological states. Pyc and colleagues (2017), for instance, found out that abusive supervision and authoritarian leadership lead to increased anxiety and depression in employees. Haggard, Robert and Rose's (2011) study showed that people who are under abusive supervision are more prone to depressive symptoms. Gilbreath and Benson's (2004) study also provided support for the inverse relationship between ineffective leadership and poor

psychological well-being. Based on these results, personal psychological disharmony, which is an inclusive concept that involves depression, anxiety and stress, may be associated with destructive leadership practices.

As a consequence, below hypothesis has been generated in the light of relevant literature:

H_1: There is a positive relationship between destructive leadership and employees' personal psychological disharmony.

2.6. THE RELATIONS BETWEEN DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL CYNICISM

Organizational cynicism is a significant concept in organizational research, as it provides a framework about how employees with a skeptic attitude towards their organizations think, feel and behave. As challenging economic conditions render organizations to look for effective ways to draw advantage from all resources to gain competitive superiority in the market, performance pressure on employees grow at a fast pace. In addition, drastic strategic decisions such as downsizing, increase in senior management compensation and constant organizational change efforts exacerbate cynical outlook on employees' behalf (Eaton, 2000).

In the relevant literature, scholars have attempted to conceptualize organizational cynicism. According to Kanter and Mirvis (1989), organizational cynicism is adverse and distrustful attitude towards authority and institutions. It may both involve a skeptic attitude towards a particular organization and a distrust towards organizations in general (Andersson, 1996). Although it has been associated with a distrustful outlook, thus perceived mainly as a cognitive concept, organizational cynicism is a multi-dimensional phenomenon. At one level, organizational cynicism involves suspicious cognitions about the way organizations view employees. To be more precise, employees with higher levels of organizational cynicism believe that organizations' commitments do not meet actual outcomes, so that organizations have little concern regarding keeping promises in return for superior performance (Valentine and Elias, 2005). For these individuals, organizations are utterly insincere and all organizational actions involve selfishness and fakery (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989). At another level,

organizational cynicism is an affective concept, which includes hurt feelings and disappointment towards organizations (Karacaoğlu and İnce, 2012). Organizationally cynic individuals have strongly unfavorable emotions towards organizations, such as frustration and pessimism (O'Leary, 2003). Finally, organizational cynicism is a behavioral phenomenon, meaning that individuals who have heightened levels of organizational cynicism openly or subtly engage in acting out. Specifically, they complain organizational practices to the people inside or outside the organizations, demonstrate hostility towards people in charge, or engage in detached behaviors and psychological exit (Wanous, Reichers, and Austin, 2004).

Researchers have made several attempts to identify the roots of organizational cynicism and come up with individual, interactional and organizational factors that may inflame it. From that viewpoint, organizational scientists made use of several theories to grasp the essence of the concept, including Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964), Equity Theory (Adams, 1965), Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), Norm of Reciprocity (Gouldner,1960), Trust Theory (Rotter, 1967) to enlighten the quintessential properties of organizational cynicism at individual, managerial and organizational level (Jiang et.al., 2017; Wu, Neubert, and Yi, 2017; Wanous, Reichers, and Austin, 2000; Peng, Jien and Lin, 2016; Pugh, Skarlicki, and Passell, 2003).

Organizations are based on social interactions that involve multiple parties consciously looking for ways to maximize their benefits. For this reason, employees join organizations with their psychological motives, needs and former experiences and their behaviors at work are shaped by these phenomena. Even though particular goals may differ from individual to individual, personally rewarding objectives lead individuals to engage in expectations. In his expectancy theory, Vroom (1964) asserts that expectations are specified by three factors; namely expectancy, instrumentality and valence. To be more precise, if one is ensured that one's contributions to the organization will be returned, one has means to perform the expected performance, and the following reward possess personal significance, one will be willing to cooperate (Lunenburg, 2011). On the other hand, if the relationship between the effort and the rewards is threatened, then an employee would be skeptical of organizations' intentions, feel disappointed and unlikely to perform at a maximum level. Since leaders are the primary point of contact for employees in regard to organizations, perceived tendency to not reciprocate would result in heightened organizational cynicism. Research has shown, for example, that

behavioral integrity of leaders is associated with decreased organizational cynicism in employees (Kannan-Narashiman, and Lawrence, 2012).

From a similar perspective, Blau's (1964) Social Exchange Theory provides a comprehensive framework as to the relationship between leadership and organizational cynicism. Blau (1964) argues that social exchanges are based on the tendency to maximize rewards through voluntary and goal-directed behavior with the expectation of reciprocation. As long as the rewards, either of tangible or sentimental value, meets the expectations, employees would be willing to take the extra mile to show superior performance. Otherwise, employees would have less motivation to exceed performance standards. Thus, social interactions with leaders that bring little developmental opportunities, constructive feedback, individualized concern and room for autonomy would lead employees to perceive non-reciprocal exchange, feel discouraged and behave in a disengaged manner (Işık, 2014).

In addition to abovementioned theories, Equity Theory proposes another approach to the interaction between leadership and organizational cynicism. Adams (1965) argued that individuals are strongly driven to find equity between the inputs they put and the outputs they get, in return. In cases where one's input, such as intense effort, devotion, loyalty, and enthusiasm, outweighs one's output, including performance feedback, autonomy, respect, and recognition, one would tend to find an equity by demonstrating little dedication to meet other party's prospect. From this viewpoint, employees who perceive gap between inputs and outputs would show increased suspicion towards their organizations, feel detached, openly criticize organizational practices overtly or subtly as a counter-reaction. Since leaders represent organizations at the dyadic level, perceived inequity between employees' effort and leaders' tendency to engage in self-serving behavior would lead individuals to demonstrate organizational cynicism (Mete, 2013).

As a consequence, organizational cynicism is a concept that have strong connection with leadership practices. In particular, employees who go through loss of faith in their leaders, deficient quality of interaction with them, perception of unethical actions and ineffective leadership have more propensity to fall prey on organizational cynicism (Davis and Gardner, 2004). Relevant literature demonstrated evidence on the association between organizational cynicism and several leadership orientations. Dobbs (2014) found significant linkage between

toxic leadership and organizational cynicism in employees. In addition, Gkorezis, Bellou and Skemperis' (2015) study demonstrated that organizational cynicism and Machiavellian leadership have strong associations. On the other side of the coin, organizational cynicism has inverse relationships with transformational leadership (Wu et.al., 2017), perceived supervisor support (Cole et.al., 2006), and empowering leadership (Lorinkova and Perry, 2017). Based on these evidences, organizational cynicism may be related with destructive leadership.

In the light of the relevant literature, below hypothesis has been generated:

$H_{2:}$ There is a positive relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism.

2.7. THE RELATIONS BETWEEN SELF-CONSTRUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL CYNICISM

Organizational cynicism is a complex phenomenon that have several antecedents. In addition to the organizational and managerial variables that have an impact on the concept, organizational cynicism is associated with individual and sociocultural differences. Hence, identifying individual level predecessors is critical in order to tackle the concept effectively.

As it was previously noted, organizational cynicism is associated with skeptic attitude towards organizations believing that they are concerned with their employees only to the extent that they can gain benefits through employment relationship. In addition, it may lead individuals to demonstrate strong reactions to the perceived unfairness and engage in increased criticism towards organizations, complaints and avoidant behaviors (Stanley, Meyer and Topolnytsky, 2005). It is an indisputable fact that personal unfavorable experiences may trigger organizational cynicism. However, individuals with certain characteristics might be more prone to organizationally cynic tendencies. To be more precise, individuals who have diminished trust as a consequence of unfavorable experiences would be more likely to fall prey on organizational cynicism.

Relevant research demonstrate that organizational cynicism is a multivariate construct that are influenced by numerous factors. For one thing, organizational cynicism has strong associations with dispositional cynical beliefs (Reichers, Wanous, and Austin, 1997). As

Singelis and colleagues' (2003) argued, individuals with higher levels of trait cynicism tend to distrust others on a default mode, believing that humans are egocentric, selfish, and exploitative. For this reason, they are suspicious about the benefit of behaving honestly and obeying the rules that would influence other individuals. From this perspective, particular individuals tend to have higher levels of organizationally cynical attitudes, and expect actions that lack integrity, competence and benevolence from organizations more frequently.

In addition to trait-like tendencies, organizational cynicism is influenced by social factors, as well. Studies have shown that organizational cynicism is inversely associated with positive organizational support, signifying that as the employees are convinced that their organizations care for their well-being and value their contribution, they are less likely to fall prey on organizationally cynic attitudes (Treadway et.al., 2004; Lynch, Eisenberger, and Armeli, 1999).

For the above reason, organizational cynicism would be associated with social and cultural factors, in addition to organizational variables. From this perspective, the association between self-construal and organizational cynicism can be explained via Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), Self-Determination Theory (Deci and Ryan, 2000), and Trust Theory (Rotter, 1967).

Individuals shape their cognitive, emotional and behavioral tendencies through a social learning system in which new patterns are gathered via direct experience or observation of others' experiences. Repeatedly encountered situations with others force individuals to find effective ways to deal with. As some responses are more socially acceptable, and indirectly, more rewarding than others, ongoing reinforcement mechanisms sculpt the way individuals respond to the situations (Can, 2000). These responses do not necessarily need to be consciously selected responses, since they are automatically and unconsciously reinforced through repeated experiences. In addition, not all response tendencies are generated as a direct consequence of personal experience, as others' experiences establish a visceral learning mechanism. For this reason, social dynamics play an immense role on how individuals behave throughout their lives (Gutman and Schoon, 2013). As self-construal establishes cognitive, affective and behavioral tendencies regarding how much autonomy matters for individuals, organizational cynicism, which are associated with skeptic attitudes, feelings of disappointment and frustration, and

detached behaviors might have associations with dominant self-construal. To be more specific, individuals with dominant interdependent self-construal who are characterized by their will for harmony, congruity and conformity might stand for unfavorable experiences in their organizations and be less likely to go through organizational cynicism. Conversely, individuals with dominant independent self-construal who prioritize autonomy and self-reliance might be more sensitive to organizationally undesirable experiences and have higher preponderance to organizational cynicism.

In addition, individuals have innate tendency to manage their actions and having the autonomy to determine their behavioral tendencies is critical for healthy adaptation (Taştan, 2016). As Deci and Ryan (2000) pointed out individuals who have limited option to exercise their ingenuity would be more likely to experience decreased well-being. However, individuals differ from each other regarding their preference for self-reliance and autonomy as some individuals prioritize belongingness to a group and social harmony. From this perspective, individuals who are predominantly interdependent regarding their outstanding self-construal would react more strongly to organizational restraints. As a consequence, individuals who have strong inclination to independent self-construal are more likely to be a victim of organizational cynicism, while individuals who are tended towards interdependent self-construal would take organizational restraints more granted.

Furthermore, research has revealed that organizational cynicism has strong association with trust (Akın, 2015; Thompson et.al., 2000). To be more precise, individuals who have diminished trust towards their organizations are more likely to have higher organizationally cynic tendencies. As Rotter (1967) asserted that interpersonal trust shapes behavioral intentions of interacting parties. From a similar perspective, individuals with interdependent self-construal prioritize social harmony over personal autonomy would be more likely to have higher propensity to trust others, while individuals with independent self-construal would be more suspicious about the intentions of other parties as they believe that each individual is free to determine the course of their actions. From a similar perspective, independent self-construal would have strong association with organizational cynicism, while the relationship between interdependent self-construal and organizational cynicism would be inverse.

In sum, organizational cynicism would be associated with self-construal, since the latter shapes the individual preference for autonomy or harmony. More specifically, as the emphasis for autonomy over harmony is more prominent, as it is for individuals with dominant independent self-construal, responsiveness to organizationally undesirable experiences would be more outstanding. To our knowledge, the relationship between self-construal and organizational cynicism was not investigated, but predicted association would be explained through theoretical approaches, such as Social Learning Theory, Self-Determination Theory and Trust Theory.

Based on the relevant theoretical models, below hypotheses has been generated:

$H_{3:}$ There is a significant relationship between self-construal and organizational cynicism.

$H_{3a:}$ There is a positive relationship between independent self-construal and organizational cynicism.

$H_{3b:}$ There is a negative relationship between interdependent self-construal and organizational cynicism.

2.8. THE CONCEPT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL NEED THWARTING

2.8.1. Literature Review of Psychological Need Thwarting

What determines personally satisfying goals for individuals and what drives them to pursue these goals have long been a source of wonder in psychology and organizational behavior. In order to identify a unity between human motivation, several attempts have been made. Among these attempts, psychological needs have emerged as a key concept, regarding the mutuality between individuals when it comes to the quintessential properties of personally meaningful goals. Thus, need concept gained immense impact on human motivation since it has a strong potential to provide a solid framework on the genotypic illustration for voluminous phenotypic behaviors of each individual (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). In addition to procuring the underlying drives that cascade vision into specific and attainable goals in a unified framework, need concept attained widespread scholarly attention to target the barriers to the

fulfillment of these goals and identify proper psychosocial interventions that would re-ensure personal thriving (Sheldon et.al., 2001).

From this perspective, multiple attempts have been made to point out the fundamental psychological needs that shape our short and long-term behaviors. One of the most influential pioneers in this realm, McDougall (1908) argued that human motivation is shaped by Darwinian principles. In his view, human behavior was based on inherited predispositions and the pursuit of specific ways to fulfill them. McDougall asserted that arousal of a need and fulfillment of it follows a cycle and as the satisfaction of these instinctual needs, emotional reaction emerges and the individual looks for diversified ways to attain gratification. Even though the consequential behaviors are deviational, underlying instinctual drives are compound (Reiss, 2000).

In addition to McDougall, Freud (1920) attempted to explain human motivation through a Darwinian lens. As the founding figure of psychoanalysis, Freud gained huge impact on psychology and became one of the most influential figures who has framed the collective scholarly mindset of the 20th century in psychology. Beyond any doubt, his studies on human drives was one of his most notorious works that lead him to acquire widespread fame. In his topographical model on personality, he compartmentalized human mind into three categories. Through an iceberg analogy, he argued that human psyche has three components that are in constant interaction with each other and thoughts, perceptions and behaviors constitute the only directly observable conscious part just like tip of an iceberg. However, as the magnitude of iceberg is largely comprised of its part under sea level, so is the human mind and both subconscious and conscious components include needs, drives, desires, fears, memories and knowledge makes human mind complex and intricate (McWilliams, 2014). With respect to his view on motivation, hydraulic model of mind is also notable. Freud argues that humans have libidinal energy to pursue sexual and aggressional gratification. For humans to function effectively, the pressure that arouses due to non-fulfillment needs to be released through catharsis. Otherwise, the resulting conflict would lead individuals to go through troubles to function effectively (Tükel, 2015).

The vision that was determined by McDougall (1908) and Freud (1920) influenced several notable researchers in the following decades. In order to define these psychological

needs that call for attention, multiple attempts have been made by variety of researchers. In fact, a new perspective on human motivation aroused in the light of these visionary researchers, namely content theories of motivation. The basic premise of content theories of motivation was the fact that humans are energized by specific psychological needs that lies in the basis of survival and strive to be satisfied (Ghazi, Shahzad, and Hukamdad, 2010). Among these researchers, Murray (1938) argued that humans have two fundamental needs that are necessitated for survival. On the one hand lies the physiological needs, such as food, water, procreation and on the other lies the learned needs that have psychological properties. From this perspective, he identified various psychological needs that are ambition, material, status, power, affection and exchange of information based in nature (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). From a similar perspective, Maslow (1943) argued that human needs can be classified under five fundamental categories. At the bottom lies the most basic needs which are physiological and safety related. Then comes the belongingness and love-related needs, such as bonding intimate relationships and having a wide network of friends, and esteem-related needs, including the feeling of achievement, status and prestige in the social environment. Finally, there are self-actualization needs, which are associated with fulfilling one's potential through individualized and creative ways (Tekke, 2019).

One of the most comprehensive conceptual models of psychological needs, which pave the way for investigating the manifestations of blocking these needs, come from McClelland (1965). He argued that individuals have three fundamental needs on a varying degree and these needs are prerequisite for high functioning. First, individuals are motivated by the concept of achievement. In this framework, achievement corresponds to the way individuals try to fulfill their potential through their own standards. The need for achievement motivates individuals to scan the resources to attain success, find or devise original ways to ensure effectiveness, gather feedback regarding their performance, engage in tasks that involve high risk and high gain and exceed normal performance standards.

Second, individuals are motivated by power. In McClelland's (1965) theory, power is associated with the desire of authority and willingness to be in roles where assuming responsibility of others is necessary. The need for power encourages individuals to have higher status among others, gain social power to have a say in the planning of how the efforts of several

individuals would be allocated, and earn appraisal and status regarding their organizational efforts (Pardee, 1990).

Third, individuals are motivated by affiliation. In this framework, affiliation is concerned with the desire to establish harmonious relationships with others. The need for affiliation motivates individuals to look for acceptance, conform in group's idea with a diminished need to challenge others, look for ways to ensure cooperation rather than competition and enlarge the interactional network (Pardee, 1990).

In the last two decades, research on human motivation gained prominence as Ryan and Deci (2000) developed well-known Self-Determination Theory. Beginning with their research, quantity and depth of empirical studies accumulated in wide variety of research realms, including education, sports, developmental psychology, personality psychology and organizational behavior,

Based on a similar theoretical background with their predecessors, Deci and Ryan (2000) argued that individuals will grow and function more effectively in social contexts that support their innate psychological needs. In their framework, it was strongly emphasized that individuals are looking for ways to fulfill their psychological needs to ensure adaptation.

In their Self-Determination Theory (SDT), Deci and Ryan (2000) developed five mini-theories to identify different facets of human motivation and personality functioning. First, in Cognitive Evaluation Theory, they argue that humans possess intrinsic motivation which is different from the desire to reach rewards that meet physical needs. Humans also gain intrinsic satisfaction merely through behaving for its own sake, which provide individuals. Thus, any impediment to satisfying personally significant goals would lead to decreased well-being. Organismic Integration Theory, the second mini theory of SDT, extrinsic motivations with their varying properties and consequences are argued to be internalized. In relation to that, what seems to be a behavior that is triggered by an external motivation may provide individuals an intrinsic motivation due to an internalization process. Third, Basic Psychological Needs Theory emphasizes psychological needs that every individual possess to varying degrees. To be more precise, they argue that all humans have autonomy, competence and relatedness needs that are play a vital part in psychological health. These fundamental needs are 48ontro to be mutual in individuals and it is a prerequisite to meet them. Fourth, in Causality Orientations Theory, Deci

and Ryan (2000) argue that psychological needs moderate behavioral orientations of individuals. In other words, the variation of behavioral tendency between humans are partially derived from how prominent each psychological need is for individuals. Finally, Goal Contents Theory suggests that both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation have an impact of personal goals that individuals set for themselves. While extrinsic goals are associated with materialistic and status-related entities, such as financial welfare, physical outlook and fame, intrinsic goals are fundamentally related to more abstract reinforcements that provide emotional rewards.

In short, mini-theories of SDT stress the vitality of psychological needs, which can be categorized into three needs, for a healthy psychological functioning (Baard, Deci and Ryan, 2004). Among these mini-theories, Basic Psychological Needs Theory shine out to understand the impact of psychological needs, as well as the psychological need thwarting, on personal well-being/ill-being. The most critical notion within this relationship is the fact that proponents of this theory argue that individuals function and develop in the existence of three fundamental needs (Bartholomew et.al., 2011).

From this perspective, Bartholomew and colleagues (2011) provided a psychological need thwarting framework to identify how vital psychological needs are blocked in organizational contexts. They argued that psychological growth and well-being is dependent on whether or not these psychological needs are thwarted. When they are precluded, suboptimal cognitive, affective and behavioral patterns emerge which results in decreased well-being at both general and daily functioning (Gagne, Ryan and Bargmann, 2003), defensive coping styles (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Their framework was developed around three psychological needs, namely autonomy, competence and relatedness.

First, people need some level of autonomy to exercise their individuality. The non-existence of autonomy is identified through whether the individuals are given enough space to determine how they work, forced to behave in certain ways, not being able to determine the course of your goal-pursuit, and intense pressure to obey the predesigned work methods. Individuals who are excessively restrained to behave autonomously are unlikely to be satisfied with their lives, thus, show optimal functioning (Costa, Ntoumanis and Bartholomew, 2015).

Second, people have need for competence, which can be defined as the opportunity to go beyond one's current self. Lack of opportunity to exercise competence is associated with

being forced to struggle with unrealistic goals, absence of opportunities to reach one's potential, and deliberate acts of making one feel adequate. In other words, people whose need for competence are thwarted go through life experiences that suppress the chances to thrive (Gunnell et.al., 2013).

Third, people have a fundamental need for relatedness. Not being able to meet need for relatedness is defined by being excluded, taken for granted, neglected and object to envious actions. Therefore, isolated individuals who are restrained to have nurturing relationships are unlikely to achieve satisfaction with their lives (Hein, Voka and Hagger, 2015).

Unfortunately, few people can meet their psychological needs consistently throughout their lives, and such phenomena is associated with the disruption of psychological well-being. From an organizational point of view, being unable to meet three fundamental psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness may lead to wide variety of both positive and negative organizational behavior. Psychological need thwarting has gained scholarly attention in the last decade, and numerous studies have been conducted that in various areas, including developmental psychology (Hawley, Little, and Pasupathi, 2002), personality psychology (Niemec, Ryan and Deci, 2009), educational psychology (Barkoukis, Ntoumanis, and Thorgersen, 2010), sport psychology (Hagger and Chatzisarantis, 2007), and so on that are associated with SDT. However, research regarding the antecedents and consequences of psychological need thwarting is still developing in many areas, including organizational behavior.

Regarding the psychological need thwarting in organizational behavior, on the brighter side, lack of psychological need thwarting is associated with favorable outcomes. Ryan and colleagues' (2008) study, to illustrate, found out that employees with lower scores on psychological need thwarting experience more positive affectivity. In addition, Gillet and colleagues' (2019) study investigated the relationship between psychological need thwarting and well-being, and their results demonstrated that two constructs have significant associations. In addition to its inverse relationships with affective factors, lack of psychological need thwarting is also associated with decreased perfectionism in athletes, as Mallinson and Hill's (2011) study demonstrated.

On the darker side, however, psychological need thwarting results in several unfavorable factors. For instance, Ryan and colleagues' (2006) study demonstrated that psychological need thwarting is associated with negative affectivity in employees. In addition, Bartholomew et.al. (2011) investigated the relationship between psychological need thwarting and burnout and somatic complaints on teachers and found out that teachers who are unable to exercise their basic psychological needs are under threat of these adverse psychological effects. Hein, Voka and Hagger (2015) looked for the effect of psychological need thwarting and anger and bullying and their results showed strong associations between these constructs. Quested and Duda (2010) investigated the impact of psychological need thwarting on emotional exhaustion on dancers and found that thwarted psychological needs are associated with physical exhaustion.

2.8.2. Psychological Need Thwarting as a Mediator Between Destructive Leadership and Personal Psychological Disharmony

As the global economic conditions forces individuals to adapt themselves to changing situations, consistently show superior performance and quickly bounce back from emotionally stringent situations to make themselves relevant in the job market, sustaining psychological well-being emerges as one of the key challenges employees face. As it was previously noted in this study, research has identified several individual, organizational, task-related and managerial factors that may exacerbate personal psychological disharmony in employees.

Among these factors, interactions with leaders play a critical role since leaders get through the connection between employees and organizations, and leaders themselves have the ability to alleviate or mitigate pressure upon employees From that perspective of leadership, it can be argued that leaders who engage in destructive practices, such as deliberately demotivating subordinates through destructive methods, such as authoritarian behaviors, callousness towards subordinates, nepotism and so forth, are likely to hinder the satisfaction of one or more of the three fundamental psychological needs of their subordinates. As a result, subordinates may be prone to some of the components of personal psychological disharmony. From this viewpoint, the role of psychological need thwarting on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony can be explained through

Cognitive Behavioral Theory (Lazarus, 1991), Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Danserau et.al., 1975), and Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfoll, 1989).

Cognitions play a huge role on in adapting to the environmental variables as they are the key component of how we perceive interpret the world. Being mostly involuntary, they first arise as a reaction to the environmental stimuli and it can be moderated through deliberate attempt to regulate them. Cognitive-behavioral perspective on human behavior also asserts that they have potential to determine the affective and behavioral action as a consequence. To illustrate, proponents of ABC model of affective disorders, which was developed through a cognitive-behavioral lens, argue that environmental stimuli do not directly trigger affective or behavioral responses, but they are shaped by the cognitions. Thus, environmental variable is only the antecedent of a response, constituting the "A" in the model. Consequential affective response, on the other hand, such as depressive mood, anxiety and stress-related somatic symptoms emerge as the consequence, constituting the "C" in the model. The interaction between these constructs, on the other hand, are shaped by cognitive processing mechanisms (Beck, Emery and Greenberg, 2005). From this point of view, prolonged exposure to destructive leadership practices, such as neglect, unethical orientation, authoritarian attitude and favoritism may lead to increased negative affect for employees. In this approach, destructive leadership might be the antecedent, thus "A", and increased personal psychological disharmony might be the consequence, the "C". To provide the psychological mechanism, psychological need thwarting may mediate the relationship via unadaptable cognitions, the "B".

From a similar perspective, the interaction between leaders and employees may result in increased depressive, anxious and stress-related symptoms in employees via a cognitive process. Danserau et.al. (1975) argued, in Leader-Member Exchange Model, that leaders play the key role in phenomenological state of employees, both constructively and unfavorably. As the studies have demonstrated significant associations between leadership and employee well-being (Sparks et.al., 2001; Doi, 2005), maladaptive cognitions on employee side may exacerbate the situation through a decreased sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness.

In addition, the role of psychological need thwarting on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony might be explained through Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resources Theory. Hobfoll (1989) argues that every

individual in organizations look for solid ways to maximize their outcomes and any threat of loss on suboptimal outcome may seek ways to ensure the sustainability of favorable outcomes. In the absence of alternative ways to reach outcomes as rewarding as the current situation, employees might fall into despair, go through anxiety, depressive symptoms and distress through lack of agency to determine the course of their lives, make best use of their potential and establish supportive social interactions.

In this respect, personal psychological disharmony is an alarming issue for the organizations and leadership is one of the fundamental determining factor on the subject. Being the victim of destructive leadership practices would trigger and alleviate its impact on personal psychological disharmony via declined autonomy, diminished sense of growth and increased isolation.

As a consequence, below hypothesis has been generated on the basis of relevant literature:

H_4: Psychological need thwarting mediates the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony.

2.9. THE CONCEPT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT BREACH

2.9.1. The Literature Review of Psychological Contract Breach

Employees and organizations cooperate with the intention to gain personally meaningful outcomes. With the expectation of reciprocation from the other party, both employees and organizations form a multi-faceted bond which involves both consideration of economic and emotional outcomes (Kırel, 2000). For this reason, it might be superficial to assume that what sustains the reciprocal relationship between employees and organizations are signed contracts that formalize the mutual responsibilities between them. However, intense competition in the market, volatile economic environment, and sociocultural dynamics had immense impact on how both employees and organizations perceive their effect on other party. From this perspective, violation of psychological contract became a critical subject that calls for scholarly attention.

Psychological contract breach can be defined as the set of beliefs that there is a mutual obligation between interacting parties regarding the interests of each (Conway and Briner, 2005). Even though it might be unwritten and informal, individuals expect other parties to respect their interests in the pursuit of others' goals. Psychological contract breach has become a chronic issue, especially in the last three decades. Robinson and Rousseau (1994) found that 55% of their sample have the conception that their organizations fail to fulfill their promises. The study also found out that psychological contract breach do not only affect employees who have higher tenures, since most of the employees were in the first two years of employment in their organizations. From this point of view, psychological contract breach is indeed a critical problem in organizational contexts.

From an organizational perspective, it includes mutual expectations between employees and organizations considering the desired outcomes of each party (Robinson and Morrison, 2000). In many occasions, though, employees may perceive that organizations behave opportunistically and disregard interests of employees. The perceived violation of unwritten rules between organization and employee leads to disappointment and resentment in the vulnerable party (Zhao et.al., 2007).

Psychological contract had drawn broad attention in organizational behavior in the last three decades. However, the violation of reciprocal relationship has long been investigated in the organizational research. Barnard (1938) first stressed that organizations should encourage employees to show high performance through motivating them via social and psychological rewards in order to achieve strategical goals. These rewards are not limited to materialized ones, such as compensation and benefits, but also include immaterial ones like social support, status and recognition and perceived insensitivity to meet these needs would harm the organizations in the long term (Gültekin, 2014).

Among the first researchers who attempted to conceptualize the phenomenon was Argyris (1960). Initially using the term of "psychological work contact", he developed the concept after his studies on analyzing organizational context in two factories, gathering data from both employees and managers. After his observations and several interviews, he came up with the conclusion that employees maintain high performance with little complaint about the organization as long as they are guaranteed to receive fair compensation and secured job

(Anderson and Schalk, 1998). From this perspective, Levinson and colleagues (1962) coined the term "psychological contract breach", as they defined the concept as the unwritten contract between employees and organizations that encapsulates tacit and unarticulated expectations that shape several organizational outcomes. Like Barnard (1938), Levinson and colleagues (1962) argued that these expectations can be explicit, such as salary increase, but also implicit such as promotion. Later on, Schein (1965) have contributed to the concept of psychological contract breach by signifying the reciprocity between employees and organization and the lack of concern in either party to measure up the unwritten expectancy of the other party. Additionally, Schein (1960) argued that psychological contract breach do not only imply the organization discarding the expectancy of employees and developed two levels. Organizational level of psychological contract is associated with the organization's attitude towards meeting unwritten expectancy of employees. On the other hand, at the individual level, organizations also have performance expectation from the employees and employees may be reluctant to demonstrate self-serving behavior.

Even though either employee or the organization may be affected by self-interested or negligent behaviors of other party, psychological contract breach is usually mentioned when employees become victim of the actions of management. In the following decades, widespread attention has focused on organizational level of psychological contract breach and the concept gained scholarly depth through this level. From this perspective, Rousseau (1990) emphasized the organizational component of psychological contract breach through a narrower definition, arguing that individual's expectations regarding the organizational context between employer and employee. From that point on, psychological contract breach has been treated as a unified concept that focuses on the subjective and individual percept on the obligations that needs to be fulfilled on organizations' behalf.

As the late 20th century witnessed globalization as a natural consequence of neo-liberal economies and major shifts in the organizations took place, neither organizations nor employees have been able to find balance between their wishes and interacting parties' expectations, paving the way for the increased attention of the concept in organizational behavior (Elden, 2017). As the organizational level of psychological contract breach gained prominence, two fundamental properties of the concept emerged that shed light on the gap between the perceived inequality between organizational practices and employees' expectations. First, Rousseau

(2004) argued that psychological contract is based on the obligations regarding the employment relationship. Since psychological contract breach, as is psychological contract, is subjective in nature, the gap between actual situation and expectation can be major. Second, psychological contract breach is associated with expectations rather than genuine obligations on organizations' behalf. Thus, expectations that are shaped by former experiences and personal observation may aggravate the perceived intentional violence on perceptual commitments.

Similarly, Morrison and Robinson (1997) developed a theoretical model regarding the causes of the concept to identify what exacerbates psychological contract breach. In their influential model, they argue that there are three underlying causes for psychological contract breach to spread. For one thing, employees in the organizations may notice that an obligation on organization's behalf exist, but it is not minded by the management. Naming this as reneging, management in the organizations may make deliberate commitments to the employees but fail to fulfill them. On the other hand, psychological contract breach may emerge as a mismatch between employees and organizations' perceptions regarding the obligation. Considering this as incongruence, employees may interpret certain organizational clues as pledges and when they are not met by the management, they may be the victim of psychological contract breach and associated outcomes. Finally, psychological contract breach may be aggravated as a result of constant evaluation of how well organizations fulfill their obligations. Referring it as vigilance, Morrison and Robinson (1997) argued that vigilant employees may be very sensitive to notice organizational clues about breach, even though these clues may be random happenings. Research has found that psychological contract breach has more devastating effects on employees when reneging, which is intentional violation of obligation, takes place (Rousseau, and McLean, 1993).

Since psychological contract breach depends on subjective evaluation of obligations and perceived violation, it has strong associations with individual schemas regarding the employment relationship. For this reason, individual perspectives on hard work and reciprocity which has strong roots in former experiences and social interactions. Thus, unfavorable experiences in organizational contexts which shape the mindset of individuals as to the employment in general may lead individuals to be more vigilant to the psychological contract breach related clues (Guest and Conway, 2000).

Psychological contract breach has several adverse impacts on employees' side. Preemptively, psychological contract breach is associated with affective reactions, which can be categorized under two main responses. On one side, psychological contract breach may trigger frustration and anger. Research has found that breach has strong associations with feelings of violation in employees (Raja, Johns and Ntalianis, 2004). On the other side, breach is related to mistrust on organizations. Perceived violation of commitments lead employees to be distrustful towards their organizations and feel distress as a consequence (Young and Daniel, 2003).

Apart from affective reactions, psychological contract breach has an impact on work attitudes of employees. Corresponding to the cognitive responses, psychological contract breach may have an adverse effect on negative evaluation regarding the employment relationship and work context (Zhao et.al., 2007). Consequentially, psychological contract breach may lead individuals to experience decreased job satisfaction (Hennicks, 2014), low affective commitment (Restubog, Pordia, and Tang, 2006), increased turnover intention (Blomme, Van Rheede and Tromp, 2013), and organizational cynicism (Griep and Vantilborgh, 2018).

In addition, psychological contract breach triggers several unfavorable work behaviors in employees. Work behaviors are visible constructs and they are associated decreased functioning on organizations' side, as well. To name a few, psychological contract breach has significant associations with diminished organizational citizenship behavior (Gupta, Agarwal and Khatri, 2016), actual turnover (Clinton and Guest, 2014), low workforce morale (Kacmar et.al., 2006), and decreased in-role performance (Turnley et.al., 2003).

2.9.2. Psychological Contract Breach as a Mediator Between Destructive Leadership and Organizational Cynicism

Global economic variables force business context to shift the traditional mindset regarding the employment relationships, as well as business models. For this reason, employees are expected to demonstrate superior adaptation skills to the strategic priorities of organizations. However, as the relationship between employees and organizations are based on reciprocal interactions, meaning that both parties are trying to increase their individual outcomes through

social exchanges, meeting the expectations of employees and ensuring that their motivations are elevated is immensely critical for organizations, nowadays.

Lack of trust towards management, feelings of disappointment and despair as a result of constant self-serving behavior committed by organizations, detached and avoidant behavioral orientation by employees are associated with organizational cynicism, in the relevant literature (Tokgöz and Yılmaz, 2008). Research has identified several factors that may worsen organizationally cynic tendencies at individual, managerial and organizational levels. At the managerial level, multiple attempts have been made to illuminate how leadership influences organizational cynicism and several associations have been found between organizational cynicism and authoritarian leadership (Jiang et.al., 2017), servant leadership (Peng, Jien and Lin, 2016) and perceived supervisor support (Cole et.al., 2006). However, it is vital to understand the underlying psychological mechanism about the relationship between leadership and organizational cynicism. Psychological contract breach is a concept that may also explain organizational cynicism by providing an underlying psychological mechanism. Violation of unwritten rules between organization and employee on behalf of organization, is likely to result in perceived injustice disappointment of employee, and indirectly, organizational cynicism (Griep and Vantilborgh, 2018; Johnson and O'Leary-Kelley, 2003; Bashir and Nasir, 2013). From this perspective, the role of psychological contract breach on the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism can be explicated through Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), Affective Events Theory (Weiss and Cronpanzano, 1996), Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), and Justice Theory (Greenberg, 1990).

Organizations are based on the formal and informal interactions between several parties. Thus, ensuring a safe and fair environment for interacting parties has critical importance considering the pursuit of individual and organizational goals. Since psychological contract breach is considered as intentional violation of employee rights, it is associated with perceptions of unfairness (Dunn and Schweitzer, 2005). From an interactional perspective, Blau's (1964) social exchange theory provides on-point insight on psychological contract breach. In Blau's (1964) view, the behaviors of each party, including organization, leaders, subordinates and so on, are argued to be considered as a point on an ongoing interactional continuum, In other words, the reason why a person behaves in a particular manner may be derived from a certain behavioral pattern that the person has been objected to (Çetinkaya and Özkara, 2015).

Even though employees and organizations cooperate in order to maximize their favorable outcomes, it might be superficial to assume that organizations are perfectly rational contexts. On the contrary, emotions play an immense role on the attitudes and behaviors. According to Affective Events Theory, unfavorable events in the workplace may lead to negative attitudes and emotions. As a form of perceived unfairness, psychological contract breach is associated with wide variety of organizational outcomes, especially on employees' behalf. Research has identified that psychological contract breach has negative association with trust (Dunn and Schweitzer, 2005) and negative attitude towards organization (Thoresen et.al., 2003), two of the central concepts in organizational cynicism. Thus, unfavorable interaction between a leader and an employee may act as affective events and result in unfavorable attitudes towards organizations, along with feelings of disappointment and avoidant behaviors.

Apart from above theories, Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) Theory of Planned Behavior provides valuable insights to the interaction between these variables. Regarding the predominant belief that each party is self-interested and highly likely to behave opportunistically given the chance, thus, may be the inevitable product of an anteceding unfavorable behavioral pattern. In other words, an employee whose expectancies are not met by the managers, or the organization in general, may demonstrate a cynical behavioral preference out of a resentment (Robinson, 1995). From this viewpoint, employees who have been subject to maltreatment by their leaders may have negative attitude towards and engage in organizationally cynic behaviors as a response.

Finally, the association between these variables may be explained through Greenberg's (1990) Justice Theory. Interactions are based on the concept of reciprocity and any discrepancy between one's expectancy regarding other party's behavior may result in counter behaviors in the future. Greenberg's (1990) theory asserts that individuals base justice in their behavioral orientation, so that when treated as unfairly, individuals will try to compensate the situation by engaging in destructive ways for the receiving party. For this reason, individuals who perceive unfair treatment from their leaders are likely to form negative attitudes towards both leaders and organizations, in general, and engage in organizationally cynic behaviors due to a lack of better alternative.

Consequentially, organizational cynicism has been a critical subject, particularly in the last three decades and identifying the factors that inflame it became a prominent concern. Prolonged interaction to destructive leadership, including negligence, lack of leadership competence, unethical behavioral orientation and favoritism may lead to organizationally cynic tendencies through a disturbed sense of justice as a result of unmet expectations.

In this respect, below hypothesis has been proposed in the light of relevant literature:

H_5: Psychological contract breach mediates the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism.

2.10. THE CONCEPT OF TASK SIGNIFICANCE

2.10.1. The Literature Review of Task Significance

Beginning with Taylorian era, the fundamental factor that was regarded as having the largest impact on important organizational outcomes was job design. Supporters of Taylorian approach and scientific management, inefficiencies in manual labor jobs were tackled with division of work tasks into the smallest parts. The central idea was that if an employee is assigned to one specific task, little time and effort would be wasted since the employees would gain tremendous expertise in their tasks which would lead to highest efficiency. Even though scientific management approach had a significant influence on business perspective at time, its impact could not last long since employee well-being was discarded and not all jobs were suitable for dividing into the smallest parts (Furnham, et.al., 2002). As new approaches like classical organization theory, human relations movement, and contingency theory replaced scientific management, the focus shifted from features of jobs to leadership, individual differences and organizational variables (Rothman and Cooper, 2015; Furnham et.al., 2005).

Following Hackman and Oldham's (1974) seminal work and well-known job characteristics model, features of work tasks have, once again, drawn scholarly notice. In their framework, five job-related factors have been argued to drive individuals for superior performance (Dodd and Ganster, 1996). One of these factors was autonomy. Hackman and Oldham (1974) defined autonomy as the degree that job provide freedom and independence in which they can manage how they will allocate their resources in their work. Another

fundamental job-related factor was feedback. It was defined as the opportunity to obtain information about one's work effectiveness and performance. Skill variety was considered as another crucial job characteristics. It is mainly associated with whether job tasks provide employees to use various skills and talents. Another crucial job characteristic in this framework was task identity, which was about the degree to which a job possesses an individual value (Ali et.al., 2014).

Finally, Hackman and Oldham (1974) argued that one of the fundamental concepts in job characteristics model is task significance. It can be defined as the judgement that one's job has a positive impact on other people (Grant, 2008). Task significance provides individuals a sense of meaning and instills a sense of pride out of the work they have produced (Colby, Sippola and Phelps, 2001). Thus, it can be argued that task significance may give the necessary motivation that keeps the individual functioning and preserve sense of self while other factors are lacking.

Several studies have been conducted in order to identify the concepts that are related with task significance. For one thing, task significance has been shown to be associated with job performance of the employees. In fact, literature includes both cross-sectional studies (Mathieu, Hoffman & Farr, 1993), experimental studies (Morgeson & Campion, 2002), and field studies (Grant, 2008) that demonstrate significant relationships with task significance and job performance.

Apart from job performance, studies showed that task significance is associated with employee engagement. Relevant literature showed that the more an employee perceives her work as meaningful, the more engaged she would be in her work (Anuradha, Lakshmi, and Ghuman, 2017). In addition, task significance was shown to be associated with higher engagement to one's organization (Gostautaite and Buciuniene, 2015).

Task significance is also associated with job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion of the employees. Raub and Blunschi (2014) conducted a study to test the relationship between corporate social responsibility of the organization and employee outcomes and found that attempts on corporate social responsibility increases the task significance levels of employees. In addition, the more employees perceive their work as significant, the higher their job satisfaction, and the lower their emotional exhaustion levels.

Furthermore, task significance has significant associations with employees' attitudes towards their organizations. Ong and colleagues (2018) investigated the relationship between task significance and organizational citizenship behavior of employees. The results showed that the more one perceives one's work as significant, the higher one's organizational citizenship behaviors. Apart from that, several studies tested the relationship between task significance and turnover intention, and the results of these studies showed that the higher the task significance, the lower their intention to quit their organizations (Anuradha, Lakshmi, and Ghuman, 2017; Raub and Blunschi, 2014).

2.10.2. Task Significance as a Moderator Between Destructive Leadership and Personal Psychological Disharmony

As it was previously noted, one of the main objectives of this study is to investigate the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. Relevant literature provides some insights into the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony, even though number of studies are few. For instance, Palmar (2001)'s study showed that task significance is associated with job anxiety, which in turn leads to job satisfaction and job motivation. In addition, Steyn and Vawda (2014) showed that task significance is associated with depression and stress levels of employees. Furthermore, El-Asmar (2013)'s study showed that task significance is linked to job stress in employees.

Apart from that, task significance has several relationships with perceived leadership patterns. Piccolo and colleagues (2010), for example, investigated the relationship with ethical leadership and task significance and found significant results. Similarly, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006)'s study showed that task significance of employees is associated with transformational leadership. On the other side of the coin, Gavin and Hofmann (2002) found that the leadership climate is associated with employees' task significance, so that the more hostile leadership environment, the less the task significance levels of employees. In this respect, there may be individual and contextual factors that may motivate or demotivate employees to be more resilient to personal psychological disharmony. Thus, such a motivational factor may weaken or neutralize the expected association (Grant et.al., 2007).

In addition to support for the hypothetical relationship between destructive leadership, personal psychological disharmony and task significance, theoretical explanations can be utilized in order to shed light on the relationship. From this perspective, Locke and Latham (1990)'s Goal Setting Theory may provide insight into the hypothetical relationship. In their framework, Locke and Latham (1990) argue that specific, clear, and challenging goals may motivate individuals to actualize their potentials. In a similar manner, lack of such goals may discourage individuals to attain their maximum and may even disturb their psychosocial adaptation. In an organizational context, leaders play a critical role on the motivation of their employees. For this reason, leaders who are not competent enough or behave in a callous manner might deprive their employees of task significance, which may render them vulnerable towards depression, anxiety, and stress.

Apart from that, Theory of Alienation may help us conceptualizing the hypothetical relationship between destructive leadership, task significance and personal psychological disharmony. Archibald (1976) argues that work in capitalist economy is designed to improve efficiency and such design may leave employees little room for controlling their labor and utilizing their capabilities to the fullest. In this respect, employees who are constrained on how they coordinate their labor may feel alienated towards their job. From this perspective, leaders who are unlikely to empower their employees, provide meaningful development opportunities, and demonstrate favoritism may lead to a disturbed sense of meaningfulness on employees about their work, which may, in turn, lead to decreased psychological harmony.

Finally, Hobfoll (1989)'s Conversation of Resources Theory may explicate the hypothetical relationship. According to Hobfoll (1989), employees are in constant search for developing their skills and maximizing their outcomes. They are also likely to experience stress when they are faced with a loss of threat to their current or future resources. In this manner, employees who are left little room for self-improvement, treated unfairly and systematically dismissed by their leaders may demonstrate lower levels of motivation and they might be vulnerable towards psychological disharmony, as a consequence.

For the above reasons, it can be suggested that task significance may be a protective factor against personal psychological disharmony for those individuals who are object to destructive leadership. Therefore, moderating role of task significance on the relationship

between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony will be investigated in this study.

H_6: Task significance moderates the relationship between perceived destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony; so that the higher the task significance, the weaker the relationship between perceived destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony.

2.11. THE SUMMARY OF GENERATED HYPOTHESES AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

The hypothetical propositions of the study, which have been elaborated in the literature review, can be found below;

H_1: There is a positive relationship between destructive leadership and employee personal psychological disharmony.

H_2: There is a positive relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism.

H_3: There is a significant relationship between self-construals and organizational cynicism.

H_{3a}: There is a positive relationship between independent self-construal and organizational cynicism.

H_{3b}: There is a negative relationship between interdependent self-construal and organizational cynicism.

H_4: Psychological need thwarting mediates the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony.

H_5: Psychological contract breach mediates the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism.

H_6: Task significance moderates the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony; so that the higher the task significance, the weaker the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony.

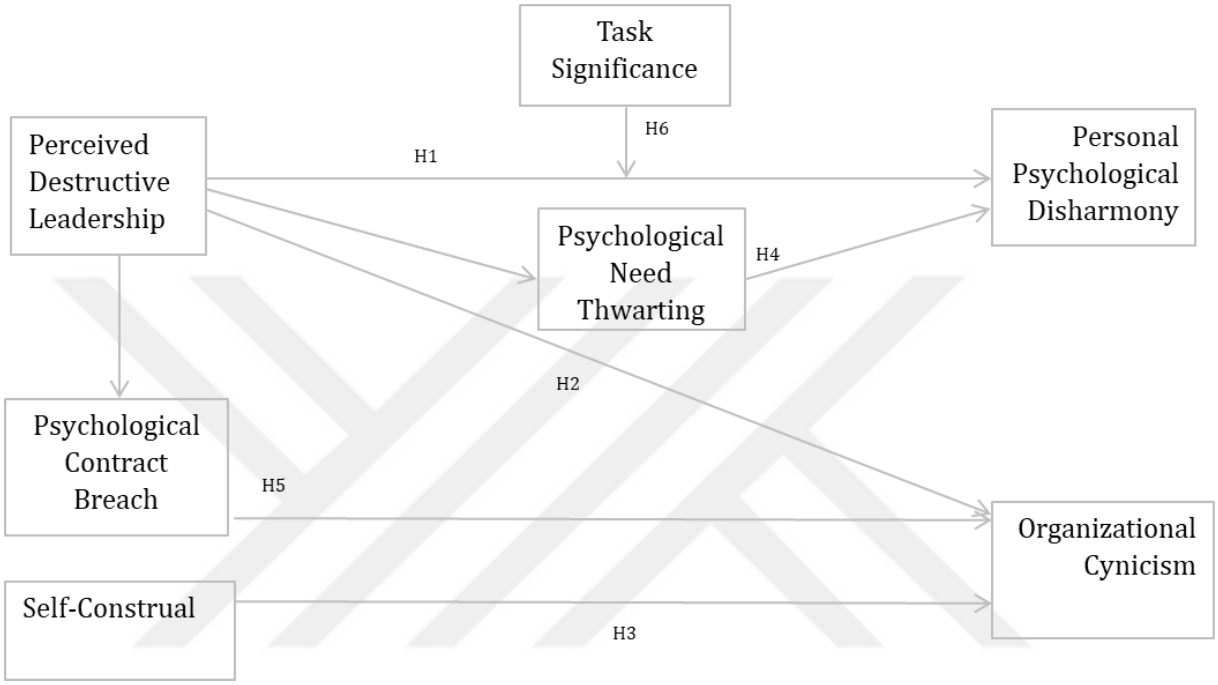

Figure 2. Hypothetical Relationships among the Research Variables

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. THE RESEARCH METHOD

Researchers have underlined the prominence of depicting the research methodology as a valuable approach to improve the validity of social research (Armitage, 2007). From this perspective, social researchers mainly use three different research models, namely qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods (Williams, 2007). The qualitative research concentrates on discovering and understanding the meaning that individuals or groups attach to social or human subject (Williams, 2007). In this respect, data collection and analyses, as well as establishing the model are based on open-ended questions, interviews, case studies and so on in qualitative research. Apart from that, researchers aim to map why individuals have certain thoughts and feelings in addition to what they think and feel (Clark and Cresswell, 2008). The qualitative research allow researchers to gather data on values, thoughts, behaviors, as well as cultural dynamics of certain populations (Turner, 2010).

Another fundamental research model in social sciences is the quantitative method. The main difference between quantitative method and qualitative method is the fact that hypotheses that are generated on various subjects can be tested through research tools, such as scales and statistical analyses (Turner, 2010). In this method, researchers gather numerical data via surveys and interviews. As the researchers establish their hypotheses, they can analyze the data they gather with the help of descriptive and inferential statistics. In particular, the quantitative method can explicate the associations between multiple variables, as well as providing the opportunity to observe fundamental properties of observed phenomena (Armitage, 2007).

Finally, the mixed method is one of the most widely used research methods in social sciences. The fundamental precursor of mixed research is the fact that research problems can be scrutinized through use of qualitative and quantitative approach combined, in order to reach a wider understanding of the problem (Armitage, 2007). This method allows researchers to evaluate complex models and interventions (Cameron, 2009). Even though strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods can be exploited in mixed method, challenges of both method may still emerge (Cameron, 2009).

In this study, research methodology was based on the quantitative method. The data was collected through online and paper-based surveys with the use of the research tools that are widely used in the relevant literature. Then, seven different scales have been combined in a questionnaire set. From this point, descriptive analyses have been conducted, and the results can be seen in the tables.

Research methods can be differentiated throughout the use of timelines. Fundamentally, researchers widely use cross-sectional and/or longitudinal surveys. In this respect, longitudinal surveys allow researchers to identify the changes through months, years, and decades (Field, 2009). In cross-sectional surveys, on the other hand, the data is gathered at one point in time from a large and diverse sample in order to generalize the results to represent the population (Alavi and Habek, 2016).

In the present study, single source data collection method was used as the data was gathered with the participation of employees, and single-method study was used through the use of questionnaires. In addition, cross-sectional survey has been utilized in this study considering the nature of the research questions and hypotheses. From this perspective, surveys that measure destructive leadership, self-construal, psychological need thwarting, task significance, psychological contract breach, personal psychological disharmony, and organizational cynicism was utilized as the questionnaires of independent, dependent, moderator and mediator variables. Following the data collection, the responses on survey questionnaires was prepared for the statistical analyses.

3.2. THE SAMPLE AND DATA COLLECTION

The data for the present study was gathered from a sample of total 260 participants from variety of public and private sectors in Turkey. As the study concentrates on employees' behaviors, understanding the underlying psychosocial mechanisms for their behaviors was critical. From this perspective, the study was centered upon investigating employee behaviors and attitudes. In this respect, the sample of the study was limited to the individuals who are employed in organizations from public and private sectors, located in Istanbul. The participants of the present study were employees in managerial and non-managerial positions without senior management responsibilities. The data was gathered through online and paper-based surveys. In the pilot study, data from 104 participants were gathered. As the pilot study results were congruent with the hypotheses, additional data from 172 participants were gathered. Among all participants who completed the questionnaires, total of 276 responses was acquired and 16 surveys was excluded due to incomplete data or suspect responses. 173 survey responses were collected through online surveys and remaining 87 responses were obtained through paper-based surveys. The participants were reached through an online professional social media platform and the client contacts of the researcher. For online participants, response rate was 23%, while for paper-based participant response rate was 45%.

Table 1.

Descriptive Results of the Sample

Characteristics		Frequency	Valid Percent
Gender	Female	119	45.8
	Male	141	54.2
	Total	260	100
Age	20-25 years	19	7.3
	26-30 years	122	46.9
	31-35 years	72	27.7
	36-45 years	36	13.8
	45 years above	11	4.2
	Total	260	100
Education	Bachelor's Degree	144	55.4
	Master's Degree	109	41.9
	Philosophy Degree	7	2.7
	Total	260	100
Total Work Experience	2 years and below	26	10.0
	3-5 years	70	26.9
	6-10 years	120	46.2
	11-15 years	27	10.4
	15 years above	17	6.5
	Total	260	100
Total Organization Experience	1 year and below	66	25.0
	2-3 years	112	43.0
	4-5 years	58	22.3
	6-10 years	16	6.2
	10 years above	8	3.1
	Total	260	100

Regarding the demographics 54.2% of the participants were male, while 45.8% were female, as it can be seen in Table 1. Majority of the participants were below 30 years of age, as shown in Table 1. More specifically, 7.3% were less than 25 years of age, 46.9% were between 26 and 30, 27.7% were between 31 and 35, 13.8% were between 36 and 45, while remaining 4.2% were above 45 years of age.

Considering the education statuses of the participants, majority of the participants, more specifically 55.4% had Bachelor's Degree, as can be seen in Table 1. 41.9% of the participants had Master's Degree, and remaining 2.7% had Philosophy Degree.

Demographics analyses had shown that 10% of the participants had less than 2 years of total work experience. In addition, 26.9% had 3-5 years, 46.2% had 6-10 years, and 10.4% had

11-15 years of total work experience. Finally, 6.5 % of the sample had more than 15 years of total work experience.

Lastly, total company experience had been analyzed. Participants who have less than one years of current organization experience was 25%, 43% had 2-3 years, 22.3% had 4-5 years, 6.2% had 6-10 years of experience in their current organization. Employees who have been working for their current company was 3.1%.

3.3. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

In the present study, seven different scales have been utilized to measure eight variables of the model. The data have been collected by employees, as self-report method has been used. In order to measure destructive leadership, self-construal, psychological need thwarting, task significance, psychological contract breach, personal psychological disharmony, and organizational cynicism, the items were evaluated by participants on a 6-point scale, ranging from 1=”totally disagree” to 6=”totally agree”.

The scales of the study were adapted and re-evaluated by the researcher and the thesis advisor. The translations have been controlled by four academics in order to check face validity of the scales. In addition, academic committee members of the study evaluated and confirmed all the items that have been used in the study.

The questionnaire designed in two different sections, as demographic variables and scales that are linked to variables of the study. Gender, age, education level, total work experience and total organization experience data has been gathered in order to define the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Fundamentally, the questionnaire form of the present study was separated into two parts, as demographic variables section and scales that are linked to the variables of the study.

3.3.1. Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale

The level of psychological disharmony of employees was measured by Lovibond and Lovibond’s (1995) Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS). The scale consists of 42

questions, in total. Adaptation to Turkish language have been conducted by Akın and Çetin (2007). Cronbach alpha value of the Turkish version of the scale is 0.92. The pilot study conducted by the researchers of the present study revealed 0.98 Cronbach's alpha value. Deniz and Sümer (2010) also used this scale in his study and come up with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.89. The scale consists of three subscales, depression, anxiety and stress. The sample items for depression subscale was "I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all", anxiety subscale was "I found myself getting upset by quite trivial things, and stress subscale was "I tended to over-react to situations".

3.3.2. Organizational Cynicism Scale

Organizational cynicism level of employees was measured by Brandes and colleagues' (1995) Organizational Cynicism Scale. The scale consists of 13 questions, in total. Turkish language adaptation was conducted by Karacaoğlu and İnce (2012), which revealed 0.91 Cronbach's alpha value. Görmen (2012) also used this scale in his study and come up with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.91. The pilot study of the researchers of the present study revealed 0.95 Cronbach's alpha value. There are three subscales of Organizational Cynicism Scale, namely, affective cynicism, cognitive cynicism, and behavioral cynicism. The sample items of affective cynicism is "When I think about my company, I experience aggravation", cognitive cynicism is "My company's policies, goals and practices seem to have little in common", and behavioral cynicism is "I complain with my friends outside the company about how I work is being carried out in the company."

3.3.3. Destructive Leadership Questionnaire

The level of destructive leadership perception on employees in the organizations was measured by Shaw and colleagues' (2011) study. In their study, destructive leadership was measured by Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ), which had 28 items, in total. Adaptation of the scale to Turkish language was conducted by Uymaz (2013), and Cronbach alpha value of the scale was found to be 0.96. Reliability and construct validity of the scale was determined and researchers of this study have re-evaluated and necessary adaptations have been

made on the items. Aydınay (2019) also used the scale in his study and come up with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.97. In the pilot study conducted by the researchers of this study, Cronbach's alpha value was 0.97. Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ) consists of six subscales, namely authoritarian leadership, inadequate leadership skills, unethical behaviors, inability to deal with technology and other changes, callousness towards subordinates, and nepotism. The example items for authoritarian leadership was "My boss is tyrant", inadequate leadership skills was "My boss has no idea what it takes to motivate subordinates", unethical behaviors was "My boss often acts in an unethical manner", inability to deal with technology and other changes was "My boss avoids having to use new technology", callousness towards subordinates was "I rarely know what my boss expects of me", and nepotism was "My boss tends to show excessive favoritism".

3.3.4. Self-Construal Scale

The self-construal of employees was measured by Singelis' (1994) Self-Construal Scale (SCS). The scale has 30 items, and adaptation to Turkish language was done by Wasti and Erdil (2007). In Wasti and Erdil's (2007) study, the Cronbach's alpha value was found to be 0.90. The researchers of the study conducted a pilot study and Cronbach's alpha values in this study was found to be 0.73. Taştan and Torun (2016) also used the scale in their study and come up with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.91. The scale consists of two dimensions, namely independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal. Sample items for independent self-construal was "I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects", and interdependent self-construal was "Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument".

3.3.5. Psychological Need Thwarting Scale

The level of psychological need thwarting was measured by Bartholomew and colleagues' (2011) Psychological Need Thwarting Scale (PNTS). The scale has 12 items, and the Cronbach's alpha value of original study was 0.90. To our knowledge, Turkish adaptation of the scale was not conducted before, but the results of the pilot study, conducted by the

researchers of the study, showed that Cronbach's alpha value was 0.93. The translation study was conducted by the researchers and two professors in the thesis committee. The scale consists of three subscales, namely need thwarting for autonomy, need thwarting for competence, and need thwarting for relatedness. The example items of the study for need thwarting for autonomy was "I feel pushed to behave in certain ways", need thwarting for competence was "There are times when I am told things that make me feel incompetent", and need thwarting for relatedness was "I feel others can be dismissive of me".

3.3.6. Psychological Contract Breach Scale

Psychological contract breach level of employees was measured by Robinson and Rousseau's (1994) Psychological Contract Breach Scale (PCBS). Psychological contract breach in this scale was measured with 9 items, which was not separated into different sub-dimensions. Adaptation to Turkish language was conducted by Çetinkaya and Özkara (2015), and Cronbach's alpha value was found to be 0.78. Büyükyılmaz and Çakmak (2014) also used the scale in their study and come up with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.93. In the pilot study conducted by the researchers of this study, the Cronbach's alpha value was 0.94. Sample items of the scale were "I feel betrayed by my organization" and "I feel a great deal of anger toward my organization.

3.3.7. Work Design Questionnaire (Task Significance Subscale)

Perceptions of employees regarding task significance was measured by Morgeson and Humphrey's (2006) Work Design Questionnaire's (WDQ) Task Significance subscale. Task significance subscale was measured with 4 items. Adaptation to Turkish language was conducted by Rodopman (1999), and the scale has 0.87 Cronbach's alpha value. The Cronbach's alpha value of the pilot study done by the researchers of the present study was 0.87, as well. Sample item of the scale was "The job itself is very significant and important to the society.

3.4. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY

The statistical analyses of the present study was conducted by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Initially, descriptive analysis was done to reveal the frequencies, means and standard deviations, in order to identify gender, age, educational level, total work experience, and total organization experience. Then, factor analysis was applied to figure out the construct validities of all scales that have been used. In this respect, factor analyses were done by principal component analysis with Varimax rotation. Items with less than 0.50 were excluded from the scales, as Durmuş, Yurtkoru, and Çinko (2013) suggested. In the next step, reliability analyses were conducted for all the scales and reliabilities of the scales were determined via Cronbach's Alpha. As a result of the reliability analyses, proper internal consistencies have been found which demonstrate interrelatedness between the items (Field, 2009). Prominent researchers on statistics argue that internal consistency for the scales must be at least 0.70 (Turner, 2010). Moreover, the sampling adequacy was tested by Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) coefficient, needs to be more than 0.50, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was applied, as it must be less than 0.05, conveying the adequacy of relations between scale items.

Afterwards, pearson correlation analyses was applied in order to reveal the associations between variables. In addition, hierarchical regression analyses and multiple regression analyses were conducted to test moderation and mediation effects (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Lastly, t-tests regarding demographic differences were applied to test whether means of demographics are different from one another.

3.5. FINDINGS OF THE PILOT STUDY

As the translations of the survey was completed, a pilot study was conducted to investigate the inter-judge reliability of the research scales via calculating Cronbach's α value. In the pilot study, the data was collected from 104 participants, who work in various sectors, including energy, banking, financial services, fast-moving consumer goods, consulting, high technology, education, production, automotive and health between March 2019 and May 2019. No item was omitted after investigating the results of the study, as it can be seen in Table 2.

The Cronbach's α value, KMO and Bartlett's sphericity scores revealed that all scales possess high levels of internal consistency. As to the Cronbach's α values, Destructive Leadership Scale had 0.971, Self-Construal Scale had 0.731, Psychological Need Thwarting Scale had 0.931, Psychological Contract Breach had 0.943, Work Design Questionnaire (Task Significance sub-scale only) had 0.865, Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale had 0.982, and Organizational Cynicism Scale had 0.954, all of which meet minimum requirements.

Table 2.

Pilot Study Reliability Scores and Factor Findings

Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale	Cronbach's α=0.982
Organizational Cynicism Scale	Cronbach's α=0.954
Destructive Leadership Scale	Cronbach's α=0.971
Self-Construal Scale	Cronbach's α=0.706
Psychological Need Thwarting Scale	Cronbach's α=0.931
Psychological Contract Breach	Cronbach's α=0.943
Work Design Questionnaire (Task Significance sub-scale, only)	Cronbach's α=0.865

Furthermore, correlation analyses were conducted to investigate the relationships between independent, dependent, moderating and mediating variables of the study. The correlation matrices can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3.

Pilot Study Correlation Scores

Variable	**Mean**	**St.Dev.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
1. Personal Psychological Disharmony	2.27	1.05	1	**0.53****	**0.43****	-0.04	0.07	**0.7****	**0.46****	**-0.47****
2. Organizational Cynicism	2.91	1.22	**0.53****	1	**0.70****	0.13	0.1	**0.57****	**0.73****	**-0.33****
3. Destructive Leadership	2.63	1.1	**0.43****	**0.70****	1	0.06	-0.05	**0.53****	**0.74****	**-0.23***
4. Independent Self-Construal	4.12	0.58	-0.04	0.13	0.06	1	-0.02	-0.03	0.03	0.18
5. Interdependent Self-Construal	3.87	0.55	0.07	0.1	-0.05	-0.02	1	0.12	-0.03	0.04
6. Psychological Need Thwarting	2.75	1.09	**0.7****	**0.57****	**0.53****	-0.03	0.12	1	**0.55****	**-0.37****
7. Psychological Contract Breach	2.71	1.23	**0.46****	**0.73****	**0.74****	0.03	-0.03	**0.55****	1	**-0.32****
8. Task Significance	4.46	1.15	**-0.47****	**-0.33****	**-0.23***	0.18	0.04	**-0.37****	**-0.32****	1

n= 104, ** p< .01; * p< .05, (2-tailed)

As it can be seen in Table 3, low to strong correlations was found between the variables of the study. The results of correlation analyses provided significant insights into the results of hypotheses. First, destructive leadership was argued to be associated with both personal psychological disharmony and organizational cynicism, as it can be seen in H_1 and H_2. The correlation analyses showed that destructive leadership was negatively correlated with personal psychological disharmony ($r=0.43$, $p<0.000$) and destructive leadership was positively correlated with organizational cynicism ($r=0,53$, $p<0.000$). Second, self-construal was argued to be associated with organizational cynicism, as it is shown in H_{3a}. More specifically, independent self-construal was argued to be positively correlated with organizational cynicism, while interdependent self-construal was argued to be negatively correlated with organizational cynicism. However, results have shown that neither independent self-construal nor interdependent self-construal was correlated with organizational cynicism ($p>0.05$). Third, as it can be seen in H_4, psychological need thwarting was argued to mediate the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. Even though, mediation analysis was not conducted to observe the relationship in the pilot study, psychological need thwarting was found to be associated with both destructive leadership ($r=0.53$, $p<0.000$) and personal psychological disharmony ($r=0.7$, $p<0.000$). Fourth, psychological contract breach was argued to have a mediating role between the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism, as it can be seen in H_5, and correlation analyses showed that psychological contract breach is correlated with both destructive leadership ($r=0.74$, $p<0.000$) and organizational cynicism ($r=0.73$, $p<0.000$). Finally, as it is shown in H_6, task significance was argued to play a mediating role on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. Although, moderation analysis was not conducted to test the relationship in the pilot study, task significance was found to be correlated with both destructive leadership ($r=-0.23$, $p<0.05$) and personal psychological disharmony ($r=-0.47$, $p<0.001$).

Apart from the correlation analyses, Cronbach's α levels were observed for all seven scales of the study. Results have shown that Cronbach's α levels met the criteria. In other words, results of the pilot study showed that scales of the study were reliable to be used in the study.

From this viewpoint, correlation analyses and regression analyses of the pilot study showed that results were congruent with the hypotheses of the study, except for H_{3a} and H_{3b}. In

addition, Cronbach's α levels showed that the scales were reliable to be utilized in the main study. For this reason, additional data were collected and the study was continued.

4. MAIN STUDY FINDINGS

4.1. RELIABILITY AND FACTOR ANALYSES OF THE SCALES

In this section, the factor analyses and the Cronbach alpha values of each scale will be demonstrated.

4.1.1. Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale

According to factor analysis results of Depression, Anxiety, and Stress scale, the items numbered 5 and 40 were removed due to low factor loadings which were less than 0.50. Following the exclusion of these two items, factor analysis was conducted again. Excluded items were mainly about the adaptation to the environment and generalized worry.

As Table 4 shows, the Cronbach alpha value of depression, anxiety, and stress scale was 0.978 which demonstrates high internal reliability of the scale. The results of the factor analysis have shown that the scale had three factors which explained 65,7% of total variance. The factors labeled as depression, stress, and anxiety. KMO coefficient was 0.954 which was on a significant level and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤ 0.05.

Table 4.

Factor Analysis Results of Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale

Factor Name	Items	Item Loading	Cronbach's α	Variance Explained (%)
Depression	17. I feel I am not worth much as a person.	**0.775**	**0.967**	**24.731**
	16. I feel that I have lost interest in just about everything.	**0.773**		
	34. I feel I am pretty worthless.	**0.769**		
	31. I am unable to become enthusiastic about anything.	**0.735**		

	24. I can't seem to get any enjoyment out of the things I did.	**0.718**		
	15. I have a feeling of faintness.	**0.700**		
	10. I feel that I have nothing to look forward to.	**0.694**		
	13. I feel sad and depressed.	**0.681**		
	26. I feel upset.	**0.676**		
	11. I feel downhearted and blue.	**0.639**		
	21. I feel that life is meaningless.	**0.612**		
	3. I can't seem to experience any positive feeling at all.	**0.591**		
	8. I find it difficult to relax.	**0.588**		
	33. I am in a state of nervous tension.	**0.585**		
	42. I find it difficult to work up the initiative to do things.	**0.542**		
	22. I find it difficult to relax.	**0.519**		
Stress	27. I find myself getting upset rather easily.	**0.730**	**0.934**	**20.706**
	6. I tend to over-react to situations.	**0.705**		
	32. I find it difficult to tolerate interruptions to what I am doing.	**0.691**		
	35. I am intolerant of anything that keep me from getting on with what I was doing.	**0.679**		
	14. I find myself getting impatient when I am delayed in any way (e.g. lifts, traffic lights, being kept waiting).	**0.677**		
	12. I find it hard to wind down.	**0.648**		
	1. I find myself getting upset by quite trivial things.	**0.634**		
	28. I feel I am close to panic.	**0.613**		
	9. I find myself in situations which makes me so anxious I am most relieved when they end.	**0.604**		

	29. I find it hard to calm down after something upsets me.	**0.569**		
	30. I fear that I will be “thrown” by some trivial but unfamiliar task.	**0.524**		
	18. I feel that I am rather touchy.	**0.522**		
	2. I am aware of dryness of my mouth.	**0.503**		
Anxiety	41. I experience trembling (e.g. in the hands).	**0.832**	**0.942**	**20.292**
	36. I feel terrified.	**0.779**		
	25. I am aware of the action of my heart in the absence of physical exertion (e.g, sense of heart rate increase, heart missing a beat).	**0.712**		
	23. I have difficulty in swallowing.	**0.696**		
	7. I have a feeling of shakiness (e.g. legs going to give way).	**0.657**		
	20. I feel scared without any good reason.	**0.641**		
	4. I experience breathing difficulty (e.g. excessively rapid breathing, breathlessness in the absence of physical exertion).	**0.639**		
	37. I can see nothing in the future to be hopeful about.	**0.635**		
	39. I find myself getting agitated.	**0.613**		
	38. I feel that life is meaningless.	**0.606**		
	19. I perspire noticeably (e.g. hands sweaty) in the absence of high temperatures or physical exertion.	**0.515**		
			Total Variance	**65.729**
			KMO	**0.954**
			Chi-Square Bartlett’s Test	**10655.146**
			Significance (P)	**0.000**

4.1.2. Organizational Cynicism Scale

As Table 5 demonstrates, the Cronbach alpha value of Destructive Leadership Scale was 0.945 which demonstrates high internal reliability of the scale. The results have shown that the scale had three factors which explained 81.2% of total variance. The factors labeled as cognitive cynicism, affective cynicism and behavioral cynicism.

All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was 0.915 which was significant, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, as well, which had a level of ≤0.05.

Table 5.

Factor Analysis Results of Organizational Cynicism Scale

Factor Name	Items	Item Loading	Cronbach's α	Variance Explained (%)
Cognitive Cynicism	3. If an application was said to be done in my company, I'd be more skeptical whether it would happen or not.	**0.849**	**0.946**	**31.302**
	1. I believe that my company says one thing and does another.	**0.835**		
	5. In my company, I see very little resemblance between that are going to be done and the events which are done.	**0.822**		
	2. My company's policies, goals and practices seem to have little in common.	**0.794**		
	4. My company expects one thing of its employees, but rewards another.	**0.791**		
Affective Cynicism	8. When I think about my company, I experience tension.	**0.865**	**0.955**	**26.625**
	7. When I think about my company, I experience aggravation.	**0.862**		

	6. When I think about my company, I get angry.	**0.820**		
	9. When I think about my company, I feel sense of anxiety.	**0.775**		
Behavioral Cynicism	12. I talk with others about how work is being carried out in the company.	**0.843**	**0.865**	**23.275**
	10. I complain with my friends outside the company about how work is being carried out in the company.	**0.777**		
	13. I criticize the practices and policies of my company to people outside the company.	**0.775**		
	11. We look at each other in a meaningful way with my colleagues when my company and its employees are mentioned.	**0.742**		
			Total Variance	**81.202**
			KMO	**0.915**
			Chi-Square Bartlett's Test	**3340.918**
			Significance (P)	**0.000**

4.1.3. Destructive Leadership Scale

As Table 6 shows, the Cronbach alpha value of Destructive Leadership Scale was 0.969 which demonstrates high internal reliability of the scale. As the results of the factor analysis has demonstrated that the scale had six factors which explained 78.34% of total variance. The factors labeled as inadequate leadership skills, authoritarian leadership, unethical behaviors, inability to deal with technology and other changes, callousness towards subordinates, and nepotism.

All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was 0.939 which was significant, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤0.05.

Table 6.

Factor Analysis Results of Destructive Leadership Scale

Factor Name	Items	Item Loading	Cronbach's α	Variance Explained (%)
Inadequate Leadership Skills	15. My boss is very poor at solving problems and making decisions.	**0.825**	**0.948**	**21.447**
	16. My boss is unable to prioritize very well.	**0.773**		
	12. My boss has poor strategic planning skills.	**0.760**		
	13. My boss pretends there is no problem rather than solving it.	**0.711**		
	14. My boss does not seek out or pay attention to the opinions and wishes of subordinates.	**0.703**		
	11. My boss is poor at developing a vision for our business unit.	**0.695**		
	10. My boss does not systematically develop the skills of his or her subordinates.	**0.629**		
	9. My boss has no idea what it takes to motivate subordinates.	**0.612**		
Authoritarian Leadership	4. My boss wants to dominate/control everything.	**0.818**	**0.929**	**18.958**
	2. My boss is skeptical about most things.	**0.776**		
	1. My boss attempts to exert total control over everyone.	**0.763**		
	3. There is no excuse for my boss when I fail to meet goals.	**0.728**		

	5. When my boss wants something he/she obsesses about it.	**0.656**		
	6. My boss is a tyrant.	**0.627**		
	7. My boss places brutal pressure on subordinates.	**0.572**		
	8. My boss does not trust others to do tasks properly.	**0.516**		
Inability to Deal with Technology and Other Changes	22. My boss avoids having to use new technology.	**0.857**	**0.934**	**10.644**
	21. Sometimes I think my boss is frightened by new technology.	**0.827**		
	23. My boss has a difficult time dealing with change.	**0.743**		
Callousness Towards Subordinates	26. I rarely know what my boss expects of me.	**0.816**	**0.878**	**10.287**
	24. I rarely know what my boss thinks of my work.	**0.802**		
	25. I often have to guess what my boss really expects of me.	**0.696**		
Unethical Behaviors	18. My boss rarely shows a high level of respect for others.	**0.699**	**0.893**	**10.202**
	17. My boss often acts in an unethical manner.	**0.580**		
	20. My boss rarely acts with a high level of integrity.	**0.511**		
	19. My boss sees every negotiation issue as a win/lose conflict.	**0.505**		
Nepotism	27. My boss has personal favorites.	**0.793**	**0.925**	**6.804**
	28. My boss tends to show excessive favoritism.	**0.742**		
			Total Variance	**78.342**
			KMO	**0.939**
			Chi-Square Bartlett's Test	**7107.718**
			Significance (P)	**0.000**

4.1.4. Self-Construal Scale

According to factor analysis results of self-construal scale, the items numbered 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 29, and 30 were removed due to low factor loadings which were less than 0.50. Following the exclusion of these 17 items, factor analysis was conducted again. Excluded items included statements that include calling others by their forenames, avoiding conflict with others in disagreement, respect to authority, humility, being able to say no, prioritizing the opinions of parents, being bold while interacting with others, prioritizing success over relatedness, stating opinions openly, prioritizing one's health, conforming to others' opinions. As Table 7 shows, the Cronbach alpha value of Self-Construal Scale was 0.712 which demonstrates high internal reliability of the scale.

In addition, as the results of the factor analysis has demonstrated that the scale had two factors which explained 41.38% of total variance. The factors labeled as independent self-construal, and interdependent self-construal. KMO coefficient was 0.764 which was significant, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤0.05.

Table 7.

Factor Analysis Results of Self-Construal Scale

Factor Name	Items	Item Loading	Cronbach's α	Variance Explained (%)
Independent Self Construal	25. Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.	**0.719**	**0.735**	**21.757**
	27. My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.	**0.696**		
	5. I do my own thing, regardless of what others think.	**0.616**		
	7. I feel it is important for me to act as an independent person.	**0.611**		

	24. I try to do what is best for me, regardless of how that might affect others.	**0.597**		
	1. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.	**0.578**		
	15. I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards.	**0.511**		
Interdependent Self Construal	28. It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.	**0.677**	**0.701**	**19.618**
	8. I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.	**0.664**		
	14. I feel good when I cooperate with others.	**0.654**		
	23. I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I am not happy with the group.	**0.637**		
	16. If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible.	**0.586**		
	26. It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.	**0.573**		
			Total Variance	**41.375**
			KMO	**0.764**
			Chi-Square Bartlett's Test	**639.057**
			Significance (P)	**0.000**

4.1.5. Psychological Need Thwarting Scale

As it is presented in Table 8, the Cronbach alpha value of Psychological Need Thwarting Scale was 0.918 which demonstrates high internal reliability of the scale. As the results of the factor analysis has demonstrated that the scale had three factors which explained 75.47% of total variance.

The factors labeled as need thwarting for autonomy, need thwarting for competence, and need thwarting for relatedness. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the

items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was 0.884 which was significant, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤0.05.

Table 8.

Factor Analysis Results of Psychological Need Thwarting Scale

Factor Name	Items	Item Loading	Cronbach's α	Variance Explained (%)
Need Thwarting for Autonomy	3. I feel obliged to follow work decisions made for me.	**0.835**	**0.914**	**27.650**
	4. I feel under the pressure to agree with the works designed for me.	**0.798**		
	2. I feel pushed to behave in certain ways.	**0.775**		
	1. I feel prevented from making choices as to how I work.	**0.769**		
Need Thwarting for Competence	6. There are times when I am told things that make me feel incompetent.	**0.858**	**0.898**	**27.191**
	7. There are situations where I am made to feel inadequate.	**0.856**		
	5. There are occasions where I feel incompetent because others impose unrealistic expectations upon me.	**0.721**		
	8. I feel inadequate because I am not given opportunities to fulfill my potential.	**0.627**		
Need Thwarting for Relatedness	11. I feel other employees dislike me.	**0.893**	**0.802**	**20.626**
	9. I feel I am rejected by those around me.	**0.781**		
	10. I feel others can be dismissive of me.	**0.657**		
	12. I feel some of the employees around me are envious when I achieve success.	**0.649**		
			Total Variance	**75.467**
			KMO	**0.884**
			Chi-Square Bartlett's Test	**2288.573**
			Significance (P)	**0.000**

4.1.6. Psychological Contract Breach Scale

As it is presented in Table 9, the Cronbach alpha value of Psychological Contract Breach Scale was 0.941 which demonstrates high internal reliability of the scale. As the results of the factor analysis has demonstrated that the scale had three factors which explained 82.04% of total variance.

The original scale has only one factor. However, psychological contract breach was observed in two factors, as violating contract and failing to fulfill promises. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was 0.898 which was significant, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤0.05.

Table 9.

Factor Analysis Results of Psychological Contract Breach Scale

Factor Name	Items	Item Loading	Cronbach's α	Variance Explained (%)
Violating Contract	7. I feel betrayed by my organization.	**0.914**	**0.908**	**44.480**
	8. I feel that my organization has violated the contract between us.	**0.900**		
	6. I feel a great deal of anger toward my organization.	**0.839**		
	9. I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my organization.	**0.831**		
	5. My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal.	**0.733**		
Failing to Fulfill Promises	3. So far my employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me. I	**0.693**	**0.937**	**37.558**
	1. Almost all of the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept so far. I	**0.882**		

	2. I feel that my employer has come through in fulfilling the promises mad to me when I was hired. I	**0.854**		
	4. I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions.	**0.612**		
			Total Variance	**82.038**
			KMO	**0.898**
			Chi-Square Bartlett's Test	**2344.604**
			Significance (P)	**0.000**

4.1.7. Work Design Questionnaire (Task Significance Subscale only)

As it can be seen in Table 10, the Cronbach α value of the Task Significance sub-scale of Work Design Questionnaire was 0.853 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. The items formed only one factor. KMO coefficient was 0.754 which was significant, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤0.05.

Table 10.

Factor Analysis Results of Task Significance Sub-Scale

Items	Item Loading	Cronbach's α	Variance Explained (%)
3. The job itself is very significant and important to the society.	**0.888**	**0.853**	**69.743**
4. The work performed on the job has a significant impact on people outside the organization.	**0.847**		
2. The job I do has important effects on my environment and my family.	**0.828**		
1. I can contribute value to my organization and other workers doing my job.	**0.773**		
		Total Variance	**69.743**
		KMO	**0.754**
		Chi-Square Bartlett's Test	**505.661**
		Significance (P)	**0.000**

Finally, common-method variance has been checked in order to identify whether common method bias occurs. In this respect, a single-factor factor analysis was applied by including all the items in the scales. The results showed that total of items explain 27.73% of the variance, which is below 50%. Thus, it can be concluded that common-method bias does not exist.

4.2. CORRELATION ANALYSIS FINDINGS

In the present study, the correlation analyses were conducted to figure out the relations between all the variables. The correlation matrix presented in Table 11 shows the standards for defining correlation coefficients as very weak, weak, moderate, strong, and very strong, in line with the relevant literature (Cresswell and Cresswell, 2005).

Table 11.

Pearson Correlation Coefficient Interpretation

Pearson Correlation Coefficient	Correlation
0.00-0.25	very weak correlation
0.26-0.49	weak correlation
0.50-0.69	moderate correlation
0.70-0.89	strong correlation
0.90-1.00	very strong correlation

In this respect, the correlation coefficients of the present study can be summarized as follows;

a weak correlation (r=0.341) between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.627) between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism (p=0.000)
the correlation (r=-0.015) between independent self-construal and organizational cynicism (p=0.815) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.041) between interdependent self-construal and organizational cynicism (p=0.513) is insignificant

The correlation findings of sub-dimensions can be found in Appendix II and correlation results are demonstrated in Appendix III.

In addition, whether there is a multi-collinearity problem with the variables, the correlations between all variables were investigated. Multicollinearity is the correlation between three or more independent variables and it shows whether any of the independent variables can be explained by other variables (Field, 2009). In this respect, the presence of 0.90 or higher correlation is argued to demonstrate multicollinearity. In addition, Variance Inflation Factor Value (VIF) demonstrates whether multi-collinearity between independent variables exists, and values above 3.00 is argued to show multicollinearity.

In the present study, pearson correlation results showed that there was no correlation above 0.70. In addition, VIF values of independent variables were between 1.03 and 2,23. Thus, it can be argued that multi-collinearity problem was not observed between the variables of the study.

Table 12. Correlation Results of the Variables

#	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4a	4b	5	6	7
1	Personal Psychological Disharmony	2.31	1.01	1	**0.542****	**0.341****	-0.104	-0.026	**0.636****	**0.383****	**-0.334****
2	Organizational Cynicism	2.30	1.15		1	**0.627****	0.015	0.041	**0.588****	**0.690****	**-0.298****
3	Destructive Leadership	2.76	1.41			1	0.003	0.010	**0.602****	**0.621****	**0.144****
4a	Independent Self-Construal	4.20	0.73				1	-0.018	0.022	0.023	0.070
4b	Interdependent Self-Construal	4.14	0.72					1	0.120	0.023	0.056
5	Psychological Need Thwarting	2.88	1.06						1	**0.549****	**-0.271****
6	Psychological Contract Breach	2.76	1.23							1	**-0.329****
7	Task Significance	4.50	1.07								1

n= 260, ** p< .01; * p< .05, (2-tailed)

Inter-correlations among all variables are presented in Table 12. Correlation coefficients demonstrate linear relationships between different variables, while means and standard deviations are gathered by averaging items, which provides opportunity to explain the means and corresponding valence. To illustrate, regarding destructive leadership (6-point Likert scale), the higher the means represent more exposure to destructive leadership practices (6=definitely agree), while the lower the means demonstrate lower exposure (1=definitely disagree).

Correlation analysis had shown that destructive leadership had weak correlation with personal psychological disharmony ($r=0.341$, $p=0.000$). For this reason, H_1 was supported. In addition, correlation analysis also demonstrated that destructive leadership had moderate correlation with psychological contract breach ($r=0.627$, $p=0.000$). Thus, H_2 was supported, as well. On the other hand correlation analysis indicated that independent self-construal did not have significant correlation with organizational cynicism ($r=-0.015$, $p>0.05$). Moreover, correlation analysis showed that interdependent self-construal did not have significant correlation with organizational cynicism, as well ($r=0.041$, $p>0.05$). For this reason, H_{3a} and H_{3b} were not supported.

4.3. MEDIATOR ANALYSIS FINDINGS

Regression analysis is a statistical method that estimate the relationship between one independent variable and one or more dependent variables. It helps to identify the direction and the power between independent and dependent variables, as well as the functional form of the relationships (Field, 2009). From this perspective, regression analysis was utilized in order to examine the mediating role of psychological need thwarting on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony (Hypothesis 4), and the mediating role of psychological contract breach on the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism (Hypothesis 5), regression analyses were conducted.

In order to test Hypothesis 4, following assessments were performed in light of Baron and Kenny (1986)'s method. In the first step, a multiple regression analyses were conducted between independent variable and mediating variable. In the second step, a multiple regression analyses were performed between independent variable and dependent variable. In third step, the effect of independent variable and dependent variable by including the mediating variable.

In this respect, the mediating role of psychological need thwarting on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony was examined, as it can be seen in Table 13.

Table 13.

The Mediating Role of Psychological Need Thwarting between Destructive Leadership and Personal Psychological Disharmony

Dependent Variable: Personal Psychological Disharmony					
Variables	**B**	**β**	**R^2**	**Adj. R^2**	**F**
Step 1 Destructive Leadership	**0.558****	**0.602****	**0.363****	**0.360****	146.892
Step 2 Destructive Leadership	**0.303****	**0.341****	**0.117****	**0.113****	34.049
Step 3 Destructive Leadership Psychological Need Thwarting	-0.058 **0.647****	-0.065 **0.675****	**0.407****	**0.402****	88.221

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

Step 1: Dependent Variable: Psychological Need Thwarting; Independent Variable: Destructive Leadership

Step 2: Dependent Variable: Personal Psychological Disharmony; Independent Variable: Destructive Leadership

Step 3: Dependent Variable: Personal Psychological Disharmony; Independent Variable: Destructive Leadership and Psychological Need Thwarting

As the results in Table 13 demonstrates, both first and second steps possess significant results (r =0.602, p<.001; r =0.117, p<0.001) which aligns with Baron and Kenny (1986)'s first two steps. In addition, correlation analyses in Table 10 demonstrated that destructive leadership and psychological need thwarting (r=0.602, p<0.001), as well as destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony (r=0.341, p<0.001) are correlated.

After the addition of mediating variable into the regression analysis, the impact of the independent variable on dependent variable had changed as insignificant, and the mediator variable had significant results (r = 0.675, p< 0.001). Thus, it can be concluded that

psychological need thwarting had a full mediator role on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. In this respect, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Moreover, same method was applied in order to examine the mediating role of psychological contract breach on the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism was examined, as presented in Table 14.

Table 14.

The Mediating Role of Psychological Contract Breach between Destructive Leadership and Organizational Cynicism

Dependent Variable: Organizational Cynicism					
Independent Variables	**B**	**β**	**R^2**	**Adj. R^2**	**F**
Step 1 Destructive Leadership	**0.667****	**0.621****	**0.386****	**0.383****	162.094
Step 2 Destructive Leadership	**0.633****	**0.627****	**0.394****	**0.391****	167.499
Step 3 Destructive Leadership Psychological Contract Breach	**0.327**** **0.459****	**0.324**** **0.489****	**0.540****	**0.537****	151.141

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

Step 1: Dependent Variable: Psychological Contract Breach; Independent Variable: Destructive Leadership

Step 2: Dependent Variable: Organizational Cynicism; Independent Variable: Destructive Leadership

Step 3: Dependent Variable: Organizational Cynicism; Independent Variable: Destructive Leadership and Psychological Contract Breach

As the results in Table 14 demonstrates, both first and second steps possess significant results (r =0.621, p<.001; r =0.627, p<0.001) which aligns with Baron and Kenny (1986)'s first two steps. In addition, correlation analyses in Table 10 demonstrated that destructive leadership and psychological contract breach (r=0.621, p<0.001), as well as destructive leadership and organizational cynicism (r=0.627, p<0.001) are correlated.

After the addition of mediating variable into the regression analysis, the impact of the independent variable on dependent variable remained as insignificant, and the mediator variable had significant results ($r = 0.324$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, it can be concluded that psychological contract breach had a partial mediator role on the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism. In this respect, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

4.4. MODERATOR ANALYSIS FINDINGS

As presented in the hypotheses section of the study, task significance was argued to play a moderator role between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony in Hypothesis 6. Moderator variables play critical role on the relationship between independent and dependent variable, by either strengthening or weakening the relationship (Field, 2009). In addition, the moderator variable with an interaction effect on dependent variable may change the direction between the variables. For this reason, hierarchical multiple regression was applied and interaction effect was analyzed in order to test the moderating role of task significance experienced by employees.

4.4.1. Moderator Analysis of Task Significance Between Destructive Leadership and Personal Psychological Disharmony

The results of the analysis of the moderating role of task significance between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony are demonstrated in Table 15. In the first step, destructive leadership was inserted into the analysis in order to analyze the main effect. Then, destructive leadership and task significance were inserted together into the analysis to test the exploratory power of the model, in the second step. Third, the interaction effect between the variables analyzed.

Table 15.

The Moderator Role of Task Significance Between Destructive Leadership and Personal Psychological Disharmony

Dependent Variable: Personal Psychological Disharmony

Independent Variables	B	Significance	Adj. R^2	F
Step 1 Destructive Leadership	**0.341****	0.000	0.113	34.049
Step 2 Destructive Leadership Task Significance	**0.300**** **-0.290****	0.000 0.000	0.193	26.494
Step 3 Destructive Leadership x Task Significance	-0.045	0.329	0.193	0.957

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<0.001

As it can be seen in Table 15, the interaction effect was not significant (p=0.329). In addition, adjusted R^2 for interaction did not change (R^2=0.193). For this reason, it can be concluded that task significance did not have a moderating role between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. Thus, H_6 was not supported.

4.5. ANALYSIS OF THE COMPARATIVE TESTS

T-tests are statistical methods that are utilized in order to observe the differences between different groups (Field, 2009). Thus, the t-tests were applied in order to compare differences regarding gender, age, education, total work experience, and total company experience.

4.5.1. Independent Sample t-Tests for Gender

In order to identify gender differences on study's variables, the males and females' scores of destructive leadership, independent self-construal, interdependent self-construal, psychological need thwarting, psychological contract breach, task significance, personal psychological disharmony, and organizational cynicism. Results had shown that only destructive leadership scores among all the variables of the study in terms of gender. As presented in Table 16 and Table 17, there was significant difference of destructive leadership mean scores between males and females (p=0.034) with a female mean score of 2.95 and a male score of 2.60. In addition, gender differences observed in inadequate leadership skills (p=0.009) and nepotism (p=0045) sub-dimensions, with female mean score of 3.02 in inadequate leadership skills scores and 3.78 in nepotism, and male mean score of 2.57 in inadequate leadership skills and 3.33 in nepotism, which can be seen in Table 16 and Table 17.

Table 16.

Gender and Destructive Leadership Summary

	Gender	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
Destructive Leadership	Female	119	2.95	1.18	0.108
	Male	141	2.60	1.08	0.091
Inadequate	Female	119	3.02	1.44	0.132
Leadership Skills	Male	141	2.57	1.26	0.106
Nepotism	Female	119	3.78	1.70	0.156
	Male	141	3.33	1.55	0.131

Table 17.

Independent Sample t-Test of Gender and Destructive Leadership

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	**Sig.**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Dif.**
Destructive Leadership	**Equal variances not assumed**	4.527	.034	2.446	242.482	0.015	0.347	0.142
Inadequate Leadership Skills	Equal variances not assumed	6.876	.009	2.654	237.134	0.008	0.449	0.169
Nepotism	Equal variances not assumed	4.056	0.045	2.201	241.855	0.029	0.448	0.203

4.5.2. Independent Sample t-Tests for Education

In order to identify the differences regarding the variables of the study by education level, t-tests had been run. The education level was categorized into two group as (a) bachelor degree, and (b) graduate degree. However, no significant differences had been found with education level and study's variables.

4.5.3. One-Way ANOVA Tests for Age

The other variable tested as demographic variable was age. In order to identify age differences on study's variables, three age categories had been identified as (a) 20-30, (b) 31-35, and (c) over 35. As a number of participants in any group should be more than 30, 20-25 and 26-30 age groups were gathered into single group, and 35-45 and 45+ age group were gathered into single group (Durmuş et.al., 2013). Then, different age groups' scores of destructive leadership, independent self-construal, interdependent self-construal, psychological need thwarting, psychological contract breach, task significance, personal psychological

disharmony, and organizational cynicism had been analyzed via ANOVA. Results had shown that only destructive leadership scores among all the variables of the study in terms of age. As presented in Table 18, Table 19 and Table 20, there was significant difference of destructive leadership mean scores between different age groups (p=0.004) with scores of participants aged between 20 and 30 (M=2.55) were lower than scores of participants aged between 31 and 35 (M=2.99), and scores of participants aged above 35 (M=3.05). In addition, age differences had been observed in inadequate leadership skills (p=0.002), authoritarian leadership (p=0.005), and unethical behaviors (p=0.016) sub-dimensions, which can be seen in Table 18, Table 19 and Table 20.

Table 18.

Age and Destructive Leadership Summary

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Destructive Leadership	20-30	141	2.55	1.04	0.09
	31-35	72	2.99	1.23	0.14
	35+	47	3.05	1.19	0.17
Inadequate Leadership Skills	20-30	141	2.50	1.26	0.11
	31-35	72	3.11	1.46	0.17
	35+	47	3.08	1.34	0.20
Authoritarian Leadership	20-30	141	2.70	1.15	0.10
	31-35	72	3.12	1.37	0.16
	35+	47	3.32	1.38	0.20
Unethical Behaviors	20-30	141	2.20	1.24	0.10
	31-35	72	2.76	1.41	0.17
	35+	47	2.70	1.43	0.21

Table 19.

ANOVA Test of Age and Destructive Leadership

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Destructive Leadership	Between Groups	14.276	2	7.318	5.677	.004
	Within Groups	323.136	257	1.257		
	Total	337.411	259			
Inadequate Leadership Skills	Between Groups	22.662	2	11.331	6.382	.002
	Within Groups	456.278	257	1.775		
	Total	478.941	259			
Authoritarian Leadership	Between Groups	17.051	2	8.526	5.426	.005
	Within Groups	403.844	257	1.571		
	Total	420.895	259			
Unethical Behaviors	Between Groups	13.603	2	7.292	4.181	.016
	Within Groups	677.585	257	1.744		
	Total	691.188	259			

Table 20.

Post Hoc Tests of Age and Destructive Leadership

	Age (I)	Age (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Destructive Leadership	**20-30**	31-35	-0.443	0.162	0.026	-0.843	-0.043
		35+	-0.508	0.189	0.028	-0.972	-0.043
	31-35	20-30	-0.443	0.162	0.026	0.043	0.843
		35+	-0.065	0.210	0.954	-0.582	0.453
	35+	20-30	-0.508	0.189	0.028	0.043	0.973
		31-35	-0.065	0.210	0.954	-0.452	0.583
Inadequate Leadership Skills	**20-30**	31-35	-0.605	0.193	0.008	-1.080	-0.130
		35+	-0.573	0.224	0.040	-1.125	-0.020
	31-35	20-30	0.605	0.193	0.008	0.130	1.080
		35+	0.032	0.250	0.992	0.583	0.647
	35+	20-30	0.573	0.224	0.040	0.020	1.125
		31-35	-0.032	0.250	0.992	-0.648	0.583

	20-30	31-35	-0.416	0.182	0.074	-0.863	0.031
		35+	-0.619	0.211	0.015	-1.139	-0.099
Authoritarian							
Leadership	**31-35**	20-30	0.416	0.182	0.074	-0.031	0.863
		35+	-0.203	0.235	0.690	-0.781	0.376
	35+	20-30	0.619	0.211	0.015	0.099	1.139
		31-35	0.203	0.235	0.690	-0.376	0.782
	20-30	31-35	-0.459	0.191	0.058	-0.930	0.012
		35+	-0.498	0.222	0.083	-1.046	0.049
Unethical							
Behaviors	**31-35**	20-30	0.459	0.191	0.058	-0.012	0.930
		35+	-0.038	0.248	0.988	-0.649	0.571
	35+	20-30	0.498	0.222	0.083	-0.049	1.046
		31-35	0.039	0.248	0.988	-0.571	0.649

Apart from destructive leadership and sub-dimensions, violating contract sub-dimension of psychological contract breach appeared to differ in terms of age. As presented in Table 21, Table 22 and Table 23, there was significant difference of violating contract mean scores between different age groups (p=0.038) with scores of participants aged between 20 and 30 (M=2.25) were lower than scores of participants aged between 31 and 35 (M=2.60), and scores of participants aged above 35 (M=2.75).

Table 21.

Age and Violating Contract Summary

	Age	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
Violating	20-30	141	2.25	1.30	0.11
Contract	31-35	72	2.60	1.30	0.15
	35+	47	2.75	1.38	0.20

Table 22.

ANOVA Test of Age and Violating Contract

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Violating Contract	Between Groups	11.511	2	5.755	3.323	.038
	Within Groups	445.150	257	1.732		
	Total	456.660	259			

Table 23.

Post Hoc Tests of Age and Violating Contract

	Age (I)	Age (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Violating Contract	**20-30**	31-35	-0.352	0.191	0.184	-0.821	0.118
		35+	-0.501	0.222	0.080	-1.047	0.045
	31-35	20-30	0.352	0.222	0.184	-0.118	0.821
		35+	-0.149	0.247	0.834	-0.757	0.459
	35+	20-30	0.501	0.222	0.080	-0.045	1.047
		31-35	0.149	0.247	0.834	-0.459	0.757

4.5.4. One-Way ANOVA Tests for Total Work Experience

Another variable tested as demographic variable was total work experience. In order to identify total work experience differences on study's variables, three total work experience categories had been identified as (a) 0-5 years, (b) 6-10 years, and (c) above 11 years. As the number of participants in any group should be more than 30, 2 years and below and 3-5 years were gathered into single group, and 11-15 years and 15 years and above were gathered into single group (Durmuş et.al., 2013). Then, different total work experience groups' scores of destructive leadership, independent self-construal, interdependent self-construal, psychological need thwarting, psychological contract breach, task significance, personal psychological disharmony, and organizational cynicism had been analyzed via ANOVA. Results had shown that destructive leadership, as well as its inadequate leadership skills, authoritarian leadership, inability to deal with technology and other changes, unethical behaviors, and nepotism sub-dimensions, scores among the variables of the study in terms of total work experience. As

presented in Table 24, Table 25 and Table 26 there was significant difference of destructive leadership mean scores between different total work experience groups (p=0.002) with scores of participants with total work experience less than 5 years (M=2.45) were lower than scores of participants with total work experience between 6 and 10 (M=2.90), and scores of participants with total work experience above 10 years (M=3.08).

Table 24.

Total Work Experience and Destructive Leadership Summary

	TWE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Destructive Leadership	0-5	96	2.45	1.00	0.10
	6-10	120	2.90	1.16	0.11
	10+	44	3.08	1.25	0.19
Inadequate Leadership Skills	0-5	96	2.42	1.12	0.11
	6-10	120	2.92	1.46	0.13
	10+	44	3.15	1.42	0.21
Authoritarian Leadership	0-5	96	2.58	1.16	0.12
	6-10	120	3.36	1.26	0.12
	10+	44	3.30	1.39	0.21
Inability to Deal With Technology and Other Changes	0-5	96	1.79	0.91	0.09
	6-10	120	2.31	1.37	0.13
	10+	44	2.30	1.43	0.22
Unethical Behaviors	0-5	96	2.14	1.24	0.13
	6-10	120	2.56	1.36	0.12
	10+	44	2.26	1.42	0.21
Nepotism	0-5	96	3.23	1.69	2.89
	6-10	120	3.68	1.54	3.41
	10+	44	3.80	1.69	3.28

Table 25.

ANOVA Test of Total Work Experience and Destructive Leadership

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Destructive Leadership	Between Groups	16.120	2	8.060	6.447	.002
	Within Groups	321.292	257	1.250		
	Total	337.411	259			
Inadequate Leadership Skills	Between Groups	21.037	2	10.519	5.904	.003
	Within Groups	457.903	257	1.782		
	Total	478.941	259			
Authoritarian Leadership	Between Groups	19.683	2	9.841	6.304	.002
	Within Groups	401.212	257	1.561		
	Total	420.895	259			

Inability to Deal With Technology and Other Changes	Between Groups	15.988	2	7.994	5.271	.006
	Within Groups	389.760	257	1.517		
	Total	405.748	259			
Unethical Behaviors	Between Groups	12.096	2	6.048	3.449	.033
	Within Groups	450.662	257	1.754		
	Total	462.759	259			
Nepotism	Between Groups	14.604	2	7.302	2.774	.064
	Within Groups	676.584	257	2.633		
	Total	691.188	259			

Table 26.

Post Hoc Tests of Total Work Experience and Destructive Leadership

	TWE (I)	TWE (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Destructive Leadership	**0-5**	6-10	-0.450	0.153	0.014	-0.827	-0.073
		10+	-0.631	0.204	0.009	-1.132	-0.130
	6-10	0-5	-0.450	0.153	0.014	0.073	0.827
		10+	-0.181	0.197	0.657	-0.666	0.304
	10+	0-5	-0.631	0.204	0.009	0.130	1.132
		6-10	-0.181	0.197	0.657	-0.304	0.666
Inadequate Leadership Skills	**0-5**	6-10	-0.502	0.183	0.024	-0.953	-0.053
		10+	-0.734	0.243	0.011	-1.332	-0.138
	6-10	0-5	-0.502	0.183	0.024	0.053	0.953
		10+	-.0232	0.235	0.617	-0.811	0.348
	10+	0-5	0.734	0.243	0.011	0.138	1.332
		6-10	0.232	0.235	0.617	-0.348	0.811
Authoritarian Leadership	**0-5**	6-10	-0.480	0.171	0.021	-0.901	-0.059
		10+	-0.717	0.227	0.008	-1.277	-0.157
	6-10	0-5	-0.480	0.171	0.021	0.059	0.901
		10+	-0.717	0.220	0.562	-0.779	0.306
	10+	0-5	0.717	0.227	0.008	0.157	1.277
		6-10	0.237	0.222	0.562	0.306	0.779
Inability to Deal With Technology and	**0-5**	6-10	-0.516	0.169	0.010	-0.931	-0.101
		10+	-0.508	0.224	0.079	-1.060	-0.044
	6-10	0-5	0.516	0.169	0.010	0.101	0.931
		10+	0.008	0.217	0.079	0.526	0.542

Other Changes							
	10+	0-5	0.508	0.224	0.079	-0.044	1.060
		6-10	-0.008	0.217	0.999	-0542	0.526
	0-5	6-10	-0.413	0.181	0.077	-0.860	0.033
		10+	-0.516	0.241	0.103	-1.110	0.077
Unethical							
Behaviors	**6-10**	0-5	0.413	0.181	0.077	-0.033	0.860
		10+	-0.103	0.233	0.098	-0.677	0.472
	10+	0-5	0.516	0.241	0.103	-0.077	1.109
		6-10	0.103	0.233	0.908	-0.471	0.677
	0-5	6-10	-0.454	0.222	0.126	-1.001	0.093
		10+	-0.566	0.295	0.161	-1.293	0.161
Nepotism	**6-10**	0-5	0.454	0.222	0.126	-0.093	1.001
		10+	-0.112	0.286	0.926	-0.817	0.592
	10+	0-5	0.566	0.295	0.161	-0.161	1.294
		6-10	0.112	0.286	0.926	-0.592	0.816

4.5.5. One-Way ANOVA Tests for Total Company Experience

Another variable tested as demographic variable was total company experience. In order to identify total company experience differences on study's variables, three total work experience categories had been identified as (a) 0-1 years, (b) 2-3 years, and (c) above 3 years. As the number of participants in any group should be more than 30, 4-5 years, 6-10 years and above 10 years were gathered into single group (Durmuş et.al., 2013). Then, different total company experience groups' scores of destructive leadership, independent self-construal, interdependent self-construal, psychological need thwarting, psychological contract breach, task significance, personal psychological disharmony, and organizational cynicism had been analyzed via ANOVA. Results had shown that destructive leadership, as well as nepotism sub-scale, scores differ in terms of total company experience. As presented in Table 27, Table 28 and Table 29 there was significant difference of destructive leadership mean scores between different total company experience groups (p=0.033) with scores of participants with total company experience less than 1 year (M=2.44) were lower than scores of participants with total company experience between 2 and 3 years (M=2.87), and scores of participants with total company experience above 3 years (M=2.86).

Table 27.

Total Company Experience and Destructive Leadership Summary

	TCE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Destructive Leadership	0-1	66	2.44	1.08	0.13
	2-3	111	2.87	1.13	0.11
	3+	83	2.86	1.17	0.13
Nepotism	0-1	66	3.04	1.59	0.20
	2-3	111	3.83	1.59	0.15
	3+	83	3.54	1.65	0.18

Table 28.

ANOVA Test of Total Company Experience and Destructive Leadership

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Destructive Leadership	Between Groups	8.868	2	4.434	3.468	.033
	Within Groups	328.544	257	1.278		
	Total	337.411	259			
Nepotism	Between Groups	25.894	2	12.974	5.001	.007
	Within Groups	665.295	257	2.589		
	Total	691.188	259			

Table 29.

Post Hoc Tests of Total Company Experience and Destructive Leadership

	TCE (I)	TCE (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Destructive Leadership	**0-1**	2-3	-0.430	0.176	0.052	-0.863	0.002
		3+	-0.416	0.186	0.085	-0.875	0.043
	2-3	0-1	-0.430	0.176	0.052	-0.002	0.862
		3+	0.014	0.164	0.996	-0.390	0.419
	3+	0-1	-0.416	0.186	0.085	-0.043	0.875
		2-3	0.014	0.164	0.996	-0.418	0.390
	0-1	2-3	-0.791	0.250	0.007	-1.407	-0.175
		3+	-0.498	0.265	0.174	-1.152	0.155

Nepotism	**2-3**	0-1	0.791	0.250	0.007	0.175	1.407
		3+	0.293	0.233	0.457	-0.282	0.868
	3+	0-1	0.498	0.265	0.174	-0.155	1.152
		2-3	-0.293	0.233	0.457	-0.868	0.282

Apart from that, results had also shown that organizational cynicism scores differ in terms of total company experience. As presented in Table 30, Table 31 and Table 32 there was significant difference of organizational cynicism mean scores between different total company experience groups (p=0.019) with scores of participants with total company experience less than 1 year (M=2.48) were lower than scores of participants with total company experience between 2 and 3 years (M=2.97), and scores of participants with total company experience above 3 years (M=2.89). Results had also shown that cognitive cynicism and affective cynicism scores differ in terms of total company experience, as it is presented in Table 30, Table 31 and Table 32.

Table 30.

Total Company Experience and Organizational Cynicism Summary

	TCE	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
Organizational Cynicism	0-1	66	2.48	1.05	0.13
	2-3	111	2.97	1.12	0.11
	3+	83	2.89	1.23	0.14
Cognitive Cynicism	0-1	66	2.76	1.26	0.15
	2-3	111	3.39	1.37	0.13
	3+	83	3.20	1.42	0.16
Affective Cynicism	0-1	66	1.95	1.20	0.15
	2-3	111	2.41	1.31	0.12
	3+	83	2.51	1.41	0.16

Table 31.

ANOVA Test of Total Company Experience and Organizational Cynicism

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Organizational Cynicism	Between Groups	10.432	2	5.216	4.022	.019
	Within Groups	333.332	257	1.297		
	Total	337.411	259			
Cognitive Cynicism	Between Groups	16.635	2	8.317	4.494	.012
	Within Groups	475.651	257	1.851		
	Total	492.286	259			
Affective Cynicism	Between Groups	12.679	2	6.340	3.608	.028
	Within Groups	451.608	257	1.757		
	Total	464.287	259			

Table 32.

Post Hoc Tests of Total Company Experience and Organizational Cynicism

	TCE (I)	TCE (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Organizational Cynicism	**0-1**	2-3	-0.487	0.177	0.024	-0.923	-0.052
		3+	-0.409	0.188	0.096	-0.871	0.054
	2-3	0-1	-0.487	0.177	0.024	0.052	0.923
		3+	0.079	0.165	0.892	-0.328	0.486
	3+	0-1	-0.409	0.188	0.096	-0.054	0.871
		2-3	0.079	0.165	0.892	-0.486	0.328
Cognitive Cynicism	**0-1**	2-3	-0.632	0.211	0.012	-1.153	-0.112
		3+	-0.437	0.224	0.152	-0.989	0.115
	2-3	0-1	0.632	0.211	0.012	0.112	1.153
		3+	0.195	0.197	0.614	-0.291	0.681
	3+	0-1	0.437	0.224	0.152	-0.115	0.989
		2-3	-0.195	0.197	0.614	-0.681	0.291
Affective Cynicism	**0-1**	2-3	-0.451	0.206	0.093	-0.958	0.056
		3+	-0.558	0.219	0.040	-1.096	-0.019
	2-3	0-1	0.451	0.206	0.093	-0.056	0.958
		3+	-0.107	0.192	0.858	-0.580	0.367
	3+	0-1	0.558	0.219	0.040	0.019	1.010
		2-3	0.107	0.192	0.858	-0.367	0.580

Last, but not least, violating contract sub-dimension of psychological contract breach appeared to differ in terms of total company experience. As presented in Table 33, Table 34 and Table 35, there was significant difference of violating contract mean scores between different total company experience groups (p=0.042) with scores of participants with company experience of less than 1 year (M=2.09) were lower than scores of participants with company experience between 1 year and 3 years (M=2.60), and scores of participants with more than 3 years company experience (M=2.49).

Table 33.

Total Company Experience and Violating Contract Summary

	TCE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Violating Contract	0-1	66	2.09	1.19	0.15
	2-3	111	2.60	1.33	0.13
	3+	83	2.49	1.39	0.15

Table 34.

ANOVA Test of Total Company Experience and Violating Contract

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Scores	F	Significant
Violating Contract	Between Groups	11.102	2	5.551	3.202	0.042
	Within Groups	445.559	257	1.734		
	Total	456.660	259			

Table 35.

Post Hoc Tests of Total Company Experience and Violating Contract

	TCE (I)	TCE (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Stand. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Violating Contract	**0-1**	2-3	-0.509	0.205	0.047	-1.013	-0.005
		3+	-0.400	0.217	0.184	-0.935	0.134
	2-3	0-1	-0.509	0.205	0.047	0.005	1.013
		3+	0.108	0.191	0.851	-0.362	0.579
	3+	0-1	0.400	0.217	0.184	-0.134	0.935
		2-3	0.108	0.192	0.851	-0.579	0.362

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

5.1. SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESIS TESTS' FINDINGS

The main study was finalized, the descriptive studies were conducted and hypotheses had been tested in previous chapters. Results have shown that majority of the hypotheses were supported, as it can be seen in Table 36. In addition, Figure 3 illustrates the results of the hypotheses testing with Beta values and correlation coefficients in graphics.

Table 36.

Summary of the Hypotheses of the Study

	Hypotheses of the Study	Findings
H_1	There is a positive relationship between perceived destructive leadership and employees' personal psychological disharmony. ($r = 0.341$)	Supported
H_2	There is a positive relationship between perceived destructive leadership and organizational cynicism. ($r = 0.627$)	Supported
H_{3a}	There is a positive relationship between independent self-construal and organizational cynicism.	Not Supported
H_{3b}	There is a negative relationship between interdependent self-construal and organizational cynicism.	Not Supported
H_4	Psychological need thwarting mediates the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological disharmony. ($\beta = 0.675$)	Supported
H_5	Psychological contract breach mediates the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism. ($\beta = 0.489$)	Supported
H_6	Task significance moderates the relationship between perceived destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony.	Not Supported

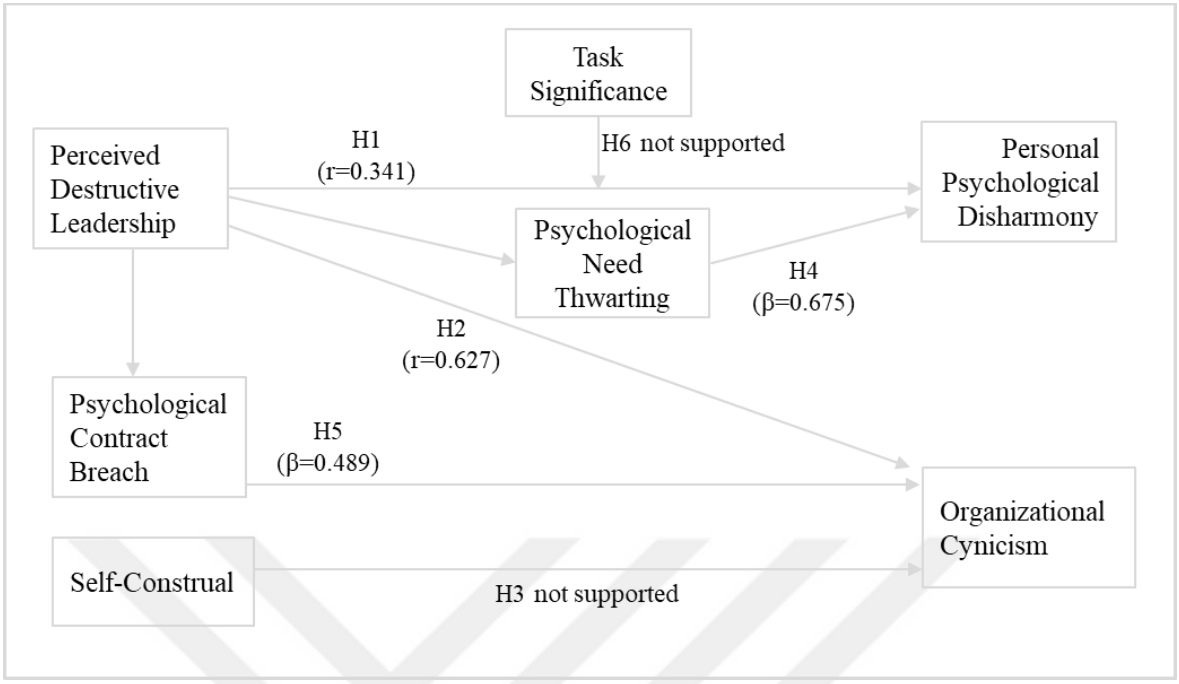

Figure 3. Results of the Hypotheses Tests

5.2. CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

The present study focused on the consequences of destructive leadership and self-construal on personal psychological disharmony and organizational cynicism. In addition, the mediating roles of psychological need thwarting and psychological contract breach, as well as the moderating role of task significance were investigated. Doubtlessly, impact of organizational variables on individuals are complex and several organizational dynamics need to be taken into account in order to have a comprehensive and integrative perspective. From this point of view, sample of the study was limited to employees actively working in companies from private and public sectors.

In the first chapter of the study, the importance of the research questions were discussed and hypotheses were given. In the second chapter, the constructs of personal psychological disharmony, organizational cynicism, destructive leadership, self-construal, psychological need thwarting, psychological contract breach, and task significance were investigated on a theoretical background. In this respect, definitions, theoretical approaches, constructs, antecedents, and consequences of each concept were examined. In the next chapter,

methodology of the research was investigated, which includes detailed discussions on factor and reliability analyses, correlation analyses, mediator and moderator analyses, t-tests and ANOVA tests. The present chapter includes the evaluations of the findings, as well as the limitations and recommendations for the researchers.

In the present study, personal psychological disharmony was measured with Lovibond and Lovibond's (1995) Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS). The original scale consisted of 42 questions, in 3 factors. In this scale, 15 items measured anxiety, 15 items measured depression, and 12 items measured stress. The Turkish adaptation of the study was conducted by Akın and Çetin (2007), and the Cronbach alpha value was found to be 0.92. On the other hand, two items were removed due to low factor loadings, while the number of dimensions remained the same. This result can be interpreted as a consequence of cultural difference.

In order to measure organizational cynicism was evaluated via Brandes and colleagues' (1995) Organizational Cynicism Scale. The original scale included 13 items which were gathered into 3 factors. In this scale, 4 items were related to affective cynicism, 4 items were associated with cognitive cynicism, and 5 items were linked to behavioral cynicism. The Turkish adaptation of the scale was conducted by Karacaoğlu and İnce (2012), in which Cronbach alpha value was found to be 0.91. In the present study, number of items and factors remained the same.

Destructive leadership was measured by using Shaw and colleagues' (2011) Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ). The original scale included 6 factors, namely authoritarian leadership, inadequate leadership skills, unethical behaviors, inability to deal with technology and other changes, callousness towards subordinates, and nepotism through 28 items. The Turkish adaptation was done by Uymaz (2013), in which Cronbach alpha value was 0.96. After the evaluations of reliability analysis, the same number of items and factors were used in the present study.

Furthermore, in order to measure self-construal, Singelis' (1994) Self-Construal Scale (SCS) was utilized. The original scale included 30 items under two dimensions, namely independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal. Turkish adaptation study was conducted by Wasti and Erdil (2007), in which Cronbach alpha value was founded as 0.90. On

the other hand, 17 items were excluded in the present study, due to low factor loadings. For this reason, independent self-construal included 7 items, while interdependent self-construal consisted of 6 items. The difference between original study can be interpreted as a consequence of national culture.

Moreover, psychological need thwarting was measured with Bartholomew and colleagues' (2011) Psychological Need Thwarting Scale (PNTS). The original scale has 12 items, which were gathered into three dimensions: need thwarting for autonomy, need thwarting for competence, and need thwarting for relatedness. The Cronbach's alpha value of the scale was 0.90. To our knowledge, Turkish adaptation study was not conducted before. The reliability analysis of the present study showed that Turkish version has the same number of items and factors, possessing 0.92 Cronbach alpha value.

Furthermore, psychological contract breach was evaluated with Robinson and Rousseau's (1994) Psychological Contract Breach Scale (PCBS). The original scale has 9 items which are gathered into one factor. Turkish adaptation of the scale was conducted by Çetinkaya and Özkara (2015), in which Cronbach alpha value was found to be 0.78. In the present study, reliability analysis showed that 9 items can be gathered into two dimensions. There are 5 items in first dimension and Cronbach alpha value is 0.91, and 4 items are present in the second dimension, in which Cronbach alpha value is 0.94. Since items, such as "I feel betrayed by my organization", and "I feel that my organization has violated the contract between us", are under the first dimension, we named this dimension as violating contract. Likewise, as items, such as "So far my employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me", and "I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions" are under the second dimension, we called the second dimension as failing to fulfill promises.

Finally, task significance was measured by Morgeson and Humphrey's (2006) Work Design Questionnaire's Task Significance subscale, which had 4 items. The Turkish adaptation of the scale was conducted by Rodopman (1999) which had 0.87 Cronbach alpha value. The reliability analysis of the present study showed that 4 items are gathered into one dimension.

Regarding the results of the study, first finding linked to hypotheses was that destructive leadership was correlated with personal psychological disharmony. The mean score of personal psychological disharmony was 2.31, which indicated relatively lower levels of depression,

anxiety, and stress experienced by employees. In addition, personal psychological disharmony had been shown to be positively correlated with destructive leadership (r=0.341, p=0.000). The result demonstrated that perceptions of destructive leadership practices are associated with higher levels of depression, anxiety, and stress of employees. Therefore, the finding supported first hypothesis (H_1). This result was in line with the findings Tepper and colleagues' (2004) study, in which they found that abusive supervision was associated with higher stress in employees. Similarly, Pyc and colleagues (2017) examined the relationship between abusive supervision and depression, and found significant association between two constructs. Moreover, the finding was in line with Spector and Goh (2001)'s study, where authoritarian leadership was associated with anxiety in employees. As a consequent, our finding was found to be consistent with other studies investigating these constructs, though different scales have been used.

As to the second hypothesis of the study, destructive leadership was found to be correlated with organizational cynicism, the mean score of organizational cynicism was 2.82, which demonstrated relatively lower levels of organizational cynicism. Moreover, organizational cynicism has been shown to be associated with destructive leadership (r=0.524, p=0.000). This finding indicated that perceptions of destructive leadership in employees is linked to higher levels of cognitive, affective, and behavioral cynicism. Thus, this result supported the second hypothesis (H_2). This result is in line with Sungur and colleagues' (2019) study, in which significant associations was found paternalistic leadership and organizational cynicism. The result was also parallel to Jiang and colleagues' (2017) finding indicating that authoritarian leadership and organizational cynicism is linked. Moreover, this finding was consistent with the findings of Wu, Neubert, and Yi's (2007) and Bommer, Rich, and Rubin's (2005) study, in which researchers examined the relationship between organizational cynicism and transformational leadership, and found that two constructs are inversely correlated. In addition, this result was in line with Cole and colleagues' (2006) study, where negative association was found between perceived supervisor support and organizational cynicism.

Results, on the other hand, revealed that there is not significant correlation between self-construal and organizational cynicism. In fact, neither independent self-construal nor interdependent self-construal indicated significant associations with organizational cynicism. Thus, third hypotheses of the study was not supported (H_{3a} and H_{3b}). As it was aforementioned

in previous chapters, more than half of the items of Self-Construal Scale were removed as a result of low factor loadings. Thus, only some aspects of independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal were taken into account, which might have overshadowed the association between cynical attitudes towards one's organization and one's self-construal which acts as individual projection of national culture. On the other hand, studies finding significant relationship between self-construal and organizational cynicism is scarce, to our knowledge. Thus, self-concepts representing the projection of national culture might be subtle so that it may not be visible on employee attitudes in an organizational context.

Regarding the fourth hypothesis of the study, psychological need thwarting was found to play a full mediator role on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony ($\beta = 0.675$, $p = .000$; $F= 88.221$). In other words, as the destructive leadership experienced by employees increases, the more they are prone to personal psychological disharmony and this relationship can be explained through the role of psychological need thwarting. Therefore, fourth hypothesis (H_4) of the study was supported. Even though, the studies investigating the role of psychological disharmony on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony is rare, this result is consistent with Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Danserau et.al., 1975) which emphasizes the role of leaders' on employee well-being, as well as Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfoll, 1989) which underlines the tension that arises as a result of perceived inability to meet one's psychological needs and looking for alternative options to meet these needs.

Furthermore, fifth hypothesis (H_5) of the study was also supported, as psychological contract breach was found to play a partial mediator role on the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism ($\beta = 0.489$, $p = .000$; $F= 151.141$). To put it differently, as perceived destructive leadership of employees increase, they are more likely to engage in organizationally cynic attitudes and behaviors and this relationship can be partially explained through the role of psychological contract breach. This finding is consistent with several studies in the relevant literature. For one thing, Jiang and colleagues' (2017) found significant relationship between authoritarian leadership, while servant leadership (Peng, Jien, and Lin, 2016) and perceived supervisor support (Cole, et.al., 2006) are positively associated with organizational cynicism. In addition, this finding is in line with Griep and Vantilborgh (2019),

and Bashir and Nasir (2013)'s studies in which they found that psychological contract breach is correlated with organizational cynicism.

Finally, sixth hypothesis (H_6) was not confirmed. As it can be seen in Table 15, task significance did not play a moderator role on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. In other words, task significance is not an influential factor on the relationship between perceptions of destructive leadership and depression, anxiety, and stress. As it was previously mentioned in the previous chapters, the dyadic relationship between leader and subordinate has an immense effect on several organizational and individual-level variables. Favorable social interactions with leader may encourage thriving for the subordinate, while unfavorable experiences may both demotivate the subordinate and may render her vulnerable towards personal psychological disharmony. In this respect, task significance, which is mainly a job-related factor, may not have the potential to alleviate psychological harm that may arise as a result of destructive leadership practices. Likewise, a positive interaction with the leader may be associated with lower levels of depression, anxiety, and stress, regardless of how meaningful one finds her work.

Moreover, t-tests and ANOVA were conducted with regards to gender, education, age, total work experience, and total company experience differences among participants. Regarding gender, significant difference was found only for destructive leadership scores ($p<0.05$). In addition, significant differences were found for inadequate leadership skills ($p<0.01$), and nepotism ($p<0.05$). Analyses have shown that female participants had higher overall destructive leadership perceptions about their leaders, and they perceived their leaders as having lower leadership skills and commit nepotism more frequently than males.

Furthermore, education was another demographic variable in the study and ANOVA was conducted in order to examine whether participants differ from each other on the constructs that were measured in terms of education level. However, there were no significant differences in any construct ($p>0.05$).

Apart from that, ANOVA tests were conducted in order to identify the differences in terms of age. The age of participants were divided into three categories as (i) 20-30, (ii) 31-35, and (iii) 35+. The results showed that destructive leadership was the only main construct of the study where age differences exist ($p<0.01$). In addition, inadequate leadership skills,

authoritarian leadership, and unethical behaviors were the sub-dimensions of destructive leadership where age differences were present ($p<0.01$, $p<0.01$, $p<0.05$). Another sub-dimension where age differences were observed was violating contract sub-dimension of psychological contract breach ($p<0.05$). Further analyses had shown that participants in 20-30 age range are less prone to perceptions of destructive leadership, its sub-dimensions, and violating contract. The difference may be attributed to the fact that employees at an earlier age have fewer unfavorable incidences with their organizations and leaders that may lead them to have higher scores.

In addition, ANOVA tests were applied in order to examine total work experience differences. Total work experience was divided into three categories as (i) 0-5 years, (ii) 6-10 years, and (iii) 10+ years. The results showed that destructive leadership was, again, the only construct where total work experience differences occur ($p<0.01$). Among the sub-dimensions of destructive leadership, there were significant differences for inadequate leadership skills ($p<0.01$), authoritarian leadership ($p<0.01$), inability to deal with technology and other changes ($p<0.01$), unethical behaviors ($p<0.05$), and nepotism ($p<0.05$). For all the dimensions and sub-dimensions where total work experience differs, participants with less than 5 years of total work experience perceive their leaders as less destructive. This difference may be explained with the fact that participants with more work experience might have various reference events where they perceive their leaders engaging in destructive behaviors than participants with fewer work experiences.

Finally, ANOVA tests were applied in order to observe total company experience differences regarding the variables of the study. Total company experience was divided into three categories as (i) 0-1 year, (ii) 2-3 years, and (iii) 3+ years. Results showed that participants differ from each other in terms of organizational cynicism ($p<0.05$), cognitive cynicism ($p<0.05$), affective cynicism ($p<0.05$), nepotism sub-dimension of destructive leadership ($p<0.05$), and violating contract sub-dimension of psychological contract breach ($p<0.05$). More specifically, individuals with less tenure in their current organization are less likely to have cynical attitudes, affects, and behaviors. The difference may be attributed to the fact that participants with less experience in their current organization may have fewer experiences where they might feel cynical towards their organizations. Apart from organizational cynicism and its sub-dimensions, participants with less than 1 year experience in their current

organizations are less likely to perceive their leaders as engaging in nepotism, and they are less likely to have perceptions of contract violation. Similarly, this difference might be explained as a projection of the fact that individuals with more experience in their current organizations may have more reference episodes where their trust towards leaders and organizations may be harmed.

As a consequence, results revealed that destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony are associated and psychological need thwarting plays a mediating role on this relationship. Thus, it can be concluded that leaders who engage in destructive leadership practices may inflame personal psychological disharmony of their subordinates by thwarting their basic psychological needs. In addition, destructive leadership is associated with organizational cynicism, as well, and psychological need thwarting partially explains this relationship by playing a mediating role. For this reason, it can be argued that leaders who display destructive leadership tendencies may lead their subordinates to be more vulnerable to organizational cynicism by heeding the psychological contract between employee and the organization. Apart from that, results showed that self-construal is not associated with organizational cynicism. From this perspective, it can be argued that organizational cynicism is influenced by the dyadic relationship between the leader and the subordinate, as well as the ability to meet mutual expectations between subordinate and the organization. Thus, organizational cynicism might be a more straightforward construct where self-construal might have little effect on. Also, the results showed that task significance did not have an effect on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. From this viewpoint, it can be concluded that leadership practices and employee psychological disharmony have strong relationship and the relationship is not affected by how meaningful an employee finds one's work.

As a conclusion, it can be argued that this study may provide important implications for combining theoretical approaches of individual, managerial and organizational constructs that may lead to cognitive, emotional, and behavioral outcomes in the organizations. In addition, the present study may contribute to the scholarly discussion on employee affectivity, cynicism in organizations, psychological need fulfillment, job characteristics, and managerial issues in general.

5.3. DISCUSSION

The present study has conceptual and practical implications and it provides significant insights into the associations between multiple constructs which were not extensively researched in the relevant literature. More specifically, it approaches two constructs, personal psychological disharmony and organizational cynicism, that influence employees' both private and organizational lives from an integrative perspective, signifying managerial, organizational, and job-related characteristics and melts them in the same pot. From this point forward, relevant discussions and implications will be pointed out.

In the global market economy, where boundaries are loose, competition is fierce, and know-how is priceless, human capital is doubtlessly one of the most precious assets for organizations. Especially in today's volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous work environment, creating constructive organizational climate that attracts, develops, and retains talented employees is one of the most challenging tasks. In order to utilize employees' talents and maximize the outcomes out of their labor, organizations have to provide them a work environment where they will feel safe, respected, and valued.

In addition, employees' psychological health is a critical subject that needs to be tackled. More specifically, absence of major psychological challenges may allow employees to actualize their potential. In this respect, organizations need to consider possible organizational factors that may lead employees to feel depressed, anxious, and distressed. To borrow Herzberg's (1982) motivation-hygiene model, unfavorable interpersonal relations are likely to render employees vulnerable to psychological maladaptation (Sachau, 2007).

Employee well-being has always been one of the most central subjects in organizational behavior, and personal psychological disharmony as an umbrella concept encapsulates depression, anxiety, and stress in employees. Beginning with Derogatis and Melitaros (1983), scholars have conducted numerous studies that would identify factors that may lead to or prevent from personal psychological disharmony. From this viewpoint, this study aimed to explicate managerial, organizational, and job-related antecedents of personal psychological disharmony, by creating a model that includes destructive leadership, psychological need thwarting, and task significance.

In the first hypothesis, it was argued that destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony would be linked, and as expected, destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony was found to be correlated. Destructive leadership is a multivariate concept and it frames maladaptive leadership patterns in six different dimensions. In this respect, it not only includes leadership incompetence, but also little concern for ethics and fairness. From the perspective of Leader-Member Exchange Theory, a dyadic interaction that is tyrannical, unsupportive, and dismissive for the employee may trigger strong psychological responses on the employees' side.

In fact, the subject gets even more complicated when employees are subject to such behaviors from their managers who are key figures for them, while the expectation is to provide them resources when dealing with organizational or job-related demands. In their Job Demands-Resources Model, Demerouti and Bakker (2007) argue that employees need to strengthen their resources to balance the stress associated with job demands. In this framework, leaders play an immensely critical role, as they have the potential to act either as demand or the resource.

The association between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony may not be surprising, considering the central role of leaders in subordinates' work context. However, providing a psychological mechanism that connect the dots is truly necessary. In particular, identifying the factors that leave employees defenseless against the harmful impact of destructive leadership may pave the way for spotting proper implications. In this respect, psychological need thwarting was included in the present study with the expectation that it plays a mediating role between two constructs.

Several theories have been proposed to identify the basic psychological needs of humans. Ryan and Deci's (2000) Self-Determination Theory asserts that humans have basic psychological needs that must be met to ensure psychological adaptation. Failure to meet these needs would refrain individuals from thriving, and make them vulnerable to personal psychological disharmony. In this respect, Bartholomew and colleagues (2011) developed a framework that identify three basic psychological needs, inspired by McClelland (1965)'s model: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Considering its role in the model of the present study, psychological need thwarting maps the psychological process that links destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. The actions of the leaders who behave

abusively, negligently, and unfairly is linked to higher levels of depression, anxiety, and stress in employees because they limit thriving of their subordinates by limiting their growth opportunities, dismissing them, and not providing adequate self-reliance occasions. For this reason, one of the key managerial implications of this study would be recommending managers to evaluate themselves whether they behave destructively, and whether they thwart their employees' psychological needs.

In addition to the managerial precursors of personal psychological disharmony of employees, task-related variables also play a role. Beginning with Hackman and Oldham's (1975) seminal work on job characteristics that motivate individuals to show superior performance, numerous studies have been conducted to identify the tasks that may allow opportunity to actualize employees' potential. In this respect, task significance emerges as a critical factor that may motivate employees and show high performance. Particularly, if employees feel proud out of the work that they produce, and they can conceptualize the contribution of their work to the organization, their family, and the community in general, they are likely to go into their work wholeheartedly (Colby, Sippola and Phelps, 2001). The assertion is also in line with Theory of Alienation, since inability to conceptualize one's role in the larger picture may alienate employees about the value of their labor (Archibald, 1976).

From this perspective, task significance was included in the research model with the expectation that it may have a moderating role on the relationship between destructive leadership and personal psychological disharmony. The results showed that task significance and personal psychological disharmony is associated. However, the results also showed that it is not an impactful factor on the relationship between two construct that may change the direction. From this point forward, it can be argued that task significance cannot compensate for an unfavorable relationship with destructive leadership practices and personal psychological disharmony levels of employees. For this reason, leaders need to be wary of their impact on the psychological harmony of their employees.

Apart from personal psychological disharmony, organizational cynicism was another dependent variable in this study. Characterized by the belief that organizations tend to prioritize their outcomes above everything else, strong affective reactions to perceived unfairness in an

organizational context, and maladaptive behavioral patterns as a response to perceived self-centeredness, organizational cynicism is argued to be common and pervasive.

From an integrative perspective, organizational cynicism has several individual, organizational, and managerial antecedents. Previous studies found significant association between organizational cynicism and trait cynicism (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989), positive organizational support (Byrne and Hochwater, 2008), and perceived organizational politics (Chiaburu et.al., 2013). Regarding the managerial antecedents of the construct, it has been shown to be negatively associated with constructive leadership patterns, such as transformational leadership (Bommer, Rich and Rubin, 2005), perceived supervisor support (Cole, Bruch and Vogel, 2006), benevolent leadership (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2016), and positively associated with suboptimal leadership patterns, such as narcissistic leadership (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2017), authoritarian leadership (Jiang et.al., 2017), and paternalistic leadership (Sungur et.al., 2019).

From this perspective, the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism was examined and the results showed that two constructs are associated. This finding is consistent with Blau's (1964) Social Exchange Theory. In this theory, Blau (1964) asserts that social interactions in organizations are moderated by norm of reciprocity. In particular, if one of the interacting party reciprocates a good deed by an affirmative action, while she responds a bad deed by an unfavorable action. Leaders act as ambassadors of the organizations for subordinates, since they are the central figure that moderate the communication between the organization and the employees. Thus, a despotic, dismissive, and unjust attitude of a leader would trigger suspicion and resentment in subordinates. In such cases, employees may easily fall prey on suspicious beliefs, feelings of disappointment and compensatory destructive actions, which are the properties of organizational cynicism.

Apart from that, destructive leadership patterns may lead to loss of trust in employees. In his Trust Theory, Rotter (1967) argues that trust is a key concept in interpersonal relations that may lead individuals to engage in prosocial or antisocial behaviors. From this perspective, in an organizational context where an employee is subject to abuse, tyranny, neglect, and

unfairness, she may easily be vulnerable to suspicious beliefs, feelings of anger and resentment, and compensatory unfavorable actions.

Moreover, psychological contract breach was included in the research model with the assumption that it may shed light on the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism. The results showed that psychological contract breach plays a partial mediating role on the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism. This finding is in line with Blau's (1964) Social Exchange Theory, since employees are likely to engage in organizational cynicism as a response to abusive, negligent, and unjust actions committed by their leaders and the senior manager. In addition, the results are consistent with Gouldner's (1960) Norm of Reciprocity, which signifies the role of mutuality in the relationships between interacting parties.

In addition to above theoretical explanations, Weiss and Cronpanzano's (1996) Affective Events Theory may explicate the role of psychological contract breach on the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational cynicism. In this approach, unfavorable events in the workplace are argued to be associated with negative attitudes and emotions. In this respect, unfair and abusive actions committed by leaders may lead employees to question whether the organization behaves in a loyal manner to psychological contract. Thus, a perceived inability to keep psychological contract may lead organizationally cynic attitudes and behaviors in employees.

As it was previously mentioned in this chapter, organizational cynicism is a multivariate concept which has individual, managerial and organizational antecedents. On the other hand, numerous studies have been conducted that identify individual, managerial, and organizational antecedents of organizational cynicism, studies that explicate social and cultural aspect of the concept can be argued to be scarce. From this perspective, self-construal was included in the research model of the present study.

Self-construal refers to the preference of behaving either in a self-reliant and autonomous, or in a socially harmonious and intertwined manner. In this respect, scholars treat self-construal as an individual-level projection of national culture dimension individualism vs collectivism (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). From the perspective of Social Learning Theory, our cognitive, emotional and behavioral orientations are shaped by our direct or observed

experiences (Bandura, 1964). In this respect, repeatedly encountered situations lead us to take certain actions, which direct our tendencies to think, feel, and behave. For this reason, our stance on independence and interdependence is mainly guided by our socialization process. In addition, according to Lewin's (1940) Field Theory, phenomenology of individuals are shaped by the conflict between needs and abilities, and internal and external factors that restrict the course of actions. From this perspective, our socialization process and adaptation to the environment may shape our cognitions, emotions, and behavioral tendencies.

Even though research conducted on these concepts are not abundant, there were some findings in the relevant literature that point out to differences in terms of self-construal. Georghiou and colleagues' (2009) and Smith and colleagues' (2009) study, for example, found that people in collectivist cultures tend to have higher levels of generalized trust than people in individualistic cultures. From this point forward, self-construal were argued to be associated with organizational cynicism, in the research model. Results, on the other hand, showed that neither independent nor interdependent self-construal is correlated with organizational cynicism. To our knowledge, studies in the relevant literature also failed to find a significant association between two constructs. Thus, it can be argued that the effect of self-construal might be so subtle that it may not have a significant impact on organizationally cynic attitudes, emotions, and behaviors of employees.

Apart from that, majority of the items were removed in Self-Construal Scale (SCS) due to low factor loadings. Even though there were two dimensions in the scale, the content of the dimensions might be significantly different from the original scale due to the exclusion of several items. For this reason, hypothesized relation may not occur as a result of the structure of the scales.

5.4. LIMITATIONS

The present study provides significant insights to organizational behavior literature, even though it includes certain limitations. First, the data collection was limited to self-report questionnaire in this study. Self-reporting method is criticized by scholars due to the failure to exclude social desirability bias (Field, 2009). For this reason, multi-sourcing method would be a more effective way to collect data. More specifically, qualitative methods, such as direct

observation and structured interviews would provide a deeper understanding on the associations between managerial, organizational and psychosocial factors. Apart from that, data of some constructs that were measured in the model were collected through self-report method which may lead to common method bias. For example, destructive leadership was evaluated only by employees. Therefore, further studies may utilize 360 evaluations to have a broader perspective on the associations between leaders and the subordinates.

Apart from that, exploratory factor analysis was conducted in the present study, since the translation of the items were conducted by the researchers and the thesis committee. However, in further studies, confirmatory factor analysis can be conducted.

Furthermore, statistical analyses in this study were limited to the relationships between main constructs. However, statistical analyses that include sub-dimensions of the scales would provide a more definitive understanding on the associations between constructs. To illustrate, results revealed that destructive leadership leads to personal psychological disharmony in employees via psychological need thwarting. However, explicating this relationship through providing deeper insights, such as which aspect of the leadership leads to depression in employees, and whether thwarting certain psychological need strengthen such relationship would lead to broader understanding between these concepts. For this reason, further studies can include sub-dimensions in the analyses.

Last, but not least, the participants of the present study were limited to public and private sector employees who work in Istanbul. In addition, majority of the employees are white collar workers who are employed in large-scale organizations. For this reason, the data from different occupational and sectoral settings would provide a broader perspective on the associations between individual, managerial, job-related, and organizational variables.

5.5. FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

The model in this study excludes several individual, managerial, and organizational variables which may act as antecedent factors for attitudinal, emotional, and behavioral outcomes in organizations. Thus, a broader model that includes several factors, such as personality traits, leader-member exchange, self-concepts, emotional intelligence, cultural

variables, trust, organizational climate, organizational culture, and so on, can be developed in further studies to conceptualize associations more clearly.

In addition, the present study focused on the interactions between destructive leadership, self-construal, personal psychological disharmony and organizational cynicism. To have a wider perspective on the relationships between the constructs, the antecedents of the independent variables can be investigated. More specifically, borrowing organizational sociology terms and investigating the associations with macro variables would provide deeper insights into the variables.

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APPENDIX I. Questionnaire

Sayın katılımcı,

Çalışan bireylerin iş yaşamındaki performansları pek çok değişkenden etkilenmektedir. Kişisel yatkınlıklar, örgütsel iklim, liderlik, kültür bunlardan bazılarıdır. Bu değişkenler düşüncelerimize yön vererek davranışlarımızı şekillendirmektedir. Bu çalışmada iş yerinde içinde bulunduğumuz örgütsel bağlamın ve sahip olduğumuz kişisel yatkınlıklarımızın duygu ve davranışlarımıza olan etkilerinin araştırılması hedeflenmektedir. Bizlere vakit ayırarak çalışmamıza katılarak kıymetli değerlendirmelerinizi paylaştığınız için çok teşekkür ederiz.

Not: Anket içerisinde yer alan bölümlerdeki tüm ifadeleri eksiksiz yanıtlamanız, araştırmamızın geçerliliği açısından son derece önemlidir ve isim, soy-isim bilgisine ihtiyaç duyulmayan bu anket araştırmacıda saklı tutulacaktır.

Araştırmacılar:

Doç. Dr. Seçil TAŞTAN

Marmara Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi

İngilizce İşletme Bölümü/Örgütsel Davranış Anabilim Dalı

Öğretim Üyesi

Remzi GÜNEŞ

Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

TANITICI BİLGİLER

1. Cinsiyetiniz : ( ) Kadın ( ) Erkek

2. Yaşınız?

( ) 20-25 ( ) 26-30 ( ) 31-35

( ) 36-45 ( ) 46 ve üzeri

3. Eğitim Durumunuz nedir (son mezun olduğunuz okulu belirtiniz)?

( ) İlk-orta derece ( ) Lise ( )Üniversite

( ) Yüksek Lisans ( ) Doktora

4. Meslek yaşamınızdaki tecrübeniz? (Yıl olarak belirtiniz).....

5. Şu anki kurumunuzda kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız? (Yıl olarak belirtiniz).....

BÖLÜM I

Aşağıdaki tabloda mevcut yöneticinizi değerlendirmeniz üzere bazı düşünce ve davranış eğilimlerini içeren maddelere yer verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir maddeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Anket maddelerine verilecek cevaplar doğru ya da yanlış değildir. Lütfen aklınıza gelen ilk cevabı tereddür etmeden işaretleyiniz. (1=**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum .... 6=Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**).

	Aşağıdaki durumların mevcut yöneticinizi ne derece ifade ettiğini düşünmektesiniz? **Lütfen her birini mevcut yöneticinizin davranışlarını göz önünde bulundurarak yanıtlayınız.**	**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**
1	Yöneticim herkesin üzerinde abartılı bir şekilde hakimiyet kurmaya çalışır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
2	Yöneticim pek çok şey hakkında fazla şüphecidir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3	Hedefleri tutturamadığım zaman yöneticim için geçerli bir neden yoktur.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
4	Yöneticim her şeyi kontrol etmeye çalışır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
5	Yöneticim bir şey istediğinde onda takıntı haline gelir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
6	Yöneticim genellikle despottur.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

7	Yöneticim astları üzerinde acımasızca baskı kurar.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
8	Yöneticimin işlerimizi hakkıyla yaptığımıza dair güveni yoktur.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
9	Yöneticim astlarını motive etmek için ne yapması gerektiğini bilmez.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
10	Yöneticim astlarının yeteneklerinin düzenli olarak gelişmesini planlayamaz.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
11	Yöneticim bölümümüz için bir vizyon geliştirmekte yetersizdir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
12	Yöneticimin stratejik planlama becerisi zayıftır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
13	Yöneticim problemleri çözmek yerine, problem yokmuş gibi davranır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
14	Yöneticim astlarının ihtiyaçlarını önemsemez.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
15	Yöneticimin problem çözme ve karar verme becerileri zayıftır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
16	Yöneticim işlerde öncelikleri belirleyemez.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
17	Yöneticim sıklıkla ahlak kurallarını göz ardı ederek karar verir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
18	Yöneticim insanlara karşı genellikle saygısızdır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
19	Yöneticim her müzakereyi bir kazan/kaybet ilişkisi olarak görür.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
20	Yöneticim zor zamanlarda dürüst değildir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
21	Yöneticim için yeni teknoloji dosttan öte düşmandır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
22	Yöneticim yeni teknolojiyi kullanmaktan kaçınır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

23	Yöneticim genellikle işteki her türlü değişime direnir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
24	Yöneticim benden ne beklediğini nadiren söyler.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
25	Yöneticimin benden ne beklediğini tahmin etmek zorunda kalıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
26	Yöneticimin performansım hakkında ne düşündüğünü nadiren bilirim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
27	Yöneticimin favori astları vardır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
28	Yöneticimin belirli kişilere karşı iltimas gösterir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

BÖLÜM II

Aşağıdaki tabloda kendi düşünce ve davranış eğilimlerinizi değerlendirmeniz üzere bazı ifadelere yer verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir maddeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Anket maddelerine verilecek cevaplar doğru ya da yanlış değildir. Lütfen aklınıza gelen ilk cevabı tereddür etmeden işaretleyiniz. (1=**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum .... 6=Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**).

Aşağıdaki durumların sizi ne derece tarif ettiğini düşünmektesiniz? **Lütfen her birini kendi düşünce ve davranış eğilimlerinizi göz önünde bulundurarak yanıtlayınız.**		**Kesinlikle mıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**
1	Birçok yönden kendine özgü ve başkalarından farklı olmaktan hoşlanırım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
2	Benden yaşça epey büyük olsa bile biriyle tanıştıktan kısa süre sonra ona ilk ismiyle hitap etmekten çekinmem.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3	Grubun üyelerine hiç katılmasam bile tartışmadan kaçınırım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
4	İlişkide bulunduğum otoritelere saygı duyarım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
5	Başkaları ne düşünürse düşünsün kendi bildiğimi okurum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
6	Kendileri hakkında alçakgönüllü olan insanlara saygı duyarım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
7	Bağımsız bir kişi olarak davranmanın benim için çok önemli olduğunu hissederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

8	İçinde bulunduğum grubun menfaati için kişisel çıkarlarımı feda ederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
9	Yanlış anlaşılmaktansa doğrudan "hayır" demeyi tercih ederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
10	Canlı bir hayal gücüm olması benim için önemlidir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
11	Eğitimim ve kariyerimle ilgili plan yaparken anne-babamın tavsiyelerini göz önünde bulundurmam gerekir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
12	Kaderimin çevremdekilerin kaderiyle örülü olduğunu düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
13	Yeni tanıştığım kişilerle muhatap olduğumda açık ve dobra olmayı tercih ederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
14	Başkalarıyla işbirliği yaptığım zaman kendimi iyi hissederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
15	Herkesin arasından seçilerek ödüllendirilmek veya övülmek konusunda kendimi rahat hissederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
16	Kardeşim başarısız olsa kendimi sorumlu hissederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
17	Çoğu zaman başkalarıyla ilişkilerimin kendi başarılarımdan daha önemli olduğunu hissederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
18	Bir toplantı sırasında fikirlerimi beyan etmek benim için sorun değildir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
19	Otobüste yerimi amirime teklif ederdim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
20	Kiminle olursam olayım aynı şekilde davranırım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

21	Benim mutluluğum çevremdekilerin mutluluğuna bağlıdır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
22	Sağlığımın iyi olmasına her şeyden çok değer veririm.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
23	Mutlu olmasam bile eğer bir grubun bana ihtiyacı varsa grupta kalırım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
24	Başkalarını nasıl etkilerse etkilesin kendim için en iyi olanı yapmaya çalışırım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
25	Kendi başımın çaresine bakabiliyor olmak benim için birincil kaygıdır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
26	Grup içinde verilen kararlara saygı göstermek benim için önemlidir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
27	Başkalarından bağımsız olarak bireysel kimliğim benim için çok önemlidir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
28	Grubum içindeki uyumu muhafaza etmek benim için önemlidir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
29	Evde ve işte aynı şekilde davranırım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
30	Kendim farklı şeyler yapmak istesem bile genelde diğerlerinin yapmak istediklerine uyarım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

BÖLÜM III

Aşağıdaki tabloda iş yerinde gösterdiğiniz davranışlar ve bu davranışların sizdeki duygusal etkilerini içeren maddelere yer verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir maddeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Anket maddelerine verilecek cevaplar doğru ya da yanlış değildir. Lütfen aklınıza gelen ilk cevabı tereddür etmeden işaretleyiniz. (1=**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum .... 6=Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**).

Aşağıdaki durumların iş yerindeki duygu ve davranışlarınızı ne derece tarif ettiğini düşünmektesiniz? **Lütfen her birini kendi duygu ve davranışlarınızı göz önünde bulundurarak yanıtlayınız.**		**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**
1	Nasıl çalışacağıma ilişkin tercih yapmamın engellendiğini hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
2	Belirli şekillerde davranmak zorunda bırakıldığımı hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3	Benim yerime alınmış iş kararlarına uymak zorunda hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
4	Benim için tasarlanmış işlere uyum sağlamam yönünde baskı altında olduğumu hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
5	Bazı durumlarda başkaları bana gerçekçi olmayan beklentiler dayattığı için kendimi yetersiz hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
6	Bana bazen kendimi yetersiz hissetmeme neden olan şeyler söyleniyor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

7	Bazı durumlarda yetersiz hissettiriliyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
8	Potansiyelimi gerçekleştirebileceğim fırsatlar sağlanmadığı için kendimi yetersiz hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
9	Etrafımdakiler tarafından dışlandığımı hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
10	Başkalarının beni önemsemediğini hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
11	Diğer çalışanların benden hoşlanmadıklarını hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
12	Etrafımdaki bazı çalışanların başarılı olduğumda beni kıskandıklarını hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

BÖLÜM IV

Aşağıdaki tabloda çalıştığınız kurum ile aranızdaki etkileşimi içeren maddelere yer verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir maddeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Anket maddelerine verilecek cevaplar doğru ya da yanlış değildir. Lütfen aklınıza gelen ilk cevabı tereddür etmeden işaretleyiniz. (1=**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum .... 6=Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**).

Aşağıdaki durumların çalıştığınız kurum ile aranızdaki etkileşimi ne derece tarif ettiğini düşünmektesiniz? **Lütfen her birini mevcut işyerinizdeki deneyimlerinizi göz önünde bulundurarak yanıtlayınız.**		**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**
1	İşe gireceğim sırada işverenim tarafından bana verilen sözlerin/vaatlerin hemen hemen hepsi şu ana kadar yerine getirilmiştir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
2	İşe girerken bana verilen sözlerin/vaatlerin yerine getirilmesi için işverenimin gayret gösterdiğini düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3	İşverenimin bugüne kadar bana vermiş olduğu sözleri/vaatleri yerine getirme konusunda oldukça başarılı olduğunu düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
4	İşletmeye katkılarım karşılığında verilen sözlerin/vaatlerin hepsi yerine getirilmedi.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

5	Sözleşmede üzerime düşen görevleri yapmış olmama rağmen işverenim verdiği sözlerin çoğunu yerine getirmedi.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
6	İşletmeye karşı büyük bir öfke hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
7	Çalıştığım işletme tarafından ihanete uğramış gibi hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
8	Çalıştığım işletmenin aramızdaki anlaşmayı ihlal etliğini düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
9	Çalıştığım işletmenin bana davranış şekli beni hayal kırıklığına uğratıyor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

BÖLÜM V

Aşağıdaki tabloda yapmakta olduğunuz işi tarif etmeniz üzere bazı maddelere yer verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir maddeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Anket maddelerine verilecek cevaplar doğru ya da yanlış değildir. Lütfen aklınıza gelen ilk cevabı tereddür etmeden işaretleyiniz. (1=**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum .... 6=Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**).

Aşağıdaki durumların mevcut işinizi ne derece tarif ettiğini düşünmektesiniz? **Lütfen her birini mevcut işinizi göz önünde bulundurarak yanıtlayınız.**		**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**
1	Ortaya çıkardığım işle kurumuma ve diğer çalışanlara katkıda bulunabiliyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
2	Yaptığım iş ailem ve yakın çevrem üzerinde olumlu etki bırakıyor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3	Yaptığım iş toplum için anlamlı ve önemlidir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
4	İşimdeki görevlerim işyeri dışındaki insanlar üzerinde önemli bir etkiye sahiptir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

BÖLÜM VI

Aşağıdaki tabloda çalışma saatleri içerisindeki duygu, düşünce ve davranışlarınızı tarif etmeniz üzere bazı maddelere yer verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir maddeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Anket maddelerine verilecek cevaplar doğru ya da yanlış değildir. Lütfen aklınıza gelen ilk cevabı tereddür etmeden işaretleyiniz. (1=**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum .... 6=Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**).

Aşağıdaki durumların çalışma saatleri içerisindeki duygu, düşünce ve davranışlarınızı ne derece tarif ettiğini düşünmektesiniz?		**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**
1	Oldukça önemsiz şeylerden dolayı gerginleşiyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
2	Dudaklarımın kuruduğunu hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3	Olumlu herhangi bir şey düşünemiyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
4	Nefes alıp vermede güçlük yaşıyorum (örneğin; çok hızlı nefes alma veya nefes alamama).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
5	Bulunduğum ortama uyum sağlayamıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
6	Olaylara gereğinden fazla tepki gösteriyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	
7	Kendimi bitkin hissediyorum (örneğin; bacaklarım tutmuyor).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
8	Rahatlamakta güçlük yaşıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
9	Beni sıkıntıya sokan öyle zamanlar oluyor ki, onlar bitince kendimi rahat hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
10	Beklediğim veya umduğum hiçbir şey olmadığını hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

11	Aniden keyfimin kaçtığını hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
12	Çevremdeki olaylar gerginleşmeme neden oluyor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
13	Kendimi üzgün ve karamsar hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
14	Herhangi bir nedenden dolayı geciktiğimde sabırsızlanıyorum (örneğin; asansör veya trafik ışığı).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
15	Kendimi yorgun ve zayıf hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
16	Her şeye olan ilgimin kaybolduğunu hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
17	Bir insan olarak değerli olmadığımı hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
18	Oldukça hassas ve alıngan olduğumu hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
19	Herhangi bir fiziksel çaba harcamama veya fazla sıcak olmamasına rağmen yoğun biçimde terlediğimi hissediyorum (örneğin; ellerin terlemesi).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
20	Herhangi bir neden olmamasına rağmen korktuğumu hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
21	Hayatın yaşamaya değer olmadığını hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
22	Gevşemekte zorlanıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
23	Yutkunmakta sıkıntı yaşıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
24	Yaptığım hiçbir şeyden zevk alamıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
25	Herhangi bir fiziksel çaba harcamadığım halde kalbimin çarpıntısını hissedebiliyorum (örneğin; kalp çarpıntısının artması veya azalması).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
26	Kendimi keyifsiz ve kederli hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
27	Çabuk sinirlendiğimi düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
28	Hemen paniğe kapıldığımı düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

29	Beni gerginleştiren herhangi bir şeyden sonra sakinleşmekte güçlük yaşıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
30	Basit fakat alışılmadık bir şeyden dolayı "mahvolacağım" diye kaygılanıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
31	Herhangi bir şey için istekli ve ilgili olamıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
32	Yaptığım işin bölünmesine tahammül etmekte sıkıntı yaşıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
33	Gergin bir durumdayım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
34	Oldukça değersiz olduğumu hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
35	Yaptığım işe engel olan hiçbir şeye tolerans gösteremiyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
36	Çok korktuğumu hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
37	Gelecekten hiçbir beklentim yok.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
38	Yaşamın anlamsız olduğunu hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
39	Kendimi tedirgin ve heyecanlı hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
40	Gülünç duruma düşme ve paniğe kapılma riski olan durumlardan dolayı endişeleniyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
41	Titrediğimi hissediyorum (örneğin; ellerde).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
42	Yapacağım şeylere başlamakta güçlük yaşıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

VII. BÖLÜM

Aşağıdaki tabloda is yerindeki duygularınızı tarif etmeniz üzere bazı maddelere yer verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir maddeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Anket maddelerine verilecek cevaplar doğru ya da yanlış değildir. Lütfen aklınıza gelen ilk cevabı tereddür etmeden işaretleyiniz. (1=**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum .... 6=Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**).

Aşağıdaki durumların iş yerindeki duygularınızı ne derece tarif ettiğini düşünmektesiniz? **Lütfen her birini iş yerindeki duygularınızı göz önünde bulundurarak yanıtlayınız.**		**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**
1	Çalıştığım işletmede, söylenenler ile yapılanların farklı olduğuna inanıyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
2	Çalıştığım işletmenin politika, amaç ve uygulamaları arasında çok az ortak yön vardır.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3	Çalıştığım işletmede, bir uygulamanın yapılacağı söyleniyorsa, bunun gerçekleşip gerçekleşmeyeceği konusunda kuşku duyarım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
4	Çalıştığım işletmede, çalışanlardan bir şey yapmaları beklenir, ancak başka bir davranış ödüllendirilir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
5	Çalıştığım işletmede, yapılacağı söylenen şeyler ile gerçekleşenler arasında çok az benzerlik görüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
6	Çalıştığım işletmeyi düşündükçe sinirlenirim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

7	Çalıştığım işletmeyi düşündükçe hiddetlenirim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
8	Çalıştığım işletmeyi düşündükçe gerilim yaşarım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
9	Çalıştığım işletmeyi düşündükçe içimi bir endişe kaplar.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
10	Çalıştığım işletme dışındaki arkadaşlarıma, işte olup bitenler konusunda yakınırım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
11	Çalıştığım işletmeden ve çalışanlarından bahsedildiğinde, birlikte çalıştığım kişilerle anlamlı bir şekilde bakışırız.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
12	Başkalarıyla, çalıştığım işletmedeki işlerin nasıl yürütüldüğü hakkında konuşurum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
13	Başkalarıyla, çalıştığım işletmedeki uygulamaları ve politikaları eleştiririm.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

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APPENDIX II. Correlation Findings

a weak correlation (r=0.352) between destructive leadership and depression (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.281) between destructive leadership and stress (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.314) between destructive leadership and anxiety (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.280) between inadequate leadership skills and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.304) between inadequate leadership skills and depression (p=0.000)
a very weak correlation (r=0.222) between inadequate leadership skills and stress (p=0.000)
a very weak correlation (r=0.234) between inadequate leadership skills and anxiety (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.303) between authoritarian leadership and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.306) between authoritarian leadership and depression (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.263) between authoritarian leadership and stress (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.275) between authoritarian leadership and anxiety (p=0.000)
a very weak correlation (r=0.182) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.003)
a very weak correlation (r=0.191) between inability to deal with technology and depression (p=0.002)
the correlation (r=0.095) between inability to deal with technology and stress (p=0.128) is insignificant
a very weak correlation (r=0.235) between inability to deal with technology and anxiety (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.346) between callousness towards subordinates and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.347) between callousness towards subordinates and depression (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.288) between callousness towards subordinates and stress (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.322) between callousness towards subordinates and anxiety (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.331) between unethical behaviors and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.348) between unethical behaviors and depression (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.261) between unethical behaviors and stress (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.316) between unethical behaviors and anxiety (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.286) between nepotism and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.000)
a very weak correlation (r=0.254) between nepotism and depression (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.298) between nepotism and stress (p=0. 000)
a very weak correlation (r=0.250) between nepotism and anxiety (p=0. 000)

a moderate correlation (r=0.588) between destructive leadership and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.580) between destructive leadership and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.445) between destructive leadership and behavioral cynicism (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.614) between inadequate leadership skills and organizational cynicism (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.590) between inadequate leadership skills and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.555) between inadequate leadership skills and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.428) between inadequate leadership skills and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.532) between authoritarian leadership and organizational cynicism (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.476) between authoritarian leadership and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.499) between authoritarian leadership and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.399) between authoritarian leadership and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.305) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and organizational cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.302) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.333) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and affective cynicism (p=0.000)
a very weak correlation (r=0.141) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and behavioral cynicism (p=0.023)
a weak correlation (r=0.483) between callousness towards subordinates and organizational cynicism (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.493) between callousness towards subordinates and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.439) between callousness towards subordinates and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.295) between callousness towards subordinates and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.558) between unethical behaviors and organizational cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.489) between unethical behaviors and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.525) between unethical behaviors and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.431) between unethical behaviors and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)

a moderate correlation (r=0.575) between nepotism and organizational cynicism (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.544) between nepotism and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.484) between nepotism and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.451) between nepotism and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
the correlation (r=-0.003) between destructive leadership and independent self-construal (p=0.961) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.048) between inadequate leadership skills and independent self-construal (p=0.442) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.017) between authoritarian leadership and independent self-construal (p=0.787) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.100) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and independent self-construal (p=0.106) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.025) between callousness towards subordinates and independent self-construal (p=0.693) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.034) between unethical behaviors and independent self-construal (p=0.587) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.013) between nepotism and independent self-construal (p=0.829) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.010) between destructive leadership and interdependent self-construal (p=0.875) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.104) between inadequate leadership skills and interdependent self-construal (p=0.095) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.053) between authoritarian leadership and interdependent self-construal (p=0.392) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.081) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and interdependent self-construal (p=0.194) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.030) between callousness towards subordinates and interdependent self-construal (p=0.636) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.096) between unethical leadership and interdependent self-construal (p=0.123) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.084) between nepotism and interdependent self-construal (p=0.179) is insignificant
a moderate correlation (r=0.602) between destructive leadership and psychological need thwarting (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.533) between destructive leadership and need thwarting for autonomy (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.543) between destructive leadership and need thwarting for competence (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.442) between destructive leadership and need thwarting for relatedness (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.503) between inadequate leadership skills and psychological need thwarting (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.469) between inadequate leadership skills and need thwarting for autonomy (p=0. 000)

a weak correlation (r=0.452) between inadequate leadership skills and need thwarting for competence (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.339) between inadequate leadership skills and need thwarting for relatedness (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.574) between authoritarian leadership and psychological need thwarting (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.538) between authoritarian leadership and need thwarting for autonomy (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.507) between authoritarian leadership and need thwarting for competence (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.398) between authoritarian leadership and need thwarting for relatedness (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.422) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and psychological need thwarting (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.331) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and need thwarting for autonomy (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.360) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and need thwarting for competence (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.391) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and need thwarting for relatedness (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.445) between callousness towards subordinates and psychological need thwarting (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.345) between callousness towards subordinates and need thwarting for autonomy (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.419) between callousness towards subordinates and need thwarting for competence (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.365) between callousness towards subordinates and need thwarting for relatedness (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.513) between unethical behaviors and psychological need thwarting (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.427) between unethical behaviors and need thwarting for autonomy (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.481) between unethical behaviors and need thwarting for competence (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.385) between unethical behaviors and need thwarting for relatedness (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.553) between nepotism and psychological need thwarting (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.469) between nepotism and need thwarting for autonomy (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.502) between nepotism and need thwarting for competence (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.426) between nepotism and need thwarting for relatedness (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.621) between destructive leadership and psychological contract breach (p=0.000)

a moderate correlation (r=0.597) between inadequate leadership skills and psychological contract breach (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.529) between authoritarian leadership and psychological contract breach (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.403) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and psychological contract breach (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.541) between callousness towards subordinates and psychological contract breach (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.519) between unethical behaviors and psychological contract breach (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.460) between nepotism and psychological contract breach (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.603) between destructive leadership and violating contract (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.560) between inadequate leadership skills and violating contract (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.533) between authoritarian leadership and violating contract (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.395) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and violating contract (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.539) between callousness towards and violating contract (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.516) between unethical behaviors and violating contract (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.441) between nepotism and violating contract (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.541) between destructive leadership and failing to fulfill promises (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.544) between inadequate leadership skills and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.435) between authoritarian leadership and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.347) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.491) between callousness towards subordinates and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.436) between unethical behaviors and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.407) between nepotism and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a very weak correlation (r=-0.144) between destructive leadership and task significance (p=0.020)
a very weak correlation (r=-0.163) between inadequate leadership skills and task significance (p=0.008)
the correlation (r=-0.075) between authoritarian leadership and task significance (p=0.231) is insignificant

the correlation (r=-0.093) between inability to deal with technology and other changes and task significance (p=0.136) is insignificant
a weak correlation (r=-0.261) between callousness towards subordinates and task significance (p=0.000)
a vert weak correlation (r=-0.123) between unethical behaviors and task significance (p=0.047)
the correlation (r=-0.002) between nepotism and task significance (p=0.979) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.005) between independent self-construal and cognitive cynicism (p=0.940) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.034) between independent self-construal and affective cynicism (p=0.587) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.001) between independent self-construal and behavioral cynicism (p=0.989) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.101) between interdependent self-construal and cognitive cynicism (p=0.105) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.004) between interdependent self-construal and affective cynicism (p=0.943) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.012) between interdependent self-construal and behavioral cynicism (p=0.848) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.104) between independent self-construal and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.095) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.094) between independent self-construal and depression (p=0.129) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.038) between independent self-construal and stress (p=0.539) is insignificant
a very weak correlation (r=-0.149) between independent self-construal and anxiety (p=0.016)
the correlation (r=-0.026) between interdependent self-construal and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.671) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.579) between interdependent self-construal and depression (p=-0.035) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.013) between interdependent self-construal and stress (p=0.839) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.051) between interdependent self-construal and anxiety (p=0.412) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.022) between independent self-construal and psychological need thwarting (p=0.721) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.093) between independent self-construal and need thwarting for autonomy (p=0.134) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.002) between independent self-construal and need thwarting for competence (p=0.976) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.053) between independent self-construal and need thwarting for relatedness (p=0.399) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.120) between interdependent self-construal and psychological need thwarting (p=0.054) is insignificant

the correlation (r=0.082) between interdependent self-construal and need thwarting for autonomy (p=0.187) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.063) between interdependent self-construal and need thwarting for competence (p=0.312) is insignificant
a very weak correlation (r=0.176) between interdependent self-construal and need thwarting for relatedness (p=0.004)
the correlation (r=0.023) between independent self-construal and psychological contract breach (p=0.713) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.052) between independent self-construal and violating contract (p=0.401) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.018) between independent self-construal and failing to fulfill promises (p=0.774) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.023) between interdependent self-construal and psychological contract breach (p=0.711) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.058) between interdependent self-construal and violating contract (p=0.352) is insignificant
the correlation (r=-0.025) between interdependent self-construal and failing to fulfill promises (p=0.692) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.070) between independent self-construal and task significance (p=0.261) is insignificant
the correlation (r=0.056) between interdependent self-construal and task significance (p=0.372) is insignificant
a moderate correlation (r=0.636) between psychological need thwarting and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.598) between psychological need thwarting and depression (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.628) between psychological need thwarting and stress (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.534) between psychological need thwarting and anxiety (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.521) between need thwarting for autonomy and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.494) between need thwarting for autonomy and depression (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.542) between need thwarting for autonomy and stress (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.394) between need thwarting for autonomy and anxiety (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.627) between need thwarting for competence and personal psychological disharmony (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.592) between need thwarting for competence and depression (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.624) between need thwarting for competence and stress (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.513) between need thwarting for competence and anxiety (p=0. 000)

a moderate correlation (r=0.449) between need thwarting for relatedness and personal psychological disharmony (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.415) between need thwarting for relatedness and depression (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.403) between need thwarting for relatedness and stress (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.448) between need thwarting for relatedness and anxiety (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.588) between psychological need thwarting and organizational cynicism (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.532) between psychological need thwarting and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.533) between psychological need thwarting and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.452) between psychological need thwarting and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.518) between need thwarting for autonomy and organizational cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.471) between need thwarting for autonomy and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.432) between need thwarting for autonomy and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.437) between need thwarting for autonomy and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.569) between need thwarting for competence and organizational cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.481) between need thwarting for competence and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.555) between need thwarting for competence and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.444) between need thwarting for competence and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.382) between need thwarting for relatedness and organizational cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.389) between need thwarting for relatedness and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.344) between need thwarting for relatedness and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.239) between need thwarting for relatedness and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.549) between psychological need thwarting and psychological contract breach (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.488) between need thwarting for autonomy and psychological contract breach (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.514) between need thwarting for competence and psychological contract breach (p=0. 000)

a weak correlation (r=0.375) between need thwarting for relatedness and psychological contract breach (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.558) between psychological need thwarting and violating contract (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.465) between need thwarting for autonomy and violating contract (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.544) between need thwarting for competence and violating contract (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.392) between need thwarting for relatedness and violating contract (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.446) between psychological need thwarting and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.436) between need thwarting for autonomy and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.391) between need thwarting for competence and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.291) between need thwarting for relatedness and failing to fulfill promises (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.271) between psychological need thwarting and task significance (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.184) between need thwarting for autonomy and task significance (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.244) between need thwarting for competence and task significance (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.269) between need thwarting for relatedness and task significance (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.383) between psychological contract breach and personal psychological disharmony (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=0.381) between psychological contract breach and depression (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.327) between psychological contract breach and stress (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.341) between psychological contract breach and anxiety (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.408) between violating contract and personal psychological disharmony (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.408) between violating contract and depression (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.346) between violating contract and stress (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.365) between violating contract and anxiety (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.288) between failing to fulfill promises and personal psychological disharmony (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.284) between failing to fulfill promises and depression (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.250) between failing to fulfill promises and stress (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.255) between failing to fulfill promises and anxiety (p=0. 000)

a moderate correlation (r=0.690) between psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism (p=0.000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.645) between psychological contract breach and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.696) between psychological contract breach and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.429) between psychological contract breach and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.672) between violating contract and organizational cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.600) between violating contract and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a strong correlation (r=0.714) between violating contract and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.418) between violating contract and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.598) between failing to fulfill promises and organizational cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.596) between failing to fulfill promises and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a moderate correlation (r=0.558) between failing to fulfill promises and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=0.371) between failing to fulfill promises and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.329) between psychological contract breach and task significance (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.340) between violating contract and task significance (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.261) between failing to fulfill promises and task significance (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.334) between task significance and personal psychological disharmony (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.380) between task significance and depression (p=0.000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.225) between task significance and stress (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.300) between task significance and anxiety (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.298) between task significance and organizational cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.253) between task significance and cognitive cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.265) between task significance and affective cynicism (p=0. 000)
a weak correlation (r=-0.257) between task significance and behavioral cynicism (p=0. 000)

APPENDIX III. Correlation Results of the Variables

#	Variable	Mean	SD	1a	1b	1c	2	2a	2b	2c	3	3a	3b	3c	3d	3e	3f
1	Personal Psychological Disharmony	2.31	1.01	.958**	.919**	.908**	.524**	.387**	.518**	.480**	.341**	.280**	.303**	.182**	.346**	.331**	.286**
1a	Depression	2.30	1.15		.805**	.833**	.508**	.364**	.512**	.469**	.352**	.304**	.306**	.191**	.347**	.348**	.254
1b	Stress	2.62	1.09			.753**	.512**	.400**	.447**	.500**	.281**	.222**	.263**	.095	.288**	.261**	.298**
1c	Anxiety	1.93	1.00				.419**	.292**	.475**	.341**	.314**	.234**	.275**	.235**	.322**	.316**	.250
2	Organizational Cynicism	2.82	1.15					.902**	.881**	.804**	.627**	.614**	.532**	.305**	.483**	.558**	.575**
2a	Cognitive Cynicism	3.17	1.38						.708**	.560**	.588**	.590**	.476**	.302**	.493**	.489**	.544**
2b	Affective Cynicism	2.33	1.34							.587**	.580**	.555**	.499**	.333**	.439**	.525**	.484**
2c	Behavioral Cynicism	2.89	1.26								.445**	.428**	.399**	.141*	.295**	.431**	.451**
3	Destructive Leadership	2.76	1.41									.915**	.889**	.752**	.730**	.897**	.729**
3a	Inadequate Leadership Skills	2.78	1.34										.708**	.662**	.649**	.786**	.562**
3b	Authoritarian Leadership	2.93	1.27											.586**	.516**	.768**	.652**
3c	Inability to Deal with Technology, Other Change	2.12	1.25												.558**	.634**	.445**
3d	Callousness Towards Subordinates	2.86	1.34													.598**	.518**
3e	Unethical Behaviors	2.42	1.34														.653**

#	Variable	Mean	SD	4a	4b	5	5a	5b	5c	6	6a	6b	7
1	Personal Psychological Disharmony	2.31	1.01	-.104	-.026	.636**	.521**	.627**	.449**	.383**	.408**	.288**	-.334**
1a	Depression	2.30	1.15	-.149*	-.035	.598**	.494**	.592**	.415**	.381**	.408**	.284**	-.380**
1b	Stress	2.62	1.09	-.038	.013	.628**	.542**	.624**	.403**	.327**	.346**	.250**	-.225**
1c	Anxiety	1.93	1.00	-.094	-.051	.534**	.394**	.513**	.448**	.341**	.365**	.255**	-.300**
2	Organizational Cynicism	2.82	1.15	-.015	.041	.588**	.518**	.569**	.382**	.690**	.672**	.598**	-.298**
2a	Cognitive Cynicism	3.17	1.38	-.005	.101	.532**	.471**	.481**	.389**	.645**	.600**	.596**	-.253**
2b	Affective Cynicism	2.33	1.34	-.034	-.004	.533**	.432**	.555**	.344**	.696**	.714**	.344**	-.265**
2c	Behavioral Cynicism	2.89	1.26	-.001	-.012	.452**	.437**	.444**	.239**	.429**	.418**	.371**	-.257**
3	Destructive Leadership	2.76	1.41	-.003	-.010	.602**	.533**	.543**	.442**	.621**	.603**	.541**	-.144*
3a	Inadequate Leadership Skills	2.78	1.34	.017	.096	.574**	.538**	.507**	.398**	.597**	.560**	.544**	-.163**

3b	Authoritarian Leadership	2.93	1.27	.017	.096	.574**	.538**	.507**	.398**	.529**	.533**	.435**	-.075
3c	Inability to Deal with Technology, Other Change	2.12	1.25	.100	-.030	.422**	.331**	.360**	.391**	.403**	.395**	.347**	-.093
3d	Callousness Towards Subordinates	2.86	1.34	.025	-.081	.445**	.345**	.419**	.365**	.541**	.509**	.491**	-.261**
3e	Unethical Behaviors	2.42	1.34	-.034	-.053	.513**	.427**	.481**	.385**	.519**	.516**	.436**	-.123*

#	Variable	Mean	SD	4a	4b	5	5a	5b	5c	6	6a	6b	7
3f	Nepotism	3.53	1.63	-.013	.104	.553**	.469**	.502**	.426**	.460**	.441**	.407**	-.002
4a	Independent Self Construal	4.20	0.73		.138*	-.022	-.093	-.002	.053	.023	-.018	.052	.070
4b	Interdependent Self Construal	4.14	0.72			.120	.082	.063	.176**	.023	-.025	.058	.056
5	Psychological Need Thwarting	2.88	1.06				.878**	.899**	.746**	.549**	.558**	.446**	-.271**
5a	Thwarting for Autonomy	3.25	1.32					.715**	.463**	.488**	.465**	.436**	-.184**
5b	Thwarting for Competence	3.10	1.37						.514**	.514**	.544**	.391**	-.244**
5c	Thwarting for Relatedness	2.30	1.05							.375**	.392**	.291**	-.269**
6	Psychological Contract Breach	2.76	1.23								.942**	.907**	-.329**
6a	Violating Contract	2.44	1.33									.713**	-.261**
6b	Failing to Fulfill Promises	3.16	1.32										-.244**
7	Task Significance	4.50	1.07										