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ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY

SOCIAL SCIENCE INSTITUTE

EFFECTS OF TOXIC EMOTIONAL EXPERIENCES AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT ON POSITIVE WORK BEHAVIORS AND WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIORS

MASTER THESIS

Orou Issiaka SOUNON

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

ANKARA, 2021

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SUPERVISED BY

ASSIST. PROF. DR. HANDE ÖZGEN

ANKARA, 2021

APPROVAL PAGE

This thesis, prepared by Orou Issiaka SOUNON and titled "Effects of Toxic Emotional Experiences and Perceived Organizational Support on Positive Work Behaviors and Withdrawal Behaviors" is accepted by a unanimous vote as a master thesis at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Management and Organization.

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PLAGIARISM PAGE

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ÖZET

Toksik Duygusal Deneyimler ve Algılanan Örgütsel Desteğin Olumlu İş Davranışları ve Geri Çekilme Davranışları Üzerindeki Etkileri

Bu çalışma, olumlu ve olumsuz duygulanım, toksik duygusal deneyimler alt boyutlarının (psikolojik olarak tekrarlayan, bağlantıyı koparan, tüketen) ve algılanan örgütsel desteğin işyeri davranışları (olumlu iş davranışları, psikolojik ve fiziksel geri çekilme davranışları ve muhalif iş davranışları) üzerindeki etkilerini belirlemeyi amaçlamıştır. Ayrıca toksik duygusal deneyimlerin cinsiyet ve yaş gibi demografik faktörlere göre farklılık gösterip göstermediği test edilmiştir. Benin Cumhuriyeti'ndeki kamu ve özel kuruluşlardaki kişilere yönelik nicel araştırma yapılmıştır. Watson, Clark ve Tellegen'in (1988) PANAs Ölçeği, Kiefer ve Barclay'in (2012) Toksik Duygusal Deneyimler Ölçeği, Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson ve Sowa'nın (1986) Algılanan Örgütsel Destek Ölçeği ve Lehman ve Simpson'ın (1992) İş Davranışları Ölçeği veri toplamak için kullanılmıştır. Ankete toplam 306 çalışan (132 kadın, 174 erkek) katılmıştır. Sonuçlara göre kadın çalışanlar daha fazla toksik duygu yaşamaktadır. Sonuçlar ayrıca toksik duygusal deneyim ile algılanan örgütsel destek, psikolojik geri çekilme davranışı ve muhalif iş davranışı arasında düşük düzeyde anlamlı ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Hiyerarşik regresyon sonuçları, yalnızca psikolojik olarak yinelenen alt boyutunun psikolojik geri çekilme davranışlarını yordadığını ortaya koymuştur. Buna ek olarak, olumlu duygulanım, psikolojik olarak yinelenen alt boyut ile azalan algılanan örgütsel destek, olumlu iş davranışlarını ve fiziksel geri çekilme davranışlarını yordamaktadır. Dikkat çekici bulgu, toksik duygular yaşayan ve örgütünden daha az destek algılayan çalışanların muhalif iş davranışları sergileyebilmesidir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: algılanan örgütsel destek, Benin Cumhuriyeti, geri çekilme davranışları, muhalif iş davranışları, olumlu duygulanım, olumlu iş davranışları, olumsuz duygulanım, toksik duygusal deneyimler

ABSTRACT

Effects of Toxic Emotional Experiences and Perceived Organizational Support on Positive Work Behaviors and Withdrawal Behaviors

This study aimed to determine the effects of positive and negative affectivity, toxic emotional experiences sub-dimensions (psychologically recurring, disconnecting, draining) and perceived organizational support on on-the-job behaviors (positive work behaviors, psychological and physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors). In addition, it was tested whether toxic emotional experiences differ according to demographical factors such as gender and age. Quantitative research was carried out targeting people of public and private organizations in Benin Republic. Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) The PANAs Scale, Kiefer and Barclay's (2012) Toxic Emotional Experiences Scale, Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa's (1986) Perceived Organizational Support Scale, and Lehman and Simpson's (1992) On-the-Job Behaviors Scale were used for gathering data. A total of 306 employees (132 females, 174 males) participated in the survey. According to results female employees experience more toxic emotions. The results also showed that there was a low level of significant correlation between toxic emotional experience and perceived organizational support, psychological withdrawal behavior, and antagonistic work behavior. The hierarchical regression results revealed that only psychologically recurring sub-dimension predicts psychological withdrawal behaviors. In addition to this, positive affect, psychologically recurring sub-dimension together with diminished perceived organizational support predict positive work behaviors, and physical withdrawal behaviors. The remarkable finding is that employees who experience toxic emotions and perceive less support from their organization may exhibit antagonistic work behaviors.

Keywords: antagonistic work behaviors, Benin Republic, negative affect, perceived organizational support, positive affect, positive work behaviors, toxic emotional experiences, withdrawal behaviors

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ABBREVIATIONS

PA: Positive Affect/ Positive Affectivity

NA: Negative Affect/ Negative Affectivity

TEE: Toxic Emotional Experiences

POS: Perceived Organizational Support

OST: Organizational Support Theory

RQ: Research Question

CI: Confidence Interval

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis

KMO: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

ULCI: Upper-Level Confidence Interval

LLCI: Lower-Level Confidence Interval

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Research Problem

The impact of employees' emotions, particularly "toxic emotions" on organizations outcomes has long time been a perpetual topic of discussion within both business organizations (Lawrence, 2008) and academic scholars (Armstrong, 1988; Goldman, 2008). Bradshaw's (1988) experiment on "toxic shame" has received much interest in emotionally toxic experiences even though most of these reviews are uniquely focusing on Frost's (2003) prestigious textbook known as "Toxic Emotions at Work: How Compassionate Managers handle Pain and Conflict". In the chapters of his book, Frost developed a conceptual framework in understanding toxic cases as sources and transmitters of detrimental emotions within organizations. This trend has led to the increasing studies in toxicity shown in different workplaces as a distress and pain that strips individuals of their self-esteem and very often disconnects them from their work (Bono et al., 2007; Hsieh et al., 2012; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Organizations and researchers are now looking ways to understand the influences of toxic emotional experiences within workplaces.

Similarly, experiencing emotions such as stress, exhaustion, and fear (Wharton, 1999), sadness, anger, and frustrations (Kiefer & Barclay, 2012) in workplaces have received remarkable attention in literatures (Chu, 2014; Lawrence, 2008). Even though several researchers attributed toxic emotions to its adverse result, its effects have not been fully grasped yet by common people (Chu, 2014; Kiefer & Barclay, 2012; Lawrence, 2008). In this perspective Tina and Barclay (2012) demonstrated that the only way to experience emotion is to consider its toxicity. In her 2017 study, Lawrence reported that toxic behaviors in a working environment create feelings that are extremely harmful to people's physiological well-being inside of an organization as well as meeting organization's ambitions. She has also analyzed massive bodies of research that link the overall organizational phenomena to employees' emotional reactions and individuals work performance to classify events which might cause workplace toxicity. She finally proposed seven toxic organizational occurrences amongst which there are: individuals' intention (workplace harassment or bullying), the insensitivity (empathy and lack of sympathy), incompetence (derived from poor skills), infidelity (absence of loyalty vis a vis other people), perceptions of institutional forces such

as justice, then intrusion like extra work or hiding individuals' private work, and lastly, inevitability that obviously comes from change in organizations. All the above toxic incidents are triggered by the team leaders' attitudes; that why Frost (2003) made the argument that such toxic disasters and events within any place of work give increase to emotions that are considered destructive to both individuals psychological along with physiological health and to the objectives that the organization seeks to achieve.

In general, great support from organizations toward their employees is essential in a workplace. A lack of this support may undermine not only the performance of employees, but also their emotions. That is why Bronston et al. (2017) stated that organizations that lack support, especially for workers' wellness, is the source of their emotional and psychological distresses in the long run. This emphasizes the importance of considering the organizational support for maintaining employees' toxic emotional experiences as low as possible. Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002) found that employees' negative emotional experiences and inappropriate behaviors are reduced when the policies in the organizations they work for are reasonably fair.

Toxic emotional experiences of employees represent an important factor when mentioning positive work behaviors, physical and psychological, and antagonistic withdrawals. According to Frost (2003), toxic emotions originated from negative emotions (anger, anxiety, fear, frustration, etc.) may have significant effects on employees, specifically when they believe the treatment in their regard is deprived by supervisors, they tend to change their behaviors and adopt other several actions to stabilize themselves. Due to this, Frost (2003) thinks that employees may prefer to resign, destructive actions and behaviors, may steal, or damage organization's property. These deceived employees may start spreading rumors or sharing the organization's secrets, and start being antagonistic (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Chu, 2014; Fischer, 2018; Malik et al., 2018).

Therefore, studying and analyzing the effect of toxic emotional experiences and perceived organizational support on positive-work and withdrawal behaviors is an ultimate and inspiring goal. This research intends primary to provide better and more comprehensive framework regarding the effects of toxic emotional experiences and perceived organizational support on individuals' positive work behaviors, withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic behaviors. The implications deriving from these effects will be analyzed. The second objective is to underline the characteristics of toxicity of emotional experiences and clarify the way they are controlled.

1.2. Contextual Framework of The Thesis

In today's organizational environments and workplaces, toxic and bad emotional experiences continue to influence groups and individuals' job behaviors. As negative attitudes and emotions are becoming extremely prevalent, the interest in the field has substantially emerged (Chu, 2014; Stein, 2007) and the way these individuals handle those experiences holds tremendous power to affect their daily lives behaviors, with potential cumulative impacts over long-range outcomes (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007). Within workplaces and organizations, employees' toxic emotional experiences constitute a serious problem as they allow the victim or dissatisfied employee to adapt to abnormal and aversive work conducts and behaviors (Malik et al., 2018). Toxic emotions, which sometimes referred to negative, unpleasant feelings, or emotions are defined as direct responses and reactions to an event that holds individual relevance and is likely to happen when events are conceived to be self-threatening (Adler & Hershfield, 2012). In this condition, individuals realize that they would not have necessary resources, capacity, or ability to control the experience (Kiefer & Barclay, 2012). From another angle, the dubbed "toxicity" associated to the word "toxic" means dangerous, harmful for human being (Lawrence, 2008). Therefore, organizations are now searching reasons and relief mostly from the pain and trauma of demoralization, incidental undermining, abuses of executives, and toxic attitudes that oppress, trivialize, marginalize, deceive, and squash positive criticism or constructive dialogue in the workplace (Goldman, 2008). Moreover, sciences attribute toxicity the meaning of "being poisonous or the extent to which an unfamiliar substance can be poisonous, deadly, lethal, and fatal to living beings" (Stein, 2007). Considering an organization as a patient for instance, Frost (2003) showed the gravity of toxicity and compared toxicity inside of organizational mechanisms to attacks and threats on the patient's immune system, oscillating from low viruses to extremely toxic leukemia cancer that spread to other parts toward its own surrounding tissue (Goldman, 2008; Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013). Toxic behaviors in organizations make the members and employees of the system progressively dysfunctional, leading to long-lasting and dramatic harm. Regrettably, toxicity is widely spread in human systems that it became an ineluctable reality of workplaces and organizational life (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013).

1.3. Research Purposes and Questions

The primary purpose of this research is to explore the impact of toxic emotional experiences and perceived organizational support on positive work behaviors and withdrawal behaviors within different workplaces (in the Republic of Benin). It also engages to examine the related relationships and correlations between experiences of toxic emotions and work and withdrawal "toxicity" at work. Additionally, this research is important and even crucial because it addresses many questions regarding workers experienced toxic emotions in a multi-ethnic and culturally diverse environment like Benin Republic. With available information in my disposition, I can claim that such a study has not been embraced yet in Benin even though various Western researchers have studied toxic emotions and work behaviors elsewhere. Therefore, filling this gap through the present study in the field of management and organizational behaviors in the Republic Benin will be a great achievement. Even though the concept of toxic emotions has becoming more and more popular worldwide in various studies, the model is still unknown by many researchers in the context of Benin; and the few who may know it, endeavors to embrace, and explain the concept of emotion in organizations. In this standpoint, the following research questions have been numbered to provide comprehensive understanding regarding toxic emotional experiences within organizations. The present study aims to provide a better interpretation of toxicity in employees experienced emotions in their workplace, define toxic emotional experiences, and evaluate the appropriateness of this terminology in illustrating these trend and organizational phenomenon. This study will also examine the controlling roles of Positive Affectivity (PA) and Negative Affectivity (NA) of employees as well as the subsequent individuals and organizational outcomes. The positive work and withdrawal behaviors within organizations will be addressed. Finally, the study will scrutinize the mediating power of perceived organizational support variable and inspect how positive emotions and negative emotions are effectively managed to avoid or prevent their occurrences. Based on above objectives, the following research questions have been enumerated to facilitate understandings.

RQ1: Do demographic properties (gender, age, working period) of employees make any difference in terms of toxic emotional experience?

RQ2: Do demographic properties (gender, age, working period) of employees make any difference in terms of positive work behaviors?

RQ3: Do demographic properties (gender, age, working period) of employees make any difference in terms of psychological withdrawal behaviors?

RQ4: Do demographic properties (gender, age, working period) of employees make any difference in terms of physical withdrawal behaviors?

RQ5: Do demographic properties (gender, age, working period) of employees make any difference in terms of antagonistic behaviors?

RQ6. Do PA/NA, toxic emotional experiences (psychologically recurring, disconnecting, draining sub-dimensions), and perceived organizational support significantly predict positive work behaviors?

RQ7. Do PA/NA, toxic emotional experiences (psychologically recurring, disconnecting, draining sub-dimensions), and perceived organizational support significantly predict psychological withdrawal behaviors?

RQ8. Do PA/NA, toxic emotional experiences (psychologically recurring, disconnecting, draining sub-dimensions), and perceived organizational support significantly predict physical withdrawal behaviors?

RQ9. Do PA/NA, toxic emotional experiences (psychologically recurring, disconnecting, draining sub-dimensions), and perceived organizational support significantly predict antagonistic behaviors?

Throughout the combination of different terminologies and concept gathered in this thesis, the following conceptual model has been proposed and constructed (by the research owner) to serve as a guideline and summary of the Research Questions (RQ6, RQ7, RQ8, and RQ9). The model consists of affective variables (positive affect and negative affect), toxic emotional experiences with its different components (psychologically recurring, disconnecting, and draining), perceived organizational support, and on-the job behaviors typified in four different dimensions (positive

work behaviors, psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic behaviors). The model perfectly displays the way different components affect others.

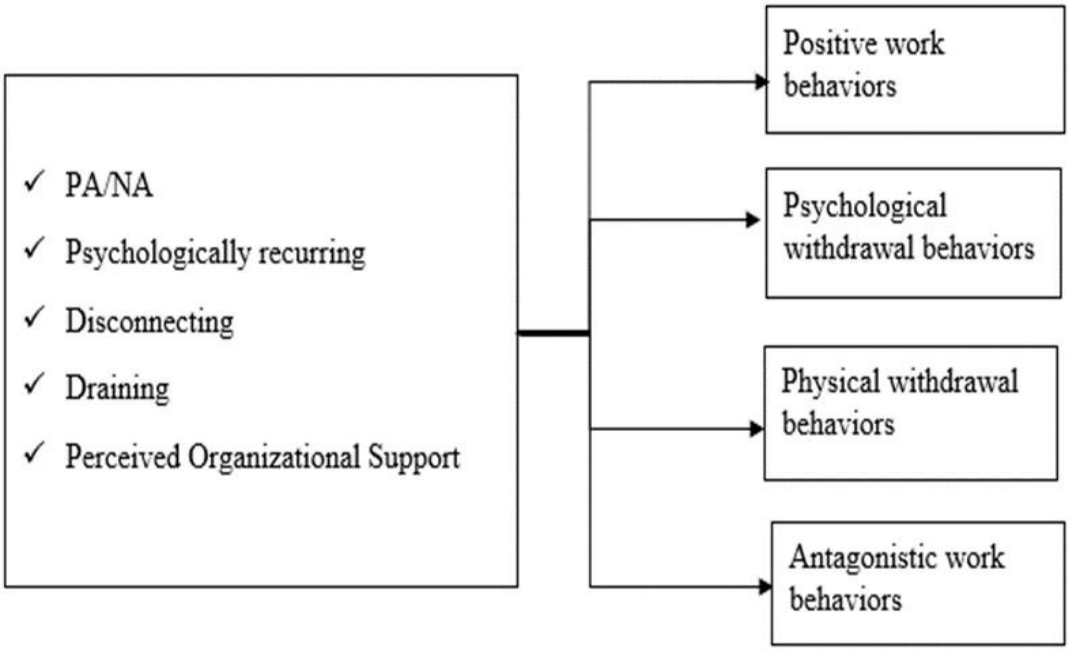


Figure 1. Research Model 1

RQ10. Do perceived organizational support mediate the relationship between toxic emotional experiences and on-the-job behaviors (positive work behaviors, physical and psychological withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors)?

The figure 2 below summarizes the Research Question (RQ10) in which we aim to see if perceived organizational support mediates the relationship between toxic emotional experiences and on-thejob behaviors components (positive work behaviors, physical and psychological withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors).

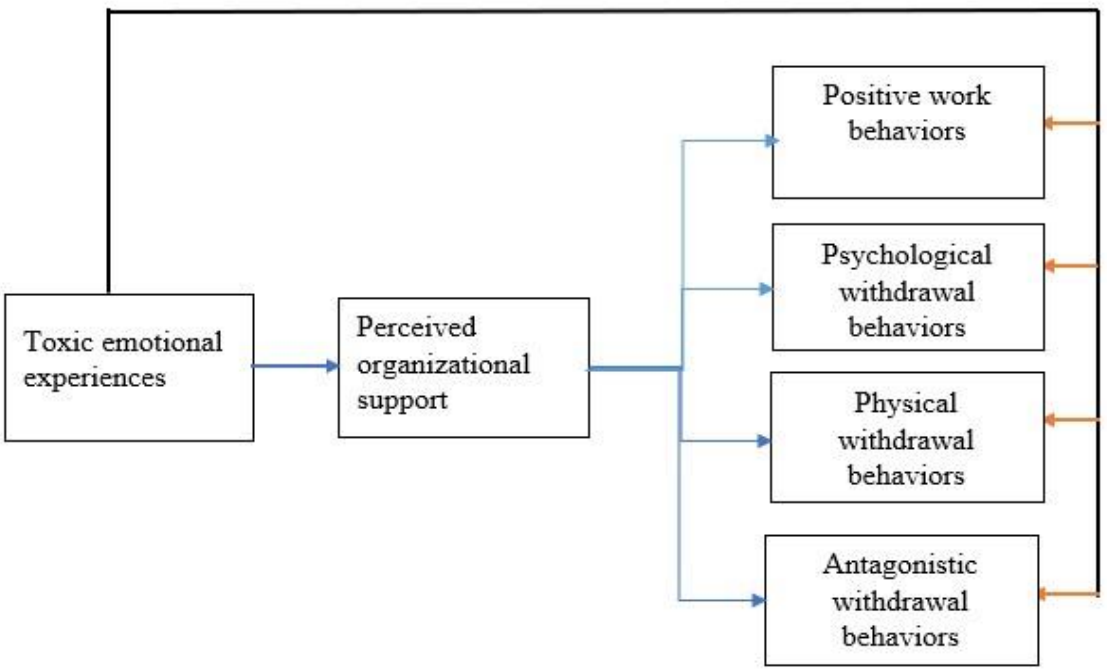


Figure 2. Research Model 2

1.4. Importance of the Research

Lawrence (2017) and Frost (2003) in their investigations on toxic and destructive actions, have indicated with strong evidence that toxic emotions lead to negative performance in terms of employees' behavioral, attitudinal, emotional reactions in organizations. According to Amna Xu Faisal, and Samma (2018), a toxic atmosphere is equivalent to a cancer that harms the entire organization's stakeholders as it is culturally toxic, produces toxic society, toxic leaders, and toxic workers that eventually produce a polluted work environment and therefore toxic organization. As a result, toxic behaviors within organizations induce toxicity in some employees and toxic emotions in others. Importantly, a workplace in which this practice exists can exhibit withdrawal behaviors thru absenteeism, increased departure, and constant lateness which ultimately influence turnover (Anjum et al., 2018). Numerous researchers, included Alan (2008), Anjum & Ming (2018), and

Shaukat & Sattar (2018) have all agreed and written that employees who suffer these abominations are exposed to mental and health complications such as depression, stress, anxiety, tensions, work overload, problems of sleeping, etc. As reported by some theoretical standpoints, many reasons explain why individuals and employees are likely to increase for instance anxiety and stress at work. One is that interacting with managers and supervisors (during performance evaluations) forcibly increases anxiety regarding the performance (Chu, 2014; Lawrence, 2008). The other reason Deci and Ryan (2000) advanced is that employees and/or individuals need freedom and autonomy during their task completions which is often limited by supervisors who usually control and monitor them, leading very often to their confusion and irritation (Bono et al., 2007). Normally, while toxic emotions are widely linked to numerous adverse results such as positive work behaviors, psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic behaviors, positive emotions and attitudes within organizations are highly associated with positive job behaviors (namely affective commitment and trust) and outcome. Kiefer (2005) argued that experienced destructive or unpleasant emotion and individuals or employees' productivity are clearly connected to their perceptions and experiences. Therefore, any unsatisfactory treatment would significantly increase employees' negative emotion. Thus, lack of trust, confidence, loyalty, and withdrawal toward the organizations (Lawrence, 2008). All these facts and reality are the reasons that stimulate this study. Thus, the effect of toxic emotional experiences on positive work behaviors and the mediating effect of perceived organizational support will be studied for the first time in the literature. This will surely add value to the literature. The importance of this research is based on the contribution made.

1.5. Organization of Chapters

The present study principally consists of seven titles, references, and appendices. The first chapter is the introduction section which involves research problem, research purposes and questions, and the importance of research. The second chapter is the literature review part, examined under five subheadings. In each subheading, the concepts of affect, toxic emotional experiences, perceived organizational support, on-the job behaviors, and literatures of other related concepts have been deeply analyzed. The highlights of the research models and hypotheses are also given in the same

chapter. In the third chapter, methodology used in the thesis are discussed. This chapter comprises of sub-sections such as population and sampling procedure, data collection methods, data analysis tools, data analysis. In this section, data cleaning process, reverse coding, outliers, reliability analysis, and factor analysis are also discussed. In the fourth chapter of this study, the findings of the research are assessed. Various sub-titles such as demographic information, independent t-tests are performed to examine the differences between independent variables. There is also one-way ANOVA analysis in which the differences between the groups are examined, hypotheses tests and results were interpreted. The hierarchical regression and mediation analyses were performed using SPSS Process Macro. Then, the discussion section is followed in chapter fifth where the relevance of the research results to similar studies in the literature is examined and examples are given about the similarities and differences. The last section, which is chapter six is entitled conclusion and recommendation. In this part, summary about the aim, the achievement, the results, and further call out for improvements of the research are given.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Affects in Workplace

To our general knowledge, affect and affectivity are factors that constantly appear in plethora of research literatures of organizational psychology and behavior. These concepts are essential aspects that require special attention in analyzing employees affects within different organizational environments. Affect is known to either stimulate or damage individuals and employees' contributions and creativity in their workplaces (Rego et al., 2012). Unfortunately, the improvements in grasping and understanding the essence of affect and affectivity have been limited despite the ever-increasing interest (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Whether positive or negative, affect is a spontaneous feeling experiences which are remarkably distinct but correlated dimensions (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Indeed, "work affect" is a significant aspect in work experiences (Baker et al., 1994). The Theory of Affective Events launched by Cropanzano & Weiss (1996) suggests that cumulated experiences of affect in a workplace, along with other variables and factors such as personality, can influence workers' work-related attitudes and conducts.

2.2. Positive Affect

Positive affect (Baker et al., 1994; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Zanon et al., 2013) and/or Positive affectivity (Davila et al., 1998; Jurist, 2005) are being employed more widely in the selfreport attitude, mood, and emotions literatures (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Iverson et al., 1998). According to Lyubomirsky (2001), Tellegen, Clark, & Watson (1984) and Larsen & Levine (1985), in recent research, these two prominent factors have consistently emerged in affective structure exploration in a variety of cultures as they appear to be the first two dimensions in the analysis of self-rated mood and emotions. More often, the Positive Affect (PA) indicates the degree to which an individual intuitively encounters positive moods (Iverson et al., 1998). In this circumstance, the person tends to feel active, enthusiastic, alert, relax, and even passionate (Watson, 1988). In this logic Watson and Clark (1998) also claimed that high PA engenders high-level of energy on people

with complete concentration and delightful engagement on their different activities and apathy, lethargy, laziness, and sadness are the characteristics of low PA George (1996) and Judge (1992) articulated that positive affectivity indicates the tendency to encounter intensively pleasant emotions and feelings with a high pole excitement and enthusiasm anchored by this dimension. However, these emotions and feelings are absent at the low pole, although negative affect does not necessarily appear (Watson, Clark, & Carey, 1988). Furthermore, PA represents the emotive dimensions of subjective and individuals' well-being characterized by the strength and frequency that they are susceptible to feel emotions positively (e.g., joy and excitement). Snyder and Lopez (2005) stressed that since positive psychology focuses on discovering and understanding what make people happier, investigations about affects have been thoroughly carried out. The PA and NA factors correspond to the dimensions of affective state introduced by Tellegen (1985) who agreed with Clark &Watson (1984) on the correlation of these two variables with the resultant affective dimensions of positive and negative emotionality.

2.3. Negative Affect

Negative Affect (Abraham, 1999) and/or Negative Affectivity (Larsen, 2009; Watson & Clark, 1984) abbreviated as NA are used more broadly in the self-report attitude, mood, and emotions literatures along with positive affect (Grandey et al., 2002; Sears et al., 2016). George and Judge extended their explanation by referring Negative Affectivity as the tendency to experience and feel strongly unpleasant and undesirable feelings. Such emotions and feelings like anger, fear, and anxiety tend to predominate at the high pole (Jurist, 2005; Zanon et al., 2013). These negative emotions and feelings appear to be absent at the low pole, but positive affect does not necessarily exist (Armstrong, 1988). In addition, the Negative Affect dimension subjectively represents unpleasurable actions which involve various aversive states of mood such as nervousness, displeasure, anger, disgust, fear, contempt (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), and that individuals' calmness, serenity, and tranquility derived from their low state of NA experienced by individuals (Suls, 2018). NA represents the emotive dimensions of subjective and individuals' well-being characterized by the strength and frequency that they are susceptible to feel emotions negatively (e.g., anger and sadness) (Zanon et al., 2013). Therefore, PA and NA factors correspond to the

dimensions of affective state introduced by Tellegen (1985) who agreed with Clark &Watson (1984) on the correlation of these two variables with the resultant affective dimensions of positive and negative emotionality.

Based on literatures on PA/NA has been highlighted in different ways. In this context, the figure 3 below was designed by the researcher to facilitate interpretations regarding the significance and characteristics of affectivity dimensions. In the figure, it is clearly shown that high positivity of affectivity is significantly associated with positive traits of affects/emotions and conversely high negativity of affectivity is negatively related to negative traits of affects/emotions.

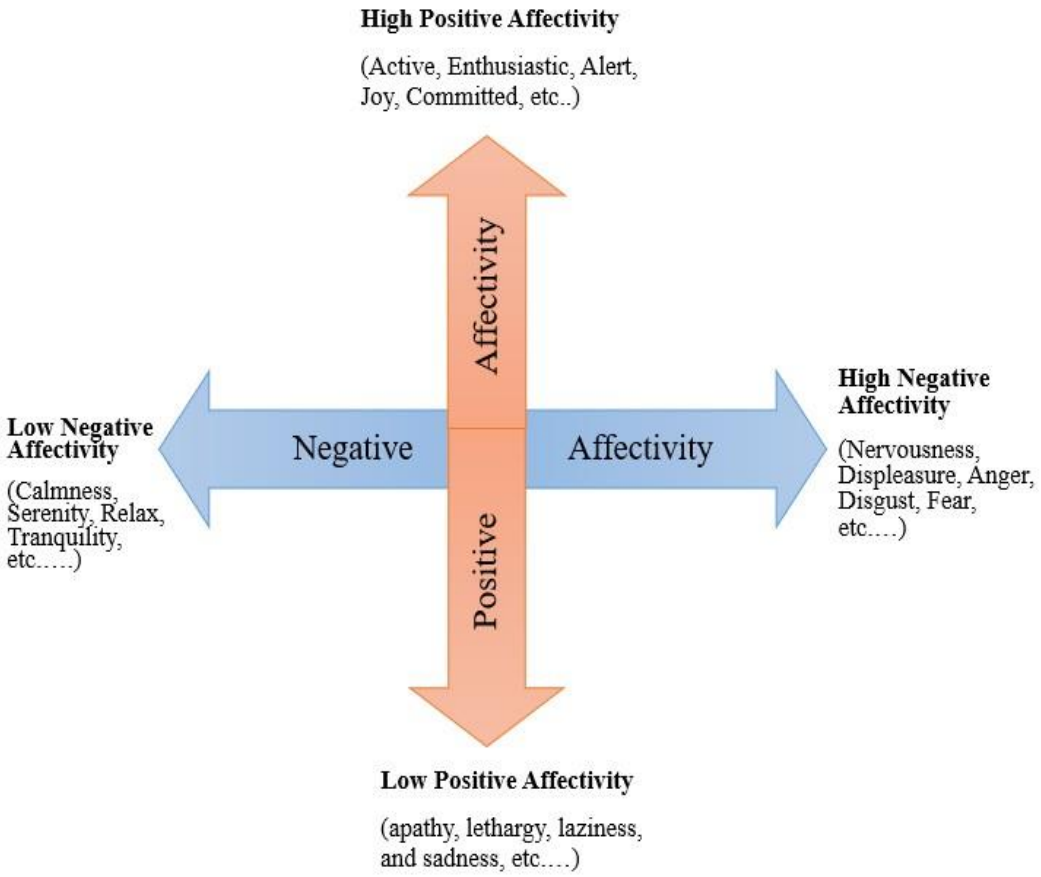


Figure 3: Understanding Positive and Negative Affectivity

Source: Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988 (Designed by the author)

2.4. Toxic Emotional Experiences in Workplaces

Today, organizational studies have immensely acknowledged not only the emotional characteristics of business organizations, but also, recognized the nature of workplaces as an emotional arena and therefore, the emotionally saturated environment of people's relevant working experiences (Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004). Similarly, Griffin & Danna (1999) mentioned the existence of considerable literatures on organizational factors related to employees' well-being and stresses; and the core assumption of this analysis is that managers and supervisors have an influence on employees' emotional responses. The ground of the present review commences with the definition of Frijda (1998). She defines emotions as kinds of experiences in shape of "biological responses" to environmental factors that ultimately result in both psychological and physical transformations. According to Schwarz (1983), such emotional reactions serve as triggering mechanisms for human organisms to adapt their behavior patterns to suit changes of the environment. He also underlined that while positive emotional experiences are the prerequisites and essential requirements for individuals' welfare, negative emotional experiences transmit signals to people that there are troublesome issues that requires resolutions. Even though emotions are being discussed in numerous theoretical and methodological constructs like social psychology, philosophy, and anthropology (Houge Mackenzie & Kerr, 2013; Hsieh et al., 2012), there are still controversies and ambiguities that envelop the framework of human affective responses (AI-Serkal, 2006; Wen et al., 2019). In addition to this, studies upon the functions of emotions in business organizations seem to be constrained, however, from the standpoint of organizational behavior as well as organizational psychology, emotions are thought to be closely connected with organizational phenomena through several aspects (Houge Mackenzie & Kerr, 2013; Hsieh et al., 2012; Wharton, 1999). For this reason, Frost (2003) revealed that employees who are unmotivated, unsatisfied, and unhappy with their employer organizations try to disengage and withdraw from their employment. Furthermore, psychologists and academics have become more conscious of the fact that if individuals do not perceive the emotional view of organizational change and attitudes, they are highly improbable to be aware of the eventual counter-productive practices including biased organizational policies and oppressive subordinates' actions.

But what does emotion really mean? First, to understand this term of emotion, it is imperative to learn what contain different terminologies in this line of work (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017). In general terms, investigators analyzing emotions in workplaces or within business entities should be aware of some misunderstandings and inconsistencies over the assessment of emotions as well as the differences between the concepts namely emotion, feelings, affect, and moods as well (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Lee, 2020). In their research, Dasborough et. al. (2008) have motivated scholars to limit the findings generalization often made of evidenced based measurements without demonstrating what has been recorded and how it has been investigated. The specific argument under this context is that four indicators previously mentioned (emotions, affect, feelings, and moods) are interchangeable terms being utilized even though they are explicitly divergent from each other. They also advocated investigators must avoid employing the word “emotion" like a general term for other distinct affective constructs. Mentioning emotions at workplaces, it is indispensable to reveal if not the dark side of emotions, the toxic characters of emotional experiences.

Thus, emotional experiences possess toxic character that can be dangerous for people who display them (Goldman, 2008; Suls, 2018). In agreement with above, Diener (1995) asserted that toxic emotional experiences generate pervasive negative feelings (feelings used to interpret severe unpleasant emotional experiences both expressed and experienced ones, (i.e.: anger, shame, fear, and apprehension) inside an organization. Evidently, emotions within business organizations framework are probably the most restricted and limited in negative emotions vicinity by receiving less attention from the research community despite the strategic role portrayed in fashioning the organizations setting (Liu, 2016; Salam et al., 2018). That is why, Flam (1993), in her investigation of the so-called “greedy organizations”, discusses exactly how workplaces create embarrassment of fear and shame, anxiety, anger, and guilt as emotions that are used to reinforce other control systems and mechanisms; and by observing employers and supervisors who permanently reside in the eyeline and shadow of socioeconomic unpredictability, she emphasized that the endemic and widespread anxiety they perceive beneath their exhibitions of enthusiasm. To extend this description, Frost (2003) identifies emotional reactions like depression, sadness, anger, bitterness, and frustration to be heavily predominant in organization's culture. Furthermore, in his overview on “toxicity” in workplaces, Frost (2003) addresses negative emotional experiences and feelings that emerged because of day-to-day organizational operations and argues that toxicity rises when

such experiences are controlled in a detrimental and harmful way instead of adopting a curative manner. Businesses have understood that workplace pollutants and toxins hold effects of poisoning, polluting, and contaminating individuals, organization members and teams, and the whole organizational system as well which may diffuse persistently (Kulik et al., 2009). Several toxins produce impairment and disorders that might be directly linked to organization employees and supervisors or can be a key determinant of nasty and detrimental workplace policies because organizations can produce their own toxins (Goldman, 2008). How can toxic emotional reactions and experiences be described to make them understandable? Indeed, based on the assumptions, Lawrence (2017) argued that although toxic emotions have presently become a hot topic, no researcher not even Frost (2003) has intended to clearly elucidate or define the phrase "toxic emotions". Extremely harmful and risky, the word "toxic" is generally associated with something poisonous (Gregor & Smith, 2009) and tends to be very bad for one's mental health (Fischer, 2018). From this definition, toxic or destructive emotional experiences are affective reactions and states emanating from unpleasant and negative emotions with toxicity as a fundamental theme around (Suls, 2018). Therefore, if organizations are unable to deal constructively with toxic emotions (Chu, 2014), the negative impact they have on employees, such as reducing their morale, selfconfidence, and self-esteem, hope, threatening work morale and efficiency, ultimately affect the organization itself (Chu, 2014; Stein, 2007).

That is because such powerful and strong negative feelings that consume energy are likely to contribute to workers to neglect their jobs, colleagues, and the organization. Therefore, the development of toxic emotions constitutes a significant organizational problem. When confronting negative incidents in their daily lives, individuals may prefer to faces and suppress negative feelings or try to express them (Adler & Hershfield, 2012). Pennebaker, Kiecolt, and Glaswer (1988) indicated that both strategies have advantages and disadvantages, however failing to tackle negative situations can eventually contribute to greater levels of stress for individuals. Larsen

(1985) advised a third approach which consists of "take the good with the bad", which would perhaps benefit individual in tough moments through enabling him/her to endure and confront obstacles and create meaning in his/her daily life adversities (eudemonic outcome) and to feel satisfied in his\her wake (hedonic outcome). Negative emotional responses take place when the incident provokes a person's core affect to turn negative due to a project or work failure, which can

result in stakeholders to either overvalue the possibility of adverse effects or undervalue the possibility of positive outputs for tasks or project activities (Shepherd & Cardon, 2009).

Toxic and harmful emotional experiences embody a sustained-affective circumstance that covers three main dimensions namely psychologically recurring, disconnecting, and draining (Chu, 2014; Kiefer & Barclay, 2012) as indicated in the figure 4 below.

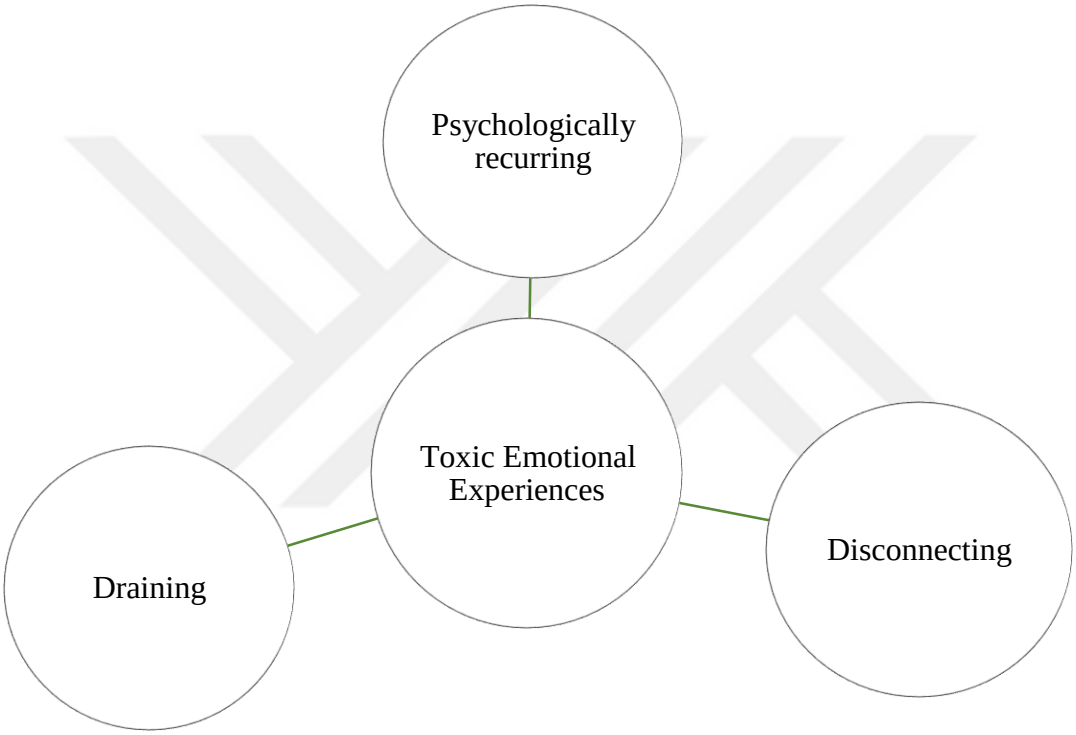


Figure 4. The three dimensions of toxic emotional experiences

Source: Kiefer & Barclay, 2012 (Designed by the author)

2.4.1. Psychologically Recurring

Psychologically recurring dimension invokes experiences that weigh on people, feels psychologically unresolved, and/or the individuals fear or negatively anticipate a reoccurrence (Chu, 2014; Kiefer & Barclay, 2012). Although destructive, negative, and/or unpleasant

emotions are closely related to very specific actions and events, toxic emotional experiences are psychologically or emotionally recurrent. According to some studies, many reasons explain the occurrence of this type of dimension (Kiefer & Barclay, 2012). Primary, it is conceivable that undesirable emotions and sentiments failed to disperse because individuals are not familiarized or do not develop policies and strategies to successfully manage the situation which may create distress and fear or anticipation that the incident will reoccur (Bartunek & Frost, 2004; Kiefer & Barclay, 2012). Secondly, psychological recurrence is likely to arise when people continue processing the events or constantly fail in making sense of experience (Bartunek & Frost, 2004; Kiefer & Barclay, 2012; Stein, 2007). Wright (1999) stressed that because of the emotional and psychological burden or weight psychologically recurring places on individuals, it can be qualified as poisonous or toxic.

2.4.2. Disconnecting Emotional Experiences

Referring to employees' detachment from their colleagues and coworkers, disconnecting dimension indicates the disengagement and disconnection of individuals from their social and common network (Chu, 2014; Kiefer & Barclay, 2012). Furthermore, the draining dimension denotes the psychological and physical energy diminution related to these experiences. Unlike adverse or negative emotions that attract attention and contribute to increased concentration on the situation or social network, experienced toxic emotions often describe one's social network disconnection either caused by others or by him/herself such as feeling of isolation (Scherer, 1984). Negative and undesirable emotions may conduce to detachment and disconnection in numerous ways. Firstly, people or individuals with a lack of adequate cognitive, emotional, and sentimental resources could vigorously disengage themselves from others to focus more on situations or avoid disturbing and bothering others (Kiefer & Barclay, 2012). This could be toxic because it diminishes the feeling of connectedness of individuals, raises sense of social alienation, moves focus away from the job, and undermines the perceived value of the work of others (Kiefer & Barclay, 2012).

Secondly, when a person's negative feelings are not sufficiently understood or acknowledged by other people, he/she may feel like his/her problems have not been noticed or heard; or he/she feels like he/she lost respect within a group (Chu, 2014; Kiefer & Barclay, 2012; Stein, 2007). This

might generate an awkwardness and embarrassment that render it difficult for others to be with him/her. Consequently, disconnection may arise as one's negative attitudes have not yet been appropriately attended to.

2.4.3. Draining Emotional Experiences

As people continue to constantly experience unpleasant feelings and emotions, they disrupt their behavioral and cognitive processes and turn their focus and intentions to an underlying issue (Bartunek & Frost, 2004). This therefore shows that negative emotions are directly associated with events and thus are described as short-lived occasions (Chu, 2014; Kiefer & Barclay, 2012). As far as draining is involved, while negative emotions prepare individuals for practices and actions, emotionally toxic experiences may leave individuals and people believing that their strength is drained or absorbed by the experiences. Such that, toxic emotional experiences could indeed immediately take impact on the level of mental as well as physical energy of individuals, which might leave them feeling overwhelmed and emotionally drained by these experiences. Pennebaker (1997) argued that negative attitudes and emotions are consistently connected with draining component of toxic emotional experiences, therefore, negative emotions are undesirable experiences that people, and individuals tend to avoid. As a matter of fact, negative emotions that decimate extremely the mental, emotional, and physical resources of individuals, and require individuals to suppress the experience, may make a significant contribution to a draining toxic state. This dimension is deemed as toxic because it requires additional support for individuals to control their emotional responses, that may possibly intensify psychological and physical stresses.

2.4.4. Relationships Between PA/NA and Toxic Emotional Experiences

As previously stated in this research, toxic emotional experiences are due to intensive long lasting negative emotional situations, thus, the relationships between PA/NA and toxic emotional experiences will be drawn based on PA/NA and negative emotions experiences.

While the tendency to experience and feel positive emotions is called positive affect and interacting with other individuals positively, negative affect involves undergoing through negative emotions (Ozbas, 2019). This negative affect might also occur if individuals tend to feel negative emotions and act more negatively within their surroundings (Grandey et al., 2002; Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016). In literatures, positive affect and positive affectivity are usually used interchangeably and are expressions of positive emotions such as enthusiasm, contentment, joy, cheerfulness, while negative affect is also usually interchanged with positive affectivity which express negative emotions such as fear, sadness, anger, or anxiety (Cabanac & Cabanac, 2016; Grandey et al., 2002; Ozbas, 2019). Mentioning the unpleasant emotions, Marchand (2016) describes negative emotions as unpleasant or unhappy emotions which induce in individuals to express negative affect towards events. Ekman (1999) found out six primary terms of emotions (anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness, and surprise). Basically, the term "affect" is a more technical approach to designate emotion, however, it describes emotions or feelings that individuals experience, express, and display, particularly regarding the influence of these emotions on individuals' decision making (Larsen, 2009).

In workplaces, individuals' emotional manifestations may cause affective reactions (positive or negative affective), which can significantly affect their decisions through different forms of affects (Diener & Emmons, 1984; van Kleef, 2014). Feasibly, individuals tend to relate these affective states to their current condition, relying on their attitudes, feelings, and moods to inform their decisions (Diener et al., 1985; Watson & Clark, 1984). Inappropriate emotions experienced under some circumstances are likely to induce negative emotions in individuals (An et al., 2017). Consequently, the relative intensity of affective reactions specifically, negative ones increase the extent to which emotional manifestations are perceived as unacceptable or unfavorable (Diener & Emmons, 1984; Larsen, 2009; van Kleef, 2014). Displays of negative emotions like those of anger and frustration can be viewed as more undesirable and can trigger adverse downstream effects because they evoke negative affective responses in perceivers to the extent that an organization places a higher emphasis on positive emotional expressions (Abraham, 1999; Diener et al., 1985; Watson & Clark, 1984). Negative affective tendencies (frustration, fear, and feelings of hopelessness) were linked to excessive risk of chronic diseases on individuals (Fitness, 2000; Graham et al., 2008) and employees (Ozbas, 2019; Patel, 2019). This implies that a widespread aversion to negative emotions, which are at the foundation of NA, are determining factors of mental

disorders (Härtel, 2008; Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016). For instance, NA constitutes a broad facet of personality with a lot of evidence (Tiro & Lee, 2013) and does have a great number of predictive and descriptive potential because it touches into individuals' recurring attributes (Cabanac & Cabanac, 2016; Patel, 2019; Van Dyk, 2015). The 7-item NA scales, explicitly developed to evaluate this stable disposition to feel negative emotions, have been used to accurately analyze NA (Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016). Conceptually, it is a tendency of viewing the world in a negative way, which leads to self-blame, anger, and unhappiness. Therefore, individuals with high level of NA can manifest a rigorous psychological framework which may lead to unpleasant emotions (An et al., 2017). Feldman (1996) argued that many researchers have indicated that emotions at workplaces, mainly the occurrence of emotional discomfort is influenced by individual attributes such as PA/NA as well as extraversion. Abraham (1998) discovered no connection between these unpleasant emotions and NA despite the limited scientific evidence up to now. In their study, Grandey, Tam, and Brauburger (2002) claimed that PA basically represents a positive perception on life and that way of perceiving the world can lead to more constructive assessments of events. They said that individuals with high PA score have satisfactory coping abilities and are more optimistic in their assessments of employment events. As a result, those with higher PA may be more likely to experience more positive emotions at work than those with lower PA. Additionally, they described NA as experiencing a pessimistic attitude toward life and stressed that this pessimistic viewpoint, which is often followed by a reduction in dealing with resources, can be linked to the long-term negative emotional experiences, thus, toxic emotional experiences.

2.5. Perceived Organizational Support

2.5.1. Definition and Implications of Perceived Organizational Support

To our common knowledge, the Perceived Organizational Support concept (generally abbreviated POS) substantially appears in organizational behavior literature analyses; and illustrates the recognition and acknowledgement of employees that the company they are working for recognizes and perceives their efforts, contributions, participation (Bel, 2006), and therefore cares for their comfort, happiness, and welfare or well-being (Li Zhang et al., 2016). POS does install a sense of duty and positive attitude for workers who, by their efforts and hard work, repay what their

employing organization has given them in terms of merit and reward (Penttinen et al., 2019). The notion of POS has longtime been presented as an assurance appraisal that care and assistance will be readily accessible for workers from the entire organization whenever deemed necessary to smoothly undertake employees' work and therefore to cope better with workplace stressors (Ajmal et al., 2015; Sulaiman et al., 2019). To the general knowledge, there exist great numbers of empirical investigations that aligned upon POS agenda, nevertheless, the literatures on this topical concept have not yet been assessed deeply (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Likewise, POS has been presented by Shore (1995) as a normative exchange arrangement where the organization or the entity treats its entire employees incredibly well. In return, these workers build a sense of commitment to fulfill their organization's objectives and goals (Bel, 2006). Interestingly, POS is exclusively centered on employees' positive experience of treatment by their employing company. In the workplace context indeed, supervisors and managers are commonly designated to play the role of agents within organizations, are responsible for directing, monitoring, and coordinating employees' activities and their performance level (Penttinen et al., 2019; Stein, 2007). Obviously, these employees may shape their impressions and perceptions through positive or negative behaviors from the superiors showing the degree to which the organization is supporting them (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Bel, 2006; Kulik et al., 2009; Penttinen et al., 2019).

According to the Social Exchange Principle, employees who perceive high level organizational support typically provide better outcomes because they would have the ability to concentrate on personal development to improve themselves and to adequately benefit their business organizations through gaining knowledge and expertise which are fundamental elements of workplace progress. From another stance, POS may eliminate or reduce employees' stresses (Tan et al., 2019) as well as encouraging and empowering them in becoming more risk-takers as they believe the company values and supports their actions (Jeung et al., 2017). Furthermore, Eisenberger et al. (1990) claimed that POS is associated with organizational engagement and positive work affect, and therefore, individual who is dedicated to his\her jobs is more enthused and motivated to involve in positive workplace behaviors. These types of individuals can develop extra-role practices within organizations, such as looking for means to enhance their actual work productivity (Sher et al., 2019). Jeung (2017) and Eisenberger & Rhoades (2002) validated the opinion of Eisenberger et al (1990) who declared that supported employees are spurred to recompense their company by

maximizing operations that are enormously profitable to the organization even if the task is not allocated.

In consonance with the principles of reciprocity, the perceived support of an organization implies supportive treatments and assistance that create a spirit of perceived obligation and sense of duty between employees who, in return, feel empowered to make massive efforts to achieve business goals said Coyle and Conway (2005). POS remarkably reflects the willingness of an organization to prize and reward the contributions made by workers on behalf of their employer organizations (Brockner et al., 2006). The significance of an organization to display employees supports and treat them nicely pushed Eisenberger (1986), Hochwarter (2006), and Gorgievski & Hobfoll (2008) to claim that organizational assistance could go beyond providing the basic socioemotional requirements to employees and mentioned that this might be in physical form or monetary support to name a few. In parallel to this, Eisenberger and Rhodes (2002) have reported that during the period of crisis for instance, POS might become essential and productive in terms of sustaining and increasing employee attitudes and behaviors as well as work performance (Brockner et al., 2006; Rineer et al., 2017). As emotional incongruities within work environments are perceived to be a state of embarrassment, distress, irritation, and discomfort because of differences between exhibited and felt emotions (Greve et al., 2005; Rasool et al., 2019), perceived support of organization should provide mechanisms and tools that permit employees to better deal with workplace tensions (Lam et al., 2016), thus helping them significantly reduce these feelings and discomfort. In an environmentally responsible workplace, superiors, by applying legitimate powers and rewarding systems to achieve the expected behaviors among employees are able control and influence their employees' behaviors (Dawley et al., 2008). In accordance with this, Tyler (1986) pointed out that workers admire and respect senior manager and\or supervisor who is fair in his\her judgements and decisions and able to effectively establish an equal and fair working atmosphere (Arnold & Dupré, 2012; Dawley et al., 2008). Additionally, employees would completely be comfortable, happy, pleased, or enthusiastic because their employing organization acknowledges their rights, respects their dignity, privileges, and concerned about their health and wellness or their superiors do listen carefully to their ideas and opinions, whereas employees would have tendency to become more furious, nervous, and frustrated if they identified that their commander exposes inappropriate behaviors and conducts, mainly not discouraging or redressing their workplace misconducts (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009; Rineer et al., 2017).

2.5.2. Theories of Perceived Organizational Support

The Organizational Support Theory generally shortened OST is a well-known theory in organization behavioral literatures. This theory is characterized by the extent upon which individuals realize that their employers\organizations value not only in terms of their investments, achievements, and level of commitments, but also concern about individuals' health as well as well-being (Wen et al., 2019). To support the idea, Huntington & Sowa (1986) and Shore (1995) announce organization support theory as an organization's ability, readiness, and willingness to incentivize or reward any employee's efforts and contributions to extra works and meet their socioemotional needs. In this sense, workers tend to cultivate global perceptions and beliefs regarding the degree to which an organization cares about their wellness and supports them. The OST expects individuals to become more conscientious and diligent in their day-to-day activities through recognizing that the organization they work for is determined to reciprocate in return with valuable individualistic and socio-emotional tools and resources (Wen et al., 2019). The concept of OST acknowledged as a paramount attribute in recently years and built-up a growing attention in organizational settings (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009; Rhoades et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In line with the OST, Eisenberger's (1986) review highlights that the tendency and willingness of workplace individuals to assign manlike values, characteristics, and qualities to the organizations empower the constructions of the perceived organization support. In another study, Levinson (1965) did report that actions and activities performed by personnel of an organization may be signs of the intentions of the organization instead of as being solely linked to his/her personal interests.

The social exchange principle alongside with OST claimed that resources (i.e., monetary or appreciation rewards) offered to an individual seem to be more important and valuable if based on voluntary choice instead of just a situational context beyond the control of the resource provider (Arnold & Dupré, 2012; Hammer et al., 2011). This kind of discretionary assistance is accepted as symbol and sign, and that somehow the giver truly recognizes and appreciates the receiver's accomplishments and performance (Assiri et al., 2020; Li Zhang et al., 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Sher et al., 2019). Logically, organizational incentives as well as suitable conditions of employment, like those of payments, earnings, promotional offers, career growth, and

influences over organizational procedures all lead directly to POS when the worker realizes that they are the subject of discretionary events of the organization other than collective agreements (Gero, 1989; Li Zhang et al., 2016). But mostly, because the senior managers serve as the workplace's officials, witnessing workers receive pleasant level of care from these senior managers would surely reinforce the organization's POS perception; and nature of this correlation determines the extent to which employees recognize the superiors' actions within the organization (Dawley et al., 2008).

Additionally, the theory of organizational support embraces the psychological mechanisms that underlie the adverse impacts of perceived organizational support in several ways (Arnold & Dupré, 2012; Glozah, 2013). Primary, based on principles of reciprocity, perceived organizational support must create a perceived obligation for the best of the organization and support the company to achieve its goals and targets. Secondly, the values of care, good treatment, appreciation, approval, and esteem represented by perceived organizational support ought to meet socio-emotional requirements that lead employees to better integrate the overall organizational membership and leadership standing into their personal value and identity. Thirdly, perceived organizational support must reinforce workers' beliefs and convictions that their business organization understands and prizes high results. These approaches ought to have successful results not only for workers such as maximized job satisfaction and positive work atmosphere, but also for the organization like high affective loyalty and commitment, increased job performance, and minimized staff turnover (M. Liu & Xie, 2020).

2.5.3. The Relationship Between Toxic Emotional Experiences and POS

As described earlier, toxic expressions of emotions derive from negative feelings of individuals. Therefore, the link established here is between negative feelings of emotions and the perceived organizational support. Negative emotions represent the ones devalued by individuals and render them look bad (Greve et al., 2005; Suls, 2018). It is considered that low POS within organizations as a stimulus that may lead to negative emotions; and may later provoke toxic emotions if persisted (Goldman, 2008; Kulik et al., 2009; Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004). Even though lower level of POS from early studies did not fundamentally reveal negative correlations between employees and/or

individuals and their employer organizations (Li Zhang et al., 2016; Sulaiman et al., 2019), individuals' negative emotions could potentially increase due to a low POS perception (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Gero, 1989).

According to a recent research, O'Neill et al. (2009) proposes that low level of POS is related to the precise feeling and emotion of fear and/or anger and that positive attitude is in general correlated with high level of POS. Remarkably, POS is related to some level of recurring pains in employees and investigations shown that high POS may reduce the destructive effects of these chronic pains on workers' performance (M. Liu & Xie, 2020; Ni & Wang, 2015). Therefore, perceived organizational support represents an essential variable to examine regarding employees' emotional reactions within their workplace (M. Liu & Xie, 2020).

The perceived organizational support variable has been appointed by the current research owner because previous studies have proven its buffering and cushioning role within negative work environment (Brockner et al., 2006). Although there is absence or relatively limited evidence exploring significant associations between negative emotions and POS, there is an independent emotional approach literature that investigates both positive and negative emotions together.

2.5.4. Relationships Between POS and On-the-Job Behaviors

The present study uses the theory of organizational support approach to develop various propositions of positive work-related behaviors to enable assumptions of different components under job behaviors. A list of literature reviews has identified a clear negative association between POS and the decisions of employees to leave or stay (turnover behavior) and continue working for the same organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; M. Liu & Xie, 2020; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). Previous academic studies have also highlighted POS as an antecedent to employees' engagement within an organization (Dai & Qin, 2016; Li Zhang et al., 2016; Luo, 2020).

The Organizational Support Theory (OST) emphasizes the psychological changes triggered by the lack of support toward organizations' employees (N. Glozah, 2013; Sher et al., 2019; Yu, 2011). For instance, when organization members feel they are being considered (Panaccio &

Vandenberghe, 2009; Sulaiman et al., 2019) and treated with admiration and regard (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Zhang et al., 2016), they are ready to make more effort, invest themselves, and perform better than usual (Tan et al., 2019). In addition to this, when employees and staffs feel care, protection, approvals, and support from their organizations (Eroğluer et al., 2020; Ni & Wang, 2015), they eventually fulfill and help the company accomplish its goals through the organization membership incorporation (Luo, 2020). Thus, it is presumed though when members feel all the above mentioned and recognize that all the top management personal treat them ethically, they believe that their socio-emotional requirements have been met which leads workers to display better engagement and commitment with the organization (Dai & Qin, 2016; Luo, 2020; Rosafizah et al., 2020). It is therefore significant to prove these interrelations between perceived organizational support and the different components of on-the-job behaviors to boost the Organizational Support Theory. Shortly, employees have tendency to offer devotion, loyalty, commitment, and dedication to their employing organizations through decreased tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover; all these accompanied by increased performance mindset.

2.6. On-The-Job Behaviors

In recent literatures, job and work behaviors have been the focus of plethora discussions as they appear to be influential dimensions that have constantly emerged. Wayne, Lehman, Dwayne (1992) pointed that job behaviors enclose psychological withdrawal, physical withdrawal, positive work behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors. Indeed, as argued by Fuentes (1989) withdrawal behavior refers to behaviors and attitudes toward the workplace negligence behaviors and that withdrawal behavior patterns have been scrutinized to obtain financial losses based on assumptions that withdrawal behaviors such as absence, lateness, and turnover, etc. are an additional cost to organizations stated Sawyer (1989). In addition, withdrawal form of behaviors may alter more drastic behavioral types, as per antagonistic comportment or behavior. In this context, antagonistic conducts and behaviors describe the abuse and misuse of super-power of individuals in the workplace (Turan, 2015). Furthermore, from physical and psychological actions of withdrawal to antagonistic conducts and behaviors, the dark and bad side of personality could be clarified with several adverse and destructive behavioral results. As addressed in numerous previous reviews of

literatures, in this current study we emphasize the four distinctive levels of the "on the job behaviors" (Lehman & Simpson, 1992; Turan, 2015). Moreover, "on the job behaviors" deployed here consists of a combination of positive work behaviors, psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic behaviors summarized in the following figure 5.

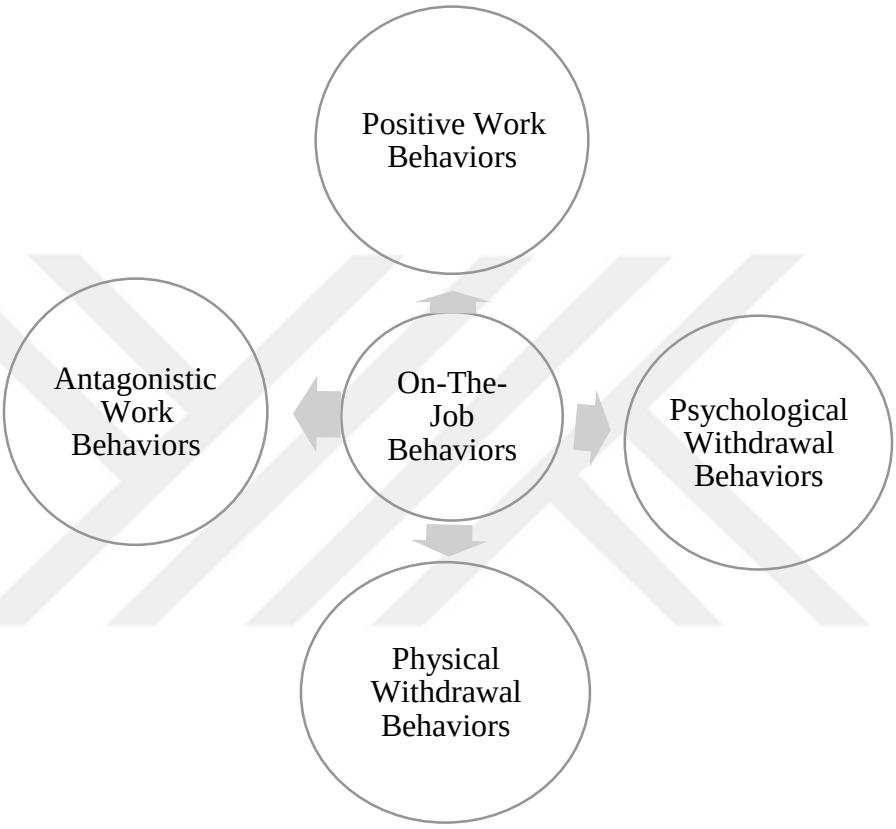


Figure 5: Components of "on-the-job behaviors"

Source: Lehman & Simpson, 1992 (Designed by the author)

2.6.1. Positive Work Behaviors

Being embraced in recent "on the job behaviors" study literatures, the Positive Work Behaviors (Which is shortened PWB) involve good manners and conducts of an individual and/or employee in his/her workplace (Donmez-Turan, 2015; Lehman & Simpson, 1992). It entails such aspects as

volunteering and undertaking for additional work, kindness, courtesy, generosity, and timeliness (Donmez-turan, 2015; Lehman & Simpson, 1992; Moore et al., 2012). A positive workplace behavior well describes employees who are motivated, engaged, committed, and efficient (Bindl & Parker, 2010; Moore et al., 2012). Therefore, these employees are likely to champion organizations' values, cooperate and collaborate with others, welcome new and innovative ideas. Cattell (1947) listed words and expressions that best fit individuals and employees with tendency to display positive work behaviors. He argued that these individuals are likely to be altruistic by showing selfless and kindness concerns for others, they care and have desire to support people. They also compassionate and show sympathy, considerate others, possess faithful character and detain loyalty. By treating all human beings equally, fairly, these people demonstrate their sincerity, thoughtful minded, honesty, and impartial personality with strong spirit. Furthermore, Organ (1990) considered Organizational Citizenship Behaviors; commonly abridged OCB as a form of Positive Work Behaviors, defined as work actions and practices that exceed the required job/task of an employee. Based on their investigations, Russell and Howes (1997) expected that employees at work would be more likely to spend and invest their efforts on behalf of a company, organization, or enterprise that fulfills their requirements and satisfies their needs instead of terrorizing, threatening, and destroying them. In a unique study conducted on work-performance by Griffin (2007) identified three distinctive types of positive behaviors of work named as proficiency, proactivity, and adaptivity. Proficiency characterizes the fulfillment and execution of a clearly required role, like a call center agent/customer service representative who efficiently responds to incoming calls in compliance with the structured guidelines (Bindl & Parker, 2010). This kind of proficiency and professional behaviors, which did receive great attention in the academic and research literatures have principally been remarkable in the last years when the workplace was quite predictable, and the work tasks were strictly defined. However, due to rapid growth of globalization, acquisitions and mergers, dynamic changes, and complexities in organizations framework, it has extremely become essential for the organizations survival to have workers with not only participation and engagement spirit in proficiency and creativity, but also those with proactive and adaptive behaviors. Simply, adaptivity describes employees who positively react toward changes at their work, whereas proactivity refers to employees who capable to adjust and adapt actively to their work (Frohman, 1997). For instance, a customer support service provider can react to evolving customer needs in an effective way (adaptivity) as well as suggesting

improved solutions to cope with customer enquiries (proactivity) along with picking up the phone calls designated as proficiency. Pertinently, Griffin et al. (2007) have recognized that all these components of employees' work behaviors are driven at completely distinct thresholds. Employees can certainly ensure that their duties are all carried out correctly; this is an individual work proficiency. Employees can organize and coordinate activities with their colleagues and coworkers; this is called team member or teamwork proficiency. Employees can also pledge loyalty toward their organization through defending and preserving their image and reputation; what is called proficiency of organization members. These three behavior patterns; executing individual's tasks and responsibilities, coordinating, and collaborating with others, and displaying loyalty and commitment, are all seen as symbols of proficiency at work since it is possible to predict and prescribe the requirements for them (Andreas, 2011; Donmez-turan, 2015; Moore et al., 2012). Despite the general propositions and arguments that employees work involvement should encourage positive behaviors, there is still lack of conceptual clarity, partly as distinctions and correlations amongst different forms of performance have not yet been initiated (Bindl & Parker, 2010).

2.6.2. Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors

Psychological behaviors of withdrawal refer to the acts taken by individuals or employees when they are psychologically, mentally, or emotionally disconnected, disengaged, and detached from a group, team, or organization (Lehman & Simpson, 1992). When the organizational climate (working environment) becomes unpleasant and uncomfortable, organizations members mainly employees will often attempt to disengage, disassociate, and withdraw mentally or psychologically (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Moore et al., 2012). These people may be present in place physically with all their minds somewhere else. Hulin (1991) and Simpson (1992) defended that psychological withdrawal patterns could be sometimes daydreaming, contemplating, or discussing with coemployees about subjects and topics that are unrelated to work. The early research conducted by Bormann, and Cropanzano (1994), they did discover a significant relationship between psychological withdrawal and organizational support from the executives of an organization. According to them, psychological withdrawal tends to be associated positively to employee's

negative emotion and negatively correlated with supervisors and executive members' encouragements and supports. In addition, with their research over 276 supervisors, managers, and their employees, Wayne, and Shore (1993) advocated and encouraged the expectation mentioned above. Regarding psychological or emotional withdrawal behaviors, Wanous (1974) clarified that they are psychological appearances of individuals, and consistently diverge across them. He added that these are usually affectivity, personality, as well as mental abilities. Following the Reasoned Action Theory developed by Fishbein and Ajzen in 1980 on behaviors, Simpson & Lehman (1992) established physical withdrawal behaviors alongside psychological or mental withdrawal behavior. The latter withdrawal behavior includes attitudes regarding neglect within workplaces. For example, daydreaming in the workplace, thinking of absenting, performing a task for personal and private benefit in place of organizations' interests represent some few psychologically withdrawal manners.

2.6.3. Physical Withdrawal Behaviors

Physical withdrawal conducts and behaviors describe the acts taken by individuals or employees when they are physically disconnected, disengaged, and detached from a group or organization (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Lehman & Simpson, 1992). Generally, absenteeism, turnover, and tardiness or lateness embraced in Johns (2003) study are the major types frequently cited by researchers and academics when discussing physical behaviors of withdrawal. In this perspective, physical withdrawal behaviors are widely identified as physical removal from a particular workplace for either part of a day, whole day, week, or permanently (Sagie et al., 2002; ShapiraLishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014). Physical withdrawal actions represent a series of behaviors and sentiments undertaken by workers in their workplaces. These conducts are presented in response to several reasons that make workers conceive of not being significantly involved in the accomplishment of their work (Zimmerman et al., 2016). Such type of conduct corresponds to the lateness of workers, their absenteeism, and intention of quitting and leaving the jobs, etc. (Andreas, 2011; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014; Zimmerman et al., 2016). In general, lateness or tardiness does present motivational and inspirational basis characterized by

getting to the workplace late or leaving work early before the end of the working time (Blau, 1985). As explained by Blau (1985), chronic, avoidable, and unavoidable are the three dimensions of lateness that are evoked regarding lateness. Furthermore, he considered chronic lateness as the response of individuals and /or workers to poor working conditions. The avoidable lateness is the reactions shown by employees of having better option, preferable, or more important things than going to work and unavoidable lateness as employees' unrelated factors and parameters such as transportation and weather condition issues. Harrison and Price (2003) identified absenteeism as another physical withdrawal conduct, describes as absence of corporeal existence at a behavioral setting where and when an employee is supposed to be. Sagie (2002) in addition, categorizes two distinctive forms of absence manifested by employees at work. One is voluntary and the other one is involuntary; and he reported that voluntary absence is controlled employees themselves who may pursue looking for other employment opportunities available. Being involuntarily absent at work in contrast, goes beyond workers own control. For instance, according to Carraher & Buckley (2008) and Lambert & Hogan (2009), the intention to leave a job might be another form of withdrawing one's self from an organization operation as a response to voluntary employees' turnover. Simpson & Lehman (1992) stated that employees physical withdrawal behaviors are acts and practice of negligence and carelessness like going to work late, expanding your breaktimes, getting sleepy during workhours.

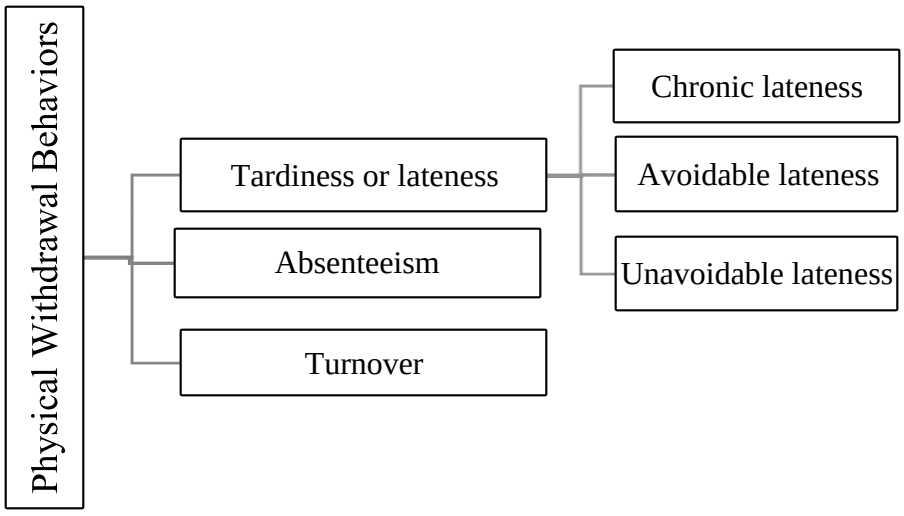


Figure 6. Dimensions of physical withdrawal work behaviors

Source: Designed by study author from Johns (2003)

2.6.4. Antagonistic Work Behaviors

While some employees within workplaces and organizations might nicely promote and encourage positive, constructive, and pro-social behaviors, others might be the source of hatred, tension, aggression, divisiveness, intolerance, contentiousness, and antagonism as well (Cropanzano et al., 1997). Matters like arguing and fighting with colleagues and co-workers and spreading gossips across organizations can be perceived as antagonistic behaviors. Antagonism within a working environment does appear to be strongly correlated with perceived organizational climate (Turan, 2015). At the time of their study, Russell and Howes (1997) confirmed that only one research explored the interrelationship between antagonistic work behaviors and organizational support. According to Randall et al. (1994) individuals/employees who received a highly positive support and assistance from their organizations seem to express a relatively low level of antagonism in their work behaviors. Parks et al. (2013) believe that antagonism remains a multifaceted and miscellaneous concept that must be assessed with careful attention. They indicated Antagonism is used for both outgroup and ingroup members or participants who deviate and considering that they have accepted to be mistreated. Thus, antagonistic conducts denote any forms of aggression through tone of voice including disputing with colleagues, disobeying managers, and superiors, spreading rumors, speculations, or gossips deliberately.

Briefly, the withdrawal behaviors embraced here (psychological and physical withdrawal behaviors and antagonistic behaviors), have been addressed based on various assumptions via different sampling systems in sociology, organizational behavior as well as psychology literature publications. For instance, these withdrawal behaviors patterns were examined in undergraduate students by Rauthmann (2012), in household spouses by Pilch (2012), in nursing staffs by Shapira & Zohar (2011), in lecturers and teachers by Tsemach & Shapira-Lishchinsky (2014), and in public sector employees by Cole (2010). In these investigations, Shapira-Lishchinsky and Zohar (2011) found that female participants reflect lower withdrawal behavioral patterns than male participants, particularly when it comes to lateness dimension. Interestingly, no distinctions in withdrawing behaviors were observed in line with the employees' work experiences. In another recent report analysis on employees' withdrawal habits and behaviors, Shapira & Tsemach (2014) revealed that

no correlation was observed between withdraw attitudes and gender. Additionally, one statistical assessment conducted by Plug & Mueller (2006) suggests that displaying antagonism within a workplace differs from men to women; with the conclusion that male employees and individuals are likely to behave more antagonistically than female employees in organizations. The present study will confirm or concur with the forementioned analysis in the data analysis section.

2.6.5. Relationships Between Toxic Emotional Experiences and On-the Job Behaviors

The impacts of toxic emotional experiences on positive work behaviors and withdrawal behaviors can be explained by different relationships, correlations, and interrelations between the independent variable known as toxic emotional experiences and the dependent variable which represents the elements of the "on the job behaviors. From the previously formulated literature on toxic and negative emotional experiences section, negative workplace events can produce adverse emotional reactions (Gross, 2002; Zapf, 2002). This, in return, negatively influences individuals and employees' well-being, their behavioral, and physical outcomes (Bel, 2006; Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004; Penttinen et al., 2019). Largely, in line with the theory of affective events (Lawrence, 2008), scholars have realized that the intensity and frequency upon which employees perceive an event highly define the nature and characteristics of their emotional sensations (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017). An early study on toxicology, it was provided with knowledge and understanding on the potential consequences of toxic organizational issues on workers (Bartunek & Frost, 2004). Regarding negative events within organizations, Frost (2003) supports that the degree of recurrence of events exposures stands very crucial; yet the combinations of individuals' intense unpleasant emotions and their emotional regulation responses mainly generates the toxic effects on employees (Lawrence, 2008; Stein, 2007). In another way, emotionally employees perceive and react to negative organizational events which seem to be both experienced severe emotions and emotional management approach required prior to toxicity development on individuals (Gross, 1998). An evidence on negative emotions stipulates that experience of detached emotions lead to ones' positive work outcomes and even better organizational results (Greenberg, 2006). For instance, experiencing fear by employees in workplace can lead to call on their previous assumptions, methods, and practices that can help them discover new work opportunities typical to the workplace

policies (Larissa Z. Tiedens, 2001). Furthermore, she added that experiencing sadness can give individuals the chance to reflect on wrong decisions and therefore realize new approaches further to avoid the occurrence of the same mistake. Alternatively, perceiving anger can enable individuals to focus on the supposed threat, furnish them with needed energy to overcome this type of emotion (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). According to Frost's (2003) research on toxic events, visibly, extreme negative emotions, themselves do not produce toxicity, that to say an event alone does not generate toxicity. Instead, toxicity derives from combined events of the individuals' emotional responses and how they deal with the situation eventually provokes toxicity in individuals (Gross, 1998, 2002). The works on social psychology present evidence that in the short-term, improper intense negative emotions may likely result in less negative manners and that increased experiences in negative emotions will increase physiological reactions and reduce social functioning. However, repeated suppression of such emotions will result in adverse physical well-being and psychological outcomes as well. That is why Winkle's (2000) study recommends that while toxicity constructs the brain to produce toxic consequences for employees in the short run, the beginning of the brain's purification process indicates the individuals' toxicity acceptance level. Consequently, the repetition of this process will provoke longer-term adverse psychological health effects alongside negative physical health effects. Obviously, toxic emotional experiences within a workplace are somehow related to "on-the-job behaviors" variables. Some organizations poorly perform due to the negative and toxic work environment formed by toxic executives' members behaviors. For example, within organizations ecosystem, toxic emotions resulting from negative emotional experiences produce feelings and reactions of fear, anger, despair, and low morale (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007). They also provoke poor communication, sadness, unhappiness, and even depression amongst victim individuals such as employees, managers, or supervisors. These bad experiences generally impact what are known here as dependent variables such as job performance, positive behaviors at work, and negative ones specifically high absenteeism, lateness at work, slowdowns of the work, high turnover (Shepherd & Cardon, 2009), emotional disengagement from work, detachment from coworkers, and sometimes the nascent of antagonistic behaviors are observed (Larissa Z. Tiedens, 2001; Zapf, 2002).

2.6.6. The Mediating Role of POS Between TEE and On-The-Job Behaviors

As far as perceived organizational support (POS) is concerned, Jholke and Stamper (2003) exposed evidence for which there may be mediational influence of POS on the correlation between workplace toxic emotions and the desire of employees to leave or continue working for the same organization. Because emotionally experienced behaviors are forms of negative practices, perceived organizational support is foreseen to mediate the relationship between destructive emotions and psychological distresses (Eroğluer et al., 2020; Sher et al., 2019). On the other hand, toxic emotions that emanate from negative emotions can affect individuals' attitudes, behaviors (Li, 2020), deeds, and performances (Yu, 2011). For this reason, George & Jones (2001) supported that these kinds of emotions decrease employee's trust, involvement, commitment, and dedication toward his/her employer organization.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Population and Sampling

To fulfill the purpose and goals of the study, quantitative research is conducted. In this research, the targeted population is people who are working in both public and private organizations in Benin Republic. Even though priority was given to employees working health, security, and educational sectors because they are likely exposed and mostly experience toxic emotions, this research reached out employees from seven main employment sectors (Finance, Public security, Civil servant, Health, Service enterprise, Education, and IT).

As far as participants are concerned, three hundred six (306) respondents from different education level (high school, bachelor's, master's, and doctorate). Considerable number of the participants with great working experiences were and different age groups were reached. It was also an online based survey prepared and shared with volunteers willing to contribute.

The questionnaire was developed based the previous studies and aimed to analyze and explore the effect of toxic emotional experiences and perceived organizational support on positive work behaviors and withdrawal behaviors within different workplaces (in the Republic of Benin). Besides the background information, the questionnaires were distributed among the participants with four set questions to be answered by the participants.

The first set is about the toxic emotional experiences scale, the second is about PANAS scale, the third one is about the perceived organizational support, and the fourth set concerns the on-the-job behaviors scale. A total of seventy-three survey questionnaires were elaborated in which seven questions were demographical type and the remain questions were itemized in five-point Likert type scale for some and seven-point scale for others arranged and codified either from 1 to 5 or 1 to 7. Participants' demographic information about the study is summarized in the finding section below.

3.2. Data Collection Method

In this study, the survey procedure was used to collect data. Necessary permissions were obtained from the University Ethics Committee to conduct the survey. The Board of Ethics members first evaluated the scope and the questionnaire form of the study and then approved them (see appendix). After the permission is taken, the questionnaire was prepared on Google Drive and sent through the e-mail addresses and WhatsApp numbers of employees. Some of the e-mail addresses and numbers of employees were collected few days before starting of the survey and as the survey was ongoing, other participants were reached. Some employees who received the link on their mobile phones and filled it out, in their turn sent the form to their acquittance colleagues voluntarily without being forced. Some participants are also called to give them more explanation and the purpose of the study.

At first, the survey was expected to be completed online within one moth interval, but unfortunately, after this one-month timeline, the targeted number was not obtained. The survey was then extended for another one month. What was interesting was that the Google Drive form was designed in the way participants cannot submit their responses when the form incomplete. Every single question in the form was to be answered (either you answer all question and submit, or you do not participate in the survey. The reason of doing so was to avoid incomplete responses which might be source of missing values. Consequently, the problem of missing values was prevented in the successfully submitted responses.

Because some questions in the study might seem sensitive in the eyes of participants, particularly the questions related to employees' toxic emotional experiences and the support perceived from their employer organizations, the respondents were primarily assured of confidentiality. To show that the survey is anonymous, a short note is attached to the questionnaire form. Neither the participants' e-mail addresses were asked while filling the form nor there were any demographic questions requiring participants to reveal their identities.

This research was performed in accordance with ethical standards. The demographic characteristics of the sample are obviously provided. The participants' age ranges from 20 and 52 years old. In this research, other essential demographic characteristics considerations are education level (high

school, bachelor's, master's, and doctorate), working time (period they have been working for the organization), employment sector, and marital status.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

In this present research, data collection was done through self-administrated questionnaire technique which grants researchers the possibility to work with large sample size and make quantitative data analysis. The first section of the questionnaire covers seven demographic information questions such as gender, age, marital status (single or married), level of education (High school, Bachelor's, Master's, Doctorate), working time (How long have they been working in the organization), employment type (full time or part time), and job tittle (sectors of employment). In the second section of the questionnaire, there are four sets of Likert-type questionnaires representing different variables.

The first set is PANAS of 20 items and participants were asked to rate each item using a five-point Likert-style to indicate how they generally feel (1-Not at all, 2-A little, 3- Moderately, 4-Quite a bit, and 5-Very much). The second set is the toxic emotional experiences scale which contains 15 items in which participants were required to indicate how you reflect over the last 6 months using a five-point Likert-style (1-Very rarely, 2-Rarely, 3-Moderately, 4-Often, and 5-Very often). The perceived organizational support scale is the third set including 9 items (shortened nine-item version of the measure) where participants were asked to rate each item using a seven-point Likertstyle rating scale (1- Strongly disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Slightly disagree, 4- Undecided, 5- Slightly agree, 6- Agree, 7- Strongly agree). The fourth set concerns the on-the-job behaviors scale composed of a total of 22 items comprised in the questionnaire in which participants were required to indicate how often have you…? in the past twelve months on a 7-point scale Likert-style (1- Never, 2- Once in a while, 3- Sometimes, 4- Fairly often, 5- Often, 6- Constantly, 7- Always).

3.3.1. Demographic Variables

The first part of the questionnaire contains items related to demographics and working conditions These are age, education levels, marital status, gender, work experience, and working time.

3.3.2. The PANAS Scale

The PANAS scale developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen in 1988 and used to measure individuals' felt in recent times or how they are feeling at the moment (positive and negative feelings within a specific period of time) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). While applying this scale, Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) used 20-items (1-10 items used to measure PA; and 1120 items for measuring NA) and these items are measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much) by asking how participants generally feel in their workplaces. On the other hand, Daniels (2000) used 18 items while evaluating PA and NA at work to measure affective wellbeing (Rego et al., 2012). In this study, 10 items (enthusiastic, interested, determined, excited, inspired, alert, active, strong, proud, and attentive) reflecting positive affect and 10 items (scared, afraid, upset, distressed, jittery, nervous, ashamed, guilty, irritable, and hostile) reflecting negative affect are deployed. On a 5-point Likert-type scale, participants were requested to kindly indicate how they generally feel. In other words, the extent to which they generally experience affective states in the organization they are working.

For this PA/NA scale, Cronbach's alpha value was computed to evaluate the internal consistency of the data. It is found in the first factor that represents PA with 10 items the alpha value is 0.826 (PA: α=.826) and the second factor representing NA with also 10 items provides an alpha value of 0.768 (NA: α=.768). For the same number of items (20); 10 items for PA and 10 items for NA, Zanon et.al (2013) in their study found an acceptable internal consistencies "alpha coefficient" for PA (.83) and NA (.77). These values are similar to the ones found in this study; therefore, it shows the consistency of the data here too.

3.3.3. Toxic Emotional Experiences Scale

The toxic emotional experiences scale was created by Kiefer et al. (2005), Kiefer & Barclay (2008),

Kiefer & Barclay (2012) and is used to measure individuals' toxic emotional experiences (Chu, 2014; Kiefer & Barclay, 2012; Lawrence, 2008). It is a scale of 15-items divided into 5-items per dimension. In this study, all the items have been used to measure the three dimensions of individuals' toxic emotions. For example, in psychologically recurring dimension, "my negative emotional experiences are ongoing, and I experience prolonged negative emotions" were some of the statements. For disconnecting dimension, "I withdraw from others, I tend to isolate myself, and I tend to feel alone" were some of the sample statements. Regarding the draining dimension, statements like "I feel exhausted, my energy level decreases immediately, I feel disconnected from my work, I feel drained, and I feel lethargic were applied. The items are measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 to 5 (very rarely) to 5 (very often), in which participants are invited to indicate their level of agreement on how they reflect over the last 6 months in their workplaces. High scores of Cronbach's alpha value indicate more toxic emotions at work. According to Kiefer and Barclay (2012), this measure has an adequate internal consistency at $\alpha = 0.95$. The one found in this study for TEEs is $\alpha = 0.867$. Even though these values are different, it is fairly good for the data to be consistent as the standard value is 0.7 said Nunnally (1978).

3.3.4. Perceived Organizational Support Scale

The perceived organizational support scale was established by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) and its original survey stands one dimensional. Moreover, POS is composed of 36 items. It is known to have two options; the long version which includes all the 36 items and shorter version of the survey (Giao et al., 2020). According to scholars, many used the long form of survey with all the 36 items, but Rhoades and Eisenberger (1986) argued that short versions of the survey provide perfect and accurate results as well because of its equal validity and reliability. This short version has proven in some previous studies such as Yilmaz (2019) using 12 items in military hospitals investigations (Assiri et al., 2020; Rineer et al., 2017).

In the present case, the shortened 9-items version of the POS measurement scale is used. These items are measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to measure the extent and degree to which employees feel supported by their organizations. A sample item includes "The organization strongly considers my goals and values." The questionnaire has

proved to be reliable and valid in past empirical and theoretical research. Items 5 and 7 were reverse coded. The Cronbach's alpha value computed for POS is α=0.801, greater than the average value. Hence its consistency too.

3.3.5. On-The-Job Behaviors Scale

On-the-job behaviors scale established by Lehman and Simpson (1992) and is deployed to measure individuals' positive work behaviors, psychological and physical withdrawal behaviors, and Antagonistic behaviors at work (Bindl & Parker, 2010; Lehman & Simpson, 1992). Turan (2015), in a behavioral outcome used psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic behaviors as dependent variables. He considered 8 items to measure psychological withdrawal, 4 items psychological withdrawal, and 5 items to measure antagonistic behavior on a 5- point scale.

In this research, Lehman & Simpson's (1992) on-the-job behavior scale is applied to measure positive work behaviors (1-5 items, a sample item includes "Done more work than required".); psychological withdrawal behaviors (6-13 items, a sample item includes "Thought of being absent."); physical withdrawal behaviors (14-17 items, a sample item includes "Left work early without permission."); and antagonistic work behaviors (18-22 items, a sample item includes "Reported others for breaking rules or policies."). Items are measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always), where participants are asked to report how often they have experienced the situations in the past twelve months. The Cronbach's alpha values were computed and presented as follow. The positive work behavior has an alpha value of 0.768, psychological withdrawal behavior has an alpha value of 0.704, physical withdrawal behavior has an alpha value of 0.758, and 0.722 is the alpha value of antagonistic withdrawal behavior. All these values indicate the internal consistency of the scale.**Data Analysis**

3.4.1. Data Cleaning Process

In this research, the data cleaning process comprises of reverse coding, multivariate outliers' detections, and normality tests. All these steps are explained in the sections below.

3.4.1.1. Reverse Coding

In the questionnaire, four main scales have been used and from these scales, two questions on the POS scale were arranged in reverse code. The reason is to make these reverse coded questions correct in the analysis program. To perform this task, the "Transform menu" of SPSS was used; in which the two reverse coded data have been selected using the command "recode into same variables" in the SPSS software. Then, 1 is given as 7, 2 as 6, 3 as 5, 4 as 4, 5 as 2, and 7 as 1. In this study, the reverse coded expressions on the POS scale are performed.

3.4.1.2. Outliers

As in many investigations, scale errors may often be caused by outliers. Therefore, detecting these multivariate outliers is essential for the data assessment process. This means that outliers might be course of serious inaccuracies in the scales of a study. They significantly undermine the validity and reliability of the analysis' output. These outliers have a crucial impact on factor analysis and may prevent items from scattering through the required factors (Bodjrenou et al., 2019). Here, variables that contain multivariate outliers were screened by applying the Mahalanobis Distance (MD) known as "the distance of a case from the centroid of all cases for the predictor variable" (Cousineau, 2011; Hoaglin & Iglewicz, 1987). Tabachnick & Fidell (2013) stated that MD can be estimated for each case by means of X^2 distribution with an approximation of a probability p that less than .001 (noted p <.001). Furthermore, a regression analysis was used and the maximum and minimum Mahalanobis distances have been assessed Chi-square value for outliers' detections throughout the study. In this study, fourteen (14) outliers were detected. These outliers with a X^2 value greater than 1.5 were excluded from the data set.

3.4.2. Normality Tests

The normality tests require scales to be normally distributed. Thus, normality test was performed to each one of the scales independently. For normality analysis, various variables namely Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk values are carefully observed. However, the decision of

which value to be quoted depend mainly on the size of the sample used even though the common opinion suggests taking Kolmogorov-Smirnov value as a reference if the sample size is above 200. It is also recommended to consider both the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk values during the interpretation. Values less than 0.05 indicate that the data distributions are not normally distributed. It is normally distributed if and only if these values are greater than 0.05.

Another method generally applied is to consider Skewness and Kurtosis values from the descriptive normality test table. With this technique, there are different opinions on the ranges of Skewness and Kurtosis. While some consider acceptable Skewness and Kurtosis between -1 and +1 (Kim, 2013; ORCAN, 2020), others expect this to fall within -2 and +2 (Gunver et al., 2018; Ryu, 2011). Byrne (2016) considers acceptable any kurtosis between -7 and 7, but George and Mallery (2016) support the one within -3 and +3. However, according to Hair et al. (2010) if the Skewness of a data falls within -2 and +2 and its Kurtosis is between -7 and +7 can be perceived as acceptable for normal distribution. According to Kim (2013), the decision of choosing which interval to considered normally distributed highly depends upon the size of the sample used. In this study, all the scales were analyzed separately regarding to the above explanations. The normality interpretation is then demonstrated once all analyses are done.

3.4.3. Reliability Analysis

To understand better the data analysis in this study, the well-known Statistical Package for Social Science (SPPS) software application version 23 is used. As suggested in numerous studies, it is important to have reasonably satisfactory reliability and validity. To evaluate the reliability and internal consistency of the data, the Cronbach's alpha (α) analysis is applied to different scales as did most of the previous researchers. Nunnally (1978) reported that the Cronbach's alpha-value (ranged from 0 to 1) meaning that α reaches its maximum when it approaches 1 and an alpha equal to 0.70 or greater is considered as standard criteria to prove the internal consistency of scale. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha values are computed in the SPSS Software and obtained results are below:

3.4.3.1. Reliability Analysis for PA/NA

For this PA/NA scale, Cronbach's alpha value was computed to evaluate the internal consistency of the data. It is found in the first factor that represents PA with 10 items the alpha value is 0.83 and the second factor representing NA with also 10 items provides an alpha value of 0.77 For the same number of items (20); 10 items for PA and 10 items for NA, Zanon et.al (2013) in their study found an acceptable internal consistencies "alpha coefficient" for PA 0.83 and NA 0.77. These values are similar to the ones found in this study; therefore, it shows the consistency of the data here too.

3.4.3.2. Reliability Analysis for TEEs

According to Kiefer and Barclay (2012), this scale has an adequate internal consistency at $\alpha = 0.95$. The Cronbach alpha score found in this study for TEEs is 0.87. Even though these values are different, it is fairly good for the data to be consistent as the standard value is 0.7 according to Nunnally (1978).

3.4.3.3. Reliability Analysis for POS

The Cronbach's alpha value computed for POS is 0.80 indicating that the scale is also reliable.

3.4.3.4. Reliability Analysis for the Sub-Scales of On The-Job Behaviors

For this variable, the Cronbach alpha (α) values for each sub-scale are computed and presented as follow. The positive work behavior has an alpha value of 0.768, psychological withdrawal behavior has an alpha value of 0.704, physical withdrawal behavior has an alpha value of 0.758, and 0.722 is the alpha value of antagonistic withdrawal behavior. All these values indicate the internal consistency of the scale.

The summary of Cronbach alpha (α) values of all different variables is presented in the table 1 below.

Table 1. Summary of Cronbach Alpha (α) Values

Variables	Number of Items	Alpha value (α)
Positive Affect (PA)	10	0.83
Negative Affect (NA)	10	0.77
Toxic Emotional Experiences (TEEs)	15	0.87
Perceived Organizational Support (POS)	9	0.801
Positive Work Behaviors	5	0.768
Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors	8	0.704
Physical Withdrawal Behaviors	4	0.758
Antagonistic Withdrawal Behaviors	5	0.722

3.4.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

In this research, the entire scales are subjected to factor analysis to find out if the data has an identical distribution pattern. Each scale was subjected to an independent principal component analysis. To perform this factor analysis, previous researchers such as Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) distinguish the two analysis procedures. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is used. The main objective of exploratory factor analysis is to minimize the number of factors so that the given dimensions can be measured with fewer factors. Also, it is a technique that provides a way of describing the variations between variables by applying created new factors. Contrary to EFA, CFA appears to be more advanced to test hypotheses and concepts. CFA is principally performed throughout Structural Equational Modeling (SEM). In this research, since the scales of each variable were developed based on the theory and which items correspond to which dimension was already known, CFA was used to assess the factor loading of each scale.

3.4.4.1. Factor Analysis for PA Scale

The KMO statistic is the one ranged from 0 to 1. According to literatures, more this value approaches 1, more the data becomes suitable for factor analysis. However, factor analysis is unlikely to be useful if this value is close to 0. Kaiser (1974) suggests that any value greater than 0.5 is acceptable, even though he considers that values between 0.5 and 0.7 are barely sufficient, 0.7 and 0.8 are satisfactory, 0.8 and 0.9 are great. Values above 0.9 are considered as magnificent and superb. The following data are interpreted accordingly, and this information will not be repeated to avoid repetition.

Table 2. KMO and Bartlett's Test for PA

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.866
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1638.915
	df	45
	Sig.	.000

Table 2 presents the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test results for PA Scale. It measures the sampling adequacy, the chi-square, and the significance of the scale. According to the table, the KMO's sampling adequacy value was .866. This value along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at p = .000 showing that the scale is suitable for factor analysis. Therefore, our scale is fit for the factor analysis.

Table 3. Total Variance Explained for PA

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.060	50.601	50.601	5.060	50.601	50.601
2	1.386	13.862	64.464			
3	.845	8.453	72.917			

4	.631	6.307	79.223
5	.482	4.815	84.039
6	.449	4.490	88.529
7	.370	3.697	92.226
8	.359	3.591	95.817
9	.269	2.694	98.512
10	.149	1.488	100.000

Table 3 shows the total variance explained, eigenvalues along with its percent of variance, and cumulative variance of each factor of PA Scale. According to this table, the data set has two (2) factors with eigenvalues (values equal to 1 and above). While the first factor accounts for 50.601% of variance, the second one totalizes 13.862% of the variance. The other factors are indicated in the table. Shortly, this factor structure explaining 50.601% of the total variance contributes to the variable. The higher the absolute value of the loading, the greater the contribution of the factor to the variable. The empty spaces or gaps noticed in the table characterize loadings less than 0.3.

Table 4. Component Matrix for PA

	Component
[Interested]	.822
[Determined]	.817
[Proud]	.809
[Inspired]	.700
[Active]	.698
[Enthusiastic]	.691
[Strong]	.683
[Attentive]	.666
[Excited]	.650

[Alert]	.525

Table 4 above indicates the factor matrix or component matrix of PA Scale. It is seen that the 10 items of PA on one factor extracted ranged in descending order between .822 to .525. As the loading absolute value becomes higher, the contribution of the factor to the variable is great.

3.4.4.2. Factor Analysis for NA Scale

Table 5. KMO and Bartlett's Test for NA

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.664
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	986.104
	df	45
	Sig.	.000

Table 5 shows the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test results for NA Scale. It indicates the computed sampling adequacy, the chi-square, the degree of freedom, and the significance of this scale. According to the table, the KMO's sampling adequacy value was .664. A value that is sufficient to conduct the factor analysis. This value along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at $p = .000$ indicating the suitability of NA scale for factor analysis. Therefore, NA scale is fit for the factor analysis.

Table 6. Total Variance Explained for NA

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.082	30.821	30.821	3.082	30.821	30.821

2	1.774	17.744	48.565
3	1.219	12.188	60.753
4	1.114	11.142	71.895
5	.721	7.209	79.104
6	.672	6.716	85.820
7	.488	4.878	90.697
8	.420	4.195	94.893
9	.374	3.735	98.628
10	.137	1.372	100.000

Table 6 shows the total variance explained, eigenvalues along with its percent of variance, and cumulative variance of each factor of NA Scale. According to this table, the data set has four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 which contribute to the variable. The first factor accounts for 30.821% of variance, the second one totalizes 17.744% of the variance, the third one 12.188% of the variance, and the fourth 11.142% of the variance. The other factors are indicated in the table. The higher the absolute value of the loading, the greater the contribution of the factor to the variable. The empty spaces or gaps noticed in the table characterize loadings less than 0.3.

Table 7. Component Matrix for NA

	Component
[Distressed]	.713
[Irritable]	.659
[Afraid]	.638
[Scared]	.571
[Upset]	.543
[Jittery]	.502
[Hostile]	.497

[Ashamed]	.494
[Guilty]	.452
[Nervous]	.404

Table 7 indicates the factor matrix NA Scale. It is seen that the 10 items of NA on one factor extracted ranged in descending order between .713 to .404. As the loading absolute value becomes higher, the contribution of the factor to the variable is great.

3.4.4.3. Factor Analysis for TEE Scale

There are 15 items for TEE with three factors (components) namely psychologically recurring, disconnecting, and draining. Each factor is represented by five items.

Table 8. Overall Model Fit of Toxic Emotional Experiences Sub-Scales

Statistic Measurements	Test Indices	Reference Test Standard	Study Results	Model Fit Interpretation
Absolute Fit Measurement	CMIN		154.40	
	DF		59	
	CMIN/DF	< 3	2.62	Acceptable Fit
	SRMR	≤ .06	.061	Acceptable Fit
	RMSEA	≤ .08	.073	Acceptable Fit
	GFI	≥ .90	094	Acceptable Fit

	AGFI	≥ .90	.87	Acceptable Fit
Incremental Fit Measurement	TLI	≥ .90	.92	Acceptable Fit
	CFI	≥ .90	.96	Acceptable Fit
	RFI	>.90	.88	Acceptable Fit
	NFI	≥ .90	.93	Acceptable Fit
	IFI	≥ .90	.96	Good Fit
Parsimony Fit Measurement	PNFI	≥ .5	.52	Acceptable Fit
	PCFI	≥ .5	.54	Acceptable Fit

In this study, fit indexes of toxic emotional experiences variable were deployed to verify the goodness and adequacy of the model. Using Amos, the CMIN, DF, CMIN/DF, SRMR, RMSEA, GFI, AGFI, CFI, TLI, RFI, NFI, IFI, PNFI, and PCFI were computed. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of TEE are showing in Table 8 above.

The results of the three-factor model of TEE revealed that the fit indexes ($\chi 2$ (59) = 154.40, $p < 0.000$, $\chi 2$ / df = 2.62; NFI = 0.93; GFI = 0.94; CFI = 0.96, SRMR = 0.061, and RMSEA = 0.073) were adequate. Therefore, this scale is fit for the factor analysis.

3.4.4.4. Factor Analysis for POS Scale

Table 9. KMO and Bartlett's Test for POS

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.590
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	283.175
	df	36
	Sig.	.000

Table 9 shows the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test results for POS Scale. In this table, the KMO's sampling adequacy, the chi-square, the degree of freedom, and the significance of the scale are given. It is seen that the computed KMO's sampling adequacy value was .590, a value that is barely sufficient to conduct the factor analysis. This value along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at $p = .000$ indicating the appropriateness of POS scale for factor analysis. Therefore, we conclude the POS scale is fit for the factor analysis.

Table 10. Total Variance Explained for POS

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.045	22.724	22.724	2.045	22.724	22.724
2	1.482	16.466	39.190			
3	1.162	12.913	52.103			
4	1.062	11.799	63.902			
5	.871	9.675	73.577			
6	.726	8.063	81.640			
7	.619	6.876	88.517			
8	.523	5.813	94.330			
9	.510	5.670	100.000			

Table 10 shows the total variance explained, eigenvalues along with its percent of variance, and cumulative variance of each factor of POS Scale. According to this table, the data set has four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 which contribute to the variable. The first factor accounts for 22.724% of variance, the second one totalizes 16.466% of the variance, the third one 12.913% of the variance, and the fourth 11.799% of the variance. The other factors are indicated in the table. Basically, high absolute value of the loading contributes to the variable.

Table 11. Component Matrix for POS

	Component
[Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.]	.644

[The organization strongly considers my goals and values.]	.604
[The organization cares about my opinions.]	.563
[The organization really cares about my well-being.]	.548
[The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.]	.460
[The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.]	.414
[The organization shows very little concern for me.]	-.408
[The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.]	.310
[Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.]	-.060

Table 11 displays the Pattern Matrix of POS Scale. When we observe the factors distribution, it is seen that the factor loadings of POS are ranged in descending order in every factor. The overall highest value is .644 and the smallest value is -.060. The negative values (-.408 and -.060) represent items that have been reverse coded.

3.4.4.5. Factor Analysis for On-The-Job Behaviors Sub-Scales

3.4.4.5.1. Factor Analysis for Positive Work Behaviors Scale

Table 12. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Positive Work Behaviors

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.713
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	481.912
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test results for positive work behaviors scale is displayed in Table 12. In this table, the KMO's sampling adequacy, the chi-square, the degree of freedom, and the significance of the scale are given. It is seen that the computed KMO's sampling adequacy value was .713, a value considered to be acceptable for conducting the factor analysis. This value along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at $p = .000$ indicating the appropriateness of positive work behaviors scale for factor analysis. Therefore, we conclude the positive work behaviors scale is fit for the factor analysis.

Table 13. Total Variance Explained for Positive Work Behaviors

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.617	52.350	52.350	2.617	52.350	52.350
2	1.145	22.891	75.241			
3	.497	9.930	85.172			
4	.398	7.964	93.136			
5	.343	6.864	100.000			

Table 13 shows the total variance explained, eigenvalues along with its percent of variance, and cumulative variance of each factor of for positive work behaviors scale. The data set shows two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 which contribute to the variable. The first factor accounts for 52.350% of variance and the second one totalizes 22.891% of the variance. The other factors are indicated in the table. Basically, high absolute value of the loading contributes to the variable.

Table 14. Component Matrix for Positive Work Behaviors

	Component
[Made attempts to change work conditions.]	.832
[Negotiated with supervisors to improve job.]	.781
[Tried to think of ways to do the job better.]	.734

[Done more work than required.]	.671
[Volunteered to work overtime.]	.571

Table 14 displays the Pattern Matrix of positive work behaviors scale. When we observe the factors distribution, it is seen that the factor loadings of positive work behaviors scale are ranged in descending order in every factor. The overall highest value is .832 and the smallest value is .571.

3.4.4.5.2 Factor Analysis for Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors Scale

Table 15. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.797
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	417.203
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

Table 15 shows the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test results such as sampling adequacy, the chi-square, the degree of freedom, and the significance for psychological withdrawal behaviors scale. It is seen that the computed KMO's sampling adequacy value was .797, a value that is good for conducting the factor analysis. This value along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at p = .000 indicating the appropriateness of psychological withdrawal behaviors scale for factor analysis. Therefore, we conclude the psychological withdrawal behaviors scale is fit for the factor analysis.

Table 16. Total Variance Explained for Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.826	35.325	35.325	2.826	35.325	35.325
2	1.081	13.518	48.842			

3	.940	11.750	60.593
4	.910	11.371	71.963
5	.657	8.207	80.170
6	.586	7.328	87.498
7	.530	6.623	94.121
8	.470	5.879	100.000

Table 16 shows the total variance explained, eigenvalues along with its percent of variance, and cumulative variance of each factor of for psychological withdrawal behaviors scale. Two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 which contribute to the variable are found. The first factor accounts for 35.325% of variance and the second one indicates 13.518% of the variance. The other factors are indicated in the table. Basically, high absolute value of the loading contributes to the variable.

Table 17. Component Matrix for Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors

	Component
[Daydreamed.]	.751
[Put less effort into the job than should have.]	.736
[Left work situation for unnecessary reasons.]	.676
[Let others do your work.]	.662
[Thought of being absent.]	.625
[Spent work time on personal matters.]	.545
[Thought of leaving current job.]	.348
[Chatted with co-workers about nonwork topics.]	.126

Table 17 displays the Pattern Matrix of psychological withdrawal behaviors scale. When we observe the factors distribution, it is seen that the factor loadings of psychological withdrawal

behaviors scale are ranged in descending order. The overall highest value is .751 and the smallest value is .126.

3.4.4.5.3. Factor Analysis for Physical Withdrawal Behaviors Scale

Table 18. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Physical Withdrawal Behaviors

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.740
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	316.880
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 18 shows the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test results for physical withdrawal behaviors scale. In this table, the KMO's sampling adequacy, the chi-square, the degree of freedom, and the significance of the scale are given. It is seen that the computed KMO's sampling adequacy value was .740, a value that is good for conducting the factor analysis. This value along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at $p = .000$ indicating the appropriateness of physical withdrawal behaviors scale for factor analysis. Therefore, we conclude the physical withdrawal behaviors scale is fit for the factor analysis.

Table 19. Total Variance Explained for Physical Withdrawal Behaviors

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.356	58.901	58.901	2.356	58.901	58.901
2	.689	17.218	76.119			
3	.586	14.643	90.762			
4	.370	9.238	100.000			

Table 19 above shows the total variance explained, eigenvalues along with its percent of variance, and cumulative variance of each factor of for physical withdrawal behaviors scale. This table shows only one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1 which contribute to the variable. This factor

accounts for 58.901% of variance. Basically, high absolute value of the loading contributes to the variable.

Table 20. Component Matrix for Physical Withdrawal Behaviors

	Component
[Left work early without permission.]	.854
[Taken longer lunch or rest break than allowed.]	.755
[Taken supplies or equipment without permission.]	.750
[Fallen asleep at work.]	.702

Table 20 displays the Pattern Matrix of physical withdrawal behaviors scale. When we observe the factors distribution, it is seen that the factor loadings of this scale are ranged in descending order in every factor. The overall highest value is .854 and the smallest value is .702.

3.4.4.5.4. Factor Analysis for Antagonistic Withdrawal Behaviors Scale

Table 21. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Antagonistic Withdrawal Behaviors

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.658
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	374.431
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Table 21 shows the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test results for antagonistic withdrawal behaviors scale. In this table, the KMO's sampling adequacy, the chi-square, the degree of freedom, and the significance of the scale are given. It is seen that the computed KMO's sampling adequacy value was .658, a value that is acceptable to conduct the factor analysis. This value along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at $p = .000$ indicating the

appropriateness of antagonistic withdrawal behaviors scale for factor analysis. Therefore, we conclude the antagonistic withdrawal behaviors scale is fit for the factor analysis.

Table 22. Total Variance Explained for Antagonistic Withdrawal Behaviors

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.393	47.866	47.866	2.393	47.866	47.866
2	1.035	20.698	68.564			
3	.807	16.143	84.707			
4	.416	8.311	93.017			
5	.349	6.983	100.000			

Table 22 shows the total variance explained, eigenvalues along with its percent of variance, and cumulative variance of each factor of for psychological withdrawal behaviors scale. Two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 which contribute to the variable are found. While the first factor accounts for 47.866% of variance, the second one indicates 20.698% of the variance. The rest of the factors are displayed in the table. Basically, high absolute value of the loading contributes to the variable.

Table 23. Component Matrix for Antagonistic Withdrawal Behaviors

	Component
[Disobeyed supervisors' instructions.]	.770
[Filled formal complaints.]	.755
[Reported others for breaking rules or policies.]	.739
[Spread rumors or gossip about co-workers.]	.619
[Argued with co-workers.]	.549

Table 23 displays the Pattern Matrix of antagonistic withdrawal behaviors scale. When we observe the factors distribution, it is seen that the factor loadings of antagonistic withdrawal behaviors scale

are ranged in descending order in every factor. The overall highest value is .770 and the smallest value is .549.

4. FINDINGS

This chapter presents the hypotheses testing results, findings, and interpretations. In this section, descriptive analyses, independent t-test, variance, correlation, hierarchical regression, and mediation analyses were conducted in line with the hypotheses. A general summary of the results is also scrutinized and interpreted.

4.1. Demographic Information

Table 24. Demographic Information on Gender, Age Groups, and Working Period

Demographic characteristics		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	174	56.9
	Female	132	43.1
	Total	306	100.0
Age Groups	1. (20 to 29)	181	59.0
	2. (30 to 39)	102	33.4
	3. (40 and above)	23	7.6
	Total	306	100.0
Working Period	1. (1 to 5)	189	61.8
	2. (6 to 10)	78	25.5
	3. (11 and above)	39	12.7
	Total	306	100.0

The research results in Table 24 depict that overall, 306 people took part in the survey. Most of the participants are male totalizing 174 respondents against 132 for female gender. Converting these numbers into percentage, male respondents are 56.9 % and female respondents are 43.1%. Even though female number is lower than male's, it can be said that it is a good representation of both private and public organizations in Benin. This significant difference shows that men employees are more than women in the country as in many other countries.

Regarding the age of participants displayed in the table, more than half of the participants shows an age range between 20 to 29 (59%, n=181). This number is followed by respondents whose age is comprised between 30-39 (33.4%, n=102). People with an age range of 40 and above represent 7.6.% with n=23. It is seen that the number of participants decrease as their ages increase. It may be because the country (Republic of Benin) has high number of young people meaning that Beninese population is very young. To illustrate this, according to National Youth Policy (2014), the Beninese population is characterized by an age pyramid that is very wide at the base and narrow at the top. Young people represent nearly 50 % of the population of Benin, people between 18 and 35 represent 30 % of the general population.

As far as working period is concerned, more than half of people have been working for 1 to 5 years. This number is 190 with 61.8%. It is followed by people whose working period is 6 to 10 years which represents 25.5% with a total number of 78 people. Participants with working period of 11 and above is represented by 39 (12.7%).

4.2. Descriptive Statistics of Respondents' Answers to Survey Questions

Table 25. Descriptive Statistics of Respondents' Answers to Survey Questions

Variables	N	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
PA.	306	42.94	6.760	19	50
NA.	306	15.28	4.439	10	37
Toxic Emotional Experiences	306	26.92	9.245	15	60
Perceived Organizational Support	306	36.82	7.243	13	53
Positive Work Behavior	306	13.73	5.662	5	35
Psychological Withdrawal	306	14.80	4.660	8	36
Physical Withdrawal	306	5.62	2.713	4	19
Antagonistic Behavior	306	7.06	3.008	5	23

Table 25 displays the descriptive statistics of the scales which have been applied to this study. This table gives the descriptive statistics for PA, NA, toxic emotional experiences, perceived organizational support, positive work behavior, psychological and physical withdrawal behaviors,

and antagonistic behaviors. The sample size (N), minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation values are shown. PA has the highest mean (42.94), and the smallest mean is seen at physical withdrawal level (5.62). Regarding the standard deviations, 9.245 is the highest. This number is observed at toxic emotional experiences level. The least standard deviation is 2.713 shown at physical withdrawal level. The rest of these results are shown in the table.

4.3. Test Results for Independent Groups

4.3.1. T-Test Results on Toxic Emotional Experiences (with Sub-Scales) and Gender

Table 26. T-Test Results Between Toxic Emotional Experiences Sub-scales and Gender

Toxic Emotional Experiences Sub-Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	S	df	*t*	*p*
Psychologically Recurring	Male	174	8.86	3.56			
	Female	132	10.03	4.41	304	2.58	0.01
Disconnecting	Male	174	7.91	3.19			
	Female	132	9.28	3.86	251.41	3.30	0.00
Draining	Male	174	8.69	3.75			
					304	1.86	0.06
	Female	132	9.53	4.12			

Table 26 presents the t-test results between sub-dimensions of toxic emotional experiences and gender. It displays the means, standard deviations, degree of freedom, t and p values for the overall scale and its sub-dimensions of both males and females. Looking at the *p* values, it is seen that there is a significant difference among psychologically recurring and disconnecting subdimensions regarding gender [respectively, ($t_{(304)}$=2,58, p=0.01); ($t_{(251.41)}$=3.30, p=0.00)]. Women have more psychologically recurring ($\bar{X}$ =10.03) and disconnecting($\bar{X}$ =9.28) emotions than men ($\bar{X}$ =8.86, $\bar{X}$ =7.91, respectively). There is no significant difference between draining subdimension and gender [$t_{(304)}$=1,86, p=0.06].

4.3.2. T-Test Results Between On-The-Job Behaviors Components and Gender

Table 27. T-Test Results Between On-The-Job Behaviors Components and Gender

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	*t*	*p*
Positive work behaviors	Male	174	14.61	6.13	304	2.083	.038
	Female	132	13.11	6.34			
Psychological withdrawal behaviors	Male	174	14.59	3.97	213.59	-.834	.405
	Female	132	15.09	6.04			
Physical withdrawal behaviors	Male	174	5.34	2.13	187.21	-2.158	.032
	Female	132	6.16	3.98			
Antagonistic withdrawal behaviors	Male	174	6.66	2.27	199.86	-2.345	.020
	Female	132	7.54	3.82			

Table 27 depicts the t-test statistics between on-the-job behaviors variables and gender. For all components of the on-the-job behavior's variables (positive work behaviors, psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors) the means, standard deviations, standard error means, degree of freedom, *t*, and *p* for both male and female are displayed. It can be seen for example that the mean and standard deviation in positive work behaviors dimensions is respectively 14.61 and 6.127 for male and 13.11 and 6.338 for female. The rest of the results are depicted in the table. Having a look at the *p-values* in the table, it is noted that only psychological withdrawal behavior (*p =0.405*) value is greater than 0.05, therefore, not statistically significant. Positive work behaviors (*p =0.038*), physical withdrawal behaviors (*p =0.032*), and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors (*p =0.020*). All these values show significant difference between male and female gender. We have ($t_{(304)}$=2,083, p=0.038) for positive work behaviors, , ($t_{(187.21)}$= -2,158, p=0.032) for physical withdrawal behaviors, and , ($t_{(199.86)}$= -2,345, p=0.020) for antagonistic behaviors. The conclusion is that there is significant

difference between male and female in terms of positive work behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors.

4.4. One-Way Anova Results

4.4.1. . ANOVA Results on Toxic Emotional Experiences (Sub-Scales) and Age Groups

The Anova statistics between age group and toxic emotional experiences are given in Table 28. The most important elements to look at are the means and standard deviations. It is seen that the highest mean of all age groups is observed in the age group of 20 to 29 years old. The F value, p value and whether there is a difference between the age groups regarding toxic emotional experiences is given in Table 28.

Table 28. ANOVA Results Between Toxic Emotional Experiences and Age Groups

Toxic Emotional Experiences Sub-Dimensions	Age Groups	N	Mean	S	*F*	*p*	Difference
Recurring	1. (20 to 29)	181	9.60	4.31	0.818	0.44	-
	2. (30 to 39)	102	9.05	3.59			
	3. (40 and above)	23	8.87	2.77			
Disconnecting	1. (20 to 29)	181	8.70	3.34	5.709	0.00	1-3 and 2-3
	2. (30 to 39)	102	8.69	3.99			
	3. (40 and above)	23	6.13	2.18			
Draining	1. (20 to 29)	181	9.49	3.97	4.954	0.01	1-3
	2. (30 to 39)	102	8.75	3.88			
	3. (40 and above)	23	6.91	3.09			

Table 28 shows ANOVA results between toxic emotional experiences sub-dimensions and age groups. From the analysis, it can be concluded that there exists a significant difference between the age groups in terms of disconnecting [$F_{(2\text{-}303)}$=5,709, p=0.00] and draining [$F_{(2\text{-}303)}$=4,954, p=0.01] sub-dimensions. To figure out which age groups are significantly different with others, the Scheffe multiple comparison test is conducted. With disconnecting sub-dimension, this test shows that 40 and above years old group is significantly different with 20 to 29 and 30 to 39 years old groups. Regarding draining sub-dimension, this difference was observed only between 20 to 29 years old and 40 and above age group. In contrary to disconnecting and draining, the psychologically recurring sub-scale shows no significant difference between age groups [$F_{(2\text{-}303)}$=0,818, p=0.44]. Thus, age is an important factor in analyzing employees' toxic emotional experiences. The results

might imply that as individuals are getting older, they become used to toxins. This could be the reason why the amount of toxic emotional experiences decreases as people becoming more mature.

4.4.2. One-Way Anova Between On-The-Job Behaviors Sub-Scales and Age Groups

Table 29. ANOVA Results Between On-The-Job Behaviors Sub-Scales and Age Groups

On-The-Job Behaviors Sub-Scales	Age Groups	N	Mean	S	*F*	*p*	Difference
Positive Work Behaviors	1. (20 to 29)	181	12.60	4.78	12.444	0.00	1-2 and 1-3
	2. (30 to 39)	102	14.79	6.28			
	3. (40 and above)	23	17.87	6.54			
Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors	1. (20 to 29)	181	14.91	4.97	1.534	0.22	-
	2. (30 to 39)	102	14.98	4.35			
	3. (40 and above)	23	13.17	3.03			
Physical Withdrawal Behaviors	1. (20 to 29)	181	5.33	2.40	2.712	0.07	-
	2. (30 to 39)	102	6.11	3.16			
	3. (40 and above)	23	5.70	2.67			
Antagonistic Withdrawal Behaviors 1.662	1. (20 to 29)	181	6.81	2.63		0.19	-
	2. (30 to 39)	102	7.48	3.58			
					3. (40 and above)		23
	7.17	2.95					

The Anova results between on-the-job behaviors sub-scales and age groups are given in Table 29. It is seen that the highest mean of all age groups is observed in the age group of 30 to 39 for all sub-scales except positive work behaviors where the highest mean ($\overline{X}$ =17.87) is seen in 40 and above age group. The rest of the results are shown in the table. When the displayed statistics in the table are examined, it is seen that positive work behavior sub-scale with [$F_{(2,303)} = 12.444$, $p = 0.00$] is statistically significant. This significance demonstrates the difference between age groups regarding positive work behaviors. When Scheffe test is conducted to figure out the age groups that are significantly different with others, it is seen that (40 and above) makes difference with (20 to 29) and (30 to 39) years old groups. Considering psychological withdrawal behavior, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors, it can be seen significance values that are greater than *0.05* [$F_{(2,304)}$, $p = 0.22$; $F_{(3,303)}$; $p = 0.07$; $F_{(2,304)}$, $p = 0.19$ respectively] meaning that these factors are not statistically significant. Therefore, the conclusion that there are no

differences between different age groups in terms of psychological withdrawal behavior, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors.

4.4.3. One-Way Anova Between Working Period and Toxic Emotional Experiences

Table 30. ANOVA Results Between Toxic Emotional Experiences and Working Period

Toxic Emotional Experiences	Working Period	N	Mean	SD	F	*p*	Difference
Recurring	1. (1 to 5)	189	9.39	4.15	0.917	0.401	-
	2. (6 to 10)	78	9.67	4.14			
	3. (11 and above)	39	8.62	2.57			
Disconnecting	1. (1 to 5)	189	8.42	3.24	1.859	0.158	-
	2. (6 to 10)	78	9.06	4.31			
	3. (11 and above)	39	7.77	3.27			
Draining	1. (1 to 5)	189	9.14	3.86	2.191	0.114	-
	2. (6 to 10)	78	9.44	4.10			
	3. (11 and above)	39	7.87	3.81			

Table 30 portrays the descriptive statistics of working periods and toxic emotional experiences. The table presents different mean values, standard deviations, significance values, and other results. According to the table, the highest total mean of toxic emotional experiences is noted in (6 to 10) years working period row which is 28.17 and the highest standard deviation is noted in the same row which is 10.297. On the other hand, the smallest total mean and standard deviation are respectively 24.26 and 7.126 both in the (11 and above) years of working period row. The other different means and standard deviations of recurring, disconnecting, and draining are displayed in the table. The significance values computed and presented in Table 30 show that the *p-values* are all greater than 0.05, implying that the factors considered are not statistically significant. Therefore, we conclude that there are no differences between different working period groups in terms of toxic emotional experiences and its sub-scales which are recurring, disconnecting, and draining.

4.4.4. One-Way Anova Between On-The-Job Behaviors Sub-Scales and Working Period

Table 31 exposes the Anova statistics between working periods and positive work behavior, psychological withdrawal behavior, physical withdrawal behavior, and antagonistic withdrawal behavior. The table presents different mean values, standard deviations, standard errors, *F*, and *p* values of different working period groups. According to the table, the highest mean for positive work behavior is noted in (6 to 10) and (11 and above) years of working period row which is 15.49 and the highest standard deviation value is noted at the same row which is 6.682. The other results for psychological withdrawal behavior, physical withdrawal behavior, and antagonistic withdrawal behavior are indicated in the table.

Table 31. ANOVA Results of On-The-Job Behaviors Sub-Scales and Working Period

	Working Period	N	Mean	SD	F	*p*	Difference
Positive Work Behavior	1. (1 to 5)	189	12.63	4.770	2.693	0.000	1-2 and 2-3
	2. (6 to 10)	78	15.49	6.682			
	3. (11 and above)	39	15.49	6.228			
Psychological Withdrawal Behavior	1. (1 to 5)	189	14.75	4.971	1.889	0.153	-
	2. (6 to 10)	78	15.47	4.327			
	3. (11 and above)	39	13.72	3.464			
Physical Withdrawal Behavior	1. (1 to 5)	189	5.34	2.587	2.644	0.073	-
	2. (6 to 10)	78	6.08	2.966			
	3. (11 and above)	39	6.05	2.665			
Antagonistic Withdrawal Behavior	1. (1 to 5)	189	6.81	2.751	2.261	0.106	-
	2. (6 to 10)	78	7.67	3.709			
	3. (11 and above)	39	7.05	2.492			

The Anova test performed with positive work behavior in Table 31 shows a significance value that is less than 0.05 (*p = 0.000*) indicating that the groups considered are significantly different. To find out whether which groups make differences, the Scheffe test of multiple comparisons table is looked at. In the multiple comparisons table, it is seen that the differences between the groups are between (6 to 10) and (1 to 5) as well as (6 to 10) and (11 and above) years of working periods. Therefore, we conclude that there are differences between different working period groups in terms of positive work behaviors at this specific mentioned sub-scale. When we consider the above table, it is seen that the differences between the groups and psychological withdrawal behavior, physical withdrawal behavior, and antagonistic withdrawal behavior were not significant at all because the significance values (*p = 0.153; p =0.073; p =0.106* respectively) are greater than 0.05. Therefore, we conclude that there are no differences between different working period groups in terms of psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors.

Table 32. Correlation Coefficients Among Research Variables (N=306)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. PA	1										
2. NA	-0.13*	1									
3. TEE	-0.07	0.32**	1								
4. Recurring	0.02	0.31**	0.77**	1							
5. Disconnecting	-0.08	0.22**	0.82**	0.41**	1						
6. Draining	-0.11	0.23**	0.84**	0.42**	0.60**	1					
7. POS	-0.11*	0.22**	0.17**	0.11	0.20**	0.11	1				
8. Positive	0.23**	0.00	0.06	0.13*	-0.04	0.04	-0.12*	1			
9. Psychological	-0.04	0.13*	0.19**	0.20**	0.16**	0.09	0.02	0.16**	1		
10. Physical	0.15*	-0.06	0.09	0.13*	0.04	0.04	-0.26**	0.23**	0.36**	1	
11. Antagonistic	0.11*	0.06	0.17**	0.16**	0.13*	0.11	-0.19**	0.34**	0.41**	0.62**	1

**p<0.05, **p<0.01 (PA: positive affect, NA: negative affect, TEE: toxic emotional experiences, POS: perceived organizational support)*

Table 32 shows correlation coefficients among research variables. For instance, toxic emotional experience was positively and significantly related to POS (r=0.17, p<0.01), psychological withdrawal behavior (r=0.19, p<0.01), and antagonistic work behavior (r=0.17, p<0.01). Negative correlations exist between POS and positive work behavior (r=-0.12, p<0.05), physical withdrawal behaviors (r=-0.26, p<0.01), and antagonistic behaviors (r=-0.19, p<0.01). Toxic emotional experience is positively related to NA (r= 0.32, p<0.01). In addition to this, all the dimensions of toxic emotional experience are positively correlated to NA. The remaining correlations are shown in the table.

4.5. Regression Analyses

4.5.1. Hierarchical Regression Analysis of the Research Model 1

4.5.1.1. Effects of PA/NA, Toxic Emotional Experiences Sub-Dimensions, and POS on Positive Work Behavior

The hierarchical regression results gotten after running the hierarchical regression test are summarized in Table 33. The independent variables namely PA/NA, toxic emotional experiences (psychologically recurring, disconnecting, draining sub-dimensions), and POS along with positive work behaviors as dependent variable are used. Different values such as B values, standard error values, beta values, and significance values at 95% confidence interval are shown.

Table 33. Hierarchical Regression Results on Positive Work Behavior

Predictor variables	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1.	-	-	-	-	-	0.23	0.05	0.05
PA	0.19	0.05	0.23	4.15	0.00			
2.	-	-	-	-	-	0.26	0.07	0.02
PA	0.19	0.05	0.23	3.98	0.00			
Recurring	0.20	0.09	0.14	-1.71	0.03			
3.	-	-	-	-	-	0.28	0.08	0.01
PA	0.18	0.05	0.22	3.83	0.00			
Recurring	0.20	0.09	0.14	2.22	0.03			
POS	-0.09	0.04	-0.11	-2.01	0.04			

Dependent variable: Positive Work Behavior

In the prediction of positive work behaviors, a SPSS three-block hierarchical regression analysis was performed. The collinearity statistics obtained stipulate that all tolerance values are greater than 0.5 and the VIF values are lower than 2.00 indicating that the analysis is out of multicollinearity or collinearity problems.

The table 33 shows the hierarchical regression results on positive work behaviors. The first block of the hierarchical regression includes only PA which explain 5% in the total variation of positive work behaviors [R^2=0.05, $F_{(1,304)}$ = 16.912, p=0.00]. PA is found to be statistically significant at p=0.00. The second block includes PA and recurring sub-dimensions which explains 7% of the total variance of positive work behavior [R^2=0.07, $F_{(2,303)}$=11.006, p=0.00]. It is seen that the recurring sub-dimension is found to be significant at p=0.03. The third block which had POS shows that 8% of the total variance is explained by positive work behaviors [R^2=0.08, $F_{(3,302)}$=8,757, p=0.00]. The results indicate that POS had effect on positive work behaviors. In this analysis, three separate blocks of predictors as whole are examined to check the weight of variance in predicting positive work behaviors using the R^2. Overall, PA (β=0.22, p=0.00), recurring (β =0.14, p=0.03), and POS (β=-0.11, p=0.04), significantly predict positive work behaviors. While PA and recurring sub-dimension have positive effect on positive work behaviors, POS predicts negatively.

4.5.1.2. Effects of PA/NA, Toxic Emotional Experiences Sub-Dimensions, and POS on Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors

Table 34. Hierarchical Regression Results on Psychological Withdrawal Behavior

Predictor variables	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1.	-	-	-	-	-	0.13	0.02	0.02
NA	0.13	0.06	0.13	2.19				
2.	-	-	-	-	.02	0.23	0.05	0.03
NA	0.07	0.06	0.06	1.07	0.27			
Recurring	0.19	0.08	0.17	2.51	0.02			
Disconnecting	0.14	0.09	0.11	1.49	0.20			

Dependent variable: Psychological withdrawal behaviors

To predict psychological withdrawal behaviors, a SPSS three-block hierarchical regression analysis was performed. The collinearity statistics obtained provide that all tolerance values are greater than 0.5 and the VIF values are lower than 2.00 indicating that the analysis is out of multicollinearity or collinearity problems.

In Table 34, the first block of the hierarchical regression includes NA which explain only 2% of the total variation of psychological withdrawal behaviors [R^2=0.02, $F_{(1,304)}$=5.171, *p=0.02*]. The second block includes NA, psychologically recurring, and disconnecting sub-dimensions which explains 5% of the total variance of psychological withdrawal behaviors [R^2=0.05, $F_{(3,302)}$=5.399, *p*=0.00]. It is seen that only recurring dimension (β=0.17, *p*=0.02) positively and significantly predicts psychological withdrawal behavior in the second step. Therefore, it can be said that toxic emotional experiences predict psychological withdrawal behaviors only through recurring dimension.

4.5.1.3. Effect of PA/NA, Toxic Emotional Experiences Sub-Dimensions, and POS on Physical Withdrawal Behaviors

Table 35 shows the hierarchical regression results of physical withdrawal behavior with PA/NA, toxic emotional experiences sub-dimensions, and POS. Different values such as *B* values, standard error values, beta values, significance values, and so on are shown at 95% confidence interval.

Table 35. Hierarchical Regression Results on Physical Withdrawal Behavior

Predictor variables	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1.						0.15	0.02	0.02
PA	-0.06	-.02	-0.14	-2.48	0.01			
2.						0.19	0.04	0.02
PA	-0.05	0.02	-0.13	-2.33	0.01			
Recurring	0.10	-.05	0.15	2.25	0.03			
3.						0.32	0.11	0.07
PA	-0.05	0.02	-0.11	-2.01	0.04			
Recurring	0.10	0.04	0.15	2.32	0.01			
POS	-0.09	0.02	-0.26	-4.64	0.00			

Dependent variable: Physical withdrawal behaviors

A SPSS three-block hierarchical regression analysis was performed to predict physical withdrawal behaviors. Since the collinearity statistics obtained indicate that all tolerance values are above 0.5 and all the VIF values are below 2.00 indicating that the analysis is with no multicollinearity concern.

In Table 35, the first block of the hierarchical regression includes PA. This variable explains only 2% of the total variation of physical withdrawal behaviors [R^2=0.02, $F_{(1,304)}$ = 6.707, p=0.01]. The results indicate that PA (β =0.14, p=0.01) predicts physical withdrawal behavior significantly in the first step. The second block includes PA and psychologically recurring sub-dimension which explains 4% of the total variance of physical withdrawal behaviors [R^2 = 0.04, $F_{(2,303)}$ = 5.853, p=0.00]. Both PA (β=0.13, p=0.01) and psychologically recurring (β=0.15, p=0.03) predicts physical withdrawal behavior in the second step. The third block which had POS, shows that 11% of the total variance explaining physical withdrawal behaviors. In this step PA (β=0.11, p=0.04) and psychologically recurring, β=0.15, p=0.01) positively, and POS (β=-0.26, p=0.00) negatively predicts physical withdrawal behavior.

4.5.1.4. Effect of PA/NA, Toxic Emotional Experiences Sub-Dimensions, and POS on Physical Withdrawal Behaviors

Table 36 shows the hierarchical regression results between antagonistic withdrawal behavior and PA/NA, toxic emotional experiences sub-dimensions, and POS.

Table 36. Hierarchical Regression Results on Antagonistic Work Behavior

Predictor variables	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1. PA	-0.05	-.03	-0.12	-2.13	-0.04	0.11	0.01	0.01
2. PA	-0.05	0.03	-0.12	-2.07	-0.04	0.21	0.04	0.03
Recurring	0.09		0.12	1.99	0.05			
Disconnecting	0.07		0.08	1.36	0.18			

3.	-	0.05	-	-	-	0.29	0.09	0.04
PA	0.04		0.09	1.72	0.09			
Recurring	0.09	- .05	0.13	2.17	0.03			
Disconnecting	0.10	0.03	0.12	1.98	0.05			
POS	-0.09	0.05	-0.21	-3.76	0.00			
		0.05						
		.023						

Dependent variable: Antagonistic withdrawal behaviors

The prediction of antagonistic withdrawal behaviors was possible through a three-block hierarchical regression analysis in SPSS. Because the collinearity statistics obtained indicate that all tolerance values are above 0.5 and all the VIF values are below 2.00, we conclude that the analysis is with no multicollinearity concern and can be proceeded with regression analysis.

In Table 36, only PA is included in the first block of the hierarchical regression. It explains only 1% of the total variation of antagonistic withdrawal behaviors [R^2=0.01, $F_{(1,304)}$=3.891, p=0.04]. Results indicate that PA (β=0.12, p=0.04) has an important role when predicting antagonistic withdrawal behaviors. The second block includes PA, psychologically recurring, and disconnecting sub-dimensions which explains 4% of the total variance of antagonistic withdrawal behaviors [R^2=0.03, $F_{(3,302)}$=4.590, p=0.00]. It is found that PA (β=0.12, p=0.04) and psychologically recurring (β=0.12, p=0.04) significantly and positively predict antagonistic work behavior in the second step. The third block which had POS, shows that 9% of the total variance explaining antagonistic work behaviors. In this step psychologically recurring (β=0.13, p=0.03), and disconnecting (β=0.12, p=0.05) positively, POS (β=-0.21, p=0.00) negatively predict antagonistic work behavior.

4.5.2. Regression Analysis of Model 2 Using Hayes Model 4

4.5.2.1. The Mediating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support Between Toxic Emotional Experiences and Positive Work Behaviors

Table 37-40 show the mediating effect of perceived organizational support between toxic emotional experiences and positive work behaviors obtained by conducting the analysis of the process Hayes Model 4 in SPSS.

Table 37. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Positive Work Behaviors (*P*art 1)

Model: 4

Y: Positive work behaviors
X: TEE
M: POS
Sample size:306

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
POS

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1957	.0383	65.9531	12.1051	1.0000	304.0000	.0006

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	31.7707	1.3699	23.1919	.0000	29.0750	34.4664
TEE	.1687	.0485	3.4792	.0006	.0733	.2641

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.1957

Table 38. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Positive Work Behaviors (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Positive work behaviors

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1966	.0386	37.8362	6.0895	2.0000	303.0000	.0026

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	18.8979	1.7267	10.9447	.0000	15.5001	22.2957
TEE	.0210	.0374	.5618	.5747	-.0527	.0947
POS	-.1515	.0434	-3.4877	.0006	-.2370	-.0660

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.0323
POS	-.2003

Table 39. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Positive Work Behaviors (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Positive work behaviors

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.0069	.0000	39.2256	.0146	1.0000	304.0000	.9039

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	14.0844	1.0565	13.3315	.0000	12.0055	16.1633
TEE	-.0045	.0374	-.1209	.9039	-.0781	.0691

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	-.0069

Table 40. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Positive Work Behaviors (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs

-.0045	.0374	-.1209	.9039	-.0781	.0691	-.0007	-.0069

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.0210	.0374	.5618	.5747	-.0527	.0947	.0034	.0323

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
POS	-.0256	.0184	-.0717	-.0012

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	POS
-.0041	.0027	-.0105	-.0002	

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	POS
-.0392	.0260	-.1005	-.0020	

The results derived from the Table 37 (part 1) have been examined. In this analysis, X (TEE) is the independent variable, Y (Positive work behaviors) is the dependent variable, and M (POS) is the mediator. In this table, the LLCI and ULCI values are checked to verify their significance. According to the general rule, if these values include 0 (zero), the relationship between two variables is not significant and if these values do not contain 0 (zero), the relationship between two variables is seen and interpreted as significant. This information will not be repeated in the future analyses.

Applying the above mentioned to the findings in the table, the relationship between TEE and POS seems to be significant since zero (0) is not include in the interval [.0733, .2641]. This relationship is significant because p =.0006 < 0.05. We note (b = .1687, 95% CI [.0733, .2641], t = 3.4792, p= .0006)

Table 38 (part 2) displays the findings where both X and M are considered in the analysis. Their effect on Y is given. According to the table, the effect of TEE on positive work behaviors is not significant because (b =.0210, 95% CI, [-.0527, .0947], t =.5618, p =.5747). The value 0 contains in [-.0527, .0947], furthermore, p-value is greater than 0.05. This effect of POS on positive work behaviors is seen to be significant as the value 0 (zero) does not contain in [-.2370, -.0660] interval. Table 39 (part 3) indicates the effect of TEE on positive work behaviors in the model in the absence of the mediating variable (the total effect). We remarked no effect of TEE on positive work

behaviors even in the absence POS. This gives (b = -.0045, CI [-.0781, .0691], t = -.1209, p =.9039). Table 40 (part 4), the analysis the direct and total effects of the findings of TEE on positive work behaviors, and then the indirect effect values are summarized. This indicates whether TEE has an indirect effect on positive work behaviors. The Bootstrap method was adopted here because bootstrapping is considered to be one of the more acceptable and also powerful process for testing mediating variable effects (Hayes, 2009), therefore it should be the method of choice (Preacher et al., 2007) . The confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap process are also reported in the same table. According to the information in the table, there is an indirect effect of TEE on positive work behaviors; hence, POS appears to mediate the relationship between TEE and positive work behaviors. There, we have (b= -.0256, 95%CI [-.0717, -.0012]).

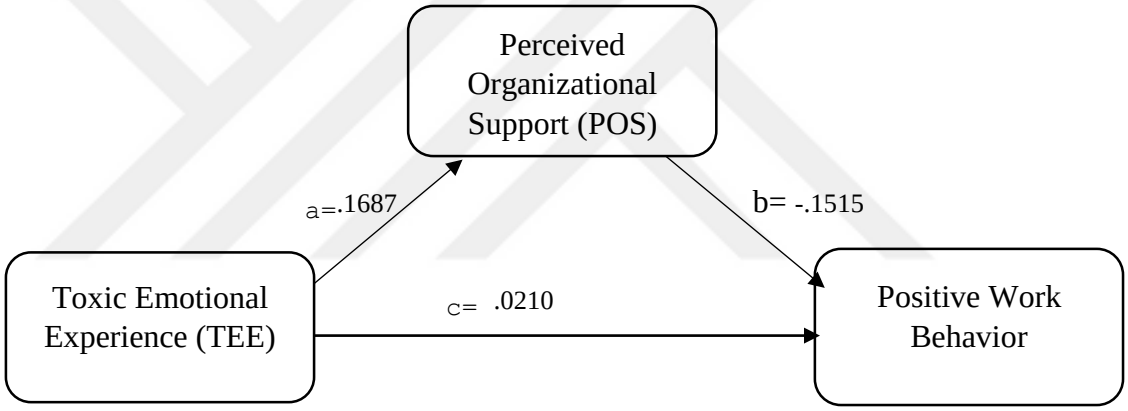


Figure 7. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Positive Work Behavior

4.5.2.2. The Mediating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support Between Toxic Emotional Experiences and Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors

Table 41. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors (Part 1)

Model: 4
Y: Psychological withdrawal behaviors
X: TEE
M: POS

Sample size: 306

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
POS

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1957	.0383	65.95	12.1	1	304	.0006

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	31.77	1.37	23.19	.000	29.075	34.47
TEE	.1687	.0485	3.479	.0006	.0733	.2641

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.1957

Table **42**. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Psychological withdrawal behaviors

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2197	.0483	23.6445	7.6835	2.0000	303.0000	.0006

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	11.8356	1.3650	8.6710	.000	9.1496	14.5216
TEE	.1141	.0296	3.8541	.0001	.0558	.1723
POS	-.0018	.0343	-.0517	.959	-.0694	.0658

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.2203
POS	-.0030

Table 43. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Psychological withdrawal behaviors

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2197	.0483	23.5669	15.4149	1.0000	304.00	.0001

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	11.7792	.8189	14.3844	.0000	10.1678	13.3907
TEE	.1138	.0290	3.9262	.0001	.0568	.1708

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.2197

Table 44. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
.1138	.0290	3.9262	.0001	.0568	.1708	.0229	.2197

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.1141	.0296	3.8541	.0001	.0558	.1723	.0230	.2203

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
POS	-.0003	.0099	-.0199	.0201

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
POS	-.0001	.0020	-.0040	.0041

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
-.0006	.0193	-.0391	.0384	POS

The findings in Table 41 (part 1) are the model summary results of the analysis of the process Hayes Model 4. The independent variable here is psychological withdrawal behavior. According to the table, there is a significant relationship between POS and TEE. The value 0 does not contain in [.0733, .2641] and p =.0006.

Table 42 (part 2) displays the findings where both X (TEE) and M (POS) are considered in the analysis. Their effect on Y is given. According to the table, the effect of TEE on psychological withdrawal behaviors is significant because the value 0 (zero) does not belong to the interval [.0558, .1723]. We have the following (b =.1141, 95% CI, [.0558, .1723], t =3.8541, p =.0001). The value 0 does not contain in [.0558, .1723], furthermore, p-value is less than 0.05. This effect of TEE on psychological withdrawal behaviors is seen to be significant. There is no effect of POS on psychological withdrawal behaviors as the value 0 (zero) contains in [-.0694, .0658].

Table 43 (part 3) indicates the effect of TEE on psychological withdrawal behaviors in the model without any mediator (the total effect). It is seen that the effect of TEE on psychological withdrawal behaviors even in the absence POS is statistically significant. This gives (b = .1138, 95% CI [.0568, .1708], t = 3.9262, p =.0001).

Table 44 (part 4), the analysis the direct and total effects of TEE on psychological withdrawal behaviors, and then the indirect effect values are summarized as well. The total and direct effect of X (TEE) on Y (psychological withdrawal behaviors) are both statistically significant as 0 (zero) does not contain in the respective lower and upper limit confident interval at 95%.

The confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap process are reported in the same table. According to the information in the table, there is no indirect effect of TEE on psychological withdrawal behaviors; hence, POS appears not to mediate the relationship between TEE and psychological withdrawal behaviors.

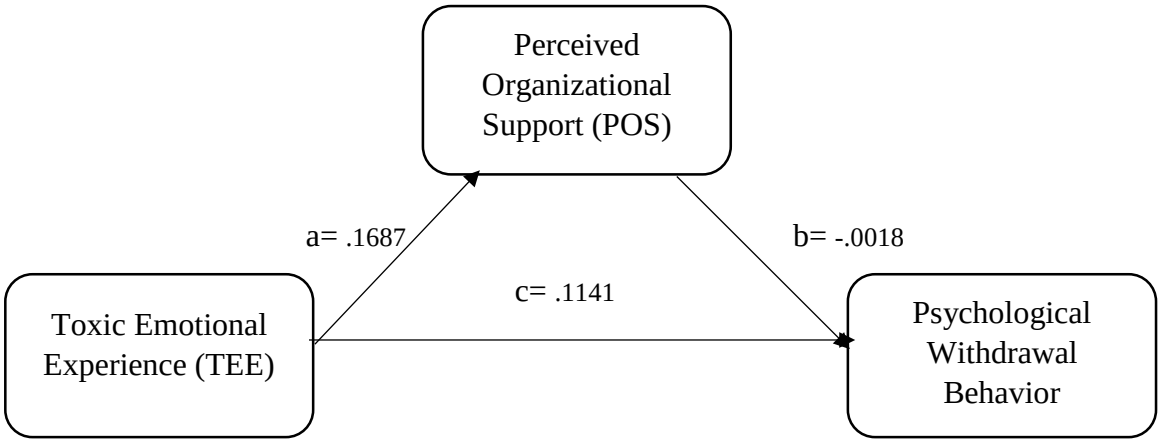


Figure 8. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Psychological Withdrawal Behavior

4.5.2.3. The Mediating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support Between Toxic Emotional Experiences and Physical Withdrawal Behaviors

Table 45. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Physical Withdrawal Behaviors (Part 1)

Model: 4
Y: Physical withdrawal behaviors
X: TEE
M: POS
Sample size:306

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
POS

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1957	.0383	65.9531	12.1051	1.0000	304.0000	.0006

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	31.7707	1.3699	23.1919	.0000	29.0750	34.4664

TEE	.1687	.0485	3.4792	.0006	.0733	.2641

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.1957

Table 46. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Physical Withdrawal Behaviors (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Physical withdrawal behaviors

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3279	.1075	8.5771	18.2468	2.0000	303.0000	.0000

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	9.3936	.8221	11.4263	.0000	7.7759	11.0114 TEE
.0306	.0178	1.7147	.0874	-.0045	.0657	
POS	-.1244	.0207	-6.0161	.0000	-.1651	-.0837

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.0949
POS	-.3329

Table 47. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Physical Withdrawal Behaviors (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Physical withdrawal behaviors

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p

.0297	.0009	9.5701	.2691	1.0000	304.0000	.6043

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	5.4403	.5218	10.4254	.0000	4.4135	6.4672
TEE	.0096	.0185	.5188	.6043	-.0268	.0459

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.0297

Table 48. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Physical Withdrawal Behaviors (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
.0096	.0185	.5188	.6043	-.0268	.0459	.0031	.0297

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.0306	.0178	1.7147	.0874	-.0045	.0657	.0099	.0949

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
POS	-.0210	.0122	-.0515	-.0039

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
POS	-.0068	.0033	-.0141	-.0015

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
-.0652	.0317	-.1378	-.0138	POS

Table 45 (part 1) presents the model summary results of the analysis of the process Hayes Model 4. It covers the mediating effect of POS between toxic emotional experiences and physical withdrawal behaviors. The independent variable here is physical withdrawal behavior. According to the table, there is a significant relationship between POS and TEE. The value 0 does not contain in [.0733, .2641] and p =.0006.

Table 46 (part 2) displays the findings where both X (TEE) and M (POS) are considered in the analysis. Their effect on Y is given. According to the table, the effect of TEE on physical

withdrawal behaviors is not significant because the value 0 (zero) does belongs to the interval [.0045, .0657]. We have the following (b =.0306, 95% CI [-.0045, .0657], t =1.7147, p =.0000).

This effect of TEE on physical withdrawal behaviors is seen to be non-significant. There is an effect of POS on physical withdrawal behaviors as the value 0 (zero) contains in [-.1651, -.0837]. This effect is seen to be significant with p = .0000.

Table 47 (part 3) indicates the effect of TEE on physical withdrawal behaviors in the model without any mediator (the total effect). It is seen that the effect of TEE on physical withdrawal behaviors in the absence POS is not statistically significant with the value 0 contains in [-.0268, .0459]. This gives (b = .0096, 95% CI [-.0268, .0459], t =.5188, p =.6043).

Table 48 (part 4), the analysis the direct and total effects of TEE on physical withdrawal behaviors as well as the indirect effect values are summarized. Accordingly, the total and direct effect of X (TEE) on Y (physical withdrawal behaviors) are both statistically non-significant as 0 (zero) contains in the respective lower and upper limit confident interval at 95%.

The confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap process are reported in the same table. According to the information in the table, there is indirect effect of TEE on physical withdrawal behaviors; hence, POS appears to mediate the relationship between TEE and physical withdrawal behaviors.

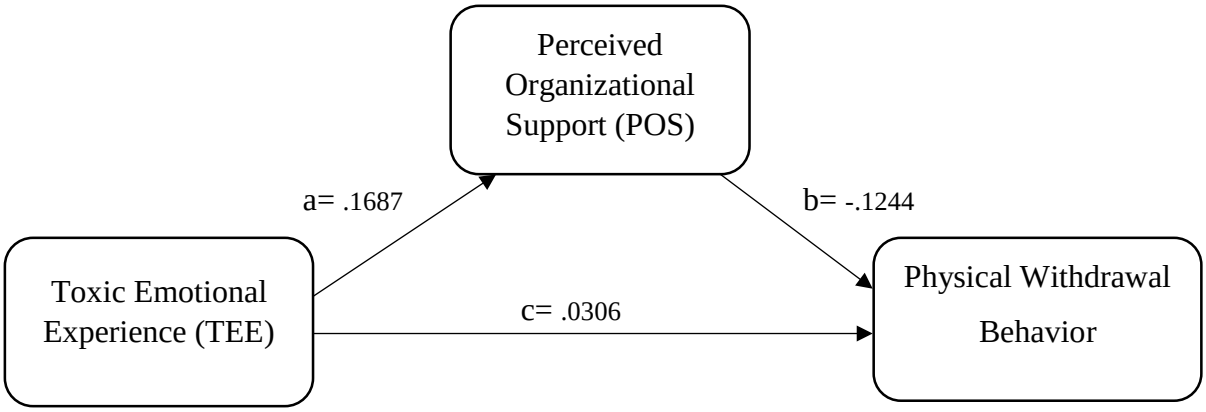


Figure 9. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Physical Withdrawal Behavior

4.5.2.4. The Mediating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support Between Toxic Emotional Experiences and Antagonistic Withdrawal Behaviors

Table 49. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Antagonistic Work Behaviors (Part 1)

Model: 4
Y: Antagonistic withdrawal behaviors
X: TEE
M: POS
Sample size:306

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
POS

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1957	.0383	65.9531	12.1051	1.0000	304.0000	.0006

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	31.7707	1.3699	23.1919	.0000	29.0750	34.4664
TEE	.1687	.0485	3.4792	.0006	.0733	.2641

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.1957

Table 50. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Antagonistic Work Behaviors (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Antagonistic withdrawal behaviors

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2363	.0559	8.8978	8.9629	2.0000	303.00	.0002

Model

Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
Constant	7.7483	.8373	9.2536	.0000	6.1006	9.3960
TEE	.0624	.0182	3.4350	.0007	.0266	.0981
POS	-.0653	.0211	-3.0995	.0021	-.1067	-.0238

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.1955
POS	-.1764

Table 51. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Antagonistic Work Behaviors (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Antagonistic withdrawal behaviors

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1610	.0259	9.1497	8.0897	1.0000	304.00	.0048

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	5.6738	.5102	11.1199	.0000	4.6698	6.6779
TEE	.0514	.0181	2.8442	.0048	.0158	.0869

Standardized coefficients

	Coeff
TEE	.1610

Table 52. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Antagonistic Work Behaviors (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
.0514	.0181	2.8442	.0048	.0158	.0869	.0168	.1610

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.0624	.0182	3.4350	.0007	.0266	.0981	.0204	.1955

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
POS	-.0110	.0079	-.0299	.0003

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	POS
-.0036	.0024	-.0091	.0001		

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	POS
-.0345	.0229	-.0862	.0011		

Table 49 (part 1) presents the model summary results of the analysis of the process Hayes Model 4. It covers the mediating effect of POS between toxic emotional experiences and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors. The independent variable here is antagonistic withdrawal behavior. According to the table, the value 0 does not contain in [.0733, .2641]. Therefore, there is a significant relationship between POS and TEE.

Table 50 (part 2) displays the findings where both X (TEE) and M (POS) are considered in the analysis. Their effect on Y is given. According to the table, the effect of TEE on antagonistic withdrawal behaviors appears to be significant because the value 0 (zero) does not belong to the interval [.0266, .0981]. We have (b =.0624, 95% CI [.0266, .0981], t =3.4350, p =.0007). The effect of POS on antagonistic withdrawal behaviors also appears to be significant as the value 0 (zero) does not contain in [-.1067, -.0238]. This effect is seen to be significant with p = .0021.

Table 51 (part 3) indicates the effect of TEE on antagonistic withdrawal behaviors in the model without any mediator (the total effect). It is seen that the effect of TEE on antagonistic withdrawal behaviors in the absence POS is statistically significant with the value 0 not containing in [.0158, .0869]. This gives (b = .0514, 95% CI [.0158, .0869], t =2.8442, p =.0048).

Table 52 (part 4), the analysis the direct and total effects of TEE on antagonistic withdrawal behaviors as well as the indirect effect values are reported. Accordingly, the total and direct effect

of X (TEE) on Y (antagonistic withdrawal behaviors) are both statistically significant as 0 (zero) does not contain in the respective lower and upper limit confident intervals at 95%.

The confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap process are recorded in the same table. According to this information in the table, there is no indirect effect of TEE on antagonistic withdrawal behaviors; hence, POS appears not to mediate the relationship between TEE and antagonistic work behaviors.

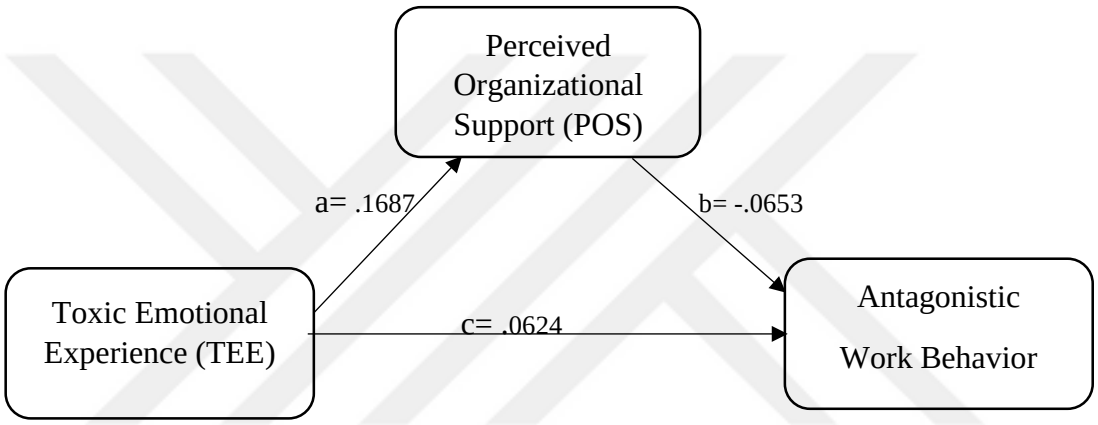


Figure 10. Mediating Effect of POS Between TEE and Antagonistic Work Behavior

5. DISCUSSION

The survey questionnaire techniques applied to the present research may not precisely provide the outcomes we expected due to the nature of the analysis which is conceptual. Thus, to better understand individuals' psychological tendencies, more advanced techniques might be needed. Yet, one of the most significant advantages of this questionnaire-based analysis is that it brings together various concepts to expose the relationships among different components of these concepts. Researchers would be able to see which sub-dimensions are connected to each other if they want to look more deeply into such relationships.

The t-tests performed in the study results provided several significant differences that analyze the differences between the groups. For instance, the t-test between toxic emotional experiences subscales and gender indicates that for psychologically recurring dimension, the average mean of male employees was 8.86, while female employees totalized an average for the same factor was 10.03. Disconnecting dimension shows an average of 7.91 for male employees and 9.28 for female employees. The averages of 8.69 and 9.53 for male and female employees were respectively registered in the draining dimension. Statistically, the differences appear to be significant. We might conclude that female employees are more likely to experience toxic emotional experiences than male in their workplaces. Another t-test analysis performed between on-the-job behaviors components and gender shows that the average of male employees (14.61) for positive work behaviors is greater than the average mean recorded in female workers (13.11). The opposite is observed with psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors where the averages recorded for women employees exceed the ones registered for men employees. These findings imply the gender differences in withdrawal and antagonistic behaviors. However, Tsemach (2014) found no relationship between gender and withdrawal behaviors, but this was refuted by Plug and Mueller's (2006) study in which they found that men are more antagonistic than women. According to Shapira and Zohar (2011), males demonstrate more withdrawal behaviors than females as well. But the present investigation outcomes indicate that the tendency of male employees to display withdrawal behaviors is less than of female employees.

In this report, One-Way Anova tests are performed, findings are reported and interpreted. In accordance with these findings of the One-Way Anova tests between toxic emotional experiences sub-scales and age groups, it is seen that the highest mean of all age groups is observed in the age group of 20 to 29 (9.60); it has also the highest standard deviation (4.31) and M =26. 49 for participants with age ranged from 30 to 39. On the other hand, the age group of 40 and above has the smallest mean and standard deviation (6.13 and 2.18 respectively). From the analysis, it is seen that there exists a significant difference between the groups in terms of toxic emotional experiences. For example, we observed significant differences between 20 to 29 years old and 40 and above (p =0.00) in terms of disconnecting sub-dimension. Similarly, the difference between 30 to 39 and 40 and above (p =0.00), appear to be significant. Age might be an important factor in analyzing employees' toxic emotional experiences. The results might imply that as individuals are getting

older, they become used to toxins. This could be the reason why the amount of toxic emotional experiences decreases as people becoming more mature. The One-Way Anova between age group and positive work behaviors results indicate a higher mean for participant of 40 and above (17.87), followed by those who are 30 to 39 years old (14.79). The lowest mean is for those with least age 20 to 29 (12.60). The findings show a significance value less than 0.05 in positive work behaviors component age. Therefore, there was significant differences between each of the factors regarding the positive work behaviors. The results show no differences between different age groups in terms of withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors. In Turan' (2015) study, she noted that age groups differences are observed in psychological withdrawal behaviors, but not noticed in physical withdrawal and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors. Moreover, she claimed that younger individuals have tendency to exhibit higher psychological withdrawal behaviors than those with more advanced aged. This statement is supported by the results of this study. According to the findings obtained from One-Way Anova between working period and toxic emotional experiences, there were no differences between working period groups in terms of toxic emotional experiences sub-scales. In terms of positive work behaviors, there were significant differences between 1 to 5 and 6 to 10 years of working periods, between 1 to 5 and 21 and above years of working periods, between 11 to 15 and 21 and above years of working periods, between 6 to 10 and 21 and above, and between 16 to 20 and 21 and above years of working periods. Nevertheless, no differences were observed between different working period groups in terms of psychological withdrawal behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic withdrawal behaviors. Interestingly, Shapira and Zohar (2011) also observed no differences in withdrawal behaviors in respect to work experience of employees. The same findings are observed in the research.

The hierarchical regression developed in this study provided interesting outcomes. The independent variables considered were PA/NA, toxic emotional experiences (psychologically recurring, disconnecting, draining sub-dimensions), and POS. On-the-job behaviors components such as positive work behaviors, physical withdrawal behaviors, psychological withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors were dependent variable used. Different values such as B values, standard error values, beta values, and significance values at 95% confidence interval were computed. In the analysis, three separate blocks of predictors as whole are examined to check the weight of variance in predicting positive work behaviors using the R^2. Overall, PA (β=0.22, p=0.00), recurring (β =0.14, p=0.03), and POS (β=-0.11, p=0.04), significantly predict positive

work behaviors. While PA and recurring sub-dimension have positive effect on positive work behaviors, POS predicts negatively. It is also seen that only recurring dimension (β=0.17, p=0.02) positively and significantly predicts psychological withdrawal behavior in the second step. Therefore, it can be said that toxic emotional experiences predict psychological withdrawal behaviors through only recurring dimension. Additionally, PA (β=0.11, p=0.04) and psychologically recurring (β=0.15, p=0.01) positively, and POS (β=-0.26, p=0.00) negatively predicts physical withdrawal behavior. Finally, psychologically recurring (β=0.13, p=0.03), and disconnecting (β=0.12, p=0.05) positively, POS (β=-0.21, p=0.00) negatively predict antagonistic work behavior.

Another relevant facet is demonstrating which parameters and components of variables have mediate effects. In the model applied here, POS was deemed to be the mediator variable. Then, the mediating role of perceived organizational support between toxic emotional experiences and onthe-job behaviors components was performed. The results of this mediation are then summarized in different tables. For instance, POS appears to mediate the relationship between TEE and positive work behaviors. This was a negatively significant relationship. The relationship between TEE and psychological withdrawal behaviors was not mediated by POS, meaning that no mediation between the two parameters. The three variables (independent, dependent, mediator) used to analyze the mediation effects in this study were shown. As it is noted in the mediation effect analysis which examined the mediating role of POS in the relationships between TEE and positive work behaviors and TEE and physical withdrawal behaviors were observed. But it was also important to examine the mediation effects to see whether they full or partial. As far as these mediation effects are concerned, Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010), in their study, quoted that "the evidence for mediation is strongest when there is an indirect effect but no direct effect, which they call full mediation.

When there are both indirect and direct effects, they call it partial mediation." In this study, it is seen that there are no direct mediation effects of POS intervening between TEE and positive work behaviors and TEE and physical withdrawal behaviors. Based on this, we drew the conclusion that the mediating effects of POS found between TEE and positive work behaviors and TEE and physical withdrawal behaviors are full mediations.

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Throughout this study, the effect of positive and negative affect, toxic emotional experiences and perceived organizational support on positive work behaviors, psychological and physical withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors was investigated. In addition, it was tested whether toxic emotional experiences differ according to gender and age. For this purpose, public and private sector employees in Benin Republic were selected as the sample group of the study. According to results it can be said that women have more psychologically recurring and disconnecting emotions than men. There was no significant difference according to gender for the draining sub-dimension. According to ANOVA results between toxic emotional experiences and age groups, it can be concluded that there exists a significant difference between the age groups in terms of disconnecting and draining sub-dimensions. Scheffe multiple comparison test shows that 40 and above years old group is significantly different with 20 to 29 and 30 to 39 years old groups. Regarding draining sub-dimension, this difference was observed only between 20 to 29 years old and 40 and above age group. In contrary to disconnecting and draining, the psychologically recurring sub-scale shows no significant difference between age groups. Thus, age can be thought as an important factor in analyzing employees' toxic emotional experiences. As individuals are getting older, they become used to toxins. Relationships between toxic emotional experiences and research variables were also examined. The results show that there is a positive and significant relationship between toxic emotional experiences and negative affect, psychological withdrawal and antagonistic work behavior. The hierarchical regression results revealed that only psychologically recurring sub-dimension predict psychological withdrawal behaviors. In addition to this, positive affect, psychologically recurring sub-dimension together with diminished perceived organizational support predict positive work behaviors, and physical withdrawal behaviors. The remarkable finding is that employees who experience toxic emotions and perceive less support from their organization may exhibit antagonistic work behaviors.

As it is generally the case in research, this study got some few drawbacks and limitations that make it difficult to generalize the findings. As a result, it may be preferable to perform this study on a specific occupational and age groups with different sample from similar business sectors. Despite these limitations, the current study adds to the research literature by examining the role of

affectivity, toxic emotions, and perceived organizational support on positive work behaviors, withdrawal behaviors, and antagonistic work behaviors.

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Section 1: Please indicate your background status in the table below.

Gender	Female [ ]	Male [ ]		
Age (in years)	……..			
How long have you been working in this organization?	…… years			

Section 2: Please indicate how you generally feel by circling a number from 1 to 5 using the scale below

Not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much
1	2	3	4	5

1.	Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Interested	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Determined	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Excited	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Alert	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Active	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Strong	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Proud	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Attentive	1	2	3	4	5

11.	Scared	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Afraid	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Upset	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: Please indicate how you reflect over the last 6 months by circling a number from 1 to 5 using the scale below.

Very rarely	Rarely	Moderately	Often	Very often
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

1.	My negative emotional experiences are ongoing.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I experience prolonged negative emotions.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My negative emotions keep re-surfacing.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Different situations keep bringing back my negative emotions	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Some negative emotional experiences just will not go away.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I withdraw from others.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I tend to isolate myself.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I tend to feel alone.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I lose interest in interacting with others.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Others tend to ignore me.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I feel exhausted.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	My energy level decreases immediately.	1	2	3	4	5

13.	I feel disconnected from my work.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I feel drained.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I feel lethargic.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 4: Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Undecided	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	The organization strongly considers my goals and values.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	The organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	The organization shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	The organization cares about my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 5: In the past twelve months, please indicate how often have you…? by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Often	Constantly	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	Done more work than required.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Volunteered to work overtime.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Made attempts to change work conditions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Negotiated with supervisors to improve job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Tried to think of ways to do the job better.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Thought of being absent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Chatted with co-workers about nonwork topics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Left work situation for unnecessary reasons.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9.	Daydreamed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Spent work time on personal matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Put less effort into the job than should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Thought of leaving current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Let others do your work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Left work early without permission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Taken longer lunch or rest break than allowed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Taken supplies or equipment without permission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Fallen asleep at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Reported others for breaking rules or policies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Filed formal complaints.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Argued with co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Disobeyed supervisor’s instructions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Spread rumors or gossip about co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7