

EMOTIONAL JOB CRAFTING: CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT,
ANTECEDENTS, AND CONSEQUENCES

ZEYNEP AKSOY

BOĞAZİÇİ UNIVERSITY

2025

EMOTIONAL JOB CRAFTING: CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT,
ANTECEDENTS, AND CONSEQUENCES

Thesis submitted to the
Institute for Graduate Studies in Social Sciences
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Management

by
Zeynep Aksoy

Boğaziçi University

2025

Emotional Job Crafting: Conceptual Development, Antecedents, and Consequences

The thesis of Zeynep Aksoy

has been approved by:

Assoc. Prof. Özgün Burcu Rodopman Acar _____
(Thesis Advisor)

Prof. Yasin Rofcanin _____
(Thesis Co-Advisor)

Prof. Özlem Öz Özkarcılar _____

Assist. Prof. Belgin Arısan _____

Prof. Ali Ekber Akgün _____
(External Member)

Assoc. Prof. Ceyda Maden Eyiusta _____
(External Member)

June 2025

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Zeynep Aksoy, certify that

- I am the sole author of this thesis and that I have fully acknowledged and documented in my thesis all sources of ideas and words, including digital resources, which have been produced or published by another person or institution;
- this thesis contains no material that has been submitted or accepted for a degree or diploma in any other educational institution;
- this is a true copy of the thesis approved by my advisor and thesis committee at Boğaziçi University, including final revisions required by them.

Signature.....

Date.....

ABSTRACT

Emotional Job Crafting: Conceptual Development, Antecedents, and Consequences

This thesis investigates how employees navigate emotional job demands (EJD) through two complementary studies. Study 1 employs the critical incident technique (CIT) to understand the underlying mechanisms by which employees cope with emotional job demands (EJD). We conducted semi-structured interviews with a purposively selected sample (N =15). The data analysis led to the development of an *emotional job crafting* model that integrates EJDs, emotional resources, and coping strategies, which we refer to as emotional job crafting strategies, and employee outcomes, alongside depicting the underlying mechanisms that explain their interrelations. Study 2 was designed to examine the underlying motivational mechanisms of one of the counterintuitive findings revealed in Study 1: the enactment of job crafting to navigate abusive supervision before leaving an organization. Adopting a scenario-based experimental design, data were collected from 247 participants. The findings revealed that abusive supervision elicits negative affect that attenuates promotion-oriented but augments prevention-oriented job crafting, which in turn cultivates turnover intention. Moreover, we found that perfectionistic concerns exacerbate the relationships among abusive supervision, negative affect, prevention-oriented job crafting, and turnover intention. However, perfectionistic strivings show no moderating effect. Overall, this thesis has advanced theoretical understanding and guided practical insights by revealing the strategies employees utilize in response to EJDs.

ÖZET

Duygusal İş Şekillendirme: Kavramsal Geliştirme, Öncülleri ve Sonuçları

Bu tez, çalışanların duygusal iş taleplerini (DİT) nasıl yönettiklerini araştıran iki çalışmadan oluşmaktadır. Çalışma 1’de, çalışanların DİT’lerle nasıl başa çıktıklarını açıklayan temel mekanizmaları anlamak için kritik olaylar tekniği kullanılmıştır. Amaçlı örnekleme yoluyla ulaşılan 15 katılımcı ile yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Veri analizi sonucunda DİTler, duygusal kaynaklar, duygusal iş şekillendirme adını verdiğimiz baş etme stratejileri ve çalışan sonuçlarını bütünleştiren bir duygusal iş şekillendirme modeli geliştirilmiştir. Ayrıca bu model, bahsedilen bileşenler arasındaki ilişkileri açıklayan temel mekanizmaları da içermektedir. Çalışma 2 ise, Çalışma 1’de elde edilen ilginç bulgulardan biri olan çalışanların istismarcı liderlikle baş etmek için işten ayrılmadan önce iş şekillendirme davranışını benimsemesinin ardındaki motivasyonel mekanizmaları ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla tasarlanmıştır. Bu çalışmada, senaryoya dayalı deneysel bir tasarım benimsenmiş ve 247 katılımcıdan veri toplanmıştır. Bulgular çalışanların istismarcı liderlik karşısında olumsuz duygulanım hissettikleri ve bu olumsuz duygulanımın teşvik odaklı iş şekillendirme davranışını azalttığını, önlem odaklı iş şekillendirme davranışını ise artırdığını göstermektedir. Sonuç olarak, çalışanların işten ayrılma niyeti artmaktadır. Ayrıca mükemmeliyetçilik kaygılarının istismarcı liderlik, olumsuz duygulanım, önlem odaklı iş şekillendirme ve işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki seri ilişkiyi pekiştirdiği bulunmuştur. Ancak mükemmeliyetçilik çabalarının anlamlı düzeyde bir düzenleyici etkisi bulunamamıştır. Genel olarak bu tez çalışması, çalışanların DİT’lere karşı göstermiş oldukları stratejileri inceleyerek kuramsal anlayışın derinleşmesine ve pratik uygulamalara katkı sağlamaktadır.

CURRICULUM VITAE

NAME: Zeynep Aksoy

DEGREES AWARDED

PhD in Management, 2025, Boğaziçi University

MA in Organizational Behavior, 2019, Marmara University

BA in Psychology, 2017, Boğaziçi University

AREAS OF SPECIAL INTEREST

Emotions, Employee well-being, Job crafting, Digital employee experience.

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Research Assistant, Department of Business Administration, Yıldız Technical University, 2017 – present.

Visiting Researcher, Aarhus University (Denmark), April 2023- June 2023.

AWARDS AND HONORS

TÜBİTAK, MA Scholarship, 2017-2019.

Academy of Management 85th Annual Meeting, Best Reviewer Award, 2025.

PUBLICATIONS

Master's Thesis

Aksoy, Z. (2019). Employee reactions to talent management: The role of organization-based self-esteem.

Journal Articles

Akgün, A. E., Keskin, H., Aksoy, Z., Fidan, S. Ş., & Yigital, S., (2023). The mediating role of organizational learning capability and resilience in the error management culture-service innovation link and the contingent effect of error frequency, *Service Industries Journal*, 43(7-8), 525-554. (SSCI)

Keskin, H., Aksoy, Z., & Fidan, S.Ş. (2021). Yönetim ve organizasyon araştırmalarında yorumlayıcı fenomenolojik analiz yönteminin kullanılması: Sistematik bir inceleme. *Business & Management Studies: An International Journal*, 9(4), 1437-1451.

Akgün, A. E., Keskin, H., Aksoy, Z., & Fidan, S. Ş., (2022). Yorumlayıcı Fenomenolojik Analiz’de (YFA) güncel yaklaşımlar: İşletme Yönetimi çalışmaları için yeni metodolojik yönelimler. *Ulakbilge Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 71, 299-306.

Akgün, A.E., Aksoy, Z., Gölgeci, İ., Keskin, H., & Esen, E. (Under review) Understanding the emergence of digital employee experience: Navigating the digital transformation in the workplace. *New Technology, Work and Employment*. (SSCI)

Keskin, H., Akgün, A.E., Esen, E., & Aksoy, Z. (Under review). From strategy to success: How digital support and digital leadership drive firm performance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. (SSCI)

Akgün, A.E., Keskin, H., Esen, E., & Aksoy, Z. (Under review). Unveiling the nexus of the relationship between multiplayer digital game-playing experience and workplace loneliness: A moderated serial mediation analysis. *BMC Psychology*. (SSCI)

Book Chapters

Yılmaz, T., Keskin, H. & Aksoy, Z. (2022). Girişimci Üniversitelerin Ekonomik, Sosyal ve Kültürel Sürdürülebilirliğe Etkileri. M. Bulut ve C. Korkut (Ed). *Döngüsel Ekonomi ve Sürdürülebilir Hayat* (p. 213-236). Türkiye Bilimler Akademisi Yayınları. DOI: 10.53478/TUBA.978-605-2249-97-0.ch08

Conference Proceedings

Aksoy, Z., Kabasakal, H., Rofcanin, Y., & Rodopman, B. (2025). Emotional crafting: Coping with emotional demands at work. Accepted for presentation at the *85th Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management* taking place in July 2025 in Copenhagen, Denmark.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to share my gratitude to all those who have supported me throughout my thesis journey. First, I am sincerely thankful to my former advisor, Prof. Hayat Kabasakal, who supervised my thesis studies before retiring. Her academic guidance and insights laid a solid foundation for my thesis. I also appreciate her supportive, warm, and sympathetic approach, which has shaped my academic stance and perspective.

I am grateful to my current supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Özgün Burcu Rodopman Acar. Her patience and constructive feedback were very instrumental in developing the final version of my thesis. I deeply appreciate her guidance during the research model development, data analysis, reporting, and revision process of my thesis.

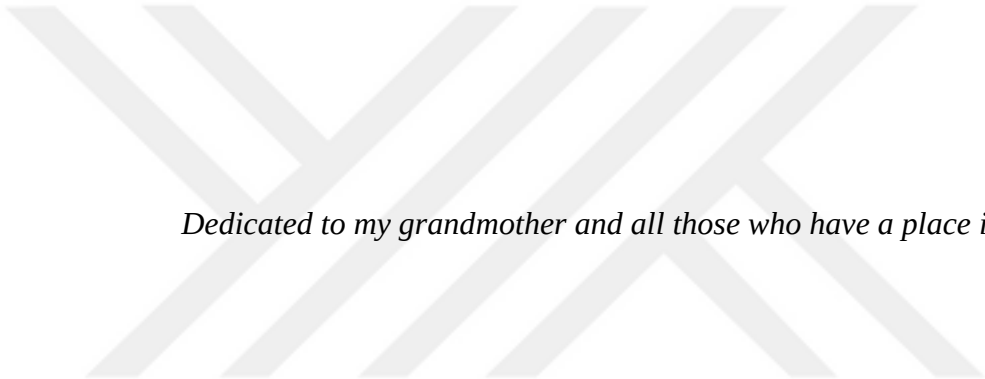
I would also express my sincere thanks to my co-advisor, Prof. Yasin Rofcanin, who encouraged me to explore the topic of my thesis from the very beginning. His uplifting words and instrumental support helped me maintain my motivation throughout this process.

I would like to thank the members of my thesis committee for their valuable and constructive feedback. I am sincerely thankful to Assoc. Prof. Ceyda Maden Eyiusta for her suggestions and supportive behaviors for my thesis during its progress. In addition, I would like to express my appreciation to the committee members, Prof. Özlem Öz, Prof. Ali Ekber Akgün, and Assist. Prof. Belgin Arısan for their insightful feedback in the defense meeting.

I am also grateful to my colleagues and all the professors in the Department of Business Administration at Yildiz Technical University for their valuable contributions to my thesis and academic journey.

Finally, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my family and friends. They are my source of strength and motivation. I am deeply thankful to my parents for their love, compassion, and care since the day I was born. Their emotional and material support has shaped my determination and success throughout my academic life. I would also like to thank my siblings Zehra and Uğur, and Merve, who is the wife of Uğur, for their encouragement and companionship. Lastly, I am grateful to my niece Defne, the newest member of our family, for being a source of happiness during my most stressful times.





Dedicated to my grandmother and all those who have a place in my heart.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Overview of studies.....	1
CHAPTER 2: STUDY 1	3
2.1 Introduction	3
2.2 Literature review	10
2.3 Theoretical framework.....	24
2.4 Method	31
2.5 Findings.....	35
2.6 Discussion	55
CHAPTER 3: STUDY 2	71
3.1 Introduction	71
3.2 Literature review	79
3.3 Theoretical framework.....	108
3.4 Hypotheses development	111
3.5 Method	120
3.6 Data analysis	126
3.7 Discussion	134
CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSION.....	145
APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ENGLISH).....	147
APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (TURKISH).....	148
APPENDIX C: SURVEY I (ENGLISH)	149
APPENDIX D: SURVEY I (TURKISH).....	152
APPENDIX E: SURVEY II (ENGLISH)	156

APPENDIX F: SURVEY II (TURKISH).....	159
APPENDIX G: ETHICAL APPROVAL.....	162
APPENDIX H: MANIPULATION OF SCENARIOS (TURKISH).....	163
APPENDIX I: MANIPULATION CHECK FORM (ENGLISH).....	165
APPENDIX J: MANIPULATION CHECK FORM (TURKISH).....	167
APPENDIX K: EXPERIMENT FORM (ENGLISH)	169
APPENDIX L: EXPERIMENT FORM (TURKISH).....	174
REFERENCES.....	180



LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Demographic Information of Participants.....	34
Table 2. Demographic Information of Participants.....	53
Table 3. Frequency of EJDs.....	53
Table 4. Frequency of Emotional Resources.....	54
Table 5. Frequency of Emotional Job Crafting Strategies.....	55
Table 6. Categorization of Emotional Job Crafting Strategies.....	58
Table 7. Descriptive Statistics for Manipulation Check.....	124
Table 8. Demographics of the Sample.....	127
Table 9. Factor Loadings with CR, AVE, and Cronbach's Alpha for the Model...	128
Table 10. HTMT Values for the Model.....	129
Table 11. VIF Analysis for the Model.....	130
Table 12. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations.....	131
Table 13. Mediation Test.....	134
Table 14. Summary of Hypothesis Testing.....	135

ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CI	Confidence Interval
CIT	Critical Incident Technique
COR	Conservation of Resources
CR	Composite Reliability
DER	Digital Emotion Regulation
DISC	Demand-Induced Strain Compensation
e.g.	exempli gratia
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EJD	Emotional Job Demand
i.e.	id est
JC	Job Crafting
JD-R	Job Demands-Resources
M	Mean
R	Reversed
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SD	Standard Deviation

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of studies

This thesis comprises two independent but interrelated studies to understand how employees cope with emotional job demands (EJD), which consumes employees' emotional energies and poses emotional strain (Van de Ven et al., 2013). EJDs typically stem from strain-induced social interactions and roles that require healing the suffering of others (Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). Exposure to interpersonal hostility at work, engaging in aggressive behaviors of students, or medicating a patient in the late stages of cancer are all instances of EJDs. EJDs elicit serious repercussions, such as decreased psychological well-being, health problems, negative assessment of a job and others at work, and performance deterioration (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003; Geisler et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2016; Parker et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2022). Thus, this thesis ultimately aims to guide organizations about how to foster emotionally safe work environments and encourage employees to be more resilient by unveiling the theoretical basis of coping responses to EJDs and subsequent outcomes.

Study 1 aims to understand the EJDs employees encounter and the strategies that they adopt to deal with them. Taking an inductive approach, we rely on a qualitative research design to elicit various forms of EJDs, relevant coping strategies, personal and contextual emotional resources that navigate the selection and application of these strategies, and subsequent outcomes of this coping process. The data analysis unveiled a macro-model, which we refer to as the *emotional job crafting* model, that comprises multiple elements and relationships among EJDs,

personal and contextual emotional resources, coping strategies, and employee consequences. In Chapter 2, Study 1 will be presented in detail.

Study 2 was inspired by a research question that had emerged from Study 1. In Study 1, we found that some participants, despite experiencing abusive supervision, reacted to it not only with prevention-oriented but also promotion-oriented job crafting, a finding that is counterintuitive under abusive supervision. However, even employees who engaged in promotion-oriented job crafting reported that they plan to exit their organizations. This surprising finding raises important and interesting questions: Who engages in promotion-oriented job crafting versus prevention-oriented job crafting under abusive supervision, and why? Furthermore, why would employees under abusive supervision engage in promotion-oriented job crafting even if they intend to quit? These questions challenge the traditional view that promotion-oriented job crafting results in more favorable outcomes, such as work engagement or job performance (Bindl et al., 2019), suggesting instead that its nature and consequences may be more complex in the abusive supervision context. Study 2 was designed to understand this interesting finding more deeply. In this regard, we aim to explore the motivational processes linking abusive supervision to different dimensions of job crafting and how these relationships shape a significant employee outcome: turnover intention. In Study 2, we also explored the role of perfectionism as a personality trait that may motivate employees' different job crafting responses to abusive supervision. Study 2 will be elaborated in detail in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1

2.1 Introduction

EJDs, such as high-tension customer interactions or display rules, refer to aspects or situations of a job that deplete the emotional reservoir of employees (Cortes & Herrmann, 2024; Lings et al., 2014; Van de Ven et al., 2013; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Yin et al., 2018). Because EJDs cannot be eliminated (Bakker & Sanz-Vergel, 2013) and they are responsible for destructive outcomes such as emotional exhaustion, counterproductive work behavior, turnover intention, trauma, or a hostile work environment (Lian et al., 2014; Matta et al., 2014; Michalak et al., 2017; Siong et al., 2006; Tuxford & Bradley, 2015; Vogel & Bolino, 2020), employees need to manage them in order to prevent future occurrences and alleviate their serious consequences effectively (Brough et al., 2018). Moreover, Reh et al. (2021) noted that when employees effectively cope with EJDs, they can break the strong relationship between EJDs and negative outcomes, which is important for maintaining employee well-being and performance (Frydenberg, 2014). Despite its importance, our understanding of the psychological mechanisms behind how and why employees cope with EJDs at work remains incomplete (Chaudhry & Espinosa, 2024; Michalak et al., 2017; Peng et al., 2010).

According to transactional stress theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), negative affective experiences signal an inconsistency between current and employees' ideal circumstances, thereby energizing employees in the utilization of coping strategies to solve this inconsistency. Coping refers to the "...constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are

appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person” (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141). As existing research has indicated, employees employ coping strategies, such as searching for solutions or expressing emotions, to handle EJDs (Brown et al., 2005; Folkman et al., 1986; Frydenberg, 2014; Lazarus, 1991; Peng et al., 2010). However, prior research has predominantly examined how employees cope with EJDs by focusing on individual coping strategies in isolation—such as intrapersonal emotion regulation (Yin et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2022), emotional labor (Peng et al., 2010), and interpersonal emotion regulation (Thiel et al., 2015)—while more recent studies have extended this scope to include the use of digital technologies (Gellmers & Yan, 2023), job crafting, and recovery activities (Bakker & de Vries, 2021; Masood et al., 2021; Pletneva, 2024; Tu & Chi, 2023). Thus, the existing knowledge has focused on coping strategies independently and disregarded the possibility that employees utilize a combination of coping responses. In other words, the existing body of knowledge has left a gap in understanding how employees utilize coping strategies against EJDs in real-world settings from a holistic perspective. It is essential to capture the complexity and interrelated dynamics of coping with EJDs within broader coping processes that are also shaped by personal and contextual factors.

Conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) complements our understanding of coping by explaining why employees engage in coping (Frydenberg, 2014). COR theory is a valuable theoretical framework that explains individuals’ intentional behaviors in modifying their surroundings, which other job stress models have disregarded (Hobfoll, 1989). According to COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the threat of actual depletion of resources creates psychological distress in

individuals (Frydenberg, 2014). This distress motivates them to cope by conserving or building valuable resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

Moreover, resources constitute a supportive mechanism that enables employees to cope with EJDs (Dewe, 2017). Previous studies have examined personal (e.g., self-efficacy) or contextual (e.g., leader-member exchange or social support) resources to explain effects of EJDs (Lam et al., 2018; Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). In this study, we particularly focus on emotional resources in work and family domains. According to the demand-induced strain compensation (DISC) model, emotional job resources can offset the serious consequences of EJDs and thereby improve well-being (de Jonge et al., 2008; de Jonge & Dormann, 2003; Peng et al., 2010; Van de Ven et al., 2013a). Emotional job resources refer to the emotional characteristics of a job that replenish an employee's emotional pool and provide emotional support (Van de Ven et al., 2013; van Vegchel et al., 2004). A supervisor who shows empathy or a coworker who provides emotional support may be examples of emotional job resources. Furthermore, spouse or family emotional support, as emotional resources in the family domain, is utilized to cope with workplace stressors (Kwok et al., 2015; Park & Haun, 2017). In this study, we argue that when employees actively utilize personal and contextual emotional resources to cope with EJDs, they are less likely to experience serious outcomes. This is consistent with the notion that simply possessing emotional resources is not sufficient; employees must actively explore and exploit these resources (Van de Ven et al., 2013). For instance, an employee may have a supervisor who is capable of providing emotional support but fails to use these resources by not seeking support. Bakker and de Vries (2021) noted that exhaustion and other severe consequences are

attributable not only to inadequate resources but to a lack of employees' agent behaviors in using them.

To enhance the current body of knowledge, this study aims to understand the situations and events that drain employees' emotional energy and elicit negative emotional experiences (i.e., EJDs), and the strategies utilized to cope with these events holistically. A broader understanding enables researchers and practitioners to design tailored workplace interventions and support systems that navigate the root causes and the outcomes of EJDs to create emotionally resilient workplaces. Thus, this study aims to develop a comprehensive framework to reveal how employees cope with EJDs and focus on the research questions below:

Research Question 1. Which EJDs do employees encounter in the workplace?

Research Question 2. How and why do employees cope with these EJDs?

Research Question 3. How and why do employees select and apply particular coping strategies when they encounter an EJD? Which factors contribute to the utilization of specific coping strategies?

To achieve our purpose, we utilize the critical incident technique (CIT) (Flanagan, 1954), enabling us to dive deep into EJDs, emotional resources, and coping responses. Drawing on the empirical findings, this study introduces the emotional job crafting model. We define emotional job crafting as the use of cognitive and behavioral strategies to manage emotional job demands or their emotional consequences. These strategies include intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation, digital emotion regulation (DER), job crafting, and recovery activities.

Our study enriches the relevant literature by addressing significant research gaps. First, this study enhances the current understanding of coping with EJDs,

which has been understudied (Brough et al., 2018). Previous studies have largely focused on generic demands but not EJDs (Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). Considering the importance of EJDs for employee well-being, this study makes an insightful contribution to understanding the nature of EJDs and the mechanisms that facilitate coping with EJDs.

Second, this study takes a holistic approach to strategies to deal with EJDs and introduces the emotional job crafting framework. Therefore, it enhances our understanding of how employees cope with EJDs by unveiling the dynamic interplay among EJDs, emotional resources, and strategies. By adopting an exploratory approach, we include various employee-initiated strategies in our study because these strategies are not fixed and are not in a vacuum (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). In other words, employees can utilize one or more strategies that can be changed occasionally based on the availability of personal or contextual emotional resources and the characteristics of EJDs (e.g., severity or longevity). This approach enables us to reveal the dynamic nature of coping strategies in response to EJDs. Thus, we enrich the fragmented body of knowledge by picturing the real-life experiences of employees without limiting them and depicting the reality of this process. We achieve this by examining several coping strategies in a single study, which have been disregarded in the current literature (Brough et al., 2018)

Third, by integrating the DISC model (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003), transactional stress theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and COR (Hobfoll, 1989), this study expands the DISC model by providing a rich understanding of how and why employees cope with EJDs at work that are enabled by personal and contextual resources. In this regard, we also enrich the existing body of knowledge by revealing the dynamic effects of resources on coping with EJDs, which have been explored to a

limited extent (Brough et al., 2018; Geisler et al., 2019). This study also extends previous research by examining the active role of employees in utilizing available resources for coping (Bakker & de Vries, 2021; Van de Ven et al., 2013). In this regard, we expand the literature on the DISC model by empirically examining the role of self-regulation as a manifestation of employee agency in balancing EJDs with emotional resources. In other words, we support one of the main premises of the DISC model in which the mere existence or absence of a job demand/resource may not be meaningful, but an employee's active behavior in shaping them is likely to be related to positive outcomes (Van de Ven et al., 2013).

Fourth, this study adds to the coping literature by highlighting the role of resources in work and home domains in selecting and applying coping strategies and determining coping effectiveness. Previous studies have revealed that emotional resources in the family domain (e.g., spousal support) are as effective as emotional job resources in helping employees build new resources or restore and protect their resource pool (Halbesleben, 2010; Park & Fritz, 2015; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). As a result, our study also expands the literature on work-family interaction (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) by unveiling the dynamic relationships among EJDs, emotional family resources, and emotional job crafting strategies.

Further, our study also makes two important contributions to COR theory. To begin, we enhance the existing theory by unveiling the strategies for resource investment (e.g., job crafting or recovery activities). Hobfoll et al. (2018) emphasized the need for future studies that investigate resource gain pathways within the framework of COR theory, as expanding the theory beyond a stress model. In addition, we enhance the clarity of the COR theory by adopting the precise definitions of EJDs and emotional resources. This has been highlighted by Hobfoll et

al. (2018), who highlighted the need to combine the COR theory with other theories that elucidate specific resources within a given context. Thus, we enhance the COR theory by incorporating the multidimensionality of resources as indicated by the DISC model.

We also add to the coping literature by unveiling emerging coping strategies: job crafting and DER. The existing body of knowledge on coping focuses mainly on coping with encounters that have currently or previously been experienced, but researchers are presently shifting their focus towards understanding how individuals cope with potential future instances of psychological distress, which is referred to as future-oriented coping (Biggs et al., 2017). In this regard, we expand the existing knowledge on future-oriented coping by examining job crafting as a coping response.

Moreover, DER, an emerging concept, enriches our understanding of emotion-focused coping by incorporating digital technologies. However, a systematic understanding of DER in the work context is still lacking. Previous studies in psychology or human-computer interaction literature examined specific aspects of DER, such as utilizing music or video games, by employing the general population (i.e., students) (Sarsenbayeva et al., 2020, 2021; Shi et al., 2023; Wadley et al., 2020), but only a limited number of studies investigated the DER in an organizational context (Smith et al., 2022). Considering the increased prevalence of digital technologies and positive effects of emotion regulation at work, studying DER in the workplace is important and timely. Therefore, this study provides a fresh perspective on coping in the digital context through DER. This is especially important for today's digitalized work environments, where employees rely on digital tools and platforms that elicit digital demands (Battisti et al., 2022; Scholze & Hecker, 2024). Moreover, remote employees represent a growing population of the

workforce, and understanding how they navigate EJDs through digital technologies adds to the existing coping literature (Wells et al., 2023).

The remaining part of Chapter 2 proceeds as follows: The second section includes the literature review. The third section explains the methodology of this study. The fourth section introduces the data analysis and findings. The last section discusses the findings, elaborates on how this research leverages the existing body of knowledge, and provides managerial implications.

2.2 Literature review

2.2.1 Emotional job demands (EJD)

Job demands are defined as “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). Job demands predict job burnout through eroding mental or physical health (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001).

EJDs represent the job demands with the negative emotional load (Parker et al., 2023). Also, EJDs are defined as “work-related tasks that require emotional effort (e.g., having to do a lot of emotionally draining work)” by Van de Ven et al. (2013). According to Teoh et al. (2019), emotional demands in the workplace primarily arise from interpersonal interactions. Conflicting relationships and emotional dissonance (Feuerhahn et al., 2013), work-family conflict, emotional labor (Teoh et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2021), display rules and interactions with emotionally demanding people at work (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003; Huang et al., 2016; Tims et al., 2012) are examples of EJDs.

Previous studies conceptualize EJDs in terms of a) facing situations that involve emotional disturbance, b) experience and expression of emotions that are defined by display rules, and c) emotional work that focuses on the emotional flourishing of others (Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). Examples include encountering a supervisor's toxic behaviors, feeling obligated to smile at a customer, and listening to others' problems to regulate their emotions, respectively.

EJDs deplete employees' resources and unveil negative affective experiences (Reh et al., 2021; Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). Empirical evidence has revealed that the more emotionally disturbing events and situations employees encounter, the higher they experience emotional exhaustion (Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). Employees with higher EJD have difficulty finding a meaning that fulfills their self-actualization needs in their jobs (Geisler et al., 2019). From an interactional perspective, talking about EJDs through conversations carries the risk of contagion of EJDs among coworkers (Parker et al., 2023). When considering the spillover effect, EJDs also deteriorate employees' off-work lives (e.g., home domain) by affecting their cognitions and emotions negatively (Wang et al., 2013).

Although EJDs elicit negative consequences, coping mechanisms can ameliorate these effects (Reh et al., 2021). Increased job demands lead employees to seek and use their job resources (Parker et al., 2023). Specifically, EJDs trigger employees to utilize various strategies (e.g., reappraisal, suppression, or deep acting) to reduce the negative impacts of them (Huang et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2022). Huang et al. (2016) found that emotional labor strategies mediate the link between job demands, job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion. Moreover, Zheng et al. (2022) have revealed that personal resources mediate the relationship between EJDs and emotional exhaustion. In addition, Parker et al. (2023) found that EJDs increase

employees' tendency to rely on social relationships. Parker et al. (2023) found that job resources (e.g., workplace relationships) play a buffering role that reduces the impacts of EJDs. When employees have supportive peers, they are likely to genuinely regulate their felt emotions in response to EJDs (Huang et al., 2016). As employees learn how to manage EJDs effectively in time, they spend less energy and resources coping with them (Reh et al., 2021).

2.2.2 Emotional resources

According to Greenglass et al. (2014), significant others can enhance an individual's capability to manage stress, such as emotional demands, by actively listening to their concerns, offering recommendations, and showing empathy. Coworkers and supervisors in organizational contexts and family, friends, and romantic partners in the non-work domains provide emotional support that can be considered as an emotional resource. Emotional support refers to “when others enhance a person's positive emotions using a variety of tactics, such as showing respect, being optimistic, or listening to problems” (Thacker & Stoner, 2012, p. 42).

Emotional job resources refer to the emotional characteristics of a job that replenish an employee's emotional pool and provide emotional support (Van de Ven et al., 2013; van Vegchel et al., 2004). Also, emotional job resources refer to “sources of emotional support that can be employed to deal with job demands” (Van de Ven et al., 2013, p. 1). Emotional support (Feuerhahn et al., 2013), positive affect (Al-Yagon, 2010, 2011), relational attachment (Aboramadan & Kundi, 2022), and emotional intelligence (EI) (Liu et al., 2008) can be considered as indicators of emotional resources.

Emotional job resources protect employees from emotional harm (Liu et al., 2008) and help them to cope with EJDs (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003). Van de Ven et al. (2013) found that only employees who can actively build their emotional resources feel less emotional exhaustion under higher EJDs. Parker et al. (2023) found that social relationships at work that provide support and relational energy can play a buffering role against EJDs and influence job performance positively.

2.2.3 Emotional job crafting

This study introduces and defines emotional job crafting as the use of cognitive and behavioral strategies that employees use to manage either EJDs or their emotional consequences. These strategies include intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation, DER, job crafting, and recovery activities. While response-focused emotional job crafting strategies, such as attention deployment, are utilized immediately after an EJD is experienced, antecedent-focused strategies, such as job redesign, aim to prevent future occurrences of EJDs.

For instance, some employees reduce interaction with emotionally demanding coworkers to conserve emotional energy. Relaxing or convincing an angry customer, encouraging a friendly working atmosphere to reduce jealousy or interpersonal conflicts, supporting the climate of authenticity that allows everyone to reflect their felt emotions kindly, and increasing interaction with others at work who provide emotional support may be instances of emotional job crafting. In this sense, emotional job crafting is an employee-initiated behavior designed to manage EJDs through reducing them, reshaping them in a more constructive or challenging way, and increasing emotional job resources.

The current job crafting literature has highlighted the employee behaviors for reducing EJDs (Tims et al., 2012). The emotional job crafting concept also encompasses designing emotional job resources and navigating EJDs in a constructive way. In particular, employees' behaviors for increasing emotional job resources are important because they allow employees to alleviate EJDs (Bova et al., 2015; de Jonge & Dormann, 2003). Building on the previous job crafting research (Tims & Bakker, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), this study suggests that employees display emotional job crafting for personal or psychological purposes, but it indirectly contributes to organizational outcomes.

2.2.3.1 Related concepts

According to Podsakoff et al. (2016), researchers should differentiate an emergent concept from preexisting and related concepts to produce a precise conceptual definition. Therefore, it is important to elaborate existing concepts regarded as connected to emotional job crafting, yet distinct from it. For this purpose, this study distinguishes emotional job crafting from EI, emotional labor, and emotional support seeking.

First, EI refers to the “ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). EI is treated as a personal (Zheng et al., 2021) or an emotional resource (Kim et al., 2012). People with high EI are excellent at understanding their emotions and are more likely to develop or seek out solutions to manage them and retain and expand their emotional resources (Nauman et al., 2019). In addition, individuals with higher EI choose more effective strategies that allow them to develop creative solutions (Kim et al., 2012). Zheng et

al. (2021) mentioned that EI, as a personal resource, may energize individuals to acquire additional resources. In this regard, EI can predict emotional job crafting by influencing strategy selection. Thus, emotional job crafting and EI are distinct but related constructs.

Second, emotional labor means the requirements for employees to display emotional expressions that are expected by organizations (Kim et al., 2012). Display rules and emotional labor are considered as EJDs (Huang et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2021). While emotional labor mainly focuses on the expression and experience of emotions (Niven, 2016), emotional job crafting is pertinent to the utilization of strategies to reduce pressures from display rules. For instance, employees may craft relational aspects of their jobs by choosing not to serve aggressive customers. Moreover, emotional job crafting is also performed not for organizational purposes, as in emotional labor (Kim et al., 2012). In contrast, emotional job crafting is a self-initiated behavior distinct from emotional labor.

Furthermore, a closely associated concept that can be used interchangeably is seeking emotional support. Emotional support seeking is a psychological coping mechanism that involves seeking care and empathy from significant individuals (Greenglass et al., 2014). It is a way of regulating emotions through relationships (Williams et al., 2018). Emotional support seeking does not explicitly address EJDs and resources. Moreover, Greenglass et al. (2014) wrote that emotional support seeking points out “regulating temporary emotional distress by closing to others feelings, evoking empathy and seeking companionship from one’s social network” (p. 7). This statement shows that seeking emotional support is more related to emotional regulation. In this regard, the focus of emotional support seeking is the

utilization of emotional resources, which represents only a limited part of emotional job crafting.

In addition, emotional job crafting can be understood as a type of job crafting. They are related in terms of redesigning a job, but emotional job crafting focuses particularly on emotional aspects. In this regard, emotional job crafting encompasses job crafting behaviors that addresses EJDs and emotional job resources. However, job crafting encompasses readjusting generic job demands and resources (Tims & Bakker, 2010). In detail, job crafting and emotion regulation are elaborated in the emotional job crafting strategies section.

2.2.3.2 Emotional job crafting strategies

Emotional job crafting strategies include emotional regulation, intrapersonal and interpersonal, DER, job crafting, and recovery activities. Each of them will be elaborated below.

2.2.3.2.1 Emotion regulation

Emotion regulation refers to “the extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions, especially their intensive and temporal features” (Thompson, 1991, p. 271). When emotions are inappropriate, individuals often engage in emotion regulation strategies to modify these emotions to make them more functional. The appropriateness of emotions is contingent upon how well they correspond to an individual’s desired emotional states, personal objectives, temporal considerations, and the contextual circumstances (Peña-Sarrionandia et al., 2015). In other words, emotion regulation is deliberately managing emotions to attain a desired emotional state (Gross, 2015). According to Zaki and Williams (2013),

emotion regulation strategies have two fundamental purposes: 1) reducing distress and 2) increasing positive affective states. In addition, according to the emotion regulation motivation theory of Niven (2016), individuals manage their emotional experiences based on four psychological drivers: hedonism motive to increase personal pleasure, instrumentality motive to enhance one's performance, compassion motive to boost others' well-being, and coaching motives to promote others' performance.

Employees can manage their emotions either personally, which refers to intrapersonal emotion regulation, or in social relationships, which is called interpersonal emotion regulation (Niven, 2016; Niven et al., 2009; Zaki & Williams, 2013). Cognitive re-evaluation (e.g., changing perspectives) and suppression of emotions are examples of intrapersonal emotion regulation. Moreover, emotions often arise within interpersonal interactions (Lazarus, 2006). In this regard, social settings allow individuals to adjust their emotions (Gross, 1998). Also, individuals naturally seek support from others to manage their emotional states when facing a troublesome situation (Zaki & Williams, 2013). In other words, they receive help from others through empathetic listening, psycho-social support, or altruistic behaviors (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010; Elfenbein, 2014) to jointly tune up their emotions in a social relationship (Niven et al., 2009).

Empirical evidence has revealed significant emotion regulation impacts at work (Lawrence et al., 2011). Effective emotion regulation increases positive emotions in individuals, energizing approach-oriented behaviors (Elliot & Thrash, 2002) and motivating individuals to engage in goal-oriented activities (Rimé, 2009). Emotion regulation is likely to mitigate the harmful effects of problems in interpersonal relationships (Jiang et al., 2013) and counterproductive work behavior

(Zhu et al., 2025) but fosters information sharing and innovation within teams (Madrid et al., 2019), quality of leader-follower interactions (Little et al., 2016), interpersonal citizenship behavior (Madrid et al., 2018), and job performance (Zhu et al., 2025).

2.2.3.2.2 Digital emotion regulation (DER)

DER refers to the process by which individuals alter their affective experiences through digital technologies (Wadley et al., 2020). DER's primary purpose appears to be enhancing positive emotional states through digital means (Shi et al., 2023). For instance, an employee who receives a negative performance review from his supervisor may use WhatsApp to text his best friend to seek emotional support and feel better. Or a stressed employee may watch a short, amusing video on YouTube to boost positive emotions.

Wadley et al. (2020) noted that DER encompasses both intrapersonal and interpersonal types of emotion regulation. While intrapersonal DER means balancing negative emotions through using digital devices personally, interpersonal DER includes interacting with others in digital platforms to craft emotional experiences. Digital devices help individuals seek instrumental or emotional support by sharing emotions with others online (Canale et al., 2022; Scott et al., 2023). For instance, Sarsenbayeva et al. (2021) found that engagement in social video games can effectively mitigate adverse emotions, including boredom and stress, through connection with other players. Colasante et al. (2022) have demonstrated that texting and video-calling help individuals upregulate their emotions effectively by enabling them to receive support beyond time and geographical boundaries. Moreover,

previous studies on DER have focused on employing digital instruments to induce or modify a particular mood or affective state (Scott et al., 2023).

Some studies have indicated that while employees may not have the specific intention of regulating emotions, the use of digital tools might support the experience of pleasant emotions, which proves the utilization of digital technologies for emotional job crafting purposes. For instance, Lim and Chen (2012) have found that employees who spend time online for personal activities feel more positive emotions and less stress. Moreover, Janicke-Bowles et al. (2019) found that funny videos (versus inspiring videos) elicit hedonic positive emotions (versus self-transcendent emotions) in employees by relieving stress. Sarsenbayeva et al. (2020) conducted a study that revealed a reciprocal association between digital tools and emotions, whereby emotions can influence individuals' usage of digital tools. Conversely, digital tools can impact individuals' emotions, either in a positive or negative way.

2.2.3.2.3 Job crafting

Job crafting refers to “the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work” (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p. 179). Previous studies have examined job crafting as an effective strategy to deal with threatening or unsatisfying events (Harju et al., 2016; Masood et al., 2021; Pletneva, 2024). This parallels the recent advances in the coping literature that introduce future-oriented coping (Biggs et al., 2017; Frydenberg, 2014). Job crafting is engaged in coping with an encounter because it helps employees to become distanced from fraught thoughts, reduce negative emotional experiences, and satisfy some basic psychological needs (Pletneva, 2024). Harju et al. (2016) considered job crafting as a proactive coping strategy because it is initiated when employees foresee

future threats to their well-being and take action to reduce them. Masood et al. (2021) have found that employees reduce negative repercussions of abusive supervision by displaying an approach and/or avoidance crafting to reduce abuse or take control over the abusive supervision situation. In particular, they either try to expand their job resources, enrich social relationships with others, develop their job-related knowledge and skills, or reduce interactions with abusive supervisors. Pletneva (2024) has revealed that employees who encounter a relationship breakup or the death of a loved one have grief-related emotional experiences such as sadness, regret, or a sense of failure, and then turn their attention to work. As they craft their jobs in terms of relationships (e.g., increasing high-quality interactions) and task-related activities (e.g., undertaking extra tasks and learning new skills and knowledge), they distract their minds from grief-related thoughts (e.g., taking a breath), and enjoy support from the workplace and satisfy their fundamental needs (e.g., achievement or affiliation). As a result, they experience professional growth due to the increasing job-related skills and knowledge, and getting promotions, higher organizational commitment due to getting support, strengthened and expanded social ties, and decreased risk of mental illnesses and addictions. However, Pletneva (2024) underscored the harmful effects of job crafting, such as serious health problems, sleep deprivation, and fatigue, because of excessive work.

2.2.3.2.4 Recovery

Recovery is “the process of replenishing depleted resources or rebalancing suboptimal systems” (Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006, p. 60). Recovery research took its historical roots from the effort-recovery model that posits that demands at work drain employees’ energies and resources, increase fatigue, and require employees to

recover to return to an optimal energy level (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). It has gained importance in the organizational behavior literature since the publication of seminal research on the effects of recovery activities after work on employee well-being (Sonnentag, 2001).

Recovery aims to facilitate the restoration of depleted resources and decreased energy level as a result of job demands and stressful work events, ultimately bringing them back to a fundamental functioning level (Bennett et al., 2016; Reinecke et al., 2011). It alleviates the negative impacts of job stressors and strain by moving employees' attention away from them, engaging in enjoyable activities, building new resources and strengths, and gaining control (Cheng & Cho, 2021). If employees cannot recover from work, their psychological, cognitive, and physical strain levels increase, threatening their well-being and performance (Sonnentag et al., 2017).

Moreover, recovery constitutes a construct that refers both to a) the process of activities and experiences and b) the outcome of engaging in recovery, which represents the consequences of this process and psychological or physiological state of being recovered (Sonnentag & Geurts, 2009). In particular, recent studies on the recovery process distinguish between recovery activities and recovery experiences. While recovery activities encompass specific behaviors or actions employees engage in during non-working hours (e.g., meditation, video-gaming, or socializing), recovery experiences denote the underlying psychological mechanisms employees experience from engaging in recovery activities (Sonnentag et al., 2017).

Regarding the context and time frame of recovery activities, recent studies have encompassed at-work and off-work recovery activities (Sonnentag et al., 2017). Employees can engage in recovery activities within and outside work offices, during

and after working hours. Recovery activities at work are called microbreaks in the workplace and during working hours (de Bloom et al., 2014), which can be either formal (i.e., organizationally defined breaks) or informal (i.e., self-initiated breaks) (Chan et al., 2022). For instance, coffee breaks or chatting with coworkers during lunch are considered recovery at work. In addition to engaging in recovery activities when facing job demands, employees can apply strategies (e.g., planning the day) to proactively recover from potential job demands (Chan et al., 2022). Recovery activities outside the workplace and working hours are more flexible and may be longer (Sonnentag et al., 2017). Going to the cinema with your spouse at the weekend or watching television after work are examples of off-work recovery activities. In terms of time frame, recovery can occur in short-term (e.g., microbreaks or in the evening) or long-term (e.g., vacations) periods (Sonnentag et al., 2017).

Recovery activities elicit recovery experiences that encompass four primary psychological states: psychological detachment, relaxation, mastery, and control (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Psychological detachment is disengaging work-related thoughts and emotions during non-working time (e.g., in microbreaks or evening) (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). Activities unrelated to work, such as watching a film or reading a book, may facilitate the state of psychological detachment. In the experience of psychological detachment, employees shift their attention to non-work activities. Relaxation occurs when employees join activities that require low psychological and physical demands (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). For instance, practices such as yoga or walking around a forest can induce a state of calmness. Mastery is experienced when employees gain new skills and knowledge outside of the work that foster a sense of achievement (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Learning a musical instrument or cooking a new recipe can boost mastery experience that might

spill over to the work context (Sonnentag et al., 2017). Control refers to the degree to which individuals have autonomy over deciding when and how they can recover (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Employees who can initiate off-the-job activities to recharge themselves will likely experience a sense of control (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). In addition to these four experiences, researchers have recently studied the sense of enjoyment as recovery experiences (Sonnentag et al., 2017). For instance, dancing at a birthday party may elicit enjoyable experiences in individuals.

The type of recovery activity, personal (e.g., personality) and contextual (e.g., support for recovery or intensity of job stressors) factors affect recovery experiences (Sonnentag et al., 2017). Particularly, when employees encounter greater job stressors, they are less likely to have favorable recovery experiences. For instance, intensive job stressors (e.g., workload) may prevent employees from refraining from job-related thoughts, decreasing their well-being (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). However, contextual factors such as support from a romantic partner ameliorate employees' experiences during and after recovery activities (Park & Fritz, 2015). In addition, individuals may simultaneously have more than one recovery experience (Bennett et al., 2016; Sonnentag et al., 2017).

Recovery experiences influence employees' attitudes and behaviors at work, such as well-being, work engagement, task performance, proactive work behavior, and organizational citizenship behavior by restoring energy and resources of employees (Chan et al., 2022; Sonnentag, 2001; Sonnentag et al., 2017). Recovery activities at work are also beneficial for employees in fostering positive emotions (Troughakos et al., 2008), work engagement, and job performance (de Bloom et al., 2015). Moreover, de Jonge et al. (2012) found that recovery activities interact with

job demands and resources, ultimately predicting employees' well-being and performance.

Recent studies have provided a complementary view of recovery and coping at work. These concepts explain how employees use strategies to manage workplace stressors and their impacts (Sonnentag et al., 2017). The difference is that while coping focuses on altering stressful situations or their impacts, recovery emphasizes restoration of personal resources and energies to make individuals return to an optimal level of functioning (Sawhney et al., 2018). Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) noted that recovery is a form of “time-delayed coping with job stress” (p. 208). Thus, recovery helps employees build internal resources to cope with stressors. Here, de Jonge et al. (2012) noted that engaging in recovery activities helps employees restore their internal resources that can interact with job resources to deal with job demands.

2.3 Theoretical framework

2.3.1 The demand-induced strain compensation (DISC) model

The DISC model clarifies how employees deal with EJDS and their emotional consequences. The DISC Model, established by de Jonge and Dormann (2003), explains job stress by specific dimensions of job resources and job demands. Resources assist employees in managing job demands either directly by improving their capacity to handle them or indirectly by enabling employees to avoid them (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003). When employees do not have adequate job resources that exceed the level of job demands, they are likely to experience adverse consequences (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003).

The DISC model is based on two main principles: multidimensionality and the triple matching hypothesis (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003). The

multidimensionality principle implies that job demands and resources do not have a single dimension (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003). It means that a job can have cognitive, physical (behavioral or technical), and emotional demands as well as cognitive, physical (behavioral or technical), and emotional resources. For instance, while carrying heavy furniture is a physical job demand, dealing with aggressive customers may be an EJD. On the other hand, while a supervisor who provides constructive performance feedback is a task-related job resource, a colleague who offers emotional support is an emotional job resource.

The second principle is the triple matching hypothesis (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003). It means more interaction occurs when job demands, resources, and outcomes have the same dimensional content (e.g., cognitive or emotional) (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003). In other words, a specific job resource compensates for the matching job demands to reduce the demand-induced adverse outcomes. For instance, colleagues' emotional support, rather than technical support, is more likely to interact with demands from an angry customer (an emotional job demand), thereby reducing emotional exhaustion (Bova et al., 2015). Because emotional exhaustion is defined as the feelings elicited by inflated emotional job demands (Demerouti et al., 2001), it has an emotional component that can be best predicted by EJDs or resources, according to the DISC model.

Furthermore, according to the DISC model, employees first manage job demands by utilizing the most appropriate (i.e., matching) resources if they are sufficient and accessible (de Jonge et al., 2012). If matching resources do not exist or are insufficient, they resort to using resources with a lower degree of matching or that do not match. Although previous job stress models focused on how job stress that is elicited by job demands can be alleviated through job resources, they did not

differentiate between matching and non-matching job resource-demand interaction (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003). Therefore, the DISC model highlighted the importance of the most effective job demands-resources combination.

2.3.2 Transactional stress theory

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) elucidated how individuals perceive and respond to specific circumstances by emotional (e.g., discrete emotions) and behavioral reactions (e.g., coping). In particular, they introduced two main processes: cognitive appraisal and coping. Cognitive appraisal is a thought-related process by which an individual evaluates whether a specific event or situation impacts well-being and produces specific affective reactions (Folkman et al., 1986). Cognitive appraisal occurs at two stages: primary and secondary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). During the primary appraisal process, individuals first assess the relevance of an encounter with their values and purposes (Folkman et al., 1986; Lazarus, 1991). When the assessment of a present circumstance does not align with anticipated or ideal circumstances and does not satisfy an individual's needs and expectations, individuals experience psychological distress, which was mentioned by Lazarus (1966). In other words, individuals aim to understand whether a circumstance poses a potential danger to themselves. Primary appraisal leads to one of three evaluations: a circumstance is perceived as a threat to well-being, trivial, or a benefit. When it is perceived as dangerous, it triggers unpleasantness and activates secondary appraisal (Biggs et al., 2017).

In the secondary appraisal, emotions are elicited because of an evaluation of perceived responsibility of a circumstance, availability of coping resources, and expected coping effectiveness (Biggs et al., 2017; Folkman et al., 1986). For

instance, if individuals blame themselves for receiving a negative performance appraisal from their supervisor, they are likely to feel negative emotions such as shame or guilt (Xing et al., 2021). Moreover, during the secondary appraisal process, individuals evaluate whether they have appropriate and sufficient resources that facilitate coping and whether they have control over (Dewe, 2017). If they believe they can change the situation they experience, they will likely feel hope. At the end of secondary appraisal, individuals decide how to cope with a stressful encounter by either emotion-focused or problem-focused coping (Folkman et al., 1986). In comparison, emotion-focused coping includes strategies that focus on managing emotions that are felt in response to a negative encounter, while problem-focused coping strategies are employed to solve their root causes (Biggs et al., 2017). Building new networks to find a new job after leaving an organization is an example of problem-focused coping, but escaping from and suppressing emotions can be an instance of emotion-focused coping (Herman & Tetrick, 2009).

The choice between emotion-focused or problem-focused coping strategies is determined by an individual's assessment of the changeability and controllability of a situation, the accountability (i.e., who is responsible for a situation), the strength of the emotions that they experience as a result, and the existence of personal and environmental resources and a person's coping style (Biggs et al., 2017; Folkman et al., 1986; Michalak et al., 2017). When individuals think a situation can be altered, they typically employ problem-focused coping methods. Conversely, when individuals regard a situation as unchangeable, they manage their negative feelings by attempting to regulate them, a process known as emotion-focused coping (Folkman et al., 1986). Furthermore, the selection of a coping response takes into account the coping strategies that have been previously employed (Biggs et al.,

2017). In addition, if a person has supportive resources for employing problem-focused coping strategies, they are less likely to utilize emotion-focused coping strategies (Biggs et al., 2017). It means that, because problem-focused coping strategies are also resource-consuming, individuals need supportive factors, such as self-esteem or spousal support, to be able to adopt such strategies aimed at solving the root causes of their problems (Halbesleben, 2010; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). If they do not have these personal or contextual resources, they are more likely to manage their negative emotions to conserve their remaining resources and well-being.

Coping behaviors result in another evaluation phase, tertiary appraisal (Michalak et al., 2017). After utilizing a particular coping response, individuals assess whether this coping response is effective in dealing with the negative situation. Suppose the level of psychological tension is decreased and problems are resolved. In that case, the result is appraised as positive (i.e., effective or successful), or vice versa (Biggs et al., 2017). The original coping theory does not distinguish between the effectiveness and ineffectiveness of coping strategies. Instead, it focuses on whether an individual experiences a satisfactory outcome and the subsequent benefits after coping (Folkman et al., 1986). The relationship between coping strategies and favorable outcomes is contingent upon the tertiary appraisal (Michalak et al., 2017). It means that if a coping strategy is effective, individuals experience more favorable outcomes, such as positive emotions, higher job satisfaction, or job performance. Furthermore, when a coping process fails to produce a satisfactory or resolved outcome, it triggers the following process by adopting a different coping response (Biggs et al., 2017).

The existing literature consistently relates problem-focused coping to positive outcomes (e.g., physical or psychological well-being) and emotion-focused coping to adverse outcomes (e.g., ill-being, decreased quality of life) (Biggs et al., 2017; Frydenberg, 2014). Precisely, coping strategies that focus on emotions are beneficial in the short term but detrimental to individuals' overall well-being in the long term (Biggs et al., 2017). On the other hand, Austenfeld and Stanton (2004) concluded that the operationalization of emotion-focused coping and the method used to examine it may change the results. For instance, emotion processing and emotional expression through writing raise more positive health outcomes for individuals.

2.3.3 Conservation of resources (COR) theory

The COR theory serves as an explanatory framework for understanding the goal of coping (Dewe, 2017). In other words, it offers an additional perspective on coping by elucidating the reasons why individuals deal with stressful situations (Frydenberg, 2014). COR theory was introduced by Hobfoll (1989) to explain human behavior in maintaining valuable resources and protecting them from actual or potential loss. Resources are defined as “those entities that either are centrally valued in their own right (e.g., self-esteem, close attachments, health, and inner peace) or act as a means to obtain centrally valued ends (e.g., money, social support, and credit)” (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 307). COR theory suggests individuals have an innate tendency to “retain, protect and build resources” (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 513). Therefore, COR theory highlights the active role of individuals in modifying their environment under situations that present real or prospective threats.

COR theory has four main principles (Hobfoll et al., 2018). The initial principle posits that the deprivation of resources is more unpleasant than the

acquisition of them, therefore motivating individuals to protect resources. According to COR theory, individuals are primarily driven to pursue and enhance enjoyment, success, and rewards (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, losses are overweighted in comparison to gains (Hobfoll et al., 2018). It means that the consequences of losses are more serious, which makes individuals on tenterhooks and drives them to take action to prevent losses, recover from losses, or gain valuable resources. The second premise implies that individuals must invest in resource-building to increase their resilience to resource loss (Hobfoll et al., 2018). As a result, they actively modify their surroundings to minimize and alleviate stressful circumstances but amplify favorable consequences. It is crucial to replace and increase important resources since a scarcity of resources raises people's susceptibility to further losses (Hobfoll, 1989). For instance, employees may acquire new competencies and establish networks beyond their organizations as a way to enhance their employability in anticipation of a potential job loss (Demerouti, 2025). According to the third principle, resource building is more important when individuals experience higher levels of resource loss (Hobfoll et al., 2018). The fourth principle posits that individuals tend to adopt more defensive coping strategies when they lose resources and lack supportive resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). This is because they protect themselves from further resource depletion by not showing resource-consuming behaviors.

In addition, resources do not exist in isolation. Instead, they are interrelated and exist in a resource bundle (Hobfoll, 2011). For instance, individuals with a valuable personal resource (e.g., positive self-evaluation) may have a constellation of personal resources (e.g., self-efficacy and optimism). It also means that a supportive environment may cultivate a range of resources (Demerouti, 2025). In contrast, non-supportive environments drain individuals' resource pools. The plethora of

supporting mechanisms for developing resource pools is essential because it enables individuals to gain further resources and makes them resilient to resource loss (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

2.4 Method

This study adopted an inductive qualitative approach that helps unveil situation-specific strategies to cope with EJDs without forcing participants to select from a set of encounters and coping strategies. Mainly, this study relied on the CIT that was first systematically introduced by Flanagan (1954) because the aim of the research, to unveil various EJDs and employees' relevant responses, is better achieved by this methodology. The CIT has principles and practices that aim to elicit critical incidents (e.g., practices, behaviors, reactions, situations, or events) helpful in addressing real-life problems and developing a solution-related framework (Flanagan, 1954; Viergever, 2019). Following the previous studies that examined coping (Folkman et al., 1986) and utilized CIT to develop a stress management framework (Lewis et al., 2010), this study relies on the CIT intending to specify critical strategies of employees to cope with EJDs and their emotional consequences and understand why they select a specific coping strategy (or strategies) over other strategies. It is important to understand how employees manage job demands with negative emotional content and which factors contribute to the selection, effective utilization, and success of coping strategies.

This study adopts an intraindividual and interindividual approach to answering research questions for two reasons. First, the coping theory does not match a specific encounter with a specific coping response (Folkman et al., 1986). The coping process is unique to an individual's assessment of a situation and

personal circumstances (e.g., available resources or supporting factors). Thus, an intraindividual approach facilitates understanding how and under what circumstances employees select and apply a particular coping strategy. It allows us to understand whether employees utilize different strategies to cope with EJDs. Moreover, the within-person approach elicits how an encounter unfolds and how a person responds to it after primary appraisal and evaluating the coping outcome, namely ‘*microanalysis of the coping process*’ (Folkman et al., 1986, p. 1000). Adopting both an intraindividual and interindividual approach allows for making generalizations across a broader context and understanding both intraindividual and interindividual differences in coping.

2.4.1 Data collection instruments

This study used semi-structured interviews for data collection. Interviews are one of the data collection methods used in CIT to facilitate an in-depth understanding of critical incidents (Viergever, 2019). Semi-structured interviews are a proper data collection technique that enables researchers to understand individuals’ unique responses and shed light on under-researched or poorly understood phenomena by providing in-depth comprehension (Hossain et al., 2022; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Thus, the data collection instruments were interview questions (See Appendix A) and a short questionnaire that includes personality tests (See Appendix C) and demographic questions that are related to age, gender, marital status, educational level, industry type, tenure in the current organization, total tenure, and whether the participant lives alone. Pre-identified interview questions (e.g., “What kind of situations emotionally affect you at work? Please give examples and describe situations.”) were generated based on the literature review. In addition to the

preidentified interview questions, the researcher also asked probing questions based on participants' answers.

Moreover, participants were given a short questionnaire that included extraversion, emotional stability, and emotional expressiveness scales. Following the previous studies (Cullen-Lester et al., 2016; Tu & Chi, 2023), extraversion was measured using a 10-item scale developed by Goldberg (1999). Participants were asked to evaluate items based on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). Emotional stability was measured on a six-item scale developed by Judge et al. (2013). In adopting the measure scale used in the study of (Du et al., 2018), participants were asked to rate items based on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*). This study also utilized a 17-item scale developed by Kring et al. (1994) to measure participants' emotional expressiveness on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Never True*) to 6 (*Always True*). Scale items originally in English were translated into Turkish by making the cultural adaptation to increase participants' comprehension, as suggested by Usunier (2011).

2.4.2 Sampling

In the context of this study, the sample was a purposive sample recruited from personal and professional contacts. Purposive sampling helps to gather participants who can provide rich and in-depth information about a research interest (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). EJDs are of heightened significance for individuals employed in emotionally demanding (e.g. aggression of clients or listening problems of clients) occupations such as healthcare, education, or customer support (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Briner & Totterdell, 2002; de Jonge et al., 2008; de Jonge &

Dormann, 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; van Vegchel et al., 2004). Interactions with clients pose emotional stress on service employees (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003; Reh et al., 2021). This study included participants from employees who work in service occupations and non-service occupations to reach rich and comprehensive data. In this regard, 15 participants who worked in various sectors were interviewed. Information regarding participants is provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Information of Participants

Participant ID	Interview length (minutes)	Age	Gender	Marital status	Education	Industry	Total tenure (Months)	Housing situation (Living with others or alone)
P1	40	29	Female	Single	Bachelor	Healthcare	66	Living with others
P2	33	27	Female	Single	Bachelor	Education	28	Living with others
P3	38	27	Female	Married	Bachelor	Education	65	Living with others
P4	74	51	Female	Married	Bachelor	Education	340	Living with others
P5	19	23	Female	Single	Bachelor	Education	7	Living with others
P6	35	23	Male	Single	Bachelor	Healthcare	6	Living with others
P7	60	50	Female	Single	Master	Education	360	Living with others
P8	36	31	Female	Single	Master	Healthcare	51	Living alone
P9	81	47	Female	Married	Bachelor	Consulting	270	Living with others
P10	28	27	Male	Married	Bachelor	Service	19	Living with others
P11	34	26	Female	Single	Bachelor	Architecture	48	Living with others
P12	59	42	Male	Married	Master	Education	240	Living with others
P13	30	27	Female	Single	Bachelor	Manufacturing	49	Living with others
P14	40	30	Male	Married	Master	Education	76	Living with others
P15	30	30	Female	Married	Bachelor	Technology	72	Living with others

2.4.3 Procedure

The interviews were carried out through an online communication platform between January and May of 2024. Before interviews were conducted, an informed consent form was given to each participant to inform them about their rights and ensure the confidentiality of their data. Moreover, a short questionnaire was emailed to participants. The interview process started after participants gave consent to

participate in the study. At the beginning of the interview, the researcher made a brief explanation about the research and the interview process. Interviews were carried out with each participant individually in Turkish and were recorded. The data collection process ended when the critical incidents, which are EJDs and coping strategies, were saturated (Viergever, 2019).

2.4.2 Data analysis

By following the application guideline of CIT provided by (Viergever, 2019), data was analyzed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a data processing method that identifies and categorizes similar patterns and generates themes (Naeem et al., 2023). For this purpose, the researcher was first immersed in the transcribed verbatim through several active readings and analyzed them individually. In this step, the researcher identified first-order concepts that involve similar contents, patterns, and meanings. After each participant's data set had been analyzed, the researcher compared and contrasted the convergent and divergent first-order concepts to refine them. In the second step, based on these first-order concepts, the researchers identified sub-themes for each, representing the names of these first-order concepts. At the end of the data analysis process, the researcher grouped similar sub-themes into main themes. The data structure summarizes and depicts the data analysis process (See Figure 1).

2.5 Findings

Through the process of data analysis, four main themes were identified. Main themes are EJDs, emotional job resources, emotional family/spouse resources, and emotional job crafting strategies.

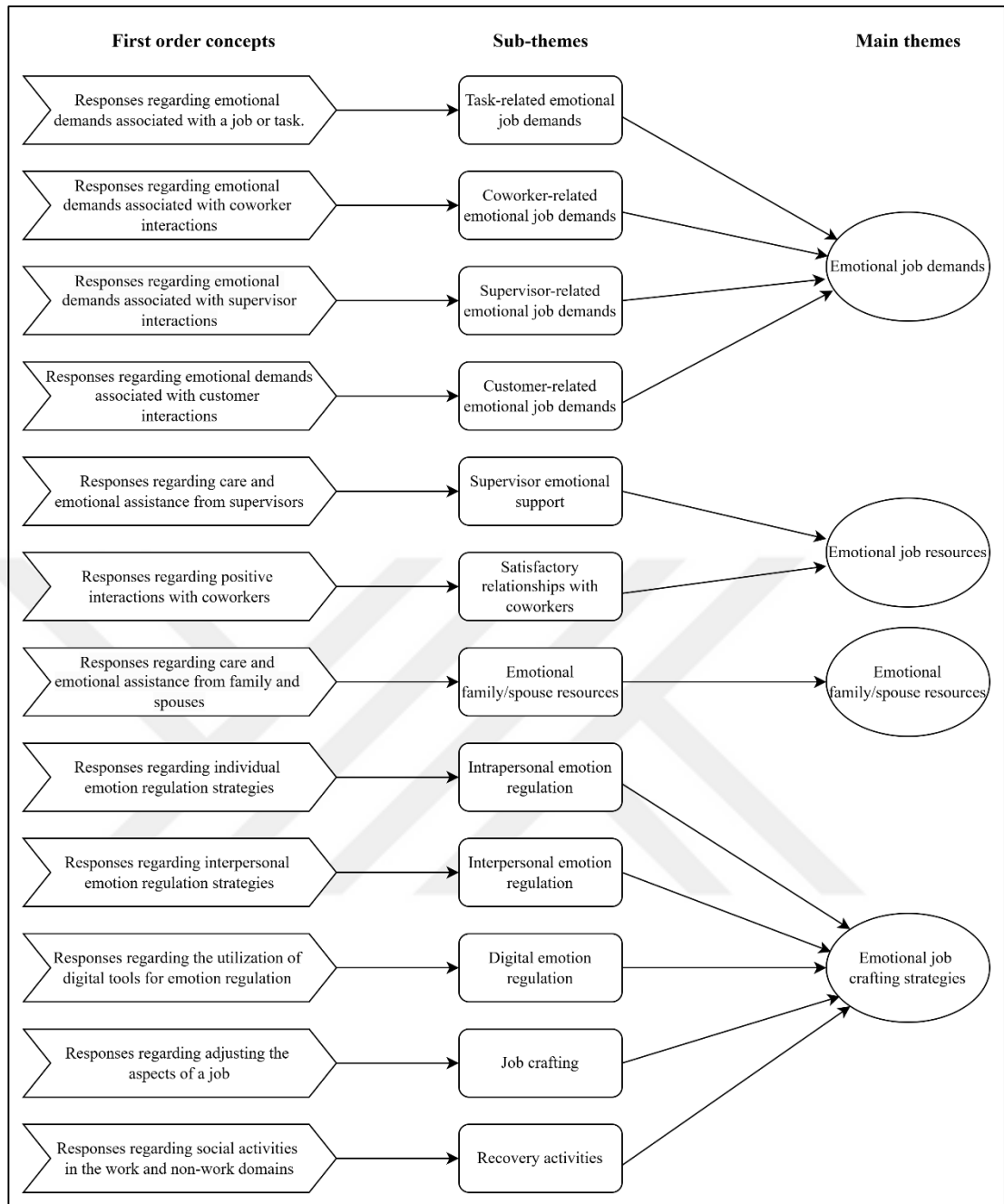


Figure 1. Data structure

EJDs theme encompasses four different sub-themes: task-, coworker-, supervisor-, and customer/client-related EJDs. Our second theme, emotional job resources, includes supervisor emotional support and satisfactory relationships with coworkers as sub-themes. These specific emotional job resources include socioemotional components that aid in coping with EJDs and preventing their occurrence. The third

main theme, family and spouse emotional resources, refers to the assistance employees receive from their family members or spouses in managing the causes or manifestations of EJDs. Our last theme is emotional job crafting strategies, encompassing a range of cognitive and behavioral tactics employees utilize to cope with EJDs. This theme consists of intrapersonal emotion regulation, interpersonal emotion regulation, DER, job crafting, and recovery activities. Moreover, we elaborate on each of these themes in the following.

2.5.1 Theme 1: Emotional job demands (EJDs)

This theme encompasses various workplace stressors that elicit negative emotional experiences in participants. Our data revealed that employees usually face these EJDs that stem from the nature of the job or task, regardless of their occupation or industry. Moreover, almost all participants agreed they experienced EJDs caused by unfavorable interpersonal relationships with coworkers, supervisors, or customers.

2.5.1.1 Sub-theme 1: Task-related EJDs

Based on our data, Sub-theme 1 encompasses EJDs associated with the nature of a job or tasks that elicit negative emotions. Consequently, participants experience negative emotions, energy depletion, or decreased motivation. Our data shows that some participants face varying EJDs since they work in diverse occupations. These EJDs arise from increased frequency of interpersonal interaction, social expectations, the nature of work, and adherence to display rules.

Especially, participants who work in service jobs that entail intense social interactions with diverse groups of people with different features (e.g., students and

their parents, patients and companions, or coworkers) experience this emotion-eliciting situation more frequently.

We are in contact with everyone. On the one hand, parents; on the other hand, pupils; and finally, my colleagues and administrators. So, you need to get along with everyone. We all have different personality types. However, there must be a point of agreement. Finding this middle ground might be exhausting at times. (P2)

Because we are interacting with sick people, the emotional atmosphere is not positive. It is typically a more tense and chaotic situation. Patients are already concentrating on controlling their illnesses as soon as possible. I mean, they are waiting for their problems to be resolved. That is the aspect that pressures us. (P1)

Our data also revealed that the nature of a job sometimes elicits negative emotions in participants. For instance, meanings associated with the teaching profession and society's expectations of teachers may impose an emotional strain.

I believe teaching carries a heavy emotional load... I believe the widespread consensus is that teaching is a highly sacred profession in this way. I believe this is due to the perception that teachers guide society. Its emotional load is huge, as I believe it is a moral obligation. In other words, I believe it carries a significant emotional load, not just in terms of education but also in the various areas required by the profession, both in conscience and moral dimensions. (P3)

Moreover, some participants emphasized the difficulty of expressing the appropriate emotional displays, either positive or negative.

One of the professors remarked that medical doctors do not laugh. You work in a hospital. You are laughing, yet there could be someone waiting for death next to you...So, while you have the right to laugh, the person next to you might not like it. (P6)

Moreover, our data revealed that task characteristics may elicit negative reactions in employees if they do not satisfy employees' needs and expectations. Participants mentioned the lack of autonomy and high task routineness as the sources of negative emotions such as boredom and unhappiness.

Everyone performs only one specific task many times a day. For example, it causes people to work in such a robotization mode. For this reason, there are many workloads... However, constantly performing the same task is

something that demotivates me... I am unhappy to be in a certain part of the same job, repetitive work. (P13)

Also, participants expressed their concern that time pressures or lack of instrumental support for the assigned tasks may elicit anxiety and put them in a stressful situation:

However, whenever there is a task that is unplanned...It is assigned to me last minute...If it's going to happen like this and I do not get the support I need...There is a little bit of it, of course, I think about how I am going to do this task, so I get a little stuck. It can be a little stressful. (P14)

When I am assigned a task with time pressure, this inevitably puts me under stress. My motivation may decrease. "What happens if I cannot make it? If I cannot make it, will they ask why they could not make it? Or could they think negatively about me?". (P15)

2.5.1.2 Sub-theme 2: Coworker-related EJDs

Sub-theme 2 revealed EJDs that are caused by negative interactions with coworkers, such as a lack of understanding, conflicts, and communication problems, thereby resulting in negative affective states. The supportive quotes are provided below.

Sometimes you have to be present even if you are sick. It is as if you are required to work even while feeling ill. Unless you are extremely ill, such as with a cold, they say they had a cold as well, but they were also working... Of course, it makes you feel horrible. (P1)

When a disagreement emerges between two team members, the team's serenity is disturbed. It has nothing to do with me. However, the conflict between these two eventually spills over to the rest of the team. The outcome is an unpleasant environment...To be honest, I felt uncomfortable with this situation. The work environment must be peaceful. (P10)

When interacting with the craftspeople on the construction site, we occasionally do not comprehend or disagree with each other's ideas. A situation like this concerns me. Let us say that not being able to solve problems causes me anxiety. Let us say we do not always know how to communicate, can't comprehend each other, or are completely opposed to one another... Communicating with craftsmen might be tough at times. (P11)

2.5.1.3 Sub-theme 3: Supervisor-related EJDs

Supervisor-related EJDs include the stressors that affect employees negatively, such as a lack of understanding from supervisors and abusive supervisor behaviors. For instance, our data revealed that employees feel emotional tension when their supervisors fail to comprehend the extent of their workload and exert pressure on them to execute more tasks.

Professors only undertake private examinations, but we examine all patients who visit the polyclinic unit. That is why they are unaware of our workload and say, "Do examine every patient." It also makes the atmosphere very tense. (P1)

Moreover, some participants mentioned that they have witnessed psychological abuse from their supervisors. As illustrated in our data, abusive supervisors create stressful situations that demotivate and demoralize participants.

I experienced mobbing...He is my intermediate manager...When I started working, I assumed this manager was the company's owner. Because I experienced terrible mobbing there...If he perceives you as a rival, as I later noticed, he draws you into a difficult circumstance because he detects your ability to learn quickly and overcome obstacles, and he mentally pulls you down with manipulation. (P9)

My previous office was not favorable to effective work. That is where my supervisor primarily mobbed me. First and foremost, extended working hours were one of the mobbing attempts. I received no financial or psychological rewards for my efforts, and my motivation was not enhanced in any way. I worked in an office where I never received a well done or a thank you for anything I did right, and I was severely criticized for everything I did incorrectly. It was challenging. (P11)

2.5.1.4 Sub-theme 4: Customer-related EJDs

Participants also experience emotionally resource-draining demands caused by customers or clients. Particularly, customer-related EJDs have arisen from the negative interactions among participants and the people they serve (e.g., students or clients). Participants noted that these unfavorable interactions with customers affect

their psychological well-being as well as their engagement with other customers negatively.

For example, when a patient's appointment is missed, this creates serious psychological pressure on both us and the patient... For example, missing a patient's visit exerts significant psychological pressure on us... Some patients cause a lot of problems... Even if an incident occurs only once, such as a patient causing a disturbance, tensing the atmosphere, raising his or her voice, or starting an argument, it impacts our entire day. Currently, we cannot be as friendly or attentive to other patients as they would like...Patients expect us not to appear unhappy. To do so, we must be happy ourselves so that we may mirror it to them. (P1)

Moreover, the nature and valence of some customer/client-related EJDs vary across occupations. More specifically, medical staff members mentioned that a lack of tolerance from patients drains their emotional energies. On the other hand, teacher participants stated that students who have behavioral difficulties and disrupt lectures create an emotionally stressful environment. Moreover, some participants expressed that they encounter generational conflicts with students. The supportive examples shared by teacher participants are as follows:

Most of the time, I have difficulty due to the behavioral problems exhibited by students. Sometimes it may be trying to protect students exposed to peer bullying, or I think a lot about why a student who shows behavioral problems does this. It would not be a lie if I said it makes me lose sleep from time to time. It is difficult for me to accept that the problem does not originate from me and that I cannot find the exact solution. (P3)

I primarily teach adolescents aged 16 to 17, as well as some pupils beyond the age of 18. Young individuals in this age group are already going through internal storms as they try to understand and make sense of the world, life, their families, and their surroundings, as well as themselves...This is an age when they have severe generational conflict with their parents. For them, teachers are also involved in this generational battle...That is why dealing with students of this age group can be hard. (P4)

2.5.2 Theme 2: Emotional job resources

We also uncovered an emotional job resources theme that includes workplace factors contributing to an employee's emotional energy through providing emotional

support. According to our data, emotional job resources are grounded in fulfilling and supportive interactions at work. This theme encompasses 2 sub-themes: supervisor emotional support and satisfactory relationships with coworkers. Our participants noted that emotional job resources help them to cope with EJDs and improve their well-being and performance.

I can say that obtaining emotional support significantly impacts your motivation and job performance. After all, that is where we spend much of our time. We spend more time at work than at home. Our moods may not always be the same. We may have a problem at home or a health issue, or our daily lives may differ. These factors (emotional support) can have an impact on team peace, the peace you feel with your colleagues or manager, the knowledge that you are not alone, and the speed with which you can do your work. (P15)

2.5.2.1 Sub-theme 1: Supervisor emotional support

Our data uncovered that supervisors play a critical role in supplying emotional support for employees. Participants reported that their supervisors provide them with care, empathy, and understanding. When faced with emotional difficulty, they can easily communicate it to their supervisors. The supportive quotes are below.

Our supervisor is trying to understand us. Of course, there may be situations that exceed his responsibility. However, the fact that he tries to understand us and listens to us, even if he cannot always produce solutions, makes us happy, even if he shows good intentions. (P8)

I work with a very good supervisor who never leaves me alone in a problematic situation. He says if there is any problem, let us solve it together. Even if there is a responsibility to be taken, I am sure that he will take that responsibility. (P10)

2.5.2.2 Sub-theme 2: Satisfactory relationships with coworkers

Participants noted that they have fulfilling and positive interactions with their coworkers, which is indicated as an emotional asset. Particularly, some participants noted that they have colleagues who organize social activities.

I benefit emotionally from the individuals I work with. Our communication is excellent, particularly with one or two of my colleagues, and as a result, I can claim that we develop our relationship by sharing with one another, whether we have challenges or on a good day. (P3)

For example, we have a relationship with them (nurses) like sisterhood. We have a more supportive relationship... For example, they immediately organized a celebration because I performed a biopsy. Alternatively, when there is a birthday, they celebrate it immediately. This has a positive impact both socially and psychologically. (P1)

Moreover, participants noted that their colleagues offer emotional support when needed. It expands their capacity to fight against emotional demands at work. Even though participants do not convey their need for emotional support, synergy with their colleagues facilitates the provision of support.

It means that the emotional job resources of our participants spill over into the family domain. We witness such important periods of transition for each other: we are young, marriages happen, children are born, divorces happen, and illnesses occur. We have lost loved ones... We go through all of them together. Thus, there is a network of relationships. There is a strong network of relationships, which has nurtured me greatly. (P7)

I do not overtly convey my desire for emotional support, yet it shows on my face. In such cases, I frequently get recognition. For example, if my face is sad, "How are you? What's wrong? Are you having a problem today?" I get questions like this, which make me feel like I belong there. That is why I enjoy being there... These make me feel like I belong there, like someone from there is a family member. It creates a bit of a family atmosphere. (P11)

2.5.3 Theme 3: Emotional family/spouse resources

According to our data, some participants have supportive families or romantic partners who listen to their work problems and help them overcome these problems. Emotional family or spouse resources increase employees' self-efficacy in dealing with EJDs and strengthen them.

My family has an essential role. My family's support is very important. When I encounter an incident, I share it with them. The fact that they support me and stand behind me... or in a negative situation I experience... gives me strength. (P1)

Seeing that I was also upset, they encouraged me by stating, "In the worst-case scenario, you can quit. Search for another job... You do not have to stay in a place that does not make you feel happy and at ease. We will help you in all aspects of your life, materially and emotionally." It makes me feel great peace. (P13)

In addition, participants with family resources generally share their EJD experiences with their family members and try to relax.

When I get very overwhelmed at work, even calling my spouse directly and asking, "What are you doing, how is your life going?" can at least push me away at that moment. (P15)

Especially, married participants mentioned the instrumental and emotional support they receive from their spouses in balancing work and family demands and coping with work-life conflict, and even reviewing their idea of quitting their job.

My husband was the one who understood me best and was very supportive. I received much support for looking up our children... Even though he was working, he was supporting me... While I was trying to end it, he said, "We will be able to achieve this. We will get through it. We have two children. Look, we will raise them very well...". (P9)

2.5.4 Theme 4: Emotional job crafting strategies

Our data uncovered that participants utilize various cognitive and behavioral strategies to craft EJDs and their negative emotional consequences, including moods, discrete emotions, or affective states. In addition, some of our participants exhibit proactive behaviors to change particular characteristics of their jobs, such as a promotion or prevention strategy, against future occurrences of EJDs. By utilizing emotional job crafting strategies, employees change either the EJDs or the experience of negative emotions. We grouped intrapersonal emotion regulation, interpersonal emotional regulation, digital emotion regulation, job crafting, and recovery activities as emotional job crafting strategies.

Moreover, our participants noted that utilizing emotional job crafting strategies boosts their positive emotions and motivation, increases their commitment to the organization and job performance, and strengthens social ties at work:

It (utilizing emotional crafting strategies) affects me greatly in increasing my commitment to my company and my sense of belonging to my company. I go to my company happily... I am greeted with a smile when I go to work, and I am even touched by my teammates with small nuances such as "Come on, let us go to a coffee shop." Alternatively, when I am overwhelmed or busy with a task, they say, "I bring something from home today, take it and look, I want to give it to you". Sometimes I respond to many emails. When I feel overwhelmed, sometimes even saying to my manager, "I bring coffee," or to my colleague, "Here's a chocolate, I brought you a chocolate," actually increases both my happiness and motivation. What happened this time? Here I am saying that I am at peace at work. Moreover, because I am at peace and happy, I should embrace it with both hands. I should put more effort into my work. I enjoy what I do. So, I can say that if a person is happy, at peace, and has emotional support behind her when she does a job she loves, she will embrace her job more from all sides. (P15)

2.5.4.1 Sub-theme 1: Intrapersonal emotion regulation

Our participants noted that after they experience EJDs, they try to regulate their emotions by utilizing various behaviors ranging from escaping to solving the EJDs. More specifically, when participants feel negative emotions, some avoid thinking about anything related to them. In other words, when they find it difficult to cope with EJDs, they attempt to suppress thoughts about them. Some try to treat the situation they encounter as normal or the reality of work life.

Most of the time, I attempt to ignore it because I cannot find a solution... I find that thinking about the problem exhausting. As a result, I prefer to keep away and ignore, possibly as a defensive measure to protect myself... I defend myself by saying, "This is your workplace, you should not care about what happens after you leave here." (P3)

I do my best not to see or hear about my job. For example... Everyone asks, especially since I have started a new job. When asked how it is going, I say "Well, it is good" and never open that door... Because I, too, am struggling with this question within myself. That is why I run away as much as possible. Maybe not a way of coping, but I feel like I have to do this to adapt to this process at least until I have a different alternative. (P13)

Moreover, participants mentioned that they try to minimize communication and collaborate with coworkers who drain their emotional energy. Even if available, they escape interacting with others, which causes them to feel those emotions. In addition, some of them avoid encountering interpersonal conflicts so as not to feel unfavorable emotions.

I define it as a withdrawal inside oneself, which includes not interacting with my manager or others close to her if I do not have any work or obligations, and even not saying good morning. (P3)

After that, I tried to ignore him a little. That is why I spent time avoiding my supervisor whenever possible. You know, trying not to interact with my supervisor, just delivering the work, and then leaving. (P11)

I do not get into conflicts much. Not because there is no environment where conflict can occur, but because I try to avoid conflict... However, it does happen, I mean, despite all my attention, it still happens. (P4)

On the other hand, some participants have a solution orientation in addressing interpersonal problems to deal with negative emotions.

In schools, some pupils or classes have many issues that teachers struggle with... I do not have any issues with them. It may be incorrect to claim that I will not have any problems, but if I do not prolong them, neither will the student experience them. We rapidly transform it into a solution. (P4)

2.5.4.2 Sub-theme 2: Interpersonal emotion regulation

Our data showed that participants also up-regulate their own and others' negative emotions through interpersonal interaction. The supportive example is the following.

For example, sometimes my coworkers and I can help each other overcome our negative feelings and think rationally and calmly. This is also an important thing. Maybe a colleague becomes irritated or furious over something. Maybe I can persuade him in a positive, sensible manner. I attempt to help him overcome terrible emotions and remain resilient. Sometimes he does the same thing to me. (P14)

Participants seek emotional support from their colleagues or supervisors who offer an ear to listen. They noted that empathy and care from their colleagues or supervisors help them feel more positive emotions.

Because we are both friends and coworkers, we will undoubtedly seek or assist one another. We frequently try to find a solution by addressing the challenges I or my friends face in depth. (P3)

When sharing these problems, I think it is useful not just to ask for a solution, but also to provide relief there, because we get ideas from each other. There is something like peer supervision... It is good support in that respect. Yes, there is not always a solution, but having someone listen to my troubles at that moment is very comforting for me. (P8)

Some professors are very supportive. For example, when I am in trouble, I explain it to a professor. I ask whether what I am experiencing is temporary or normal. He also shares his experiences with me, thus creating a better sharing experience. This boosts our mood or is good for our psychology. (P1)

Moreover, some participants noted that they experience negative feelings when their colleagues are in trouble. Thus, they expressed empathy and support for their colleagues facing work difficulties. As they try to regulate their colleagues' emotions, they also regulate their own emotions.

I have a colleague. I think she is waiting for an opportunity to talk with me (to share her problems). I also noticed the problems she was experiencing, and I tried to support her. So, it is like a therapy environment... (P4)

Because of our environment, if someone has a problem and I feel it, I want to deal with it even if they do not say it openly. We treat each other like family members there. Therefore, even if no one tells me, if I feel something or there is a problem, I want to deal with it. That is how I feel good there. (P11)

2.5.4.3 Sub-theme 3: Digital emotion regulation

Participants mentioned that they also utilize digital platforms to improve their emotional energy. In this regard, they either listen to upbeat music to uplift their emotions or watch series or films to take a break using digital channels. They even mentioned that they watch meaningful videos to remind them of the meaningfulness of their job and reduce the perception of EJDs. Some of them also surf social media to move away from the emotional intensity of their job.

One of the things I do to feel good about myself is to sometimes turn on some music I like when I am alone at lunchtime. It could be to distract myself or read something from a page I like on social media. At that moment, I want to

focus on a different place, to distract my mind a little. I can say that these things are good for me. (P8)

I made a live playlist for myself on Spotify. It contains more energetic songs than I have ever heard in my life. I brought together the kind of songs that I believe will motivate me. I listen to them all the time, morning and evening... Because I do not want to let my emotions take over me. (P13)

Furthermore, our data shows that employees also utilize social media platforms to seek emotional guidance from their colleagues or other social contacts as a digital way of interpersonal emotion regulation.

For example, I have a WhatsApp group, including my closest friends from the internal medicine department. For example, I write there first. I mean, I experienced something like this: "What should I do?" and I get their opinions, etc. So, I write there first. (P1)

2.5.4.4 Sub-theme 4: Job crafting

Moreover, our data elicited that employees proactively shape their jobs to cope with EJDs. They try to minimize interpersonal conflicts through strengthening communication with others at work and encouraging a friendly working environment. As a result, they expand their relational job resources that are the sources of feeling more positive emotions. Participants stated that they utilize an effective communication style to elicit sympathy from others at work (e.g., colleagues or customers/clients). For instance, they employ humor or imitate the spoken language to navigate interpersonal interactions and create meaningful and supportive relationships. Moreover, they noted that strong and affectionate communication increases mutual understanding and decreases misunderstandings and conflicts.

I try to use the specific language they use... Talking in such a way makes that person feel close... Trying to make that person feel close and break the resistance. (P8)

Moreover, participants expressed that they openly and authentically communicate.

They even encourage their colleagues to share problems and mistakes without hesitation.

For example, I communicate whatever I feel about the situation. For instance, "You said this there, that made me feel this way." I speak. So, I am not covering it up, understand? I am not ignoring that problem, but I am not exaggerating the problem either. (P4)

What I did about the intermediate manager's misinformation about me: I started reaching out to my senior manager directly, and after I reached out to him directly, he became clearer about me. Our relationship started to improve because he realized that there were errors in the information he received about me. (P9)

Participants also noted that they try to create an affectionate and friendly environment through their speech or behaviors. For instance, they highlighted the significance of compassion, empathy, and respect in relationships and their communication. Moreover, they give presents to others at work to foster a harmonious and kind atmosphere at work.

While teaching in class, I tell students that we need to be more humane, that we need to love each other, that we should not reflect our anger on each other, regardless of our feelings or personal differences, that they are very young and still learning, that living with others is wealthy, and so on. (P4)

For example, I can say that meeting with my colleagues outside of work, getting involved in each other's lives, meeting our families, or being together in different environments outside the workplace are steps towards increasing my emotional resources. (P3)

The moment I enter the workplace, I leave all other roles aside, enter the office in such a positive, happy way, and say, "Come on, let us drink tea, a coffee, get together, or let's have dinner together." Because these are the most important socialization and relationship-building things in business life... (P9)

Participants also noted that they try to develop task-related skills and learn the way tasks are done to cope with abusive supervisors who demoralize and pose an emotional burden on them. In this regard, they expand task resources to reduce any negative feedback revealed by their supervisors and try to gain their appreciation.

I managed this situation as follows: I secretly worked overtime with different

departments that worked overtime after everyone else left work. I went to them and asked: I am doing this, what does this mean? How do you do this? This is being done, but this is a service network, and what happens throughout our work? What will I tell the customer? When someone asks me a question, how will I answer it? I went to them one by one and asked. I chose to improve myself by learning secrets. (P9)

(To reduce mobbing), I worked overtime once. On the other hand, not only working hours but also carrying my work home, so I can do it better. For example, I took a few courses to do better. I tried everything possible, such as working more, taking courses, and reading until the morning, to learn what I do not know. So, it is a working process that took me almost 24 hours. (P11)

Our data also revealed that participants rely on cognitive strategies to change their perception of EJDs and drain their emotional energy. Through these strategies, they try to alleviate the emotional intensity of their jobs in their cognition and restructure their meaning of them.

I put myself in the patient's shoes and thought a lot about "How will I explain his illness, how will it happen?", but this situation changed as I gained experience. For example, this situation is a little more normal now... He is a patient, and my job is to give his diagnosis and make the most appropriate follow-up for his treatment... (P1)

I watch videos of doctors working under more severe conditions on YouTube... Because when I am emotionally exhausted, I need to remind myself why I do this job and tolerate it... That is why I am taking steps to remind myself of this. (P1)

Moreover, some of our participants noted that they focus on the positive feedback they obtain or their achievements when working. Thinking about this positive feedback improves their moods and the whole day.

For example, there are situations where you give good news to the patient... For example, you say, "Your illness is over, you are healed"... In this case, you receive very positive feedback from the patient... When you think about positive feedback, even if there is one positive feedback during the day, it positively affects your whole day, that is, it motivates you. (P1)

2.5.4.5 Sub-theme 5: Recovery activities

Participants also stated that they engage in on-the-job and off-the-job recovery activities to mitigate the effects of job demands with negative emotional intensity. In

this regard, if available, participants take a microbreak by having coffee or listening to music during working hours. On the other hand, they try to spend high-quality time with their friends or family members after working hours or on the weekend. In addition, some of our participants benefit from individual recovery activities such as meditation or physical exercise. As they engage in various recovery activities, they become distant from the work environment, recharge themselves, and improve their mood.

I go out in front of the door for two minutes to drink my coffee and breathe, I run away, and it feels so good that I come back refreshed and rested. (P13)

At the end of the day, I try to do something enjoyable and to leave the hospital in the hospital and forget about it in the evening, and to do things that would improve my mood. Because I will go to work the next day and be in the same condition... This could include attending a movie, lunch, or a concert. I usually engage in activities that will nourish me socially. (P1)

One of the things I do to feel good about myself is sometimes to turn on some music I like when I am alone at lunchtime. It could be to distract myself or read something from a page I like on social media. At that moment, I want to focus on a different place, to distract my mind a little. I can say that these are good for me. (P8)

Moreover, our data uncovered socializing with colleagues outside the workplace as a recovery activity. Participants expressed that they spend time with their colleagues outside and disclose themselves to create strong social bonds and boost their emotional reservoir.

In the office where I currently work, we can do the following from time to time: Shall we go for coffee after work today?... If we have had a day when we are exhausted, someone can immediately say to me let us go for coffee... (P11)

Everyone sees each other in a different environment outside of business life. While the people we usually see all the time are introverts or people we do not communicate with much, when we meet outside of work, we see that they have completely different characters. (P15)

2.5.5 Credibility of results

Although clear guidelines for checks are provided in quantitative research methods, there is a lack of agreement on what constitutes reliability and validity in qualitative studies (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Based on the suggestions provided by Merriam and Tisdell (2016), this study utilized data triangulation to ensure credibility, which is similar to internal validity in quantitative research. Data triangulation is collecting data about a study topic from different sources to increase the credibility of findings (Tracy, 2010).

After the analysis of interviews, we created an online survey form in Microsoft Forms that includes demographic questions (i.e., age, gender, education, total tenure, industry, marital status, and housing situation) and items from the interviews (See Appendix E). We categorized items into three questions: EJDs, including nine items; emotional resources in the work and family domains, including seven items; and emotional job crafting strategies, asking for 20 items. We informed participants that they can select more than one item if applicable. We also added the ‘other’ option to avoid forcing participants to choose items we provided.

We sent the questionnaire via an online link to a convenience sample reached via professional contacts. The data was collected in May 2024. Finally, 56 participants, 37 female (67%) and 19 male (33%), returned the questionnaire. The average age is 31.2, ranging from 25 to 42. Participants' demographic information is detailed below (See Table 2).

Then, we analyzed the answers given to the research questions by doing a frequency analysis. First, we confirmed that our participants experienced several EJDs that we unveiled from the interviews. These EJDs stem from negative social interactions with colleagues, supervisors, and customers, emotional labor, and doing

repetitive and monotonous tasks. Most of our participants selected working with others who make the atmosphere sad or uneasy (N = 48) and working with an abusive supervisor (N = 44) as EJDs they experience. The frequency of EJDs is

Table 2. Demographic Information of Participants

Demographic question	Category	Number of participants	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	37	67
	Male	19	33
Education	Bachelor's	22	39
	Master	33	59
	PhD	0	0
	Other	1	2
Total tenure	Less than 1 year	1	2
	1-5	19	33
	6-10	22	39
	11-15 years	8	14
	More than 15 years	6	10
Industry	Education	6	10
	Healthcare	8	14
	Service	21	37
	Manufacturing	3	5
	Other	18	32
Marital status	Single	28	50
	Married	27	48
	Other	1	2
Housing situation	Living alone	7	12
	Living with others	49	88

provided in Table 3. By frequency, we mean the number of participants who experience an EJD that we asked about in the questionnaire.

Table 3. Frequency of EJDs

Emotional job demands	Number of participants
Interacting with people with different characteristics and backgrounds	3
Working with others who make the atmosphere sad or uneasy	48
Faking positive emotional expressions	22
Faking negative emotional expressions	11
Doing repetitive and monotonous tasks	25
Conflicting with colleagues	36
Conflicting with supervisors	35
Working with an abusive supervisor	44
Conflicting with customers	29
Other	0

Also, our analysis supported the findings of interviews by revealing emotional resources that participants have in the work domain and the family domain. These

emotional resources are embedded in pleasant interactions with colleagues and supervisors, and emotional support from family members, friends, and spouses. Participants have family/spouse emotional support the most. A few participants have emotional resources embedded in their relationships with supervisors. A considerable number of participants have pleasant relationships with their colleagues. The frequency of emotional resources is provided in Table 4. By frequency, we mean the number of participants who have an emotional resource that we asked about in the questionnaire.

Table 4. Frequency of Emotional Resources

Emotional resources	Number of participants
I have a supervisor who gives me emotional support.	16
I have a high-quality social interaction with my supervisor.	23
I have colleagues who give me emotional support.	25
I have high-quality social interactions with colleagues.	34
I have a family that gives me emotional support.	38
I have friends who give me emotional support.	39
I have a spouse who gives me emotional support.	39

We also confirmed that participants utilize emotional job crafting strategies we revealed in interviews when experiencing EJDs (See Table 5). Most participants try to minimize contact with others (N = 39) and try to solve the situations (N = 37) that make them feel bad when working. In addition, many participants prefer to utilize interpersonal emotion regulation at work, such as seeking emotional support from colleagues (N = 18) and providing emotional support to colleagues or supervisors (N = 18). Moreover, some of our participants utilize digital platforms (e.g., WhatsApp) to share their problems and negative feelings with others (N = 24). However, a few participants use other digital platforms (e.g., Netflix or YouTube) to cope with EJDs. On the other hand, some of our participants surf social media (N = 17) or listen to music (N = 14). Furthermore, socialization activities with colleagues in working and

non-working hours are utilized as strategies to cope with EJDs. In addition, some of our participants noted they proactively shape a friendly working environment. Moreover, data shows that some participants (N = 10) engage in job crafting. By frequency, we mean the number of participants who selected the respective item that we asked about in the questionnaire.

Table 5. Frequency of Emotional Job Crafting Strategies

Emotional job crafting strategies	Number of participants
I avoid thinking about situations that make me feel bad when working.	16
I try to minimize contact with others who make me feel bad when working.	39
I try to solve the situations that make me feel bad.	37
I seek emotional support from my colleagues.	18
I seek emotional support from my supervisor.	11
I give emotional support to my supervisor or colleagues when they need.	23
I watch cheerful videos on YouTube.	4
I watch meaningful videos on YouTube to change my perspective.	5
I watch series or films on Netflix.	8
I listen to cheerful or energetic music.	14
I surf on social media platforms.	17
I chat with others with whom I can share my problems and emotions on WhatsApp.	24
I take microbreaks.	23
I organize and join social activities with my colleagues in non-working hours.	20
I meditate.	5
I actively strengthen my social ties and communication with my colleagues.	9
I actively support a friendly working environment.	19
I try to change my perspective toward situations that make me feel bad when working.	16
I try to develop my work-related skills and knowledge when I work with an abusive supervisor.	10
I drink coffee or tea and talk with my colleagues in microbreaks.	18
Other	1

2.6 Discussion

2.6.1 Empirically grounded conceptual model: Emotional job crafting model

Based on the data, this study develops a conceptual model that illustrates the relationships among main themes and introduces the concept of emotional job crafting (See Figure 2). We refer to this model as the emotional job crafting model because it represents the interactive relationships among EJDs, emotional resources in the work and family domains, emotional job crafting strategies, and the resultant employee outcomes. Employees utilize five main emotional job crafting strategies: emotion regulation, including intrapersonal, interpersonal, DER, job crafting, and

recovery activities strategies. As illustrated in the model, themes are related by qualitative arrows and interact with each other in a process. Based on the model, we develop propositions to explain relationships among the identified themes.

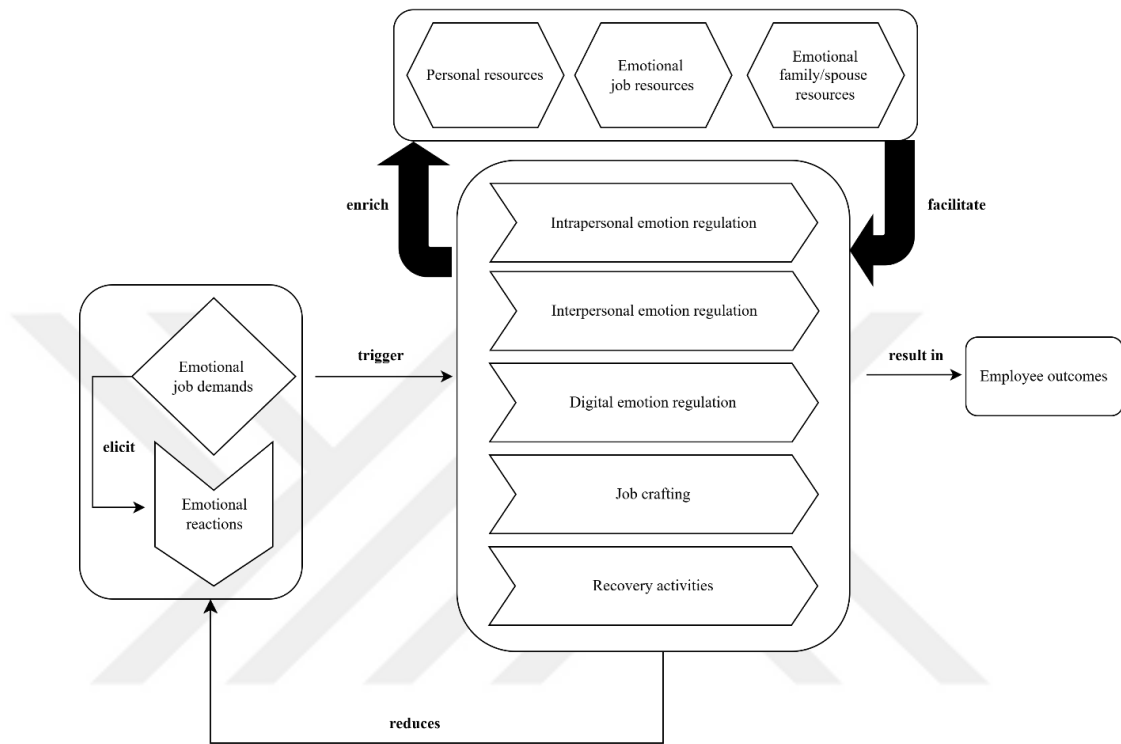


Figure 2. Empirically grounded model of emotional job crafting

Proposition 1. EJDs elicit emotional reactions in employees. As represented on the left side of the figure, EJDs refer to workplace stressors that drain the emotional energy of employees (Parker et al., 2023; Van de Ven et al., 2013), such as task-driven, coworker-driven, supervisor-driven, and customer-driven EJDs. The findings indicate that participants experience a range of EJDs with varying frequency and duration based on their occupation and job position, supporting the previous studies (Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). As noted in the previous research (Reh et al., 2021), for instance, employees in the service industry encounter more EJDs.

These emotional demands at work then unveil negative emotional reactions such as disappointment, guilt, anxiety, and anger in employees (Lam et al., 2018; Reh et al., 2021). According to our data, participants sometimes experienced more than one emotion in response to EJDs. This is consistent with the notion that “...an emotional reaction is not one reaction, but a constellation of related reactions” (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 17).

Proposition 2. EJDs and emotional reactions to them trigger the utilization of emotional job crafting strategies to cope with them. Emotional job crafting strategies, which are depicted in the center of the figure, represent coping strategies that employees utilize to navigate either the EJD(s) (antecedent) or emotional reactions (response). Although EJDs generally result in serious outcomes such as burnout or job strain, employees can change this expected story by utilizing coping strategies to deal with EJDs (Brough et al., 2018; Reh et al., 2021). According to our data, these strategies are categorized as follows. Intrapersonal emotion regulation strategies represent emotion-focused coping strategies that employees use individually to change their emotions in response to EJDs. These strategies include altering their perspectives about the emotional demands of the job or suppressing their thoughts about them (Campos et al., 2011). Interpersonal emotion regulation strategies include the management of emotions through others, such as social sharing emotions and receiving advice, to decrease negative emotions (Williams et al., 2018). DER is the management of negative emotions via digital devices and online platforms, such as listening to music or watching videos (Williams et al., 2018). Job crafting strategies are utilized to proactively change a job's social, task-related, cognitive, or skill-related aspects to break the cycle of EJDs (Huang et al., 2020; Masood et al., 2021). Recovery activities represent personal (e.g., reading books and meditation) or social

activities (e.g., going to the cinema with coworkers and taking a vacation with family), on-the-job or off-the-job, to refresh the mind and boost positivity (Sonnentag et al., 2017).

We suggest that emotional job crafting strategies are not independent but interrelated to some extent. Based on the data and the antecedent-focused and response-focused strategies distinction by Gross (1998), we divided the emotional job crafting strategies into four domains with two axes: a) type of strategy: behavioral and cognitive, and b) type of target: antecedent-focused and response-focused (See Table 6). The type of strategy addresses whether employees take behavioral or cognitive actions to cope with the emotional demands of a job. The type of target indicates whether employees focus on the EJDs (antecedent) or emotional reaction (response) when coping.

Table 6. Categorization of Emotional Job Crafting Strategies

	Antecedent-focused strategies	Response-focused strategies
Behavioral strategies	• Resolving interpersonal conflicts • Socialization with coworkers	• Sharing emotions with coworkers • Taking micro breaks • Engaging in meditation • Listening to music
Cognitive strategies	• Reinterpreting demands (i.e., high expectations) as opportunities and part of work life	• Focusing on the positive aspects of a job • Escaping from thoughts about EJDs

For instance, socializing with coworkers outside of the workplace during non-working hours may be a behavioral antecedent-focused strategy at the intersection between recovery activities and job crafting. When employees join in social activities with their coworkers, they recover from negative experiences elicited by emotional demands and improve their socio-emotional ties with coworkers that facilitate relationship-based job crafting (Zhang et al., 2024). Another example is the

following. Some of our participants note that they seek emotional support from their coworkers on social media. Seeking emotional support from coworkers in social media is a way of DER (Wadley et al., 2020). Further, as employees try to change their cognition toward the job, they also improve their affect through intrapersonal emotion regulation. In this sense, it can be considered a behavioral response-focused strategy.

Moreover, as our data revealed, participants may utilize emotional job crafting strategies in combination and in a sequential order. Employees may rely on more immediate coping responses when encountering an EJD. For instance, imagine an employee who receives harsh criticism from their supervisor. This employee may cognitively reframe this EJD by thinking that their supervisor behaves aggressively because of the supervisor's stress instead of their faulty behaviors, which indicates intrapersonal emotion regulation. Due to the energy-depleting nature of this job demand, this employee may take a microbreak to refresh their mind (i.e., recovery). If these strategies are not effective in coping with abusive supervision, employees may rely on relationship-based job crafting through expanding social networks and skill crafting to gain new knowledge and skills, thereby increasing alternative job opportunities (Junker et al., 2023) and reducing future effects of abusive treatment by their supervisor. As one of the participants noted, when promotion-oriented job crafting (e.g., expanding social network and developing new skills) became ineffective in coping with abusive supervision, she began to reduce the interaction with her supervisor (i.e., prevention-oriented job crafting). This vignette shows that employees may combine emotional job crafting strategies and often sequence them depending on the nature of EJDs and the effectiveness of prior emotional job crafting strategies.

Proposition 3. Emotional resources embedded in work (e.g., coworker relationships) and non-work domains (e.g., family or romantic partnership) support the utilization of emotional job crafting strategies. In turn, effectively using these strategies enriches these domains.

As illustrated in the model, emotional resources in the work and non-work domains facilitate the utilization of emotional job crafting strategies. Interpersonal emotional job crafting strategies, such as interpersonal emotion regulation and recovery activities as coping strategies, are more likely to be used when employees have sufficient emotional resources (Park & Fritz, 2015; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012; Troth et al., 2018). For instance, our data shows that employees with more sufficient family emotional resources seek emotional help from their family members when encountering an emotional demand at work, supporting previous research (Halbesleben, 2010). On the other hand, some of our participants noted that when they lack emotional resources embedded in work or family context, they are likely to utilize individual emotional job crafting strategies such as listening to music on Spotify or suppressing their thoughts. It also means that a lack of socioemotional resources may trigger the use of avoidance strategies, which are ineffective in the long term (Folkman, 2020). Moreover, emotional job crafting strategies can enrich emotional resources in both domains. For instance, as our participants noted, when they reconstruct relational aspects of their job by encouraging a friendly atmosphere with colleagues or socializing with them outside work, they invest in stronger social ties and supportive workplace relationships (Dutton & Ragins, 2007; Tims et al., 2012).

The choice of strategy may change in time based on the appraisal of resources. To be more precise, a specific strategy is chosen based on the personal

factors (e.g., personality, needs, and wants of employees), the emotional intensity of EJD, and the availability and instrumentality of emotional resources. In parallel, a previous study found that the selection of a coping strategy (e.g., emotion regulation) depends on whether an employee's environment has provocative conditions (i.e., demands) or sufficient resources (Brough et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2018).

Proposition 4. Emotional job crafting strategies, together with emotional resources, may reduce EJDs and emotional reactions over time. Utilizing emotional job crafting strategies and possessing sufficient emotional resources may reduce the occurrence of EJDs over time (Reh et al., 2021). We discovered that certain participants in our sample reported experiencing fewer EJDs. They also remarked that despite their work environment not being ideal, they were less likely to identify emotionally challenging circumstances as demanding. This also supports that EJDs can be subjective and objective (Reh et al., 2021). Our analysis further revealed that these specific groups of participants mentioned more personal resources (e.g., emotional intelligence or self-efficacy) that they have. This finding confirmed that stressors are perceptual, in which individuals with greater coping resources and particular personality characteristics are less likely to experience environmental demands as stressors (Hobfoll, 1989).

Proposition 5. Emotional job crafting strategies result in favorable employee outcomes if they are effectively utilized. Suppose emotional job crafting strategies successfully reduce EJDs and subsequent negative emotional reactions. This finding is consistent with the previous studies that emphasized the role of coping in supporting positive outcomes in the face of EJDs (Brough et al., 2018; Reh et al., 2021). In that case, employees will likely experience favorable outcomes (e.g., increased job satisfaction, motivation, and performance). Our participants

emphasized that when they obtain emotional support from their supervisors (e.g., interpersonal emotion regulation) for coping, they experience more positive emotions and increase their effort to execute tasks, thereby improving job performance. Also, socialization with coworkers is noted as a way of strengthening social ties at work (Dutton & Ragins, 2007). Our data also illustrated that emotional job crafting strategies facilitated by emotional family resources influence employee outcomes, supporting the previous research (Park & Fritz, 2015). For instance, participants noted that when they spend high-quality time with their families on the weekend after a work week characterized by higher emotional demands, they start the next weekday with revitalized energy and improved mood.

2.6.2 Theoretical implications

This study makes important theoretical contributions by integrating diverse literature and frameworks into the emotional job crafting model, which depicts how employees cope with EJDs through the dynamic interaction of personal and contextual emotional resources embedded in the work and home domains and emotional job crafting strategies. By developing an emotional job crafting model, our study provides a holistic understanding of the interplay between EJDs, emotional resources, coping strategies, and their outcomes, grounded in empirical evidence.

First, by adopting an inductive approach, we unveiled several EJDs, enhancing the current understanding. Scholars have noted that EJDs have been disregarded in the organizational behavior literature compared to generic job demands (Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). Identifying the EJDs is necessary to develop tailored intervention strategies because they may have more severe effects on employee well-being, such as emotional exhaustion, decreased work quality, and

increased stress (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003; Geisler et al., 2019; Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). Moreover, previous studies have broadly conceptualized EJDs as encountering emotionally turbulent situations, obeying display rules, and focusing on others' well-being (Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). Building on this conceptualization, our inductive findings extend the existing framework by offering a more source-specific conceptualization of EJDs, which are job-related, supervisor-related, coworker-related, and customer-related. This conceptualization enriches the existing knowledge by differentiating the context-specific nature of EJDs with relational and task-driven origins. In addition, there are conceptual overlaps between the previous and current categorizations of EJDs. For instance, giving ear to a coworker who has problems is a kind of emotional work, which overlaps with the coworker-related EJDs in our study. Moreover, encountering emotionally demanding situations can be related to supervisor-related EJDs, such as abusive supervision.

The most important contribution of this study is developing the empirically grounded model of emotional job crafting that brings EJDs, emotional resources, and coping strategies, which we call emotional job crafting, into a unified framework that explains how employees cope with emotional demands at work and their effects on employee outcomes. Previous studies examined the role of intrapersonal emotion regulation (Yin et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2022), emotional labor (Peng et al., 2010), interpersonal emotion regulation (Thiel et al., 2015), digital technologies (Gellmers & Yan, 2023), job crafting (Bakker & de Vries, 2021; Masood et al., 2021), and recovery activities (de Jonge et al., 2012) to manage EJDs. Scholars have noted that the complex and dynamic nature of coping with EJDs should be illuminated by the simultaneous examination of several EJDs, coping responses, and contextual factors (e.g., emotional resources) (Brough et al., 2018; Reh et al., 2021; Tuxford & Bradley,

2015). We provide empirical evidence to show that employees do not always utilize a fixed strategy but engage in more flexible approaches to cope with EJDs. As informed from the feedback loop, employees utilize one or more strategies simultaneously or sequentially. Also, the selection and utilization of emotional job crafting strategies are influenced by available resources that support previous studies (Brough et al., 2018; Halbesleben, 2010; Park & Fritz, 2015).

Third, this study leverages the DISC model by COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and transactional stress model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) through examining the employee agency to cope with EJDs through emotional job crafting strategies with the supportive role of emotional resources in the work and family domains and personal resources. Previous studies examined the interaction of EJDs and emotional resources at work (de Jonge et al., 2008; Van de Ven et al., 2013), but they have often focused on the role of emotional job resources in alleviating the deleterious impacts, instead of how employees can actively cope with them by utilizing strategies. COR theory suggests that individuals actively modify their surroundings to minimize resource loss and alleviate stressful circumstances but maximize favorable conditions, especially when they encounter resource loss (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Thus, based on the main principles of COR theory, employees engage in emotional job crafting strategies that are facilitated by personal and emotional job and family resources to cope with EJDs to protect existing resources (e.g., reducing interaction with an abusive supervisor) and/or invest in new resources (e.g., expanding relational ties at work). Bakker and de Vries (2021) noted that the serious impacts of workplace stressors are intensified when employees lack resources and self-regulation abilities. Thus, we support the idea that employees cope with EJDs to conserve their resources, and resource provision in personal and external contexts

facilitates this process. In this regard, we also support the matching hypothesis of the DISC model in the coping context.

In particular, our study has revealed the roles of personal and emotional resources in the work and family domains in facilitating coping with EJDs. In the context of our research, supervisors, colleagues, family members, and spouses are key actors who provide emotional resources (de Jonge et al., 2012). According to Greenglass et al. (2014), significant others can enhance an individual's capacity to cope with stressors, such as EJDs, by actively listening to their concerns, offering recommendations, and showing empathy. In the workplace context, supervisors and coworkers are key actors who provide emotional job resources through emotional support (de Jonge et al., 2012). A previous study examined emotional support as a job resource (Feuerhahn et al., 2013). Our study supported the previous research by eliciting the nature of emotional support (e.g., care, sympathy, and active listening) and pleasant social activities as emotional job resources. In addition, this study contributes to research on work-family interaction by unveiling the role of emotional family resources in coping with EJDs. In this regard, we also enrich recent findings in which emotional spouse or family support is utilized to cope with workplace stressors (Halbesleben, 2010; Kwok et al., 2015; Park & Fritz, 2015; Park & Haun, 2017; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) and to studies that adopted a work-family interface (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Our study also enhances empirical knowledge on recovery from work by investigating recovery from a broader perspective, including both at-work and off-work recovery. Chan et al. (2022) noted that the existing literature on recovery from work has left a gap in the understanding of recovery at work by highly focusing on recovery after work. In this regard, we leverage the previous recovery studies since

we found that employees who experience EJDs recover from them by engaging in recovery activities in microbreaks at work (e.g., coffee breaks with coworkers), after working hours (e.g., exercising), and on the weekend (e.g., going to picnic or cinema with friends) with different recovery experiences (e.g., relaxation and psychological detachment). In particular, existing research has examined recovery processes in isolation by focusing on a particular activity or recovery experiences. To better understand recovery processes, we looked at various recovery activities at work and in off-work contexts.

Moreover, our study highlights the role of important others in work (e.g., coworkers) and non-work (e.g., friends and family members) domains in the selection and experience of recovery activities by providing emotional resources. There is little research on contextual resources, coworkers, supervisor, and family support, in encouraging joining recovery activities (Park & Fritz, 2015; Sawhney et al., 2018). Thus, this study also illuminates the contextual factors (i.e., emotional job and family resources) in organizing and experiencing recovery activities, which are underexplored in the recovery literature (Sonnetag et al., 2017). In addition, since we revealed the relationship between emotional resources in the family domain and recovery activities, we linked the crossover theory to recovery literature (Park & Fritz, 2015). By unveiling the interplay among EJDs and emotional resources, this study supports that job demands and resources have a dynamic impact on employees' recovery activities (Bennett et al., 2016).

Furthermore, we provide a complementary view to the literature on coping and recovery by unveiling that employees utilize coping strategies and recovery activities to manage their EJDs. Although these concepts are similar in their aim and scope, little research examines them simultaneously (Sawhney et al., 2018). Research

calls from scholars to understand the relationship between coping and recovery (Cheng & McCarthy, 2013). Our study responds to these research calls by finding that recovery activities fuel employees' resources and energies, helping them cope with EJDs.

2.6.3 Managerial implications

This study offers organizations and employees valuable insights into how to cope with EJDs. By understanding the dynamic relationships among EJDs, emotional resources, and coping strategies, organizations can develop tailored interventions to mitigate EJDs at work or empower employees with resources to cope with them.

First, organizations should improve an emotionally supportive work environment. For this purpose, they encourage supervisors to develop interpersonal skills such as empathy and effective listening. Supportive behaviors of supervisors are important for employees to reduce stressful working conditions that drain their emotional energy. Moreover, organizations should organize socialization activities in the office and outside to boost social ties and favorable relationships among employees, who help them mitigate the severe effects of EJDs.

Second, organizations should consider the buffering role of family and spouse emotional resources against EJDs. Thus, they should develop working systems that support work and family enrichment, such as flexible work hours and remote work. Moreover, they provide programs that support employees' family life, such as counseling for their family members and family-inclusive wellness initiatives that boost their emotional resources in the family domain.

Third, organizations should encourage employees to utilize effective emotional job crafting strategies to mitigate EJDs and their negative effects. For this

purpose, the human resources department may organize training activities to increase employees' emotion regulation and relaxation skills. Moreover, organizations should empower employees to craft their jobs proactively by giving them autonomy. In addition, organizations may provide employees with digital tools and programs to help them cope with EJDs. For instance, they may organize online socialization activities (e.g., multiplayer video games) and offer online psychological therapy interventions.

Fourth, organizations should consider the EJDs specific to a job position (e.g., manager) or occupation (e.g., medical staff) and develop tailored interventions to reduce them. In addition, they apply policies to reduce the occurrence of negative EJDs. For instance, they should be careful about employing a supervisor who has the potential to show abusive behavior.

2.6.4 Limitations and future research suggestions

This study has some limitations. First, we cannot infer causality from the findings because our study adopted a qualitative and retrospective research approach. Future studies should conduct experiments to understand causal relationships among the themes in our emotional job crafting model. Moreover, our study provides a fruitful basis for future diary and longitudinal studies to understand dynamic relationships among EJDs, emotional resources, coping strategies, and employee outcomes. Diary studies allow researchers to explore how employees experience and manage EJDs daily. In addition, longitudinal research may effectively illuminate how employees learn to cope with EJDs over time, with an experience effect. It also answers the research call from Reh et al. (2021) in examining the long-term effects of EJDs.

In addition, due to the nature of qualitative research, readers of this study should be careful not to generalize findings. We employed only 15 participants from limited industries to understand EJD strategies to cope with them. Future studies may also conduct quantitative research to generalize findings to broader contexts. In this regard, our emotional job crafting model based on qualitative data can be tested in future studies.

Furthermore, we introduce a new concept, emotional job crafting, in this study. Based on qualitative empirical data, emotional job crafting encompasses emotion regulation, job crafting, and recovery strategies. Future studies should adopt different theoretical and methodological approaches to ensure whether the conceptualization of emotional job crafting can be revised and refined. Moreover, they can test antecedents and outcomes of emotional job crafting to illuminate its theoretical and practical implications. Developing an emotional job crafting scale to test it more robustly is also possible.

In this study, we unveiled emotional job crafting strategies as a mediating mechanism between EJDs and employee outcomes and emotional resources as moderator variables, thereby developing a macro-model. Therefore, it encompasses several micromodels with a particular EJD, emotional job crafting strategy, emotional resource, and employee outcome. Future studies can adopt a quantitative approach to test these micromodels, either focusing on them in isolation (i.e., single mediating and/or moderating mechanisms) or tandem (i.e., simultaneous effects of two or more emotional job crafting strategies). For instance, future studies should simultaneously examine how employees cope with customer mistreatment by utilizing recovery and job crafting strategies. In addition, as Brough et al. (2018)

noted, these strategies can be examined as moderator mechanisms to understand the relationship between EJDs and outcomes.

In addition, our study revealed the utilization of DER strategies at work, which has recently emerged in organizational behavior literature with the digitalization and remote work. Future studies should examine under what conditions employees rely on DER and whether DER effectively regulates employees' emotions in office and remote work conditions.



CHAPTER 3

STUDY 2

3.1 Introduction

Abusive supervision, conceptualized as a supervisor's systematic expression of hostile actions toward their subordinates (Tepper, 2000), has been widely documented for its severe consequences. As an emotional job demand, it drains employees' personal resources by inducing negative affective experiences, inflicting psychological injury, and threatening self-worth (Huang et al., 2020; Reh et al., 2021; Tuxford & Bradley, 2015; Wang & Tang, 2022). Abusive supervision harms employees in terms of psychological and physical well-being (e.g., emotional exhaustion, depression, chronic diseases), work-related attitudes and behaviors (e.g., job dissatisfaction and counterproductive work behavior), and even family-related outcomes (e.g., family issues) (Liang et al., 2018; Pradhan & Gupta, 2021; Tepper, 2007; Tepper et al., 2017). As a result, it interrupts organizational functioning and undermines the retention of talented employees (Gallegos et al., 2022).

One of the serious outcomes of abusive supervision is turnover intention, referring to employees' contemplation about leaving their organization, which serves as a robust predictor of actual exit (Agarwal, 2019; Lee et al., 2017). Thoughts about leaving an organization under abusive supervision are rarely impulsive; rather, they tend to occur from a motivational process (Lee et al., 2018; Tepper, 2000). This study argues that job crafting can provide the motivational process underlying the transition of abusive supervision into turnover intention. Job crafting, referring to redesigning particular aspects (i.e., task, relational, or cognitive) or characteristics (i.e., resources and demands) of a job (Tims & Bakker, 2010a; Wrzesniewski &

Dutton, 2001), has recently gained attention as a proactive strategy employees adopt against abusive supervision (Harju et al., 2016; Masood et al., 2021; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012). Job crafting, while known for favorable outcomes such as higher productivity and job performance, increased engagement with work, and a heightened sense of meaningfulness (Rudolph et al., 2017; Tims et al., 2022; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), can also lead to undesirable outcomes for organizations, such as turnover intention (Junker et al., 2023).

This counterintuitive outcome, turnover intention, creates a paradox that can be understood by the wise proactivity framework (Parker et al., 2019). Employees with wise proactivity have deep insights into which goals should be pursued and which are appropriate to their self-interests in terms of achieving favorable outcomes (Parker & Liao, 2016). In this regard, they select context-appropriate proactive strategies by considering not only personal interests but also ensuring not harm anyone (Parker et al., 2019). From the perspective of wise proactivity, job crafting may serve as a strategic behavior to shape turnover decision through which employees tailor their work lives to facilitate change, maintain psychological security, or ensure professional development to find alternative job opportunities (Junker et al., 2023; Petrou et al., 2015; Zhang & Parker, 2019) but not destroy current organizational functioning.

Integrating the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and the wise proactivity framework (Parker et al., 2019), we propose that employees under abusive supervision may wisely engage in promotion-oriented job crafting behavior as a resource-investment strategy (e.g., skill development or network building) or prevention-oriented job crafting behavior as a resource-conservation strategy (e.g., reducing interaction with toxic people at work), each of which may shape their

thoughts about turnover (Junker et al., 2023; Masood et al., 2021). In this regard, job crafting serves as a future-oriented coping mechanism in which employees prepare themselves for a departure through either professional investment (i.e., promotion-oriented job crafting) or psychological self-protection (i.e., prevention-oriented job crafting).

Despite these initial insights, however, our understanding of the underlying mechanism between abusive supervision and promotion-oriented and prevention-oriented job crafting is still far from complete (Masood et al., 2021; Michalak et al., 2017; Tepper et al., 2017), signaling the need for examining mediating and moderating factors. This study proposes that negative affect mediates employees' job crafting responses to abusive supervision, strengthening the understanding of why employees engage in job crafting. As an inherently destructive phenomenon, abusive supervision drains personal resources of employees and elicits negative affect (Agarwal, 2019; Atwater et al., 2016; Hobfoll, 1989; Oh & Farh, 2017). Given that negative affect signals a problematic situation at present that do not align with ideal wants, needs and expectations of individuals (Folkman et al., 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Martin et al., 1993), employees may respond by reshaping their work tasks and cognitions about their jobs, skills, and relationships (i.e., job crafting) to gain control and reduce future threats of abusive supervision (Bindl et al., 2019; Niessen et al., 2016).

Furthermore, given that not all employees respond to abusive supervision in the same way (Tepper et al., 2017) and wiser employees adopt proactive strategies that align with their personal tendencies (Parker et al., 2019), individual differences shape the indirect link between abusive supervision and turnover intention. In particular, this study suggests that perfectionism plays a moderating role in the

relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, job crafting, and turnover intention. Perfectionism is “a trait characterized by setting exceedingly high standards for oneself and others and making critical evaluations of performance in meeting these standards” (Vreeker-Williamson et al., 2023, p. 158). Employees with a strong propensity towards perfectionism are more likely to exhibit proactive behaviors (i.e., job crafting) toward resolving unfavorable work circumstances and transforming aspects of their jobs to satisfy their heightened need for self-perfection (Jiang et al., 2024).

In particular, the type of perfectionism, namely perfectionistic strivings and perfectionistic concerns, may shape how employees respond to abusive supervision, guiding whether they engage in promotion-oriented or prevention-oriented job crafting and turnover intention to this end. While perfectionistic strivings pertain to setting and pursuing higher goals and striving for accomplishment, perfectionistic concerns reflect doubts about making mistakes and not achieving excellence (Ocampo et al., 2020). Drawing on regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998) and relevant job crafting conceptualization (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019), employees with perfectionistic strivings are guided by approach motives and are likely to engage in promotion-oriented job crafting to achieve their ideal selves and pursue future opportunities. Conversely, those high in perfectionistic concerns are driven by avoidance motives, leading them to adopt prevention-oriented job crafting to minimize threats and avoid failures by proactively focusing on the basic requirements of a job (Stoeber & Corr, 2017; Yasuda & Goegan, 2023).

Integrating these insights with the wise proactivity framework (Parker et al., 2019), we argue that both groups of perfectionistic employees may engage in job crafting not merely to survive under abusive supervision, but to strategically prepare

themselves for quitting their organization. Employees with perfectionistic strivings may adopt promotion-oriented job crafting under abusive supervision to develop skills and build professional networks, which enables them to pursue and exploit job opportunities outside of their current organization. On the other hand, employees with perfectionistic concerns may engage in prevention-oriented job crafting to conserve their remaining resources and create a temporary sense of control, while disengaging from the organization in a proactive and safe way. In both cases, both employees utilize job crafting, a wise self-regulation strategy, with the goal of departure from their organization.

Overall, this study aims to understand the underlying mechanisms that motivate employees to adopt promotion-oriented or prevention-oriented job crafting as a proactive response to abusive supervision and the effects of these processes on turnover intention. Overall, as depicted in Figure 3, this study aims to examine a) the relationship between abusive supervision and job crafting via negative affect, b) the relationship between abusive supervision and turnover intention via negative affect and job crafting, c) moderating role of perfectionism in the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, job crafting and turnover intention based on the research questions below:

Research question 1. How and why do employees engage in job crafting under abusive supervision, and how does perfectionism, as an individual difference, affect this process?

Research question 2. How does abusive supervision indirectly affect turnover intention via negative affect and job crafting?

followership literature by examining job crafting as a wise and strategic response to abusive supervision, which helps them prepare for leaving the organization.

Second, we add to the knowledge of job crafting by challenging its positive framing. Although job crafting has been traditionally studied as a proactive behavior driven by positive antecedents and resulting in favorable outcomes (Park & Park, 2023), our study suggests that the motivation and outcomes of job crafting highly depend on the context. In the case of abusive supervision, job crafting may paradoxically serve as a strategic behavior to navigate turnover intention for employees, but pose a threat to organizations, namely, losing proactive employees. Relatedly, we expand the conceptual boundaries of job crafting by studying abusive supervision as a driver and respond to the research call from Wang et al. (2020) in terms of understanding how employees respond to negative leadership situations by job crafting. Relatedly, this study contributes to the job crafting literature by examining abusive supervision as one of the contextual and leadership-related antecedents of job crafting, which has caught little attention from researchers (Park & Park, 2023; Wojtczuk-Turek et al., 2024). To enhance the current understanding, this study builds on the limited prior research that has either examined job crafting as a response to abusive supervision (Masood et al., 2021) or as an attenuator of the negative effects of it (Huang et al., 2020).

By exploring the affective explanatory mechanism between abusive supervision and job crafting, this study contributes to the emotion-based perspective of abusive supervision that remains underdeveloped in the existing body of knowledge (Gallegos et al., 2022; Oh & Farh, 2017). Although it is undeniable that abusive supervision triggers negative affective experiences in employees, the existing literature has given limited attention to this perspective (Oh & Farh, 2017).

Incorporating affect-related phenomena and resource-based view into abusive supervision research provides significant insights for employees' responses to abusive supervision, an area that has received little scholarly focus (Gallegos et al., 2022).

We also advance the existing research on abusive supervision and job crafting by unveiling perfectionism as an individual difference that explains how and why employees navigate abusive supervision by engaging in either promotion-oriented job crafting or prevention-oriented job crafting. Boundary conditions affecting the selection of a particular strategy in reaction to abusive treatment by supervisors remain inadequately understood (May et al., 2014). We address this knowledge gap by integrating regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998) to explain how perfectionism shapes employees' job crafting choices and then turnover intention through the motivational processes of promotion and prevention regulatory foci. In this regard, our study expands the prior research that has shown subordinates' perfectionism affects their perception of abuse (Vreeker-Williamson et al., 2023) by advancing how this personality trait transforms into a wise proactive strategy under a hostile work environment. Moreover, organizational behavior researchers have highlighted that our understanding of the role of perfectionism at work is still far from complete (Harari et al., 2018; Ocampo et al., 2020; Stoeber, 2018). This study contributes to the knowledge on employee perfectionism by revealing its influence on job crafting through regulatory focus processes. By focusing on both types of perfectionism (i.e., perfectionistic strivings and concerns), we add to the literature on perfectionism that has overexamined the role of perfectionistic concerns (Stoeber, 2018).

In terms of practical contributions, this new perspective provides a promising avenue for organizational behavior practitioners and managers. Although job crafting

seems a constructive response to abusive supervision, employees who adopt job crafting to cope with abusive supervision may have a motivation to leave their organizations. This also strongly supports the destructive nature of abusive supervision that prevents employees from remaining in their current organizations. From the employer's standpoint, abusive supervision poses a dual threat: it undermines employees' psychological prosperity and contributes to losing bright and proactive employees. In this regard, our study offers crucial insights for organizational practitioners, enabling them to implement more effective strategies to prevent and intervene in abusive supervision.

The following sections of Chapter 3 are organized as follows. In the next section, we present a review of the relevant literature on abusive supervision, affect, job crafting, turnover intention, and perfectionism. Then, we introduce the theoretical framework and hypotheses. This is followed by the method of this study that presents sampling, data collection techniques, and measures. Next, we present the findings that we unveiled from data analysis. Finally, we discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the findings, underscore limitations, and make suggestions for future research.

3.2 Literature review

3.2.1 Abusive supervision

Abusive supervision was first defined by Tepper (2000) as “subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (p. 178). Although there are a number of concepts that reflect impolite and hostile behaviors of supervisors, such as destructive, toxic, aggressive, and petty tyranny, researchers often prefer to refer to

them as ‘abusive’ (Tepper et al., 2017). In addition, although abusive supervision has been examined as a form of destructive leadership (Fischer et al., 2021), there is a nuanced difference between abusive supervision and destructive leadership. While the target of abusive supervision is subordinate(s), the target of destructive leadership is subordinate(s) and the organization (Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

One in every 10 employees experiences workplace abuse from their supervisors (Tepper et al., 2017). This percentage may even be higher in certain industries where job operations are organized by strict rules and errors are avoided (Tepper, 2007). Despite the prevalence and harmful nature of abusive supervision, it is rarely reported by employees (Mackey et al., 2017) for two possible reasons. First, employees may not prefer to share abusive episodes due to the fear of retaliation from their supervisors or avoiding remembering them (Tepper et al., 2017). Another reason is that employees may not perceive their supervisors’ malign behaviors as abusive (Breevaart et al., 2022; Tepper et al., 2017).

According to its initial definition (Tepper, 2000), abusive supervision pertains to employees’ subjective evaluations of their supervisors, rather than objective assessment of the abusive conduct displayed by supervisors (Fischer et al., 2021). Supervisors’ opportunistic behaviors, rudeness, intimidation, lack of concern for followers, unfriendly and hostile conduct, manipulation, and breaching agreements may contribute to the perception of abusive supervision (Breevaart et al., 2022; Tepper, 2000; Wee et al., 2017). This perception is shaped by the context in which supervisor behavior is experienced, the characteristics of the supervisor and supervisor behaviors (e.g., frequency), and the characteristics of the victim (e.g., personality and beliefs) (Tepper, 2007). For illustration, consider the following example: Despite both employees being supervised by the same individual, one may

evaluate the supervisor's conduct as abusive. At the same time, the other employee may not share this negative evaluation. Even if the organizational policies justify abusive leadership behaviors, it is not necessarily labeled as destructive if an employee does not perceive it as abusive (Tepper, 2000). Moreover, employees in high-power distant countries are less likely to assess harmful behaviors of their supervisors as abusive (Pradhan et al., 2020). Even, an employee may perceive that abusive treatment does not have the purpose of causing an injury; instead, it sometimes has performance-enhancing intentions (Tepper, 2007).

In addition, the term emphasizes a temporal framework (Tepper, 2000). It means that abusive supervision denotes an employee's perception of continuous and systematic exposure to mistreatment by a supervisor. However, recent studies have challenged this view by revealing daily fluctuations of abuse or the combination of abusive supervision with positive leadership styles in some cultural and organizational settings (Zhang & Liu, 2018). In addition, the frequency or intensity of abusive supervision may change depending on the environmental (e.g., volatile environment) and organizational (e.g., losing competitive advantage) conditions (Atwater et al., 2016).

3.2.1.1 Antecedents of abusive supervision

Although abusive supervision has serious consequences in organizational settings, it may still exist because of three main factors (Fischer et al., 2021; Gallegos et al., 2022; Tepper, 2000, 2007):

- Organization-related factors: The organizational culture may foster an environment conducive to abusive supervision, or existing policies may be

inadequate in addressing, preventing, and mitigating such behaviors effectively (Fischer et al., 2021).

- Supervisor-related factors: A supervisor has an inherent tendency to exhibit harmful behaviors due to personal characteristics or previous life/work experiences (Fischer et al., 2021). An abusive supervisor may lack awareness regarding the abusive nature of their actions. Even when supervisors recognize the harmful consequences of their behavior, they may fail to take the initiative to rectify them (Tepper, 2007). Additionally, their management style and implicit leadership beliefs may legitimize abusive behaviors as acceptable and functional. Moreover, the power dependence theory (Emerson, 1962) elucidates that the power disparity between supervisors and subordinates, wherein supervisors' control critical decisions and distribute valuable resources, heightens the likelihood of abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007).
- Employee-related factors: Employees subjected to abusive supervision often adopt a passive stance toward their supervisors due to various factors, including fear of retaliation, limited alternative employment opportunities, or personal beliefs regarding leadership (Fischer et al., 2021). For instance, employees may blame themselves for causing abusive supervision (Tröster & Van Quaquebeke, 2021). Such a situation may reinforce the abusive behaviors of supervisors.

3.2.1.2 Consequences of abusive supervision

Abusive supervision has influenced individual employees and organizations, but its effects are mixed and explained by different theoretical mechanisms. The consequences of abusive supervision are substantially serious, such as a decrease in

well-being indicators (e.g., negative emotions, psychological distress and health-related symptoms) (Stempel & Rigotti, 2018; Tepper, 2000), unfavorable employee outcomes (e.g., reduced organizational commitment, identification, and proactive work behaviors, increased turnover intention, withdrawal behaviors, and aggressive behaviors) and even family-related problems (Abi Aad et al., 2021; Atwater et al., 2016; Oh & Farh, 2017; Ouyang et al., 2015; Restubog et al., 2011; Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2017). In the following paragraphs, each of these outcomes will be elaborated.

Abusive supervision, as a negative emotional experience (Agarwal, 2019), has a serious impact on employee well-being. It elicits strong negative affective states (Kim et al., 2020; Oh & Farh, 2017) and also reduces the experience of positive affect (Gallegos et al., 2022). In terms of discrete emotions, previous research has unveiled that abusive supervision elicits fear (Oh & Farh, 2017), guilt (Tröster & Van Quaquebeke, 2021), aggression (Lian et al., 2014), or shame (Kim et al., 2020). Empirical evidence has also demonstrated that it increases stress and burnout via depleting personal resources (Agarwal, 2019; Pradhan et al., 2020). Moreover, Bortolon et al. (2019) found that abusive supervision increases paranoid thoughts, thereby making employees more suspicious about abuse-related cues. Abusive supervision also reduces job satisfaction because it creates an environment where employees do not receive value and respect (Smith et al., 2022). Wang and Tang (2022) found that abusive supervision negatively influences work engagement by depleting resources and eliciting negative affect. In addition to short-term effects on well-being, abusive supervision that is considered a traumatic experience also has long-term consequences, including either negative post-traumatic stress (e.g.,

depressive symptoms, paranoia, and hypervigilance) disorder or post-traumatic growth (e.g., increased self-esteem and sense of purpose) (Vogel & Bolino, 2020).

Furthermore, abusive supervision affects performance-related outcomes. Decreased performance is one of the most serious impacts of abusive supervision (Lu et al., 2023). Sungu et al. (2020) found that abusive supervision reduces job performance by negatively affecting employee motivation. Even, it puts barriers to achieving production goals by harming employees' physical and psychological well-being (Velez & Neves, 2016). Abusive supervision also prevents employees from displaying extra-role behaviors. For instance, abusive supervision depletes employees' cognitive resources and thus reduces organizational citizenship behaviors (Asim et al., 2023) and voice (Liu et al., 2021).

Moreover, abusive supervision increases employees' thoughts about leaving their organizations for several reasons such as increased perceived unfair treatment at work (Tepper, 2000), increasing unpolite and abusive behaviors among employees (Abi Aad et al., 2021), and depleting valuable personal resources (e.g., resilience) (Agarwal, 2019) and increasing emotional exhaustion (Hong et al., 2024). As a result, organizations can lose their bright employees (Smith et al., 2022).

Furthermore, abusive supervision results in uncivil, unethical behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors in organizations. Social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977) posits that individuals learn particular behaviors through observing and mimicking important others in their social surroundings. In this regard, abusive supervision may trigger disrespectful, rude, and emotionally harmful behaviors among employees. Previous studies found that abusive supervision may cause employees to displace their aggression toward their coworkers, thereby increasing coworker incivility (Abi Aad et al., 2021). Moreover, because employees'

self-control abilities are diminished under abusive supervision, they display rude (Akram et al., 2024) and unethical behaviors at work (Arshad et al., 2024). Even these behaviors can be directed toward customers and turned into sabotage behaviors (Guo et al., 2024). In terms of counterproductive work behaviors, previous studies have revealed that abusive supervision increases knowledge-hiding behaviors because of depletion of personal resources (Hao et al., 2022) or avoiding assertive behaviors, such as sharing knowledge (Lee et al., 2018).

Surprisingly, abusive supervision has also elicited some interesting outcomes such as supervisor-directed helping (Tröster & Van Quaquebeke, 2021), balancing behaviors (e.g., expanding network, and cooperation with coworkers) (Wee et al., 2017), job crafting (Masood et al., 2021), and employee creative performance (Lee et al., 2013). In particular, employees are likely to exhibit higher performance, when they attribute the causes of abusive supervision to supervisor's intention to increase performance (Liao et al., 2021) or they have higher performance goal orientation (Wang et al., 2024). In addition, job crafting and balancing behaviors are displayed because employees desire to regain the sense of control over their environments to deal with abusive supervision (Masood et al., 2021; Wee et al., 2017). In addition, cultural norms may treat abusive behaviors of supervisors as acceptable and a performance-enhancing strategy (Lee et al., 2013). As understood from the findings, the positive outcomes of abusive supervision may stem from employees' internal attribution of the causes of abuse and coping intentions.

3.2.1.3 Coping with abusive supervision

Because abusive supervision poses threats to employees' psychological safety, well-being, and performance, coping emerges as a vital mechanism to deal with abusive

supervision and its negative repercussions (Huang et al., 2020; Masood et al., 2021; Wee et al., 2017).

May et al. (2014) noted that abuse treatment from a supervisor prompts followers to employ various coping strategies to address either the source of abuse (e.g., the employee's diminished performance or the supervisor's bad intention) or the consequences of abuse (e.g., negative emotions). However, scholars have yet to find satisfactory answers to the question of how employees cope with abusive supervision and what they experience when they successfully cope with it, except for a few studies (Tepper et al., 2017). Early studies have mostly focused on interpersonal ways of coping (e.g., minimizing contact or repairing the relationship with the supervisor) with abusive supervision, which is naturally interpersonal (Yagil et al., 2011). Later, researchers have pointed out the role of alternative coping strategies in this context and have examined numerous coping strategies in reaction to abusive supervision, ranging from emotion-focused coping, such as problem drinking (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006) or withdrawal behaviors (Huang et al., 2020; Mawritz et al., 2014), to problem-focused coping strategies, including voice (Greenbaum et al., 2013), exemplification (Kim et al., 2020), and helping to supervisor (Tröster & Van Quaquebeke, 2021). This study categorizes these coping strategies as constructive, destructive, and avoidant coping strategies. While constructive coping strategies include active efforts to change the abusive condition without causing harm, destructive coping strategies involve responses that aim to retaliate against abusive supervision by showing injurious behaviors (e.g., aggression or sabotage) toward the supervisor or related others (e.g., the organization or coworkers). Avoidant coping strategies imply more passive actions compared to

those of constructive and destructive coping and are aimed at escaping from the causes or consequences of abusive supervision.

Constructive coping strategies include direct communication with supervisors about the causes of abuse, proactive coping strategies such as job crafting and voice, and employees' professional development. Yagil et al. (2011) found that employees utilize direct communication to solve causes of abusive supervision and ingratiation techniques to improve relationships with their supervisors. According to Oh and Farh (2017), some employees utilize proactive coping to alleviate future occurrences of abusive supervision. In this regard, Masood et al. (2021) found that employees can cope with abusive supervision by reconstructing certain aspects of their job, such as gaining new skills or concentrating their interaction on the better part of their relationships or on professional topics. Another coping response to abusive supervision is voice behavior that is displayed as a way of conserving resources that are depleted by abusive supervision (Mahmood et al., 2024). In terms of professional development, when employees acquire power by improving their job-related knowledge and skills and establishing connections with people who contribute to their superiors' objectives, they augment supervisors' dependence on them (Wee et al., 2017). As a result, they may disrupt the cycle of abuse.

Destructive coping strategies against abusive supervision can be explained by the social exchange theory (SET) (Blau, 1964). Employees deal with abusive supervision, which is destructive, by utilizing destructive coping strategies (e.g., aggression, counterproductive work behavior, sabotage, or cyberloafing) (Bhattacharjee & Sarkar, 2024). On the other hand, employees may adopt avoidant coping strategies in response to abusive supervision, such as feedback avoidance (Whitman et al., 2014) and silence (Xu et al., 2015). As grounded on the COR theory

(Hobfoll, 1989), previous studies have revealed that employees intentionally hold important information when they are subjected to abusive supervision in order to conserve their depleted and limited psychological resources (Bayhan Karapinar et al., 2024; Park et al., 2018). In addition, some employees try to reduce thinking about abuse-related events and situations to lessen their overwhelming effects (Bortolon et al., 2019). Yagil et al. (2011) revealed that minimizing communication with abusive supervisors is a way to cope with such treatment.

3.2.2 Affect

Affect, an emotion-laden phenomenon, has been examined in the organizational behavior literature since the early 1900s (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Preliminary study had concentrated on job satisfaction as an affective state and investigated workplace attributes as antecedents of this ‘workplace affect’ (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Advancements in theoretical and methodological awareness have prompted modern literature to reexamine affect as affective traits and states, emotions, and moods, while exploring its determinants and consequences in work and non-work environments (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Affect is a comprehensive concept that includes state-like (i.e., discrete emotions and moods) and trait-like (i.e., affectivity) phenomena (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Emotions are induced by a specific cause (e.g., a person and an event), are intensely felt, and may change in a short period of time (Brief & Weiss, 2002). They encompass discrete feelings such as happiness, surprise, disgust, or anger. Each discrete emotion elicits a unique action tendency (Frijda, 1993). Moods are more prevalent than emotions, may elicit without a specific reason, and may remain for hours or days (Dasborough et al., 2008). Both emotions and moods represent state

affective phenomena (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Affectivity, as a personality trait, refers to an individual's predisposition to experience emotions with a particular valence, either positive or negative (Watson et al., 1988). It means that individuals have an innate tendency toward having a specific range of affective experiences. While individuals with higher positive affectivity are cheerful, active, and energetic, individuals with higher negative affectivity are more inclined to be sad and exhibit lower energy levels (Watson et al., 1988).

According to Watson et al. (1988), state affect encompasses positive and negative affective experiences, which have distinct independent dimensions. Positive affect “reflects the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active, and alert” (Watson et al., 1988, p. 1063). Negative affect “is a general dimension of subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement that subsumes a variety of aversive mood states, including anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear, and nervousness” (Watson et al., 1988, p. 1063).

In terms of the informational aspect, affect functions as a monitoring system, guiding employees to understand environmental cues (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017). For instance, aggressive treatment by a supervisor may elicit guilt in followers, which can serve as a signal of decreased performance (Tröster & Van Quaquebeke, 2021). Regarding motivational function, affective experiences play an important role in assessing future outcomes, developing goals, and guiding employees to adjust their behaviors to achieve these outcomes (Seo et al., 2004). While positive affect encourages employees to explore and utilize favorable outcomes, negative affect drives them to prevent adverse consequences (Seo et al., 2004).

3.2.2.1 Antecedents of affect at work

Individual differences and contextual factors shape employees' affective states at work. In terms of individual differences, trait affectivity influences the affective states of employees. In this regard, trait positive affectivity (versus trait negative affectivity) corresponds to state positive affect (versus state negative affect) (Watson et al., 1988). Moreover, while extraverted employees tend to feel positive affect, individuals with higher neuroticism are more inclined to experience negative affect (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Moreover, contextual factors denote diverse workplace elements, including leadership, workplace events, team-related, and organizational factors, influencing affect in the workplace. First, leaders influence their followers' affective experiences through their emotional expressions and behaviors (Brief & Weiss, 2002). For instance, leaders' emotional support led followers to have more positive affective experiences (Ilies et al., 2013). On the other hand, abusive treatment from a supervisor elicits negative affective reactions in followers (Tepper, 2000). In addition, the leaders' use of emotional language may tap into the emotions of employees (Bono & Ilies, 2006). For instance, negative emotional display of leaders increases negative affect in employees (Barsade & Gibson, 2007).

The process by which workplace events elicit affective reactions in employees is explained by affective events theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Events that elicit proximal emotional experiences in employees are caused by several factors in the workplace (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). While experiencing workplace conflict, task failure, and witnessing unethical treatment are particular instances of negative affective events, receiving praise from a supervisor, engaging in warm social interactions, and receiving promotion or bonus are examples of positive

affective events (Weiss & Beal, 2005). In this regard, the type of affective event (i.e., positive or negative) elicits corresponding affective reactions in employees.

In addition, team socioemotional structure, such as affective tone, influences the affective experience of employees (Brief & Weiss, 2002). When a team is composed of employees who have higher negative trait affectivity, the overall team affective climate becomes negative. Also, the affective experience of a team member can influence the emotional states of other team members through the process of emotional contagion (Barsade, 2002).

3.2.2.2 Consequences of affect at work

Employees' affective experiences have an impact on workplace attitudes and behaviors. The model of AET also clarifies the link between affective and behavioral reactions. Specific affective reactions induce specific behavioral reactions, either affect-related or judgment-related (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affect-driven behaviors are immediate behavioral reactions to experienced emotions and are expected to have a short life (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Judgment-driven behaviors have cognitive components and are displayed after having a relevant attitude (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Affect shapes employees' attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Yoon et al., 2022). Relatedly, while positive affect boosts employees' evaluation of their jobs and attachment to their organizations, negative affect undermines them because negative affect predisposes individuals to interpret their environment through a pessimistic lens (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Furthermore, affective states of employees influence performance-related outcomes, such as job performance and innovation. Positive affect boosts employees'

job performance because it expands their minds and increases concentration (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). In terms of creativity, positive affect enhances it through expanding employees' cognitive resources and enabling flexible thinking (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Isen, 1987). Although the detrimental effects of negative affect are expected, negative affect can support creativity by enabling problem solving and searching for more optimal alternatives (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Jones & Kelly, 2009). In addition, empirical evidence has revealed that negative affect fosters employee innovation by driving employees to acquire new resources to address the challenges signaled by this negative state (Montani et al., 2018).

Considering extra-role behaviors, positive affect encourages employees to show helping behavior at work (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Brief & Weiss, 2002). On the other hand, negative affect sabotages the organizational citizenship behavior of employees but promotes counterproductive work behavior because it fosters a negative perception of others (Thoresen et al., 2003). Relatedly, affect also organizes social interactions at work through eliciting and processing social cues and shaping the perception of others (Tse et al., 2021). For instance, a cheerful expression of a supervisor tones up the social ties between the supervisor and followers (Johnson, 2008). Affect also shapes employees' withdrawal behaviors. For instance, employees with higher negative affect tend to think about quitting their organizations (Brief & Weiss, 2002) and experience physical and psychological disengagement from work (Thoresen et al., 2003).

3.2.3 Job crafting

Classical research on job design has primarily emphasized a managerial process in which management determines and implements practices and policies that shape

employees' tasks, skills, and relationships (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). However, this approach often disregards employees' individual needs and expectations, potentially leading to unsuccessful outcomes (Bindl et al., 2019). Consequently, more recent approaches have highlighted the active role of employees in modifying particular aspects of their jobs to achieve what they need and want (Parker et al., 2010), leading to the emergence of the job crafting concept (de Bloom et al., 2020). Job crafting, firstly introduced as the intentional activities that employees adopt to re-shape particular job elements (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), has been examined as a purposeful and proactive employee behavior over the years (Boehnlein & Baum, 2022; Rudolph et al., 2017). Job crafting enables employees to enhance the favorability and significance of their jobs (Demerouti, 2014; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

According to de Bloom et al. (2020), job crafting is a proactive and intentional action that is bottom-up and targeted to the self. First, it is proactive because it addresses discrepancies between employees' needs and the current situations that motivate them to change themselves or the environment to shape the future (Parker et al., 2010). In this regard, as a proactive work behavior, job crafting aims to correct problematic situations before they occur or expand and exploit opportunities to maximize future gains. Thus, employees aim to make long-lasting changes in their jobs (Bruning & Campion, 2018).

It is intentional because employees have conscious intentions to change either a complete job or certain aspects of it to improve their relationships with the job (Parker et al., 2010). Moreover, job crafting is an experience-driven process that is initiated by employees rather than imposed or applied by supervisors or organizations (Leana et al., 2009). In contrast to other proactive work behaviors, job

crafting does not fall under the category of "active performance concept" (p. 2), which explicitly indicates making important contributions to organizational goals (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Instead, it is a phenomenon that focuses on the alignment between employees and their jobs, emphasizing employees' personal experiences and subjective outcomes as a primary consideration but organizational goals as a secondary one (Tims & Bakker, 2010).

Holman et al. (2023) mentioned three dominant approaches in the job crafting literature: role-based, resource-based, and approach-avoidance perspective. The role-based approach is another term used by subsequent researchers to describe job crafting studies based on the standpoint of Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001). Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) were among the most prominent researchers due to their noteworthy job crafting study, first published in the literature. They defined job crafting as "the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work" (p. 179) based on the idea that employees have the capability of changing their work environment. Specifically, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) differentiated between task crafting (e.g., making changes in work-related tasks), cognitive crafting (e.g., transforming one's perspective with regard to a job), and relational crafting (e.g., altering the nature of workplace social ties). As grounded on social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) noted that job crafting contributes positively to meaningful work and shapes employees' work identities.

Second, the resource-based perspective emphasizes maintaining favorable outcomes at work by underscoring the balance between job demands and resources (Tims & Bakker, 2010). It adopts the job demands-resources (JD-R) model as a

theoretical stance (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job crafting is the proactive actions executed by employees to lessen job demands and boost job resources with the aim of better matching the job itself with the needs, expectations, and interests of the employees themselves (Tims et al., 2012). As indicated in the definition, this perspective focuses on the concrete behaviors of employees rather than cognitions (Tims & Bakker, 2010). In this regard, employees build on job resources (e.g., ensuring professional development and collaborating with coworkers), undertake challenging tasks (e.g., new projects), but keep hindering demands to a minimum through maintaining communication with difficult others at a necessary level and avoiding making tough decisions. Kooij et al. (2017) noted that the resource-based approach has dominated the job crafting literature.

The role-based and resource-based approaches have different orientations toward changing the content of a job, such as shaping role boundaries in different domains or managing job demands and resources (Bruning & Campion, 2018). However, both approaches offer crafting strategies for expansion or contraction (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). Therefore, recent studies define job crafting as expansion and contraction types (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Zhang & Parker, 2019). In this regard, drawing from the fundamental psychological motives of approach and avoidance (Tims et al., 2022; Zhang & Parker, 2019), which is also referred to as promotion regulatory focus and prevention regulatory focus in regulatory focus theory (Bindl et al., 2019; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019), the third job crafting approach has integrated the role- and resource-based approach and conceptualized job crafting as promotion-oriented and prevention-oriented job crafting (Bindl et al., 2019; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). Promotion-oriented job crafting refers to “active, effortful, motivated, and

directed toward problem-focused and improvement-based goals” (Bruning & Campion, 2018, p. 501). Promotion-oriented job crafting includes expansion-related strategies (e.g., developing new skills and building a social network) in the role-based and resource-based approaches (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Wojtczuk-Turek et al., 2024). Prevention-oriented job crafting aims to “evade, reduce, or eliminate part of one’s work” (Bruning & Campion, 2018, p. 502). Prevention-oriented job crafting includes contraction-related strategies (e.g., keeping communication with a toxic manager to a minimum) in the role-based and resource-based approaches (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Wojtczuk-Turek et al., 2024).

Elliot (1999) emphasized that individuals have an innate tendency to shape their actions based on the motive for seeking pleasure and gains (i.e., approach motive) or reducing pain and non-losses (i.e., avoidance motive). Drawing on the regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998), job crafting is conceptualized as a self-regulatory process activated by two regulatory foci, which are promotion and prevention (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). The former energizes employees to succeed in their goals through expansion-oriented behaviors (Bruning & Campion, 2018). The latter leads them to reduce unwanted consequences through contraction-oriented behaviors (Holman et al., 2023).

Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2019) have revealed that while promotion-oriented job crafting is motivated by the approach motive but not the avoidance motive, the avoidance motive triggers only prevention-oriented job crafting. Thus, promotion-focused job crafting is centered on maximizing gains and expanding job-related aspects, whereas prevention-focused job crafting involves behaviors aimed at mitigating threats and minimizing negative outcomes (de Bloom et al., 2020; Mirabito et al., 2025). It is essential to acknowledge that prevention-oriented job

crafting differs from withdrawal and avoidance (Bindl et al., 2019). It enables employees to intentionally and actively focus on more fundamental aspects of their jobs to reduce potential adverse outcomes. For instance, instead of broadening social networks at work that may pose a threat, employees may rely on secure and closer relationships through prevention-oriented relationship crafting. Another example is the following: employees may prefer to work on basic tasks that they perform best and not make them more challenging to reduce the risk of failure. In this regard, in certain cases, prevention-oriented job crafting may unveil favorable outcomes for employees, such as well-being and productivity (Bindl et al., 2019).

3.2.3.1 Antecedents of job crafting

Individual, job-related, and contextual factors have been examined as antecedents of job crafting. We elaborate on each category of antecedents in detail below.

In terms of individual differences, one of the noteworthy drivers of job crafting is the proactive personality that increases job crafting behaviors by exploring and exploiting opportunities in the environment and persisting on work goals (Rudolph et al., 2017). Moreover, self-efficacy is another individual difference that motivates employees to adopt job crafting strategies because employees who are higher on self-efficacy have strong beliefs in themselves to succeed and set and pursue challenging goals (Rudolph et al., 2017). In terms of human motives, promotion regulatory focus (e.g., approach motive) is positively related to promotion-oriented job crafting, whereas prevention regulatory focus (e.g., avoidance motive) drives employees to adopt prevention-oriented job crafting (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Rudolph et al., 2017). In addition, a deficiency in fundamental human needs (e.g., affiliation, achievement,

and autonomy) compels employees to reconstruct their jobs (Bindl et al., 2019). For instance, employees satisfy safety needs in relationships by adopting prevention-oriented relationship crafting.

Furthermore, particular job characteristics have been examined as antecedents of job crafting. For instance, autonomy allows employees to have control over the boundaries of their jobs (Rudolph et al., 2017). Moreover, receiving feedback, having skill variety, and working on significant tasks positively relate to job crafting (Park & Park, 2023): Feedback informs employees about the problems in their job that need to be solved or improved. Employees with skill variety have more personal resources and abilities to build new knowledge and additional skills. Task significance motivates employees to think about the importance of work outcomes and take responsibility to adjust their jobs to contribute to significant outcomes. Therefore, all of them energize employees to engage in job crafting behaviors.

Moreover, contextual antecedents of job crafting encompass leader-, coworker-, organization-, and family-related factors (Park & Park, 2023; Rudolph et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2020). In terms of leadership, previous studies found that positive leadership styles encourage employees' job crafting behaviors. Empowering, transformational, and servant leadership are the most significant antecedents of job crafting behavior by providing employees with development opportunities and support and increasing their motivation, decision-making capacity, autonomy, and well-being (Park & Park, 2023). Moreover, a previous study found that paradoxical leaders support employees to adopt both promotion- and prevention-oriented job crafting by considering employees' performance and well-being, balancing organizational effectiveness and employee performance, and providing employees with autonomy and control (Wojtczuk-Turek et al., 2024).

Relationships with coworkers also shape employees' job crafting behaviors. Support from coworkers, which is instrumental or emotional, increases employees' resource pool and energizes them to adopt job crafting (Park & Park, 2023). In addition, supportive coworkers provide employees with valuable feedback and development opportunities, thereby increasing job crafting (Wang et al., 2020).

Organizational support and human resources practices also influence job crafting (Park & Park, 2023). Organizational support increases job crafting behaviors through sufficient provision of resources and growth opportunities (Kim et al., 2018). Moreover, the human resources department may increase job crafting by allowing socialization among coworkers, providing training and development opportunities, and implementing practices that boost job crafting behaviors in work environments (Ekmekcioglu & Nabawanuka, 2023).

3.2.3.2 Consequences of job crafting

Each job-crafting strategy yields different consequences for employees and organizations (Bindl et al., 2019; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). In this regard, we will explain the consequences of job crafting in terms of promotion-oriented and prevention-oriented. While promotion-oriented job crafting contributes to positive outcomes via a motivational process, prevention-oriented job crafting elicits negative outcomes via strain-inducing process (Rudolph et al., 2017).

First, empirical evidence has revealed that promotion-oriented job crafting increases work engagement but decreases burnout through personal and professional development, basic need satisfaction, gaining rewards and advancements, and increasing positive emotions (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). Moreover, promotion-oriented job crafting is negatively related to job strain because it increases

employees' sense of control and having valuable resources and effective work routines (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Rudolph et al., 2017). Bindl et al. (2019) found that it boosts the innovative work performance of employees by increasing their innovation-related skills, creating more resourceful social networks, and making their jobs more challenging and complex. In addition, promotion-oriented job crafting is directly and indirectly related to enhanced job performance through increased work engagement and decreased burnout (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019) and implementing new ways of doing work (e.g., utilization of technology or increasing technology-related knowledge and skills) (Bruning & Campion, 2018). In addition, it negatively impacts turnover intention because it increases person-environment fit by bringing favorable changes (Rudolph et al., 2017).

Second, prevention-oriented job crafting drains employees' personal resources and elicits negative affect (Wojtczuk-Turek et al., 2024). It does not bring positive alterations in the work environment, thus reducing employees' dedication and immersion in their jobs, preventing them from maximizing their gains (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Rudolph et al., 2017), and inducing withdrawal behaviors (e.g., turnover intention and absenteeism) (Bruning & Campion, 2018).

3.2.4 Turnover intention

Studies on employee turnover originated in the mid-20th century when researchers sought to determine who leaves an organization (Hom et al., 2017). March and Simon's (1958) foundational work highlighted that dissatisfaction with one's current job and the presence of alternative employment opportunities in the job market are key factors triggering the turnover process. Departure from an organization represents the final stage of this process, which is initiated by a trigger event(s) and

progresses through stages such as contemplating quitting, seeking alternative job opportunities, assessing the anticipated benefits of staying or moving to another organization, and ultimately making the decision to leave or remain (Lee et al., 2017). Given this process, turnover intention, influenced by various factors, often precedes actual turnover. Moreover, turnover intention plays a bridge role between employee attitudes (e.g., job dissatisfaction) and behaviors (e.g., turnover) (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009).

Since employee turnover imposes significant costs on organizations, such as the loss of talented employees, expenses for training new hires, reduced customer satisfaction and contagion of turnover among employees, researchers and practitioners have primarily concentrated on the underlying factors influencing employees' thoughts about leaving organization to retain their human resources (Hom et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2017). Turnover intention, which is also known as an intention to leave or quit, refers to an employee's contemplation of leaving their present organization and searching for employment in a new organization (Thin et al., 2021).

3.2.4.1 Antecedents of turnover intention

Since employees' intention to leave their organization can be changed by applying appropriate strategies, it is imperative to study the antecedents of turnover intention (Pradhan & Jena, 2018; Zimmerman, 2008). Recent studies have identified job characteristics, employee personality (e.g., big five traits), demographic characteristics (e.g., age and gender), workplace stressors, organizational culture, or employment opportunities in the job market as drivers of turnover intention (Rubenstein et al., 2018). Reviews and meta-analyses have reported that antecedents

of turnover intention can be categorized as employee-related, contextual, and non-work-related factors (Lee et al., 2017).

Regarding employee-related antecedents, personality plays a crucial role in assessing work environments and shaping employees' quit intentions. Even employees with particular personality traits may solely shape turnover decisions regardless of organizational conditions (Zimmerman, 2008). In terms of big five personality traits, conscientiousness and agreeableness were negatively related to turnover intention (Zimmerman, 2008). Because individuals with conscientiousness have higher levels of responsibility, they feel obligated to their organizations and, thus, are less likely to think about quitting. Agreeable employees develop strong social relationships that reduce their intention to quit.

Moreover, employee attitudes and behaviors are related to turnover intention. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment, career commitment, and job stress are the most studied predictors of turnover intention (Thin et al., 2021). In particular, employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment are the strongest determinants (Hom et al., 2017). Just to clarify, based on the SET (Blau, 1964), when employees feel attached to their organizations, they are less likely to think about quitting because they feel an obligation to their organizations. Moreover, employee- or supervisor-rated job performance is negatively related to turnover intention. Low performance does not motivate employees to receive a valuable return (e.g., reward or benefits) from their organizations (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009). Job crafting, especially approach-oriented types, reduces turnover intention by expanding employees' personal and social resources (Zainal Badri & Ngo, 2024; Zhang & Li, 2020). Work-life balance is also negatively related to intention to quit because when employees do not perform their roles in the home domain due to the demands from

the job-related roles (or vice versa), they are likely to contemplate turnover (Ahmad Saufi et al., 2023).

According to Hom et al. (2017), contextual factors are also antecedents of employee turnover intention. In terms of leadership, leader-member exchange reduces turnover intention by increasing employees' feelings of commitment and alignment with their leaders (Niu et al., 2022). In contrast, destructive leadership styles (e.g., abusive supervision) are a positive antecedent of turnover intention because they create an environment where subordinates behave rudely and destructively (Abi Aad et al., 2021), deplete psychological capital (e.g., self-efficacy and optimism) that benefit them in achieving work goals (Agarwal, 2019). Similarly, mistreatment by coworkers may create a desire to leave the organization by imposing a destructive work atmosphere (Tews et al., 2019).

Moreover, workplace hindrance stressors increase employees' turnover intentions by draining their personal resources and lowering the benefits from job opportunities (Podsakoff et al., 2007). In terms of organization-related factors, employees who are provided with organizational support are less likely to contemplate organizational exit due to fear of losing opportunities and advantages (Thin et al., 2021). Similarly, employees who work in prestigious organizations do not tend to leave their jobs to avoid losing prestige-related benefits (Ahmad Saufi et al., 2023). Based on the SET (Blau, 1964), when employees are supported by benefits (e.g., retirement opportunities or support for health insurance), they have more desire to remain in their current organizations to ensure fair exchange (Hong et al., 2024).

3.2.4.2 Outcomes of turnover intention

Turnover intention is strongly related to turnover behavior, which may be contagious among employees and cause collective turnover (Lee et al., 2017; Thin et al., 2021). However, it does not necessarily result in employee turnover (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009). For instance, employees who expect future benefits from their organizations are less likely to leave (Mobley, 1977). Another example is the following. Abusive supervision creates less satisfying working conditions for employees, but they may not have the intention to leave if their organization provides them with a positive utility (Hom et al., 2017). Instead of leaving the organization, some employees with turnover intention may transfer to another position, department, or team within the organization (Mobley, 1977). In addition, previous studies indicated that employees may prefer to lessen their tasks or change their working conditions instead of turnover (Hulin et al., 1985).

3.2.5 Perfectionism

Perfectionism is “a trait characterized by setting exceedingly high standards for oneself and others and making critical evaluations of performance in meeting these standards” (Vreeker-Williamson et al., 2023, p. 158). The work environment is one of the appropriate contexts in which employees define their self-value and exhibit perfectionism (Vreeker-Williamson et al., 2023). In the workplace, perfectionism manifests as setting higher performance standards, having a strong desire to achieve them, and evaluating one's self-worth based on job performance (Harari et al., 2018; Ocampo et al., 2020). For this reason, they may take on additional tasks, work longer hours, and focus on the details of work tasks.

Although various conceptualizations of perfectionism have emerged, there are two main models of perfectionism in current literature (Ocampo et al., 2020): Frost et al.'s (1990) and Hewitt and Flett's (1991) multidimensional models of perfectionism. Frost et al. (1990) defined perfectionism as a personality trait that drives individuals to attain higher performance goals and fosters anxiety around their performance-related behaviors. According to Hewitt and Flett (1991), perfectionism has three dimensions: self-oriented, other-oriented, and socially defined. Self-oriented perfectionism pertains to an individual's formulation and pursuit of higher personal standards (Vreeker-Williamson et al., 2023). It drives individuals to exert greater effort to achieve their exceptional standards. Other-oriented perfectionism refers to defining elevated expectations for others and assessing them according to these expectations (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). Thus, employees who have a higher level of other-oriented perfectionism are hypercritical of others (Vreeker-Williamson et al., 2023). The third dimension, socially defined perfectionism, is related to one's belief that others hold them to unrealistically higher standards and lower tolerance for their actions (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). Social acceptance is vitally important for socially prescribed perfectionists.

Furthermore, other scholars have differentiated between positive and negative perfectionism to examine their functionality (Terry-Short et al., 1995). Positive perfectionism involves establishing higher but reasonable standards, investing increased effort to achieve them, and adjusting habits to these standards in the case of failure. Negative perfectionism is reinforced by the avoidance of risks and failures and involves the establishment of unrealistic goals and the pursuit of their attainment, along with excessive self-criticism and intolerance towards others' actions that do not align with their expectations (Fedewa et al., 2005).

Similar to positive and negative perfectionism categorization, Harari et al. (2018) defined excellence-seeking perfectionism and failure-avoiding perfectionism based on the approach and avoidance framework. Individuals with higher excellence-seeking perfectionism set exceptional personal goals, have a higher need for achievement and responsibility, and are not satisfied with 'good enough' performance (Harari et al., 2018). Failure-avoiding perfectionism, a dysfunctional form of perfectionism, involves worrying about mistakes, being overcritical of oneself and others, and being uncertain about one's own actions (Harari et al., 2018). While excellence-seeking perfectionism covers Hewitt and Flett's (1991) self- and other-oriented perfectionism, failure-avoiding perfectionism overlaps with socially defined perfectionism.

Similar to Harari et al. (2018) conceptualization, to consolidate previous models of perfectionism, contemporary researchers have introduced a bidimensional model of perfectionism that encapsulates two main conceptualizations developed by Hewitt and Flett (1991) and Frost et al. (1990): perfectionistic strivings and perfectionistic concerns (Cooks & Ciesla, 2019; Ocampo et al., 2020). While perfectionistic strivings represent a healthy form of perfectionism that covers self-oriented and other-oriented dimensions, pertains to setting higher but realistic performance standards, striving for achievement, and engaging in order and organization, perfectionistic concerns include socially prescribed perfectionism (e.g., parental criticism/expectations), feeling anxiety about making mistakes and focusing on avoiding failure (Ocampo et al., 2020). In this regard, while excellence-seeking perfectionism is similar to perfectionistic strivings, failure-avoiding perfectionism is equivalent to perfectionistic concerns.

3.2.5.1 Personality correlates of perfectionism

Perfectionism, as a personal tendency, has strong relationships with particular personality traits. Empirical evidence has revealed that while perfectionistic strivings are positively related to being organized and hardworking, energetic and talkative, and pursuing new experiences, perfectionistic concerns are negatively related to maintaining balance in emotional experiences and being harmonious in social relationships (Harari et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2019). While individuals with perfectionistic strivings have approach tendencies, others with perfectionistic concerns have avoidance tendencies (Stoeber & Corr, 2017). Moreover, perfectionistic strivings positively relate to individual differences that value personal development and skill enhancement (Jiang et al., 2024), external locus of control, and higher self-esteem (Stoeber & Otto, 2006). Moreover, these two types of perfectionism have different relationships with affectivity. While perfectionistic strivings are related to positive affectivity, perfectionistic concerns are correlated with negative affectivity (Stoeber & Gaudreau, 2017).

3.2.5.2 Consequences of perfectionism at work

Perfectionism, as a personality trait, shapes employees' assessment of the work environment, thereby determining their attitudes and behaviors at work. Overall, perfectionism poses a threat to employee well-being by eliciting burnout because perfectionists pursue flawless performance at work and thus take on additional demands (Harari et al., 2018). In particular, perfectionistic strivings bring favorable outcomes at work. For instance, it cultivates work motivation and also increases work engagement (Harari et al., 2018), productivity, and organizational citizenship behavior (Ocampo et al., 2020). Moreover, perfectionistic striving motivates

employees to reshape and expand the boundaries of their job (e.g., job crafting) because they are occupied with achieving career goals and perfection in job performance (Jiang et al., 2024; Kundi et al., 2022). On the other hand, employees with perfectionistic concerns are likely to experience negative outcomes. In particular, individuals with perfectionistic concerns tend to feel negative emotions in response to negative performance evaluations and to have depression over time (Cooks & Ciesla, 2019). Moreover, perfectionistic concerns reduce employee performance due to high levels of stress to achieve performance standards.

3.3 Theoretical framework

3.3.1 Wise proactivity framework

Proactivity is characterized by self-motivated actions aimed at achieving meaningful changes in a particular target (e.g., self, purposes, environment, or other people) in the future (Parker et al., 2010). It means that individuals exhibiting higher proactivity contemplate potential future conditions and their consequences, subsequently taking self-initiated action to ensure a favorable future. Proactivity shapes proactive work behaviors, including feedback seeking, voice, job crafting, and personal initiative, in which employees display the ability to readjust themselves or their environment with the aim of improvement (Ashford & Cummings, 1985; Parker & Liao, 2016; Tims & Bakker, 2010a). Proactive work behaviors contribute to the advancement of work conditions, service quality, employee motivation, performance, and well-being (Crant, 2000).

Recently, Parker and Liao (2016) were inspired by the fundamental principles of the balance theory of wisdom (Sternberg, 1998) to develop the wise proactivity framework. This framework is grounded in the concept of wisdom, which pertains to

making effective judgments and decisions based on deep knowledge, experience, and insights. Sternberg's model (1998) emphasizes the need to consider personal, social, and contextual conditions to show sound and responsible actions, thereby promoting a common good. Integrated with the concept of proactivity, this framework suggests that employees with higher levels of wise proactivity make more insightful decisions in the selection and enactment of self-initiated work behaviors (Parker & Liao, 2016). It means that they adjust their behaviors in more constructive and prudent ways by considering their own and others' interests and assessing the potential implications of their behaviors (Parker et al., 2019). In this regard, they ensure that they act in the right way and right context at the right time and right context without harming anyone.

To illustrate, an employee who perceives higher abusive supervision can adopt job crafting, rather than voice, to cope with this destructive experience. This strategy allows employees the 'protect' themselves without harming others or impeding organizational functioning. Although voice is a proactive behavior that could break the abusive cycle with managerial support, employees may soundly think that it provokes retaliation from the supervisor (Detert & Burris, 2007). In this regard, job crafting may be wisely selected as a secure strategy that facilitates their transition to another organization through building on their career (Junker et al., 2023).

Wiser proactive behaviors are influenced by individual differences. Prior studies have indicated that employees who are higher on trait wisdom, political skills, self-esteem and career orientation engage in wise proactive behaviors (Junker et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2025). In terms of consequences, because wiser employees are likely to explore and exploit favorable conditions through their proactive

behaviors, they exhibit higher work performance (Wang et al., 2025). Interestingly, when job crafting is executed in a wise manner, it transforms into voluntary turnover, which is opposite to expectations (Junker et al., 2023). This is because employees who experience professional development may want to transfer to another organization that provides more career opportunities.

3.3.2 Regulatory focus theory

Regulatory focus theory, originally introduced by Higgins (1998), posits that individuals regulate themselves through two different systems: promotion focus or prevention focus. In other words, these two modes of self-regulation are characterized by unique motivational and behavioral orientations (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Particularly, individuals with promotion focus are attuned to favorable end-states and guided by approach motivation, whereas those with prevention focus are sensitive to unfavorable outcomes and driven by avoidance motivation (Lanaj et al., 2012). A promotion regulatory focus is directed toward achieving gains, which are personal or professional growth, advancements, and development (Higgins, 1997). On the other hand, a prevention regulatory focus centers on escaping from losses and risks, minimizing threats, and attaining safety and stability (Higgins, 1998). Accordingly, individuals with a promotion focus strive toward realizing their self-excellence by adopting achievement-oriented strategies, while those with a prevention focus pursue their flawless sense of self through strategies aimed at prevention (Lanaj et al., 2012).

Moreover, regulatory focus shapes how individuals assess their surroundings and experience emotional reactions (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Lanaj et al., 2012): When individuals with a promotion focus experience gain-related outcomes, they

experience cheerfulness, whereas the absence of gains may result in disappointment. On the other hand, individuals with a prevention focus experience a sense of calm when their experiences align with non-lose expectations, while misalignment may give rise to emotions such as anger and fear.

Regulatory focus is linked to personality traits and functions as a mediating mechanism in shaping the effects of personality traits on work attitudes and behaviors (Hoyle, 2010). Lanaj et al. (2012) have revealed that approach motivation, positive affectivity, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, higher self-esteem, and self-efficacy are positively related to promotion-focused regulatory focus. On the other hand, avoidance motivation, negative affectivity, neuroticism, lower self-esteem, and self-efficacy predict prevention-oriented regulatory focus.

3.4 Hypothesis development

3.4.1 The relationship between abusive supervision and negative affect

This study proposes that abusive supervision elicits negative affect in employees because a stressor may elicit a range of affective responses (Atwater et al., 2016). Grounded on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), although positive leadership styles provide employees with resources, abusive supervision drains employees' psychological resources and makes them experience negative affective reactions (Wang & Tang, 2022).

Previous studies have revealed that employees experience a range of affective reactions, such as sadness, anger, or fear, when they are exposed to abusive supervision (Atwater et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2022; Zhang & Liu, 2018). This occurs for several reasons. According to AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), abusive supervision is a workplace event that elicits negative affective states in employees

(Atwater et al., 2016). The abused employees experience a lack of fair treatment in the workplace, which in turn cultivates negative affect (Tepper, 2000). Moreover, since employees evaluate abusive supervision as a threat to their physical and psychological well-being and the achievement of personal or work-related purposes, they have negative affective states (Bhattacharjee & Sarkar, 2024). Bortolon et al. (2019) have revealed that as employees try to suppress their abuse-related thoughts, they ruminate on them more, which makes them focus on abuse-related information and thus experience negative affect more.

Hypothesis 1. Abusive supervision has a positive effect on employees' negative affect.

3.4.2 The mediating role of negative affect between abusive supervision and job crafting

This study proposes that abusive supervision is related to a) promotion-oriented job crafting and b) prevention-oriented job crafting via negative affect because abusive supervision shapes behavioral employee reactions through more proximal ones, such as affect-related experiences (Atwater et al., 2016; Fischer et al., 2021). Leadership, as a contextual factor, impacts employees' job crafting behavior by involving resource provision and the consideration of employees' needs (de Bloom et al., 2020). As job crafting aims to reshape themselves or their work environment (Demerouti, 2014), abusive supervision may prompt employees to contemplate strategies (e.g., job crafting) for mitigating harmful actions from their supervisors that jeopardize their well-being and actively working towards avoiding future instances of abusive supervision (Breevaart et al., 2022).

Based on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), employees under abusive supervision experience negative affect because such a harmful condition depletes their personal resources by increasing job demands but imposing higher expectations for performance and other favorable behaviors (Gallegos et al., 2022). Negative affect serves as a signal to employees of a depleted resource pool and future threats of abusive supervision, thereby addressing the need for taking corrective action (Bhattacharjee & Sarkar, 2024; Jones & Kelly, 2009). In this regard, negative affect may motivate employees to take action either to safeguard their remaining resources and minimize further loss or to generate new resources (Liu et al., 2024).

Grounded on the wise proactivity framework (Parker et al., 2019), job crafting may be a wise strategy for employees under abusive supervision, which may help them protect personal resources, maintain a positive self-image, and build new career developments without causing harm in the work environment. Integrating with the fundamental principles, resource conservation, and resource investment of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), we propose that employees experience negative affective states, which guide them in adopting promotion-oriented or prevention-oriented job crafting. This is consistent with the findings of prior research, which revealed that negative affective experiences under abusive supervision shape job crafting choices (Masood et al., 2021).

In particular, building on the resource investment principle of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), this study proposes that abusive supervision increases promotion-oriented job crafting through negative affect. Because abusive supervision drains employees' personal resources and poses additional demands that elicit negative affect, employees must restore their resources to maintain work activities (Gallegos et al., 2021). Previous research has demonstrated that employees cope with abusive

supervision by changing tasks that can be appreciated by a supervisor, learning new skills and knowledge, and expanding relational ties at work that are navigated by negative affective experiences (Masood et al., 2021). In this regard, employees under abusive supervision may improve job-related expertise and skills, take on extra work roles, and cooperate with talented coworkers to enhance job performance aimed at increasing the supervisor's positive perception of the follower (Wee et al., 2017). In addition, employees may engage in promotion-oriented job crafting because they are motivated to build their professional development for searching for alternative job opportunities (Junker et al., 2023), thereby facilitating the escape from an abusive supervisor wisely.

Hypothesis 2. There is a positive indirect effect of abusive supervision on promotion-oriented job crafting via negative affect.

Second, according to the resource conservation principle of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), employees may react to abusive supervision by prevention-oriented job crafting navigated by negative affect because individuals tend to conserve remaining resources after a resource loss. In this context, negative affect may signal employees that they must perform their jobs in a 'power-saving mode', thereby engaging in prevention-oriented job crafting that may help them conserve resources (Chen et al., 2022). Grounded in the wise proactivity framework (Parker et al., 2019), employees who experience abusive supervision are likely to focus on the fundamental tasks of their jobs and avoid behaviors that require additional efforts and resources. Also, they are likely to minimize interaction with their abusive supervisors to escape future occurrences of abuse and their stressful outcomes (Zhang & Liao, 2015), which was also supported by Yagil et al. (2011). Previous studies have also shown that employees cope with abusive supervision by avoiding the resources that

are managed by abusive supervisors (Wee et al., 2017). In this regard, employees proactively focus on the minimum requirements of their jobs by conserving their resources and ensuring that they do not cause harm to the organization or others, which is why it is 'wise'.

Hypothesis 3. There is a positive indirect effect of abusive supervision on prevention-oriented job crafting via negative affect.

3.4.3 The serial mediating roles of negative affect and job crafting between abusive supervision and turnover intention

This study also proposes that abusive supervision is significantly related to turnover intention in dual pathways of promotion-oriented job crafting and prevention-oriented job crafting. Abusive supervision affects distal outcomes, such as turnover intention, through more immediate mediating variables (Fischer et al., 2021; Hom et al., 2012), such as coworker incivility (Abi Aad et al., 2021), psychological capital (Agarwal, 2019), employee voice (Mahmood et al., 2024). Moreover, job crafting plays an underlying mechanism between contextual antecedents and work outcomes (Park & Park, 2023; Wang et al., 2020). In this regard, we argue that abusive supervision increases employees' thoughts about exit through serial mediation of negative affect and two forms of job crafting.

Our study proposes that negative affect and promotion-oriented job crafting serially mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and turnover intention. Based on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018), employees who experience negative affective states due to abusive supervision perceive a threat in the work environment that needs to be changed. In this regard, employees expand their social networks, develop new knowledge and skills, make their tasks more

challenging, and reinterpret their jobs in a positive and holistic way to build valuable resources that help them gain a temporary sense of control under abusive supervision (Masood et al., 2021). Because promotion-oriented job crafting enables employees to make favorable changes in their professional life and work environment, they are more likely to be resilient and gain power (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019) and show higher performance (Bindl et al., 2019). Under abusive supervision, employees may engage in promotion-oriented job crafting to make contributions to their professional development and increase their employability outside of the current organization, thereby increasing turnover intention (Junker et al., 2023).

Hypothesis 4. Negative affect and promotion-oriented job crafting serially mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and turnover intention.

Moreover, this study proposes that abusive supervision is positively related to turnover intention via negative affect and prevention-oriented job crafting. Negative shocks, such as abusive supervision, violating employees' goals, values, and beliefs and then activating the turnover process (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Grounded on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), although positive leadership styles provide employees with resources, abusive supervision drains employees' psychological and emotional resources (Wang & Tang, 2022) and increases emotional exhaustion (Pradhan et al., 2020). Since employees evaluate abusive supervision as a threat to their physical and psychological well-being and the achievement of personal or work-related purposes (Bhattacharjee & Sarkar, 2024), they may think about engaging in prevention-oriented job crafting to focus on more secure aspects of their job to avoid negative outcomes caused by abusive supervision. Previous studies have revealed that reducing interaction with abusive supervisors, as a form of prevention-oriented job crafting, benefits in the short term, but it is not an effective way to reduce abusive

supervision, thus increasing negative affect in employees (Yagil et al., 2011).

Moreover, because prevention-oriented job crafting does not satisfy employees' professional needs and does not bring favorable alterations to the job, employees are likely to experience burnout (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). Prevention-oriented job crafting is positively related to turnover intention because it does not effectively solve the problems related to abusive supervision (Bruning & Campion, 2018).

Hypothesis 5. Negative affect and prevention-oriented job crafting serially mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and turnover intention.

3.4.4 The moderating role of perfectionism in the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, job crafting, and turnover intention

Previous research has revealed that the personality of employees shapes the relationship between abusive supervision and subsequent reactions (Bhattacharjee & Sarkar, 2024). Employees with particular personality traits may utilize more proactive coping strategies against abusive supervision (Masood et al., 2021; Zhang & Liu, 2018). This study proposes that perfectionism moderates the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, job crafting, and turnover intention.

First, victims of abusive supervision may feel varying levels of negative affect based on their level of perfectionism; for instance, a higher level of negative affect may arise when employees perceive their performance as falling below established standards, which may be signaled by abusive supervision (Tröster & Van Quaquebeke, 2021). Individuals who are high in perfectionism may appraise workplace stressors (e.g., perceived lower performance or harsh criticism) as threats to their self-worth, thus experiencing negative affect (Cooks & Ciesla, 2019) because they are concerned about achieving excellent sense of self (Fedewa et al., 2005). In

addition, individuals with both perfectionistic strivings and perfectionistic concerns experience negative affect under circumstances that signal flaws and failure (Stoeber et al., 2008).

Moreover, the type of perfectionism may determine how employees craft their jobs in response to abusive supervision. In other words, the type of perfectionism (i.e., perfectionistic strivings or perfectionistic concerns) navigates the choice of displaying promotion- or prevention-oriented job crafting. Based on regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998), perfectionistic strivings include a promotion regulatory focus, and perfectionistic concerns include a prevention regulatory focus (Yasuda & Goegan, 2023). Consistent with the previous findings (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Stoeber & Janssen, 2011), we argue that perfectionistic strivings are related to promotion-oriented job crafting, but perfectionistic concerns are related to prevention-oriented job crafting, which shapes the turnover intention of employees.

In particular, perfectionistic strivings (i.e., striving for realistic standards and altering their actions in the face of failure) have been related to achievement-related behaviors to actively cope with a problem that creates a discrepancy between actual performance and ideal performance (Fedewa et al., 2005; Ocampo et al., 2020). In other words, perfectionist employees who are excellence-seeking are more motivated to invest in time and resources and alter their situation to achieve their performance standards when they believe their performance is not excellent. In addition, higher motivation and self-efficacy of employees with perfectionistic strivings induce them to revise their work methods and develop their job capabilities through promotion-oriented job crafting to deal with their perception of the discrepancy between actual and ideal performance evaluation (Jiang et al., 2024; Kundi et al., 2022). The

motivation to improve environmental circumstances energizes individuals to adopt more expansion-related behaviors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In this sense, employees with perfectionistic strivings are likely to adopt promotion-oriented job crafting with the motivation of expanding their gains. For instance, they are likely to develop new skills and expand and enrich relational boundaries at work to make their job more 'perfect' (Lanaj et al., 2012). In addition, previous research has revealed that individuals with perfectionistic strivings adopt more functional coping responses (e.g., problem-focused coping behaviors) to navigate negative encounters and experience more positive outcomes after coping (Stoeber & Janssen, 2011; Stoeber & Otto, 2006). In this regard, personality traits relevant to perfectionistic strivings, such as self-efficacy and conscientiousness, act as a personal resource, which encourages promotion-oriented job crafting behaviors (Halbesleben et al., 2014). In such a condition, perfectionism strivers may think about quitting organizations more, because as they add to their professional development, an organization with abusive supervision may not satisfy their ideal perfect selves (Junker et al., 2023). Instead, they may think about searching for a job position in another organization that fits well in terms of their career development needs and perfectionist pursuits.

Hypothesis 6. Perfectionistic striving moderates the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, promotion-oriented job crafting, and turnover intention. It strengthens the relationship between abusive supervision and promotion-oriented job crafting via negative affect, thereby increasing turnover intention.

Halbesleben et al. (2014) noted that individuals' tendency to escape from losses (e.g., perfectionistic concerns) motivates them to preserve their resources. Empirical evidence has revealed that individuals with higher perfectionistic concerns tend to adopt less resource-depleting strategies to cope with failures because they are

likely to experience negative affect, thereby experiencing less positive outcomes (e.g., dissatisfaction) (Stoeber & Janssen, 2011). Individuals with higher perfectionistic concerns have overwhelming thoughts about negative events and circumstances, thus lowering their utilization of approach-oriented ways of problem-solving (Ocampo et al., 2020). Moreover, employees with perfectionistic concerns are likely to perform prevention-oriented job crafting because they are motivated to feel more secure and experience fewer risks and threats without showing assertive behaviors (Stoeber & Janssen, 2011). Because prevention-oriented job crafting does not help employees solve problems effectively (e.g., breaking abusive supervision), they may not satisfy current job conditions and contemplate leaving (Rudolph et al., 2017).

Hypothesis 7. Perfectionistic concerns moderate the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, prevention-oriented job crafting, and turnover intention. It strengthens the relationship between abusive supervision and turnover intention via prevention-oriented job crafting and negative affect, thereby increasing turnover intention.

3.5 Method

3.5.1 Research design

Following the methods of prior research (e.g., Kim et al., 2020; Tröster & Van Quaquebeke, 2021), this study utilized a scenario-based experimental research design in which participants received scenarios that represent real-life examples of abusive supervision and then shaped their emotional and behavioral responses. An experimental research design that utilizes vignettes is used to examine abusive supervision without breaching ethical standards (Fischer et al., 2021). Relatedly, this

study received approval from the ethical committee at Bogazici University (See Appendix G).

This study relies on a 2 (Abusive supervision: high versus low) X 2 (Supervisor gender: female versus male) between-subjects factorial design in which abusive supervision and the gender of the supervisor were manipulated. Between-subjects factorial design is an experimental research design in which two or more independent variables are simultaneously tested, and each participant is assigned to only one condition (i.e., the combination of independent variables) (Field, 2013). The gender of the supervisor was manipulated to control the gender effect, which may potentially change the results (Park et al., 2018).

3.5.2 Manipulation of abusive supervision

We used a written scenario to manipulate abusive supervision and gender. Participants were instructed to envision the scenario they read. Four different scenarios were used in the experiment: a) high abusive supervision-female supervisor, b) low abusive supervision-female supervisor, c) high abusive supervision-male supervisor, and d) low abusive supervision-male supervisor (See Appendix H). While abusive supervision manipulation scenarios were developed based on previous studies and the abusive supervision scale of Tepper (2000), gender was manipulated by using either a well-known Turkish male (i.e., Ahmet) or Turkish female (i.e., Ayse) name. In a high abusive supervision by a female supervisor condition, participants read:

Please imagine that you are working in a company. You have been working in your manager Ayse's team and reporting to her. For a while now, Ayse has been making harsh criticisms towards you. When you share your ideas about work, she belittles and rejects your suggestions. When the projects you work on fail, she blames you and says, "I don't understand why you couldn't

succeed in this. We need to review your performance.”, putting pressure on you. Sometimes, she criticizes you in front of your colleagues.

In the scenario depicting low abusive supervision with a female supervisor, participants were presented with the following vignette:

Please imagine that you are working in a company. You have been working in your manager Ayse’s team and reporting to her. Since you started working, Ayse has not made harsh criticisms towards you. When you share your ideas about work with her, she listens to your suggestions and takes them into consideration. If the projects you work on fail, she does not blame you or put pressure on you. She does not criticize you in front of your colleagues and gives you her feedback privately.

Participants assigned to the high abusive supervision condition with a male supervisor were presented with the following scenario:

Please imagine that you are working in a company. You have been working in your manager Ahmet’s team and report to him. For a while now, Ahmet has been making harsh criticisms towards you. When you share your ideas about work, he belittles and rejects your suggestions. When the projects you work on fail, he blames you and says, “I don't understand why you couldn't succeed in this. We need to review your performance.”, putting pressure on you. Sometimes, he criticizes you in front of your colleagues.

Participants assigned to the condition involving low abusive supervision by a male supervisor were instructed to imagine the following scenario:

Please imagine that you are working in a company. You have been working in your manager Ahmet’s team and report to him. Since you started working, Ahmet has not made harsh criticisms towards you. When you share your ideas about work with him, he listens to your suggestions and takes them into consideration. If the projects you work on fail, he does not blame you or put pressure on you. He does not criticize you in front of your colleagues and gives you his feedback privately.

Following previous studies that employed scenario-based experimental research design (Tröster & Van Quaquebeke, 2021), this study administered a manipulation check, which is a procedure used in experimental research to ensure that intended manipulations (e.g., scenarios) are perceived by participants as designed (Field, 2013).

We drew participants from a public university's MBA students who are full-time employees in Türkiye (N = 40); this sample was independent from the main sample. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions. After reading the scenarios, participants were asked to evaluate their perception of abuse from the supervisor in the scenario on an abusive supervision scale (Tepper, 2000) and the supervisor's gender. Manipulation check form is provided in Appendix I.

We first conducted the normality test to check whether the distribution of abusive supervision significantly deviates from normal distribution. To assess the normality of the abusive supervision variable, we examined skewness and kurtosis values. Skewness shows whether the distribution is symmetrical, whereas kurtosis denotes the degree to which the upper point of the distribution is flat (George & Mallery, 2010). The results showed that the data were normally distributed (skewness = .02, kurtosis = -1.63), as both values fall within the range of ± 2 , suggested by George and Mallery (2010).

Then, a two-way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was performed to evaluate the effects of abusive supervision (high versus low) and gender (female versus male) on participants' perception of abusive supervision. Two-way ANOVA is a statistical method to examine the effects of two categorical independent variables on a continuous dependent variable, and to test whether there is an interaction effect between these two categorical variables (Hair, 2006). The results of Levene's Test, which examines the assumption of homogeneity of variance in different groups (Hair, 2006), indicated that the assumption was satisfied, $F(3, 36) = .83, p > .05$.

The analysis revealed a significant main effect for abusive supervision, $F(1, 36) = 86.91, p < .001, \eta^2 = .70$, indicating that participants exposed to the high abusive supervision condition ($M = 3.73, SD = .79$) reported significantly higher

abuse perception compared to those in the low abusive supervision condition ($M = 1.50$, $SD = .73$) However, we found a non-significant main effect for gender, $F(1, 36) = 1.93$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .05$, and a non-significant interaction effects between abusive supervision and gender, $F(1, 36) = .41$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$. These findings suggest that participants' perception of abuse are influenced by the intensity of abusive condition depicted in the scenarios but not by the gender of abusive supervision. Table 7 below presents the means and standard deviations for abusive supervision.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics for Manipulation Check

Abusive supervision condition	Gender	M	SD
High abusive supervision conditions	Male	3.82	.86
	Female	3.64	.75
	Total	3.73	.79
Low abusive supervision conditions	Male	1.73	.89
	Female	1.24	.43
	Total	1.50	.73
Total	Male	2.78	1.37
	Female	2.56	1.37
	Total	2.67	1.36

Note: N = 40

3.5.3 Measures

We assessed job crafting with a 28-item scale by Bindl et al. (2019). This scale was translated into Turkish by the researcher, considering the cultural adaptation suggested by Usunier (2011). It has eight dimensions: promotion-oriented relationship crafting (e.g., “I actively sought to meet new people at work”), promotion-oriented skill crafting (e.g., “I actively try to develop wider capabilities in my job”), promotion-oriented task crafting (e.g., “I actively take on more tasks in my work”), promotion-oriented cognitive crafting (e.g., “I try to think of my job as a whole, rather than as separate tasks”), prevention-oriented relationship crafting (e.g.,

“I minimize my interactions with people at work that I did not get along with”), prevention-oriented skill crafting (e.g., “I channel my efforts at work towards maintaining a specific area of expertise”), prevention-oriented task crafting (e.g., “I actively reduce the scope of tasks I worked on”), and prevention-oriented cognitive crafting (e.g., “I focus my mind on the best parts of my job, while trying to ignore those parts I didn’t like”). The scale was assessed on the original scale that extends from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*a great deal*).

We also asked participants about the 10 negative affective experiences (e.g., “I feel guilty” and “I feel ashamed”) that they have felt in response to the scenario they read from Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) that was developed by Watson et al. (1988) and adapted to Turkish context by Gençöz (2000). The scale will be measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*very much*) as assessed in the original scale

Turnover intention was evaluated with a 3-item scale developed by Cammann et al. (1983). We utilized the Turkish translation of the scale by Gürbüz and Bekmezci (2012). Participants assessed each item on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Perfectionism was measured with a 10-item scale that was developed by Stoeber et al. (2007). The original scale has two dimensions: perfectionistic strivings (i.e., “I strive to be as perfect as possible”) and perfectionistic concerns (i.e., “I feel extremely stressed if everything doesn’t go perfectly”). The scale was measured on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 6 (*always*) as assessed in the original scale.

Moreover, participants answered questions regarding their age with an open-ended question, gender, education, job position, industry of their organization, total tenure, and marital status which all of which were asked on a categorical basis. The

survey, including negative affect, job crafting, turnover intention, perfectionism, and demographic questions, is provided in Appendix K.

Participant age, participant gender and tenure, and supervisor gender were analyzed as control variables.

3.5.4 Sampling

To determine sample size, we used G*Power software, which helps researchers to estimate the appropriate sample size based on several parameters such as effect size and statistical power (Faul et al., 2009). For this study, the calculation was conducted to detect a medium effect size ($f^2 = .28$) with a power level of .80, a significance level of $\alpha = .05$, and two predictors. The analysis indicated that a minimum of 217 participants would be necessary to achieve the hypothesized effect.

We reached a total of 247 participants who were drawn using convenience sampling (For demographic information, see Table 8). Convenience sampling is a sampling technique to select participants who are most accessible to the researchers (Hair, 2006). Participants were full-time employees who were also enrolled in an MBA program at a public university in Istanbul, Turkiye. On average, participants were 30 years old ($SD = 5.63$), with ages ranging from 22 to 52. 59.9% of them were female, and 61.5% of them were single.

3.6 Data analysis

We analyzed data by using SPSS and SmartPLS 4 software. In this section, reliability, validity, and hypothesis testing results were presented.

Table 8. Demographics of the Sample

Demographic variable	Category	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	93	37.7
	Female	148	59.9
	Not specified	6	2.4
Education	High school	14	5.7
	Undergraduate	168	68.0
	Master	55	22.3
	PhD	4	1.6
	Other	6	2.4
Job position	Assistant Specialist	32	13.0
	Specialist	78	31.6
	Chief	16	6.5
	Manager	54	21.9
	Other	67	27.1
Industry	Service	97	39.3
	Manufacturing	49	19.8
	Other	101	40.9
Tenure	Less than one year	9	3.6
	1-5 years	116	47.0
	5-10 years	89	36.0
	10-15 years	24	9.7
	More than 15 years	6	2.4
Marital status	Not specified	3	1.2
	Single	152	61.5
	Married	88	35.6
	Not specified	7	2.8

3.6.1 Reliability and validity analysis

Before testing hypotheses, reliability and validity were assessed using SmartPLS 4.

Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) were calculated to ensure internal consistency reliability. Internal consistency reliability indicates how well the items of a scale correlate with each other (Hair, 2006). Average variance extracted (AVE) values and factor loadings were used to assess convergent validity. Convergent validity denotes whether items under the same scale accurately measure the construct they are intended to represent (Hair, 2006). The thresholds for each of them are as follows. Factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha, and CR values are expected to be greater than .70. Additionally, AVE values should surpass the threshold of .50 (Hair, 2006; Hair et al., 2022). However, if AVE and Cronbach's alpha values exceed their respective thresholds, factor loadings between .40 and .70 are acceptable (Hair et al., 2022). We excluded some items of job crafting (5, 7, 12, 14, 21, 26, and 28) and

perfectionism (3, 4, 6, and 7 items) from the analysis since their factor loadings were lower than the threshold. For results, please see Table 9.

Table 9. Factor Loadings with CR, AVE, and Cronbach's Alpha for the Model

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	CR	AVE	Cronbach's alpha
Abusive supervision	Abusive supervision	1.000			
Negative affect	Afraid	.644	.94	.61	.94
	Ashamed	.542			
	Distressed	.857			
	Guilty	.755			
	Hostile	.909			
	Irritable	.750			
	Jittery	.891			
	Nervous	.932			
	Scared	.647			
	Upset	.841			
Promotion-oriented cognitive JC	JC 22	.623	.82	.54	.81
	JC 23	.880			
	JC 24	.796			
	JC 25	.616			
Promotion-oriented relationship JC	JC 1	.995	.93	.78	.93
	JC 2	.884			
	JC 3	.846			
	JC 4	.812			
Promotion-oriented skill JC	JC 8	.996	.94	.82	.94
	JC 9	.893			
	JC 10	.933			
	JC 11	.790			
Promotion-oriented task JC	JC 15	.812	.85	.60	.85
	JC 16	.784			
	JC 17	.666			
	JC 18	.824			
Prevention-oriented cognitive JC	JC 27	1.000			
Prevention-oriented relationship JC	JC 4	1.000			
Prevention-oriented skill JC	JC 13	1.000			
Prevention-oriented task JC	JC 19	1.000			
Perfectionistic strivings	Perfectionism 1	1.498	.97	.93	.88
	Perfectionism 2	.578			
	Perfectionism 5	.478			
Perfectionistic concerns	Perfectionism 8	.699	.78	.55	.78
	Perfectionism 9	.675			
	Perfectionism 10	.847			
Turnover intention	TI 1	.935	.93	.81	.93
	TI 2	.807			
	TI 3	.964			

Note: JC = Job Crafting, TI = Turnover Intention

To ensure discriminant validity, we assessed the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) criteria proposed by Henseler et al. (2015). Discriminant validity indicates how well different constructs in the model are empirically distinct from each other (Hair et al.,

2022). The results show that all ratios are below .85, as Henseler et al. (2015) recommended, confirming that the constructs have discriminant validity. For results of discriminant validity, please see Table 10.

Table 10. HTMT Values for the Model

	Abusive supervision	Negative affect	Perfectionistic concerns	Perfectionistic strivings	Promotion-oriented cognitive JC	Promotion-oriented relationship JC	Promotion-oriented skill JC	Promotion-oriented task JC	Promotion-oriented cognitive JC	Promotion-oriented relationship JC	Promotion-oriented skill JC	Promotion-oriented task JC	Turnover intention
Abusive supervision													
Negative affect	.781												
Perfectionistic concerns	.243	.353											
Perfectionistic strivings	.079	.053	.389										
Promotion-oriented cognitive JC	.131	.146	.055	.201									
Promotion-oriented relationship JC	.179	.307	.209	.050	.146								
Promotion-oriented skill JC	.178	.172	.052	.196	.455	.188							
Promotion-oriented task JC	.235	.261	.089	.055	.159	.287	.185						
Prevention-oriented cognitive JC	.357	.334	.225	.192	.653	.262	.651	.243					
Prevention-oriented relationship JC	.315	.373	.248	.153	.414	.239	.531	.208	.595				
Prevention-oriented skill JC	.324	.395	.103	.241	.517	.304	.788	.288	.759	.610			
Prevention-oriented task JC	.390	.422	.114	.340	.470	.309	.650	.242	.748	.610	.778		
Turnover intention	.672	.756	.370	.057	.135	.276	.180	.234	.373	.316	.355	.401	

Note: JC = Job Crafting

Moreover, the VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) values between constructs were examined. VIF is a statistical measure used to detect whether multicollinearity is present among independent variables in a model (Hair, 2006). Thus, it should be avoided to prevent distorted statistical results and ensure the regression estimates (Hair et al., 2022). The results show that all VIF values are below the threshold of 5 (Hair et al., 2022), indicating the absence of multicollinearity. Table 11 shows the VIF analysis for the model.

Table 11. VIF Analysis for the Model

	VIF
Abusive supervision -> Negative affect	1.000
Age -> Turnover intention	1.145
Negative affect -> Prevention-oriented cognitive JC	1.000
Negative affect -> Prevention-oriented relationship JC	1.000
Negative affect -> Prevention-oriented skill JC	1.000
Negative affect -> Prevention-oriented task JC	1.000
Negative affect -> Promotion-oriented cognitive JC	1.000
Negative affect -> Promotion-oriented relationship JC	1.000
Negative affect -> Promotion-oriented skill JC	1.000
Negative affect -> Promotion-oriented task JC	1.000
Participant gender -> Turnover intention	1.066
Perfectionistic concerns -> Turnover intention	1.450
Perfectionistic strivings -> Turnover intention	1.258
Prevention-oriented cognitive JC -> Turnover intention	1.755
Prevention-oriented relationship JC -> Turnover intention	1.239
Prevention-oriented skill JC -> Turnover intention	2.791
Prevention-oriented task JC -> Turnover intention	1.164
Promotion-oriented cognitive JC -> Turnover intention	3.719
Promotion-oriented relationship JC -> Turnover intention	1.959
Promotion-oriented skill JC -> Turnover intention	4.395
Promotion-oriented task JC -> Turnover intention	3.341
Supervisor gender -> Turnover intention	1.099

Note: JC = Job Crafting

3.6.2 Hypothesis testing

Table 12 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the study variables. As depicted in the table, abusive supervision was positively correlated with negative affect ($r = .765, p < .01$) turnover intention ($r = .648, p < .01$) and negatively correlated with promotion-oriented job crafting ($r = -.389, p < .01$). It means that employees under abusive supervision feel more negative affect, engage in less promotion-oriented job crafting and think about leaving their jobs. Negative affect has a significant positive correlation with turnover intention ($r = .713, p < .01$) and prevention-oriented job crafting ($r = .159, p < .05$), indicating that the more negative affect employees have, the more they think about quitting their jobs and engaging in prevention-oriented job crafting.

While promotion-oriented job crafting is negatively related to turnover intention ($r = -.391, p < .01$), prevention-oriented job crafting is positively related to

turnover intention ($r = .131, p < .05$), suggesting that promotion-oriented job crafting reduces employees' intention to quit but prevention-oriented job crafting increases it. Perfectionistic concerns were positively correlated with both abusive supervision ($r = .216, p < .01$) and negative affect ($r = .302, p < .01$). This finding suggests that employees with perfectionistic concerns are likely to have a higher perception of abusive supervision and experience negative affect. On the other hand, perfectionistic strivings show a positive correlation with promotion-oriented job crafting ($r = .244, p < .01$), suggesting that individuals with high perfectionistic tendencies are more likely to expand relational, task, skill, and cognitive aspects of their jobs in proactive ways.

Table 12. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Abusive supervision	0.61	0.48	1.000						
2. Negative affect	2.60	1.21	.765**	1.000					
3. Perfectionistic concerns	3.99	1.15	.216**	.302**	1.000				
4. Perfectionistic strivings	4.40	1.15	-.073	-.022	.321**	1.000			
5. Promotion-oriented JC	3.48	0.84	-.389**	-.421**	-.173**	.244**	1.000		
6. Prevention-oriented JC	3.23	0.57	.085	.159*	.111	.113	.263**	1.000	
7. Turnover intention	3.23	1.39	.648**	.713**	.314**	-.051	-.391**	.131*	1.000

Note: N = 247, * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. JC = Job crafting

To test the hypotheses, we simultaneously estimated all proposed relationships depicted in the model using structural equation modeling (SEM) in SmartPLS 4. SmartPLS enables researchers to maximize explained variances while minimizing error variances and analyze categorical or continuous variables even if they are not normally distributed (Yıldız, 2024). Moreover, SmartPLS can be analyzed using one-item measures.

Before analyzing the data, we coded abusive supervision as a dummy variable (1 = High abusive supervision, 0 = Low abusive supervision). Also, following the

previous research (Cheng et al., 2023), we compounded each sub-dimension under the relevant main dimensions of promotion-oriented job crafting and prevention-oriented job crafting to achieve better model fit.

First, H1 predicted a significant positive main effect of abusive supervision on negative affect. As expected, results showed a significant positive effect of abusive supervision on negative affect ($\beta = 1.57, p < .01$). Therefore, H1 was supported.

H2 proposed that there is a positive indirect effect of abusive supervision on promotion-oriented job crafting via negative affect. However, the results showed that abusive supervision is negatively related to promotion-oriented job crafting via negative affect ($\beta = -.65, p < .05$). Thus, H2 was not supported. On the other hand, H3 predicted that there is a positive indirect effect of abusive supervision on prevention-oriented job crafting via negative affect. As supporting our prediction, results demonstrated that abusive supervision is positively related to prevention-oriented job crafting via negative affect ($\beta = .52, p < .05$).

Moreover, in contrast to H4, we found that abusive supervision increases turnover intention via increased negative affect and decreased promotion-oriented job crafting ($\beta = .10, p < .05$). Therefore, H4 was not supported. As H5 predicted, abusive supervision is positively related to turnover intention via increased negative affect and prevention-oriented job crafting ($\beta = .07, p < .05$). Therefore, H5 was supported.

Regarding the analysis of moderators, H6 proposed that perfectionistic strivings moderate the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, promotion-oriented job crafting, and turnover intention. However, the analysis did not support the significant effect of perfectionistic strivings ($\beta = .01, p > .50$). H7

predicted that perfectionistic concerns strengthen the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, prevention-oriented job crafting, and turnover intention. We found that perfectionistic concerns play a significant moderator role among these relationships ($\beta = .01, p < .05$), thus supporting H7.

We further examined the indirect effects by analyzing the lower- and upper-bound confidence intervals, as suggested by Williams and MacKinnon (2008). The standardized indirect effect from abusive supervision to promotion-oriented job crafting via negative affect was significant with a 97.5% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) ranging from -.816 to -.478. Similarly, the sequential indirect effect from abusive supervision to turnover intention via negative affect and promotion-oriented job crafting was also significant (97.5% CI: from .029 to .193). The indirect effect of the abusive supervision on prevention-oriented job crafting via negative affect was also significant (97.5% CI: from .562 to .700). Similarly, the serial indirect pathway through abusive supervision to turnover intention via negative affect and prevention-oriented job crafting was significant (97.5% CI: from .024 to .140).

Moreover, we conducted the variance accounted for (VAF) analysis to measure the strength of mediation analysis (Hair et al., 2022; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). In this regard, we calculated the VAF value by executing the following equation: $VAF = \text{path coefficient of indirect effect} / (\text{path coefficient of indirect effect} + \text{path coefficient of direct effect})$. While the VAF value under 20% represents zero mediation, it means partial mediation if the value is between 20% and 80% (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Full mediation occurs when the VAF value is above 80%. Based on the mediation test (See Table 13), we concluded that negative affect played a partial mediator role in the relationship between abusive supervision and promotion-

oriented job crafting (45%). Moreover, negative affect partially mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and prevention-oriented job crafting (47%).

Table 13. Mediation Test

Paths	Path coefficient for indirect effect	Path coefficient for direct effect	T Stat.	P values	VAF	Result
Abusive supervision → Negative affect → Promotion-oriented job crafting	-.657	-.797	7.556	.000	45%	Partial mediation
Abusive supervision → Negative affect → Prevention-oriented job crafting	.529	.578	2.324	.020	47%	Partial mediation

When running the test with control variables in the model, it was found that participant age did not have a significant effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.048, p > .05$). Participant gender did not have a statistically significant effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.019, p > .05$). Also, supervisor gender did not have a significant impact on turnover intention ($\beta = -.082, p > .05$).

Table 14 summarizes the results of hypothesis testing. As depicted in the table, three of seven hypotheses were supported. Although hypotheses relevant to promotion-oriented job crafting were not supported, we found significant results. However, we obtained a non-significant finding only for testing moderating effect of perfectionistic strivings.

3.7 Discussion

3.7.1 Theoretical implications

In the present research, scenario-based experimental research provided evidence that employees experience negative affect in response to abusive supervision that shapes

their job crafting behaviors and turnover intention. Moreover, we found that perfectionistic concerns, as an individual difference, act as a boundary condition in these relationships.

Table 14. Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Result
Hypothesis 1. Abusive supervision has a positive effect on employees' negative affect.	Supported
Hypothesis 2. There is a positive indirect effect of abusive supervision on promotion-oriented job crafting via negative affect.	Not supported (Abusive supervision has a negative indirect effect on employees' promotion-oriented job crafting via negative affect.)
Hypothesis 3. There is a positive indirect effect of abusive supervision on prevention-oriented job crafting via negative affect.	Supported
Hypothesis 4. Negative affect and promotion-oriented job crafting serially mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and turnover intention.	Not supported (Abusive supervision has a positive effect on turnover intention via increased negative affect and decreased promotion-oriented job crafting.)
Hypothesis 5. Negative affect and prevention-oriented job crafting serially mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and turnover intention.	Supported
Hypothesis 6. Perfectionistic strivings moderate the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, promotion-oriented job crafting, and turnover intention. It strengthens the relationship between abusive supervision and promotion-oriented job crafting via negative affect, thereby increasing turnover intention.	Not supported
Hypothesis 7. Perfectionistic concerns moderate the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, prevention-oriented job crafting, and turnover intention. It strengthens the relationship between abusive supervision and turnover intention via prevention-oriented job crafting and negative affect.	Supported

Theoretically, this research contributes to several pieces of literature. By supporting that abusive supervision elicits negative affective experiences, we contribute to the emotional perspective on abusive supervision (Oh & Farh, 2017). Previous studies have emphasized discrete emotions such as anger, fear, guilt, and shame that direct employees to show different actions under abusive supervision (Kim et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2019; Tröster & Van Quaquebeke, 2021). Considering that individuals experience a range of emotions simultaneously (Barrett, 2006; Larsen et al., 2001), this study employs an integrative emotional lens by examining negative affect as a composite state rather than focusing on discrete emotions in isolation. In doing so, we extend the emotional perspective of abusive supervision by showing that

employees are likely to experience an eclectic mix of emotional responses, rather than a single discrete emotion.

In addition, our findings show that negative affect mediates the link between abusive supervision and job crafting, decreasing promotion-oriented job crafting while increasing prevention-oriented job crafting. This highlights the importance of affective mechanisms in explaining employees' attitudinal and behavioral responses to supervisor mistreatment, an underdeveloped area (Gallegos et al., 2022). By integrating the informational and motivational functions of affect (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Baumeister et al., 2007; Frijda, 1986), this study broadens the understanding of the motivation behind job crafting under abusive supervision. While prior research has largely emphasized positive affective phenomena as the driver of proactive behavior (Parker et al., 2010), our findings show that negative affect also serve as a motivational signal, prompting employees to engage in prevention-oriented job crafting to manage ongoing threats (Folkman et al., 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Masood et al., 2021). Thus, we shed light on the negative emotional pathway of proactive behavior, offering a more balanced view of affective drivers in the proactivity literature (Parker & Liao, 2016).

We revealed that employees under abusive supervision, informed by negative affect, engage in prevention-oriented job crafting that helps them to focus on the fundamental requirements of their jobs in terms of task, skill, or relationships in order to maintain psychological security. Taking a proactive stance toward abusive supervision supports that employees are not passive victims of abusive supervision but agents of their job (Masood et al., 2021; May et al., 2014). Thus, our study adds to the current understanding of the wise proactivity framework (Parker et al., 2019; Parker & Liao, 2016) by exploring abusive supervision, a contextual driver, of job

crafting in which employees engage in to protect themselves from the harm and respond to their environments in a wiser way. In this regard, the wise proactivity framework enables us to illuminate the previous research that reported the abusive supervision-job crafting relationship (Masood et al., 2021) by providing an explanation for why employees engage in prevention-oriented job crafting when experiencing abusive supervision. We further show that prevention-oriented job crafting is a proactive behavior that may reflect a context-specific decision serving a ‘professional disengagement’ strategy to conserve psychological well-being before departing from the organization.

In addition, this study enhances our understanding of job crafting by positioning abusive supervision, a destructive phenomenon, as a contextual antecedent. Prior work has predominantly focused on positive leadership styles (Park & Park, 2023; Wang et al., 2020), and only a limited number of studies have examined job crafting as a response to negative leadership. In particular, while the JD-R theory explains that positive environments cultivate job crafting, COR theory provides insights about job crafting as a response to stressors (Demerouti, 2025). In this regard, we enrich job crafting literature by integrating the basic principle of COR theory, which is resource conservation, to explain why employees adopt prevention-oriented job crafting strategies when experiencing abusive supervision (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

However, while Masood et al. (2021) found that abusive supervision can lead to both promotion- and prevention-oriented job crafting, our findings partially support this by showing that abusive supervision primarily promotes prevention-oriented job crafting but inhibits promotion-oriented job crafting efforts. These differing results may be explained by the possibility of obtaining different results

from qualitative and quantitative approaches (Masood et al., 2021) and the general tendency of positive motivational states to foster promotion-oriented job crafting (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). Abusive supervision, as a negative stimulus, likely pushes employees to adopt more conservative, resource-conserving behaviors, aligning with prevention-oriented job crafting (Wang et al., 2020; Tuan, 2018).

COR theory also explains why abusive supervision reduces the promotion-oriented job crafting efforts of employees. First, since abusive supervision depletes employees' resources, they tend to adopt more conservative behaviors but fewer expansion-oriented behaviors (Hobfoll et al., 2018). In addition, it undermines their perceived control and agency over their jobs (Tepper, 2007), thereby limiting approach-oriented job crafting behaviors that require a sufficient degree of independence to make decisions over their jobs (Tims et al., 2012). Although resource loss motivates employees to invest in resource building, it may occur gradually and slowly (Demerouti, 2025; Halbesleben et al., 2014). In this regard, the cross-sectional design of our research may not allow us to understand the processual dynamics of resource investment through promotion-oriented job crafting as a proactive response to abusive supervision.

Furthermore, the cultural context may also influence our findings. Conducted in Türkiye, a country characterized by high collectivism and power distance (Kabasakal et al., 2012), this study reflects a context where employees may avoid direct confrontation and adopt less assertive, inward coping strategies such as prevention-oriented job crafting (Pradhan et al., 2020; Zhang & Liao, 2015). In contrast, prior studies in other cultural contexts have reported a greater tendency for constructive behaviors or voice under abusive supervision (Zhang & Liu, 2018), indicating the relevance of national culture in shaping responses to abuse.

This study sheds light on how abusive supervision increases turnover intention through affective and behavioral pathways. In this regard, we respond to the research call from Hobfoll et al. (1996), highlighting how affective and behavioral responses (i.e., negative affect and job crafting) to resource loss (i.e., abusive supervision) elicit employee outcomes (i.e., turnover intention). While prior studies have shown that abusive supervision affects turnover intention through factors such as psychological capital, coworker incivility, or employee voice (Agarwal, 2019; Abi Aad et al., 2021; Mahmood et al., 2024), we demonstrate that negative affect and job crafting also play key motivational roles. Notably, prevention-oriented job crafting and decreased promotion-oriented job crafting under abusive supervision were positively related to turnover intention. This reveals that employees who focus wisely on the fundamental requirements of their jobs to avoid future harm or who are prevented from expanding and enriching their jobs may consider leaving their organization. Our findings highlight the importance of understanding how certain proactive behaviors may reflect deeper withdrawal processes in toxic work environments.

In addition, this study extends the literature by addressing a gap regarding prevention-oriented job crafting, which has received relatively little attention (Bindl et al., 2019). While traditionally seen as less proactive, our findings support the view that prevention-oriented job crafting is a future-focused, goal-directed behavior to maintain safety and avoid losses (Spychala & Sonnentag, 2011; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). This further expands the self-regulatory and the wise proactivity perspective on job crafting and shows how negative affect can energize prevention-based, yet proactive, job crafting in employees as a wise strategy of securing resources and well-being under threats, switching the ‘protect mode’.

Moreover, relying on the regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998), we contribute to the understanding of motivational processes behind different types of job crafting engaged in response to abusive supervision by examining the moderating role of perfectionism, which is a personality trait. While numerous studies have explored the antecedents of job crafting, the mechanisms that explain why employees adopt different types of crafting remain unclear (Bindl et al., 2019). Our study shows that perfectionistic concerns amplify the effect of abusive supervision on turnover intention via increased negative affect and prevention-oriented job crafting. This finding aligns with COR theory and regulatory focus theory, which suggests that individuals with perfectionistic concerns may be more sensitive to resource loss and perceived failure, thereby experiencing negative affective states and taking actions to prevent them (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Harari et al., 2018; Ocampo et al., 2020).

We also explored whether perfectionistic strivings would strengthen promotion-oriented job crafting under abusive supervision. However, we found no significant moderating effect. One possible explanation is that perfectionistic strivings are more closely tied to personal achievement standards rather than external supervisory behavior (Cooks & Ciesla, 2019). Moreover, promotion-oriented job crafting requires motivation and the availability of appropriate resources (Bindl et al., 2019; Lanaj et al., 2012). In this case, perfectionistic strivings may not constitute the type of resource that enables employees to craft their job in a promotion-oriented manner when faced with abusive supervision that elicits emotional depletion and poses a threat to the assertive behaviors of employees (Liu et al., 2012; Mackey et al., 2017).

3.7.2 Practical implications

Our study offers valuable insights for organizational behavior practitioners and managers seeking to eliminate abusive supervision and its serious effects in workplaces. More importantly, our study does not attempt to justify abusive supervision. Instead, we aim to understand whether employees can wisely respond to abusive supervision if organizational policies about abusive supervision are not sufficient or if they cannot leave their organizations. However, considering the cost of abusive supervision on employees and employers, organizations must prevent abusive supervision by selecting and training supervisors carefully, encouraging supportive and ethical supervisor behaviors, and establishing reporting and accountability mechanisms for these abusive conditions.

This study also highlights the importance of supporting wise proactive strategies (i.e., job crafting) for employees to protect psychological resources and build their careers for pursuing employment in other organizations. Unlike detrimental or avoidant coping strategies, job crafting helps employees be well-equipped against workplace stressors by allowing them to regain control, reshape the boundaries of their jobs, and conserve their well-being. Therefore, organizations should offer job crafting interventions that develop employees' potential to reshape their jobs proactively in response to stressors.

Furthermore, considering the negative affective reactions that are experienced because of abusive supervision, human resources managers should be aware of employees' affective experiences and navigate them through emotional support systems. In this regard, they should create a positive emotional atmosphere where organizational members support each other, design emotion regulation training, and offer psychological counseling services to employees who experience abusive

supervision. In addition, practitioners should tailor the interventions for abusive supervision based on individual differences of employees, which may increase the effectiveness of strategies. Particularly, organizations should offer special support mechanisms that emphasize safety and security for these particular groups of employees who experience anxiety about not being perfect (i.e., perfectionistic concerns).

3.7.3 Limitations and future research suggestions

This study has strengths as well as limitations. First, the method of this study relied on an experimental research design, building its strength. Examining abusive supervision by experimental research design allows researchers to draw causality between abusive supervision and its effects (Tepper et al., 2017). However, our study lacks evidence about the dynamic interplay between abusive supervision, affect, and turnover intention, which are time-affected phenomena (Fischer et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2017; Oh & Farh, 2017). Future studies should employ time-lagged research designs, which can be longitudinal or diary, that enable researchers to understand how the relationship between abusive supervision, negative affect, job crafting, and turnover intention changes in time.

One of the limitations of this study is self-report data. Although studies that rely on self-reports are susceptible to social desirability bias, recall bias, and common method variance, Tepper et al. (2017) noted that the phenomenological nature of abusive supervision makes self-reports more informative. However, an objective assessment of the effects of abusive supervision may offer a more nuanced understanding.

In this study, we examined negative affect as an underlying mechanism. We specifically focus on negative affect rather than positive ones or a combination of both that have different motivational pathways, as stressful situations evoke predominantly strong negative affective responses in individuals that elicit motivational goals (Kim et al., 2020; Oh & Farh, 2017) and inform them about the need to solve these situations (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017). Future studies should consider both positive and negative affect in the relationship between abusive supervision and subsequent emotional and behavioral outcomes. Relatedly, Yoon et al. (2021) noted that the combination of positive and negative affect elicits different results than the experience of either affect alone, signaling the better prediction of well-being. Future studies also should focus on whether and how particular discrete emotions shape job crafting responses of employees. Especially, future research needs to clarify the role of some under-researched emotions (i.e., self-conscious emotions) (Oh & Farh, 2017). Empirical evidence has revealed that particular emotions are felt as a response to abusive supervision and, in turn, trigger particular job crafting behaviors, either approach-based or avoidance-based (Masood et al., 2021). In addition to emotions, future studies may examine other mediating mechanisms, such as need discrepancy or person-environment fit.

This study examined perfectionism as a boundary condition. Future studies can focus on other individual differences and organizational, team-level, family-related, or cultural factors as moderators. For instance, the sense of calling may moderate the association between abusive supervision and job crafting, as individuals with a heightened sense of calling possess a profound sense of purpose in their job, thus engage in more proactive actions to make their job more meaningful (Chang et al., 2021). Employees with conservative values may be more likely to feel guilt and

then engage in job crafting behaviors to achieve goals set by their leaders (Breevaart et al., 2022). In addition, when employees think that they can change the aversive circumstances, they are likely to engage in resource investment behaviors (Halbesleben et al., 2014). In this regard, perceived controllability may play a boundary condition between abusive supervision and promotion-oriented job crafting. Proactivity and resilience are other moderating mechanisms that may explain the relationship between abusive supervision and job crafting.

In terms of turnover intention, our understanding of how organizational and relational context affect the turnover process is still incomplete (Lee et al., 2017; Rubenstein et al., 2018). In this regard, future studies should explore contextual factors, such as psychological safety climate, leader-member exchange or perceived coworker support, as moderator variables to understand whether they form appropriate conditions for employees to engage in job crafting in response to abusive supervision, thereby reducing turnover intention, which can be a marker of coping effectiveness.

Broader cultural values may shape how employees respond to abusive supervision (Mackey et al., 2017; Tepper, 2007). Collectivism, as a cultural variable, may strengthen the relationship between abusive supervision and prevention-oriented job crafting, as people who live in collectivistic cultures avoid breaching social harmony and react more constructively to abusive supervision (Tjosvold, 2008). Moreover, societies characterized by greater power distance or hostile organizational culture may promote accepting and demonstrating submissive behaviors in response to abusive supervision (Breevaart et al., 2022). Even employees' perceptions of abusive supervision may be lower in these contexts. Therefore, future studies may investigate cultural values as boundary conditions.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the main aim of this thesis is to investigate how employees select and utilize coping strategies in response to EJDs and the underlying mechanisms that link EJDs to employee outcomes through these strategies. To achieve this purpose, we conducted two studies that rely on qualitative and experimental research designs.

Study 1 introduces the concept of emotional job crafting, which refers to strategies aimed at coping with EJDs at work. We found that when encountering EJDs, employees utilize job crafting, emotion regulation (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and digital emotion regulation), and recovery activities, all of which are conceptualized under the umbrella of emotional job crafting. The choice of strategies is shaped by personal and emotional resources at work and non-work (i.e., family) domains available to employees. The effectiveness of the coping process, in turn, has influenced employee outcomes such as motivation, work attitudes, behaviors, and future career decisions. Study 1 provides a conceptual foundation for future research by introducing the emotional job crafting model and contributes to the theoretical advancement of coping with EJDs.

Study 2 builds on an unexpected finding from Study 1. Study 2 found that abusive supervision, which elicits negative affective responses in employees, reduces promotion-oriented job crafting but increases prevention-oriented job crafting, thereby exacerbating employees' thoughts about leaving their organizations. Moreover, employees with higher perfectionistic concerns experience greater negative affect, which in turn strengthens their prevention-oriented job crafting behavior and turnover intention. Drawing on COR theory, the wise proactivity

framework, and regulatory focus theory, our study illuminates the motivational processes that explain why employees engage in prevention-oriented job crafting in response to abusive supervision. These findings provide a more nuanced understanding of job crafting as a wise strategy for employees to protect their well-being and fulfill only the basic requirements of their role under abusive supervision while preparing themselves for turnover by ‘professional disengagement’. Study 2 offers a novel perspective on how job crafting can serve as a coping strategy against abusive supervision aimed at leaving an organization.



APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ENGLISH)

1. Could you describe your job characteristics and work environment?
2. How do you feel while doing your job?
3. What kind of situations emotionally affect you at work? Please give examples and describe situations.
4. How do these situations affect you?
5. What are the emotional support resources available to you in your job? Please give examples and describe situations.
6. How do these emotional support resources in your job affect you?)
7. What do you do to cope with emotionally demanding situations at work?
8. What strategies could you employ to enhance your emotional support resources?
9. What do you experience when you successfully cope with emotionally demanding situations at work?
10. Is there anything else you would like to add?

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (TURKISH)

1. İşiniz ve çalıştığınız ortamın özelliklerinden biraz bahseder misiniz?
2. İşinizi yaparken duygusal olarak nasıl hissediyorsunuz?
3. İşinizde sizi duygusal açıdan etkileyen durumlar nelerdir? Örnekler vererek bunlardan biraz bahseder misiniz?
4. Bu durumlar sizi nasıl etkilemektedir?
5. İşinizde size duygusal destek veren kaynaklar nelerdir? Örnekler vererek bunlardan biraz bahseder misiniz?
6. İşinizde destekleyen bu duygusal kaynaklar sizi nasıl etkilemektedir?
7. İşinizde sizi duygusal açıdan etkileyen durumlar yaşadığınızda baş etmek için neler yaparsınız?
8. İşinizde size destek veren duygusal kaynakları nasıl arttırırsınız?
9. İşinizde sizi duygusal açıdan etkileyen durumlarla başa çıktığınızda neler yaşarsınız?
10. Eklemek istediğiniz herhangi bir şey var mı?

APPENDIX C
SURVEY I (ENGLISH)

Dear participant,

You are invited to participate in this research conducted by Zeynep Aksoy, a student in the Management PhD Program at Boğaziçi University, under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Hayat Kabasakal and Prof. Dr. Yasin Rofcanin, as part of her doctoral thesis. We would like to inform you about the research before you decide to participate in it. After reading the information below, if you would like to participate in the research, please sign this form and send it to Zeynep Aksoy by e-mail.

This study investigates the emotional difficulties employees face at work (such as customer relations and conflicts at work) and the methods of coping with these emotional difficulties. If you agree to participate in the research, you will be interviewed online for approximately 45-50 minutes, and open-ended questions will be asked about the subject. Audio recordings will be made with your permission throughout the interview. A participant number will be used instead of your name in the audio recordings. You will also be asked to fill out a short survey and demographic information form. You are not asked to write your name on the demographic form. The information you will share within the scope of this research will only be used for scientific purposes; your personal information will be kept completely confidential and will not be shared with third parties.

Your participation in the study is completely voluntary. You can cancel your participation in the study at any time. In this case, the survey you filled out, the form containing demographic questions, and the audio recording containing the interview will be destroyed. Before signing this form, if you have any questions about the

study, please ask. If you want to get additional information about the research after the interview, you can contact Zeynep Aksoy. You can also consult the Boğaziçi University Ethics Committee (sbinarek@bogazici.edu.tr) regarding your rights regarding the research. Thank you for participating in the research.

Demographic questions:

Age:

Gender:

Marital status: Single..... Married.....

Education: High school.... College..... Bachelor..... Master.... PhD.....

Industry: Education..... Healthcare..... Service..... Technology.....Other.....

Tenure in your current organization (Month):

Total tenure (Month):

Housing situation: Living alone..... Living with others.....

Extraversion scale: (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

1. I am the life of the party.
2. I am skilled in handling social situations.
3. I make friends easily.
4. I know how to captivate people.
5. I feel comfortable around people.
6. I don't talk a lot. R
7. I keep in the background. R
8. I have little to say. R
9. I don't like to draw attention to myself. R
10. I would describe my experiences as somewhat dull. R

Emotional stability scale: (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree)

1. I am anxious.
2. I am angry hostile.
3. I am depressive.
4. I am impulsive.
5. I am vulnerable.

Emotional expressiveness scale: (1 = Never true, 6 = Always true)

1. I think of myself as emotionally expressive.
2. People think of me as an unemotional person. R
3. I keep my feelings to myself. R
4. I am often considered indifferent by others. R
5. People can read my emotions.
6. I display my emotions to other people.
7. I don't like to let other people see how I'm feeling. R
8. I am able to cry in front of other people.
9. Even if I am feeling very emotional, I don't let others see my feelings. R
10. Other people aren't easily able to observe what I'm feeling. R
11. I am not very emotionally expressive. R
12. Even when I'm experiencing strong feelings, I don't express them outwardly. R
13. I can't hide the way I'm feeling.
14. Other people believe me to be very emotional.
15. I don't express my emotions to other people. R
16. The way I feel is different from how others think I feel. R
17. I hold my feelings in. R

Note: R = Reversed

APPENDIX D
SURVEY I (TURKISH)

Sayın katılımcı,

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme Doktora Programı öğrencisi Zeynep Aksoy'un Prof. Dr. Hayat Kabasakal ve Prof. Dr. Yasin Rofcanin danışmanlığında hazırlamakta olduğu doktora tezi kapsamında gerçekleştirdiği bu araştırmaya katılmanız için davet edilmektesiniz. Araştırmaya katılma kararınızdan önce araştırma hakkında sizi bilgilendirmek istiyoruz. Aşağıdaki bilgileri okuduktan sonra araştırmaya katılmak isterseniz lütfen bu formu imzalayarak Zeynep Aksoy'a e-mail ile ulaştırınız.

Bu çalışmada çalışanların işyerinde karşılaştıkları duygusal zorluklar (örneğin, müşteri ilişkileri ve işyerindeki çatışmalar gibi) ve bu duygusal zorluklarla baş etme yöntemleri araştırılmaktadır. Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde sizinle ortalama 45-50 dakika süren online bir mülakat yapılacaktır ve konu bağlamında açık uçlu sorular sorulacaktır. İzniniz dahilinde mülakat boyunca ses kaydı alınacaktır. Ses kayıtlarında isminiz yerine bir katılımcı numarası kullanılacaktır. Ayrıca sizden kısa bir anket ve demografik bilgi formu doldurmanız rica edilecektir. Demografik forma isminizi yazmanız istenmemektedir. Bu araştırma kapsamında paylaşacağınız bilgiler sadece bilimsel amaçla kullanılacak olup, kişisel bilgileriniz tamamen gizli tutulacak ve üçüncü kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır.

Çalışmaya katılmanız tamamen isteğe bağlıdır. İstedığınız zaman çalışmaya katılmaktan vazgeçebilirsiniz. Bu durumda doldurduğunuz anket ve demografik sorular içeren form ve mülakatı içeren ses kaydı imha edilecektir. Bu formu imzalamadan önce, çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız varsa lütfen sorunuz. Mülakat

yapıldıktan sonra araştırma hakkında ek bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde Zeynep Aksoy ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Araştırmayla ilgili haklarınız konusunda Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'na (sbinarek@bogazici.edu.tr) da danışabilirsiniz. Araştırmaya katıldığınız için teşekkür ederim.

Demografik Sorular:

Yaş:

Cinsiyet:

Medeni durum: Bekar..... Evli.....

En son aldığınız diploma: Lise.... Ön Lisans..... Lisans..... Yüksek Lisans....
Doktora.....

Çalıştığınız sektör: Eğitim..... Sağlık..... Hizmet..... Teknoloji.....Diğer.....

Çalıştığınız işyerindeki görev süreniz (Lütfen ay olarak yazınız):

Toplam çalışma süreniz (Lütfen ay olarak yazınız):

Yalnız mı yaşıyorsunuz?: Evet..... Hayır.....

Dışadönüklük ölçeği: (1= Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 5=Kesinlikle katılıyorum)

1. Sosyal ortamlarda neşe saçan biriyim.
2. Sosyal durumlarla baş etme konusunda becerikliyim.
3. Kolaylıkla arkadaş edinirim.
4. İnsanları nasıl etkileyeceğimi bilirim.
5. İnsanların yanında kendimi rahat hissederim.
6. Çok fazla konuşmam.
7. Arka planda kalırım.
8. Söyleyecek çok az şeyim vardır.
9. Dikkatleri üzerime çekmeyi sevmem.

10. Deneyimlerimi biraz sıkıcı olarak tanımlardım.

Duygusal istikrarlılık ölçeği: (1= Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 7=Kesinlikle katılıyorum)

1. Endişeli biriyim.
2. Kolaylıkla öfkelenen biriyim.
3. Depresif biriyim.
4. Fevri/dürtüsel biriyim.
5. Hassas biriyim.

Duygusal ifade etme ölçeği: (1= Asla doğru değil, 6=Her zaman doğru)

1. Kendimi duygularını ifade edebilen/yansıtan biri olarak görüyorum.
2. İnsanlar benim duygusuz biri olduğumu düşünür.
3. Duygularımı kendime saklarım.
4. Başkaları tarafından sıklıkla umursamaz biri olarak görülüyorum.
5. İnsanlar duygularımı okuyabilirler.
6. Duygularımı başkalarına gösteririm.
7. Başkalarının nasıl hissettiğimi görmesinden hoşlanmıyorum.
8. Başkalarının yanında ağlayabilirim.
9. Kendimi çok duygusal hissetsem bile başkalarının duygularımı görmesine izin vermem.
10. Diğer insanlar benim ne hissettiğimi kolaylıkla gözlemleyemezler.
11. Duygularımı pek ifade etmem/yansıtmam.
12. Güçlü duygular yaşasam bile bunları dışarı vurmam.
13. Nasıl hissettiğimi gizleyemem.
14. Diğer insanlar benim çok duygusal biri olduğumu düşünür.
15. Duygularımı başkalarına ifade etmem/yansıtmam.

16. Benim hissettiklerim başkalarının benim ne hissettiğimi düşündüklerinden farklıdır.

17. Duygularımı içimde tutuyorum.



APPENDIX E
SURVEY II (ENGLISH)

Dear participant,

This survey form is related to the research conducted by Zeynep Aksoy, a student of Boğaziçi University Management PhD Program, as part of her doctoral thesis under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hayat Kabasakal and Prof. Dr. Yasin Rofcanin.

Some questions will be asked about the situations that cause you to feel negative emotions while working and the methods you use to cope with them. If you have any questions about the research, you can send them to Zeynep Aksoy via e-mail. Your answers will be evaluated anonymously and will be used for scientific purposes.

Your personal information will be kept completely confidential and will not be shared with third parties. Thank you for your interest.

Demographic questions:

Age:

Gender: ☐Female ☐Male

Education: ☐Bachelor ☐Master ☐PhD ☐Other

Total tenure: ☐Less than 1 year ☐1-5 years ☐6-10 years ☐11-15 years ☐11-15 years ☐More than 16 years

Industry: ☐Education ☐Healthcare ☐Service ☐Manufacturing ☐Other

Marital status: ☐Single ☐Married ☐Other

Housing situation: Living alone..... Living with others.....

1. In which of the following situations do you feel negative emotions? (You can choose more than one option):

Interacting with people with different characteristics and backgrounds

Working with others who make the atmosphere sad or uneasy

Faking positive emotional expressions

Faking negative emotional expressions

Doing repetitive and monotonous tasks

Conflicting with colleagues

Conflicting with supervisors

Working with an abusive supervisor

Conflicting with customers

Other

2. Which of the following resources do you have? (You can choose more than one option):

I have a supervisor who gives me emotional support.

I have a high-quality social interaction with my supervisor.

I have colleagues who give me emotional support.

I have high-quality social interactions with colleagues.

I have a family that gives me emotional support.

I have friends who give me emotional support.

I have a spouse who gives me emotional support.

3. Which of the following methods do you use when you encounter emotional demands at work?

I avoid thinking about situations that make me feel bad when working.

I try to minimize contact with others who make me feel bad when working.

I try to solve the situations that make me feel bad.

I seek emotional support from my colleagues.

I seek emotional support from my supervisor.

I give emotional support to my supervisor or colleagues when they need it.

I watch cheerful videos on YouTube.

I watch meaningful videos on YouTube to change my perspective.

I watch series or films on Netflix.

I listen to cheerful or energetic music.

I surf on social media platforms.

I chat with others with whom I can share my problems and emotions on WhatsApp.

I take microbreaks.

I organize and join social activities with my colleagues in non-working hours.

I meditate.

I actively strengthen my social ties and communication with my colleagues.

I actively support a friendly working environment.

I try to change my perspective toward situations that make me feel bad when working.

I try to develop my work-related skills and knowledge when I work with an abusive supervisor.

I drink coffee or tea and talk with my colleagues in microbreaks.

Other

APPENDIX F
SURVEY II (TURKISH)

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket formu Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme Doktora Programı öğrencisi Zeynep Aksoy'un Doç. Dr. Hayat Kabasakal ve Prof. Dr. Yasin Rofcanin danışmanlığında hazırlamakta olduğu doktora tezi kapsamında gerçekleştirdiği araştırma ile ilgilidir. Araştırma kapsamında çalışırken olumsuz duygular hissetmenize neden olan durumlar ve bunlarla baş etme yöntemleriniz üzerine bazı sorular yöneltilecektir. Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınız olursa, Zeynep Aksoy'a e-mail aracılığıyla iletebilirsiniz. Yanıtlarınız anonim bir şekilde değerlendirilecek ve bilimsel amaç için kullanılacaktır. Kişisel bilgileriniz tamamen gizli tutulacak ve üçüncü kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. İlginiz için teşekkür ederiz.

Demografik sorular:

Yaş:

Cinsiyet: __Kadın __Erkek

Eğitim durumu: __Lisans __Yüksek lisans __Doktora __Diğer

Toplam çalışma süreniz: __1 yıldan az __1-5 yıl __6-10 yıl __11-15 yıl __11-15 yıl __16 yıl ve üstü

Hangi sektörde çalışıyorsunuz?: __Eğitim __Sağlık __Hizmet __Üretim __Diğer

Medeni durumunuz: __Bekar __Evli __Diğer

Yalnız mı yaşıyorsunuz?: __Evet, yalnız yaşıyorum. __Hayır, başkaları ile birlikte yaşıyorum.

1.Aşağıdaki durumlardan hangisini yaşadığınızda olumsuz duygular hissedersiniz?

(Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz):

__Çalışırken farklı özelliklere sahip birçok insanla etkileşimde bulunduğumda

__Çalıştığım ortamı mutsuz ya da huzursuz eden insanlar olduğunda

__Çalışırken, hissetmediğim halde, güler yüz göstermem beklendiğinde

__Çalışırken hissettiğim olumlu duygularımı saklamam beklendiğinde

__Sürekli birbirine benzeyen ve tekrarlayan işler yaptığımda

__İş arkadaşlarımla çatışma yaşadığımda

__Yöneticimle çatışma yaşadığımda

__Yöneticimden mobbing gördüğümde

__Müşterilerle çatışma yaşadığımda

__Diğer

2.Aşağıdaki kaynaklardan hangilerine sahipsiniz? (Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz):

__Duygusal destek veren yönetici

__Sosyal etkileşimin olumlu olduğu yönetici

__Duygusal destek veren iş arkadaşları

__Sosyal etkileşimin olumlu olduğu iş arkadaşları

__Duygusal destek veren aile

__Duygusal destek veren arkadaşlar

__Duygusal destek veren partner (örneğin, eş ya da sevgili)

3.Çalışırken duygusal zorluklarla karşılaştığınızda aşağıdaki yöntemlerden hangilerine başvurursunuz?

__Olumsuz duygular hissetmeme neden olan durumları düşünmekten kaçınırım

__Olumsuz duygular hissetmeme neden olan kişilerle iletişimi azaltmaya çalışırım

__Olumsuz duygular hissetmeme neden olan durumları çözmeye çalışırım

__İş arkadaşlarımla paylaşıp onlardan destek isterim

- ___Yöneticimle paylaşıp ondan destek isterim
- ___İş arkadaşım ya da yöneticim olumsuz duygular hissediyorsa, onlara destek olmaya çalışırım
- ___YouTube gibi kanallar üzerinden neşeli video izlerim
- ___YouTube gibi kanallar üzerinden bakış açımı değiştirecek videolar izlerim
- ___Netflix gibi kanallar üzerinden dizi ya da film izlerim
- ___Neşeli ya da hareketli müzikler dinlerim
- ___Sosyal medyada vakit geçiririm
- ___WhatsApp gibi platformları kullanarak duygularımı paylaşabileceğim kişilerle sohbet ederim
- ___Çalışma molalarında iyi hissettirecek aktiviteler yaparım (Çay-kahve içmek ya da müzik dinlemek)
- ___Mesai saatleri dışında iş arkadaşlarımla buluşarak sosyal aktiviteler yaparım
- ___Meditasyon yaparım
- ___İş arkadaşlarımla iletişimimi ve bağlarımı kuvvetlendiririm
- ___Arkadaşça bir çalışma atmosferi oluşmasını desteklerim
- ___Çalışırken olumsuz duygular hissetmeme neden olan durumlara karşı bakış açımı değiştirmeye çalışırım
- ___Mobbing görüyorsam işe yönelik bilgi ve becerilerimi artırmaya çalışırım
- ___Molalarda iş arkadaşlarımla çay-kahve içer ve sohbet ederim
- ___Diğer

APPENDIX G

ETHICAL APPROVAL



T.C.
BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (Sbinarek)



Sayı : E-84391427-050.04-230091
Konu : 2025-23T Kayıt Numaralı Başvurunuz
Hakkında

30.04.2025

Sayın Doç. Dr. Özgün Burcu RODOPMAN ACAR

Tez danışmanlığımı yürüttüğünüz öğrenciniz Zeynep Aksoy'un "Emotional job crafting: Conceptual development, antecedents and consequences" başlıklı projesi ile Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (SBİNAREK)'e yaptığınız 2025-23T kayıt numaralı başvuru 26.03.2025 tarih ve 2025/03 sayılı kurul toplantısında incelenmiş ve projeye etik onay verilmesi uygun bulunmuştur.

Bu karar tüm üyelerin toplantıya on-line olarak katılımıyla ve oybirliği ile alınmıştır. Onay mektubu tüm üyeler adına Komisyon Başkanı tarafından e-imzalanmıştır. Bilgilerinizi rica ederiz.

Saygılarımızla,

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Işıl ERDUYAN
Kurul Başkanı

Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Belge Doğrulama Kodu : 09TA-IGLE-0Y81

Belge Doğrulama Adresi : <https://www.turkiye.gov.tr/bogazici-universitesi-ebys>

Adres: Boğaziçi Üniversitesi 34342 Bebek/ İstanbul
Telefon No: Faks No:
e-Posta: İnternet Adresi: www.bogazici.edu.tr
Konu Adresi: bogaziciuniversitesi@bhf01.kon.tr

Bilgi İçin: Nurşen MUNAR
Mühendis

Telefon No: 0 212 350 6740



APPENDIX H

MANIPULATION OF SCENARIOS (TURKISH)

Yüksek düzeyde istismarcı yönetici senaryosu-Kadın yönetici:

Lütfen bir şirkette çalıştığınızı düşünün. Çalıştığınız ekipte yöneticiniz Ayşe Hanım ve raporlarınızı ona iletiyorsunuz. İşe başladığınızdan beri Ayşe Hanım size karşı sert eleştirilerde bulunuyor. İşle ilgili fikirlerinizi onunla paylaştığınızda ise önerilerinizi küçümsüyor ve reddediyor. Çalıştığınız projeler başarısızlığa uğradığında sizi suçluyor ve “Bu işi neden başaramadığımı anlamıyorum. Performansını yeniden gözden geçirmemiz gerekiyor,” diyerek üzerinizde baskı kuruyor. Ayrıca sizi bazen iş arkadaşlarınızın yanında eleştiriyor.

Yüksek düzeyde istismarcı yönetici senaryosu-Erkek yönetici:

Lütfen bir şirkette çalıştığınızı düşünün. Çalıştığınız ekipte yöneticiniz Ahmet Bey ve raporlarınızı ona iletiyorsunuz. Bir süredir Ahmet Bey, size karşı sert eleştirilerde bulunuyor. İşle ilgili fikirlerinizi onunla paylaştığınızda önerilerinizi küçümsüyor ve reddediyor. Çalıştığınız projeler başarısızlığa uğrarsa sizi suçluyor ve “Bu işi neden başaramadığımı anlamıyorum. Performansını yeniden gözden geçirmemiz gerekiyor,” diyerek üzerinizde baskı kuruyor. Sizi bazen iş arkadaşlarınızın yanında eleştiriyor.

Düşük düzeyde istismarcı yönetici senaryosu-Kadın yönetici:

Lütfen bir şirkette çalıştığınızı düşünün. Çalıştığınız ekipte yöneticiniz Ayşe Hanım ve raporlarınızı ona iletiyorsunuz. İşe başladığınızdan beri Ayşe Hanım, size karşı sert eleştirilerde bulunmuyor. İşle ilgili fikirlerinizi onunla paylaştığınızda önerilerinizi dinliyor ve dikkate alıyor. Çalıştığınız projeler başarısızlığa uğrarsa sizi suçlamıyor ve üzerinizde baskı kurmuyor. Sizi iş arkadaşlarınızın yanında eleştirmiyor, geri bildirimlerini özel olarak size iletiyor.

Düşük düzeyde istismarcı yönetici senaryosu-Erkek yönetici:

Lütfen bir şirkette çalıştığınızı düşünün. Çalıştığınız ekipte yöneticiniz Ahmet Bey ve raporlarınızı ona iletiyorsunuz. İşe başladığınızdan beri Ahmet Bey, size karşı sert eleştirilerde bulunmuyor. İşle ilgili fikirlerinizi onunla paylaştığınızda önerilerinizi dinliyor ve dikkate alıyor. Çalıştığınız projeler başarısızlığa uğrarsa sizi suçlamıyor ve üzerinizde baskı kurmuyor. Sizi iş arkadaşlarınızın yanında eleştirmiyor, geri bildirimlerini özel olarak size iletiyor.



APPENDIX I

MANIPULATION CHECK FORM (ENGLISH)

Dear participants,

Zeynep Aksoy, a PhD student at Boğaziçi University's Department of Management, is conducting a thesis study titled "Manager (supervisor) behaviors and emotional and behavioral effects of these behaviors on employees" under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özgün Burcu Rodopman Acar and Prof. Dr. Yasin Rofcanin. In this research, you are expected to carefully read the scenario below and analyze the supervisor's behaviors represented in it. Your involvement is based on volunteerism. Your responses to this study will be kept anonymous and used only for scientific purposes. You may withdraw from the research at any time. In this situation, the survey you completed will be destroyed. If you want more information about the study before or after completing the survey, please contact Zeynep Aksoy. You can contact the Boğaziçi University Ethics Committee (sbinarek@bogazici.edu.tr) to learn about your research rights. Thank you for participating.

Abusive supervision scale: (1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree)

1. Ridicules me
2. Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid
3. Gives me the silent treatment
4. Puts me down in front of others
5. Invades my privacy
6. Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures
7. Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort
8. Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment

9. Breaks promises he/she makes

10. Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason

11. Makes negative comments about me to others

12. Is rude to me

13. Does not allow me to interact with my coworkers

What is the gender of the supervisor whose behavior is depicted in the scenario above?

Male _____

Female ____



APPENDIX J

MANIPULATION CHECK FORM (TURKISH)

Değerli Katılımcı,

Sizleri Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme Bölümü Doktora Öğrencisi Zeynep Aksoy'un Doç. Dr. Özgün Burcu Rodopman Acar ve Prof. Dr. Yasin Rofcanin'in danışmanlığında hazırladığı “Yönetici (süpervizör) davranışları ve bu davranışların çalışanlar üzerindeki duygusal ve davranışsal etkiler” konulu tez çalışmasına katılmaya davet ediyoruz. Bu çalışmada, aşağıda verilen senaryoyu dikkatlice okumanız ve senaryoda tasvir edilen yöneticinin davranışlarını değerlendirmeniz istenmektedir. Katılımınız gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Bu çalışmada yanıtlarınız gizli tutulacak ve yalnızca araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. İstedığınız zaman çalışmaya katılmaktan vazgeçebilirsiniz. Bu durumda doldurduğunuz anket formu imha edilecektir. Anketi doldurmadan önce ya da sonra araştırma hakkında ek bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde Zeynep Aksoy ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Araştırmayla ilgili haklarınız konusunda Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'na (sbinarek@bogazici.edu.tr) da danışabilirsiniz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

İstismarcı Yönetici Ölçeği: (1= Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 5= Kesinlikle katılıyorum)

- 1.Beni küçümser.
- 2.Düşüncelerimin ya da duygularımın saçma olduğunu söyler.
- 3.Bana sessiz muamele yapar (yani küsüp konuşmayarak ceza verir).
- 4.Başkalarının önünde beni küçük düşürür.
- 5.Özel alanıma müdahale eder.
- 6.Geçmişteki hatalarımı bana hatırlatır.

7.Çaba gösterdiğim işlerde beni takdir etmez.

8.Kendini kurtarmak için beni suçlar.

9.Verdiği sözleri yerine getirmez.

10.Başka bir şeye öfkeliyken öfkesini bana yönlendirir.

11.Başkalarına benim hakkımda olumsuz yorumlar yapar.

12.Bana karşı kaba davranır.

13.İş arkadaşlarımla iletişim kurmama izin vermez.

Yukarıdaki senaryoda davranışları tasvir edilen yöneticinin cinsiyeti nedir?

Erkek_____

Kadın_____

APPENDIX K

EXPERIMENT FORM (ENGLISH)

Dear Participant,

Boğaziçi University Management PhD Program is doing a study on supervisor behaviors and their impact on employees' emotional and behavioral responses. We'd like to inform you about the study before you decide to participate. If you agree to participate in the study, we will ask you to complete a survey, which we will give you in paper form. In this survey form, we will first ask you to read a paragraph detailing a supervisor's behaviors and then imagine yourself working with that supervisor in real life. Then, we'll ask you to complete the survey questions based on this supervisor's behaviors. At the end of the survey form, we will ask you to complete the demographic information form. You are not required to write down your name on the demographic form. The information you submit as part of this study will be used solely for scientific purposes; your personal information will be kept strictly confidential and will not be shared with third parties. Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You may withdraw from the research at any time. In this situation, the survey you completed will be destroyed. Please ask any questions you may have regarding the study before filling in this form. If you would like more information about the research after the survey is done, please email Zeynep Aksoy. You can contact the Boğaziçi University Institutional Review Board in Social Sciences and Humanities (sbinarek@bogazici.edu.tr) to learn about your research rights. If you believe you have been negatively affected psychologically or emotionally while completing the survey or thereafter, please contact us so that we

can direct you to appropriate help services (psychological counseling). Thank you for taking part in the research.

Negative affect scale: Please rate the extent to which you are currently feeling the following emotions in response to the supervisor's behavior in the scenario. (1 = very slightly or not at all, 5 = very much)

1. Distressed

2. Upset

3. Guilty

4. Scared

5. Hostile

6. Jittery

7. Ashamed

8. Irritable

9. Nervous

10. Afraid

Job crafting scale: The following are some statements which may or may not describe how you want to behave right now. Please rate each statement using the 5-point scale below. (1= not at all, 5= a great deal)

1. I actively seek to meet new people at work.

2. I make efforts to get to know other people at work better.

3. I seek to interact with other people at work, regardless of how well I knew them.

4. I try to spend more time with a wide variety of people at work.

5. I minimize my interactions with people at work that I do not get along with.

6. I change my work so that I only interact with people that I feel good about working with.

- 7.I try to avoid situations at work where I have to meet new people.
- 8.I actively try to develop wider capabilities in my job.
- 9.I try to learn new things at work that go beyond my core skills.
- 10.I actively explore new skills to do my overall job.
- 11.I seek out opportunities for extending my overall skills at work.
- 12.I channel my efforts at work towards maintaining a specific area of expertise.
- 13.I seek to develop those skills in my job that help prevent negative work outcomes.
- 14.I make sure I stay on top of knowledge in core areas of my job.
- 15.I actively take on more tasks in my work.
- 16.I add complexity to my tasks by changing their structure or sequence.
- 17.I change my tasks so that they are more challenging.
- 18.I increase the number of difficult decisions I make in my work.
19. I actively reduce the scope of tasks I work on.
20. I try to simplify some of the tasks that I work on.
21. I seek to make some of my work mentally less intense.
- 22.I try to think of my job as a whole, rather than as separate tasks.
- 23.I think about how my job contribute to the organization's goals.
- 24.I think about new ways of viewing my overall job.
- 25.I think about ways in which my job as a whole contribute to society.
- 26.I focus my mind on the best parts of my job, while trying to ignore those parts I don't like.
- 27.I assess the different elements of my job to determine which parts are most meaningful.
- 28.I try to think of my job as a set of separate tasks, rather than as a 'whole.'

Turnover intention scale: The following statements reflect various opinions about your current job. Please rate each statement using the 5-point scale below. (1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree)

1. I often think about quitting my job.
2. I intend to look for a job outside of my company within the next year.
3. I intend to leave my company.

Perfectionism scale: The following are some statements which may or may not describe how you are. Please rate each statement using the 6-point scale below. (1= never, 6= always)

1. I strive to be as perfect as possible
2. It is important to me to be perfect in everything
3. I attempt I feel the need to be perfect
4. I am a perfectionist as far as my targets are concerned
5. I have the wish to do everything perfectly
6. I feel extremely stressed if everything doesn't go perfectly
7. I feel depressed if I have not been perfect
8. I get completely furious if I make mistakes
9. I get frustrated if I do not fulfill my high expectations
10. I am dissatisfied with the whole competition/game if something ...

Demographic Questions:

Age:

Gender:

☐ Female

☐ Male

☐ Other

☐ Do not want to specify

Education:

☐ High School

☐ College

☐ Bachelor

☐ Master

☐ PhD

☐ Other

Your industry:

☐ Service

☐ Manufacturing

☐ Other

Total tenure:

☐ Less than 2 years

☐ 2-4 years

☐ 5-10 years

☐ 10-15 years

☐ More than 15 years

Marital status:

☐ Single

☐ Married

☐ Do not want to specify

APPENDIX L

EXPERIMENT FORM (TURKISH)

Sayın katılımcı,

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme Doktora Programı'nda yönetici (süpervizör) davranışları ve bu davranışların çalışanlar üzerindeki duygusal ve davranışsal etkileri üzerine bir araştırma yapılmaktadır. Araştırmaya katılma kararınızdan önce araştırma hakkında sizi bilgilendirmek istiyoruz. Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde sizden kâğıt formunda size ulaştırdığımız bir anketi doldurmanızı rica edeceğiz. Bu anket formunda öncelikle bir yöneticinin davranışlarını tasvir eden bir paragrafı okumanızı ve gerçek hayatta bu yöneticiyle birlikte çalıştığınızı düşünmenizi isteyeceğiz. Daha sonra anket formunda bulunan soruları bu yöneticinin davranışlarını göz önünde bulundurarak cevaplamanızı rica edeceğiz. Anket formunun sonunda demografik bilgi formu doldurmanızı isteyeceğiz. Demografik forma isminizi yazmanız istenmemektedir. Bu araştırma kapsamında paylaşacağınız bilgiler sadece bilimsel amaçla kullanılacak olup, kişisel bilgileriniz tamamen gizli tutulacak ve üçüncü kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Bu araştırmaya katılmanız tamamen isteğe bağlıdır. İstedığınız zaman çalışmaya katılmaktan vazgeçebilirsiniz. Bu durumda doldurduğunuz anket formu imha edilecektir. Bu formu imzalamadan önce, çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız varsa lütfen sorunuz. Anket yapıldıktan sonra araştırma hakkında ek bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde Zeynep Aksoy ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Araştırmayla ilgili haklarınız konusunda Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'na (sbinarek@bogazici.edu.tr) da danışabilirsiniz. Anketi doldururken ya da sonrasında psikolojik ya da duygusal olarak olumsuz etkilendiğinizi hissederseniz,

ilgili destek kaynaklarına (psikolojik danışman) ulaşmak için bizimle iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Araştırmaya katıldığınız için teşekkür ederim.

Olumsuz Duygu Ölçeği: Lütfen senaryodaki yöneticinin size karşı davranışlarına tepki olarak aşağıdaki duyguları şu anda ne ölçüde hissettiğinizi değerlendirin. (1= Hiç, 5= Aşırı derecede)

1.Sıkıntılı

2.Mutsuz

3.Suçlu

4.Ürkmüş

5.Düşmanca

6.Asabi

7.Utanmış

8.Sinirli

9.Tedirgin

10.Korkmuş

İş Zanaatkarlığı Ölçeği: Lütfen senaryodaki yöneticinin size karşı davranışlarına tepki olarak şu anda nasıl davranmak istediğinizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelerle ne ölçüde katıldığınızı değerlendiriniz. (1= Hiç, 5= Çok fazla)

1.İşyerinde yeni insanlarla tanışmak için aktif olarak çaba harcarım.

2.İşyerinde diğer insanları daha iyi tanımak için çaba gösteririm.

3.İşyerinde, ne kadar iyi tanıyor olursam olayım, diğer insanlarla etkileşime girmeye çalışırım.

4.İşyerinde daha fazla insanla vakit geçirmeye çalışırım.

5.İşyerinde anlaşılamadığım insanlarla etkileşimimi minimize ederim.

- 6.İşimi, yalnızca birlikte çalışmaktan hoşlandığım insanlarla etkileşimde bulunacak şekilde değiştiririm.
- 7.İşyerinde yeni insanlarla tanışmak zorunda olduğum durumlardan kaçınmaya çalışırım.
- 8.İş becerilerimi aktif olarak geliştirmeye çalışırım.
- 9.İşimde, temel becerilerimin ötesinde yeni şeyler öğrenmeye çalışırım.
- 10.İşimi yapmak için aktif olarak yeni beceriler keşfetmeye çalışırım.
- 11.İşyerinde genel becerilerimi geliştirme fırsatları ararım.
- 12.İşimde belirli bir uzmanlık alanını sürdürmeye yönelik çabalarımı artırırım.
- 13.İşimde, olumsuz iş sonuçlarını engellemeye yardımcı olan becerileri geliştirmeye çalışırım.
- 14.İşimin temel alanlarında bilgi sahibi olmaya özen gösteririm.
- 15.İşimde daha fazla görev üstlenmeye çalışırım.
- 16.Görevlerimi yapılarında veya sıralarında değişiklik yaparak daha kompleks/zengin hale getiririm.
- 17.Görevlerimi daha zorlayıcı (challenging) hale getirecek şekilde değiştiririm.
- 18.İşimdeki alacağım önemli kararların sayısını artırmaya çalışırım.
19. İşimdeki görevlerin kapsamını aktif olarak azaltırım.
20. Üzerinde çalıştığım bazı görevleri basitleştirmeye çalışırım.
21. İşimde bazı görevlerin zihinsel yoğunluğunu azaltmaya çalışırım.
- 22.İşimi ayrı görevler olarak düşünmektense bir bütün olarak düşünmeye odaklanırım.
- 23.İşimin çalıştığım şirketin hedeflerine nasıl katkı sağladığını düşünürüm.
- 24.İşimi genel olarak yeni bir şekilde görmenin yollarını düşünürüm.
- 25.İşimin topluma nasıl katkı sağlayabileceğini düşünürüm.

26.İşimin en iyi yönlerine odaklanarak, sevmediğim yönlerini görmezden gelmeye çalışırım.

27.İşimin farklı unsurlarını değerlendirerek hangi kısımlarının daha anlamlı olduğunu belirlerim

28.İşimi bir bütün olarak değil, ayrı görevlerden oluşan bir set olarak düşünmeye çalışırım.

İşten Ayrılma Niyeti Ölçeği: Lütfen yukarıda okuduğunuz senaryodaki şirkette çalıştığınızı hayal edin ve aşağıdaki ifadelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı değerlendiriniz.

(1=Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 5=Kesinlikle katılıyorum)

1.Bazen işimden ayrılmayı düşünürüm.

2.Büyük bir ihtimalle önümüzdeki yıl başka bir iş bakacağım.

3. Şu an yaptığım işten ayrılmak istiyorum.

Mükemmeliyetçilik ölçeği: Lütfen aşağıdaki her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyun ve verilen ifadelerin sizi ne kadar tanımladığını değerlendiriniz. (1= Asla, 6= Her zaman)

1.Mümkün olduğunca mükemmel olmaya çalışırım.

2.Her şeyde mükemmel olmak benim için önemlidir.

3.Yaptığım her şeyde mükemmel olma ihtiyacı hissederim.

4.Hedeflerim söz konusu olduğunda mükemmeliyetçiyim.

5.Her şeyi mükemmel yapmak isteğim vardır.

6.Her şey mükemmel gitmediğinde son derece stresli hissederim.

7.Mükemmel olamadığımda depresyona girerim.

8.Hata yaptığımda sinirlenirim.

9.Yüksek beklentileri yerine getiremediğimde hayal kırıklığına uğrarım.

10.Bir şey yanlış gittiğinde memnun olmam.

Demografik Sorular:

Yaş:

Cinsiyet:

☐ Kadın

☐ Erkek

☐ Diğer

☐ Belirtmek istemiyorum

Eğitim:

☐ Lise

☐ Lisans

☐ Yüksek lisans

☐ Doktora

☐ Diğer

Çalıştığınız pozisyon:

☐ Uzman yardımcısı

☐ Uzman

☐ Şef

☐ Yönetici

☐ Diğer

Çalıştığınız sektör:

☐ Hizmet

☐ Üretim

☐ Diğer

Toplam kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?

☐ 1 yıldan az

__1-5 yıl

__5-10 yıl

__10-15 yıl

__15 yıl ve üstü

Medeni durum:

__Bekar

__Evli

__Belirtmek istemiyorum



REFERENCES

- Abi Aad, A., Andrews, M. C., Maalouf, J. T., Kacmar, K. M., & Valle, M. (2021). Easing the multiplicative effects of abusive supervision. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 42(6), 899–911. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-02-2021-0066>
- Aboramadan, M., & Kundi, Y. M. (2022). Emotional culture of joy and happiness at work as a facet of wellbeing: A mediation of psychological safety and relational attachment. *Personnel Review*, 52(9), 2133–2152. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-04-2021-0285>
- Agarwal, U. A. (2019). Examining links between abusive supervision, PsyCap, LMX and outcomes. *Management Decision*, 57(5), 1304–1334. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MD-02-2017-0103>
- Ahmad Saufi, R., Aidara, S., Che Nawi, N. B., Permarupan, P. Y., Zainol, N. R. B., & Kakar, A. S. (2023). Turnover intention and its antecedents: The mediating role of work–life balance and the moderating role of job opportunity. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 14, 1137945. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1137945>
- Akram, Z., Ahmad, S., Akram, U., Khan, A. G., & Huo, B. (2024). Bearing the brunt: A daily diary examination of abusive supervision and the sustaining role of coworkers' support. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 35(5), 991–1013. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCMA-11-2023-0222>
- Al-Yagon, M. (2010). Maternal emotional resources and socio-emotional well-being of children with and without learning disabilities. *Family Relations*, 59(2), 152–169. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3729.2010.00592.x>
- Al-Yagon, M. (2011). Fathers' emotional resources and children's socioemotional and behavioral adjustment among children with learning disabilities. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 20(5), 569–584. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-010-9429-9>
- Arshad, M., Qasim, N., Reynaud, E., & Farooq, O. (2024). Religiosity as a buffer against the impact of abusive supervision on employee unethical behavior: A moderated mediation model. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 45(8), 1588–1606. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-12-2023-0670>
- Ashford, S. J., & Cummings, L. L. (1985). Proactive feedback seeking: The instrumental use of the information environment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 58(1), 67–79. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1985.tb00181.x>
- Ashkanasy, N. M., & Dorris, A. D. (2017). Emotions in the workplace. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 4, 67–90. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032516-113231>

- Asim, M., Liu, Z., Nadeem, M. A., Ghani, U., Khalid, J., & Xu, Y. (2023). Relationship of abusive supervision and employees' helping behaviors: Moderated-mediation perspective. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 34(2), 367–391. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCMA-11-2021-0185>
- Atwater, L., Kim, K. Y., Witt, A., Latheef, Z., Callison, K., Elkins, T. J., & Zheng, D. (2016). Reactions to abusive supervision: Examining the roles of emotions and gender in the USA. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(16), 1874–1899. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1088887>
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands- resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309–328. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115>
- Bakker, A. B., & Sanz-Vergel, A. I. (2013). Weekly work engagement and flourishing: The role of hindrance and challenge job demands. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(3), 397–409. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.06.008>
- Bamberger, P. A., & Bacharach, S. B. (2006). Abusive supervision and subordinate problem drinking: Taking resistance, stress and subordinate personality into account. *Human Relations*, 59(6), 723–752. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726706066852>
- Bandura, A., & McClelland, D. C. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Prentice Hall.
- Barrett, L. F. (2006). Solving the emotion paradox: Categorization and the experience of emotion. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 10(1), 20–46. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr1001_2
- Barsade, S. G. (2002). The ripple effect: Emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47(4), 644–675. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3094912>
- Barsade, S. G., & Gibson, D. E. (2007). Why does affect matter in organizations? *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21(1), 36–59. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2007.24286163>
- Battisti, E., Alfiero, S., & Leonidou, E. (2022). Remote working and digital transformation during the COVID-19 pandemic: Economic–financial impacts and psychological drivers for employees. *Journal of Business Research*, 150, 38–50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2022.06.010>
- Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., Nathan DeWall, C., & Liqing Zhang. (2007). How emotion shapes behavior: Feedback, anticipation, and reflection, rather than direct causation. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 11(2), 167–203. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868307301033>

- Bayhan Karapinar, P., Tayfur Ekmekci, O., Metin Camgoz, S., López Bohle, S., & Miski Aydin, E. (2024). Et tu brute? The roles of subordinate–supervisor similarities on the relationship between abusive supervision and employee silence behavior: A study from the subordinates’ perspectives. *Behavioral Sciences*, 14(7). <https://doi.org/10.3390/bs14070582>
- Bennett, A. A., Gabriel, A. S., Calderwood, C., Dahling, J. J., & Trougakos, J. P. (2016). Better together? Examining profiles of employee recovery experiences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101(12), 1635–1654. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000157>
- Bhattacharjee, A., & Sarkar, A. (2024). Abusive supervision and cyberloafing: An investigation based on Stressor-Emotion-CWB theory. *Information Technology & People*, 37(3), 1126–1155. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ITP-05-2022-0353>
- Biggs, A., Brough, P., & Drummond, S. (2017). Lazarus and Folkman’s psychological stress and coping theory. In C. L. Cooper & J. C. Quick (Eds.), *The handbook of stress and health: A guide to research and practice* (pp. 349–364). Wiley Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118993811.ch21>
- Bindl, U. K., Unsworth, K. L., Gibson, C. B., & Stride, C. B. (2019). Job crafting revisited: Implications of an extended framework for active changes at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 104(5), 605–628. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000362>
- Blau, P. M. (1964). Justice in social exchange. *Sociological Inquiry*, 34(2), 193–206. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-682X.1964.tb00583.x>
- Boehnlein, P., & Baum, M. (2022). Does job crafting always lead to employee well-being and performance? Meta-analytical evidence on the moderating role of societal culture. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 33(4), 647–685. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2020.1737177>
- Bono, J. E., & Ilies, R. (2006). Charisma, positive emotions and mood contagion. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(4), 317–334. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.04.008>
- Bortolon, C., Lopes, B., Capdevielle, D., Macioce, V., & Raffard, S. (2019). The roles of cognitive avoidance, rumination and negative affect in the association between abusive supervision in the workplace and non-clinical paranoia in a sample of workers working in France. *Psychiatry Research*, 271, 581–589. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2018.11.065>
- Bova, N., De Jonge, J., & Guglielmi, D. (2015). The demand-induced strain compensation questionnaire: A cross-national validation study. *Stress and Health*, 31(3), 236–244. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2550>
- Breevaart, K., Wisse, B. M., & Schyns, B. (2022). Trapped at work: The barriers model of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 36(3), 936–954. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2021.0007>

- Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2002). Organizational behavior: Affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53(1), 279–307. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.53.100901.135156>
- Brockner, J., & Higgins, E. T. (2001). Regulatory focus theory: Implications for the study of emotions at work. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86(1), 35–66. <https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.2001.2972>
- Brough, P., Drummond, S., & Biggs, A. (2018). Job support, coping, and control: Assessment of simultaneous impacts within the occupational stress process. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 23(2), 188–197. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000074>
- Bruning, P. F., & Campion, M. A. (2018). A role–resource approach–avoidance model of job crafting: A multimethod integration and extension of job crafting theory. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61, 499–522. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2015.0604>
- Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, G. D., & Klesh, J. R. (1983). Assessing the attitudes and perceptions of organizational members. In S. E. Seashore, E. E. Lawler, P. H. Mirvis & C. Cammann (Eds.), *Assessing organizational change: A guide to methods, measures, and practices*. John Wiley.
- Campos, J., Walle, E., Dahl, A., & Main, A. (2011). Reconceptualizing emotion regulation. *Emotion Review*, 3(1), 26–35. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073910380975>
- Chan, P. H. H., Howard, J., Eva, N., & Tse, H. H. M. (2022). A systematic review of at-work recovery and a framework for future research. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 137, 103747. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2022.103747>
- Chang, P.-C., Xiaoxiao, G., & Wu, T. (2021). Sense of calling, job crafting, spiritual leadership and work meaningfulness: A moderated mediation model. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 42(5), 690–704. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-09-2020-0392>
- Chaudhry, I. S., & Espinosa, A. (2024). A nexus of affective events theory and viable system model to comprehend affective work environment holistically – an empirical investigation. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 11(4), 1043–1065. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JOEPP-09-2023-0385>
- Chen, L., Ye, Z., Shafait, Z., & Zhu, H. (2022). The effect of abusive supervision on employee creativity: The mediating role of negative affect and moderating role of interpersonal harmony. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.796355>
- Cheng, B. H., & McCarthy, J. M. (2013). “Managing work, family, and school roles: Disengagement strategies can help and hinder”: Correction to Cheng and McCarthy (2013). *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 18(4), 448–448. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0034240>

- Cheng, B., Lin, H., & Kong, Y. (2023). Challenge or hindrance? How and when organizational artificial intelligence adoption influences employee job crafting. *Journal of Business Research*, 164, 113987. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2023.113987>
- Cooks, J. A., & Ciesla, J. A. (2019). The impact of perfectionism, performance feedback, and stress on affect and depressive symptoms. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 146, 62–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.03.048>
- Crant, J. M. (2000). Proactive behavior in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 435–462. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600304>
- Dasborough, M. T., Sinclair, M., Russell-Bennett, R., & Tombs, A. (2008). Measuring emotion: Methodological issues and alternatives. In N. M. Ashkanasy & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Research companion to emotion in organizations* (pp. 197–208). Edward Elgar Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.4337/9781848443778.00021>
- de Bloom, J., Kinnunen, U., & Korpela, K. (2014). Exposure to nature versus relaxation during lunch breaks and recovery from work: Development and design of an intervention study to improve workers' health, well-being, work performance and creativity. *BMC Public Health*, 14(1), 488. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-14-488>
- de Bloom, J., Kinnunen, U., & Korpela, K. (2015). Recovery processes during and after work: Associations with health, work engagement, and job performance. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 57(7), 732–742. <https://doi.org/10.1097/JOM.0000000000000475>
- de Bloom, J., Vaziri, H., Tay, L., & Kujanpää, M. (2020). An identity-based integrative needs model of crafting: Crafting within and across life domains. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 105(12), 1423–1446. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000495>
- de Jonge, J., & Dormann, C. (2003). The DISC Model: Demand-induced strain compensation mechanisms in job stress. In M. F. Dollard, A. H. Winefield, & H. R. Winefield (Eds.), *Occupational stress in the service professions* (pp. 43-74). Taylor & Francis.
- de Jonge, J., Le Blanc, P. M., Peeters, M. C. W., & Noordam, H. (2008). Emotional job demands and the role of matching job resources: A cross-sectional survey study among health care workers. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 45(10), 1460-1469. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2007.11.002>
- de Jonge, J., Spoor, E., Sonnentag, S., Dormann, C., & van den Tooren, M. (2012). “Take a break?!” off-job recovery, job demands, and job resources as predictors of health, active learning, and creativity. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 21(3), 321–348. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2011.576009>

- Demerouti, E. (2014). Design your own job through job crafting. *European Psychologist*, 19, 237–247. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1016-9040/a000188>
- Demerouti, E. (2025). Job demands-resources and conservation of resources theories: How do they help to explain employee well-being and future job design? *Journal of Business Research*, 192, 115296. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2025.115296>
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 499–512. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.499>
- Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behavior and employee voice: Is the door really open? *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(4), 869–884. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2007.26279183>
- Dutton, J. E., & Ragins, B. R. (Eds.). (2007). *Exploring positive relationships at work: Building a theoretical and research foundation*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Ekmekcioglu, E. B., & Nabawanuka, H. (2023). How discretionary HR practices influence employee job satisfaction: The mediating role of job crafting. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 45(3), 776–793. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-07-2022-0326>
- Elliot, A. J. (1999). Approach and avoidance motivation and achievement goals. *Educational Psychologist*, 34(3), 169–189. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep3403_3
- Emerson, R. M. (1962). Power-dependence relations. In M. E. Olsen, M. N. Marger, & V. Fonseca (Eds.), *Power in Modern Societies* (pp. 5–11). Routledge.
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, 41(4), 1149–1160. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149>
- Fedewa, B. A., Burns, L. R., & Gomez, A. A. (2005). Positive and negative perfectionism and the shame/guilt distinction: Adaptive and maladaptive characteristics. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 38(7), 1609–1619. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2004.09.026>
- Feuerhahn, N., Bellingrath, S., & Kudielka, B. M. (2013). The interplay of matching and non-matching job demands and resources on emotional exhaustion among teachers. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 5(2), 171–192. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aphw.12002>
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.

- Fischer, T., Tian, A. W., Lee, A., & Hughes, D. J. (2021). Abusive supervision: A systematic review and fundamental rethink. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 32(6). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2021.101540>
- Folkman, S. (2020). Stress: appraisal and Coping. In M. D. Gellman (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Behavioral Medicine* (pp. 2177–2179). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-39903-0_215
- Folkman, S., Lazarus, R. S., Dunkel-Schetter, C., DeLongis, A., & Gruen, R. J. (1986). Dynamics of a stressful encounter: Cognitive appraisal, coping, and encounter outcomes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50(5), 992–1003. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.50.5.992>
- Frijda, N. H. (1986). *The emotions*. Editions de la Maison des Sciences de l'Homme.
- Frijda, N. H. (1993). Moods, emotion episodes, and emotions. In M. Lewis & J. M. Haviland (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (pp. 381–403). The Guilford Press.
- Frost, R. O., Marten, P., Lahart, C., & Rosenblate, R. (1990). The dimensions of perfectionism. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 14(5), 449–468. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01172967>
- Gallegos, I., Berger, R., Guardia-Olmos, J., & Escartín, J. (2021). The effect of daily fluctuation of abusive supervision over employees positive and negative emotions, and recovery experience. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 25. <https://doi.org/10.1017/SJP.2021.49>
- Gallegos, I., Guàrdia-Olmos, J., & Berger, R. (2022). Abusive supervision: A systematic review and new research approaches. *Frontiers in Communication*, 6. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fcomm.2021.640908>
- Geisler, M., Berthelsen, H., & Hakanen, J. J. (2019). No job demand is an island – Interaction effects between emotional demands and other types of job demands. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 873. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00873>
- Gençöz, T. (2000). Pozitif ve negatif duygu ölçeği: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*, 15(46), 19–28.
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2010). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference, 17.0 update*. Allyn & Bacon.
- Greenbaum, R. L., Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., & Priesemuth, M. (2013). To act out, to withdraw, or to constructively resist? Employee reactions to supervisor abuse of customers and the moderating role of employee moral identity. *Human Relations*, 66(7), 925–950. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726713482992>
- Greenglass, E., Schwarzer, R., Jakubiec, D., Fiksenbaum, L. M., & Taubert, S. (2014). *The Proactive Coping Inventory (PCI)* [Database record]. APA PsycTests. <https://doi.org/10.1037/t07292-000>

- Gross, J. J. (1998). Antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation: Divergent consequences for experience, expression, and physiology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(1), 224–237. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.74.1.224>
- Guo, D., Cheng, J., & Zaigham, G. H. K. (2024). The hidden cost of abusive supervision: Rudeness, sabotage, and ethics. *BMC Psychology*, 12(1), 627. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-024-02060-6>
- Gürbüz, S., & Bekmezci, M. (2012). İnsan kaynakları yönetimi uygulamalarının bilgi işçilerinin işten ayrılma niyetine etkisinde duygusal bağlılığın aracılık ve düzenleyicilik rolü. *İstanbul Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi Dergisi*, 41(2), 189–213.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1975). Development of the job diagnostic survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 159–170. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0076546>
- Hair, J. F. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis*. Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2022). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)* (3rd ed.). Sage. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-80519-7>
- Halbesleben, J. R. B. (2010). Spousal support and coping among married coworkers: Merging the transaction stress and conservation of resources models. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 17(4), 384–406. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020500>
- Halbesleben, J. R. B., Neveu, J.-P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. (2014). Getting to the “COR”: Understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. *Journal of Management*, 40(5), 1334–1364. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314527130>
- Hao, Q., Wei, K., & Zhang, B. (2022). How to attenuate the effects of abusive supervision on knowledge hiding: The neutralizing roles of coworker support and individual characteristics. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 26(7), 1807–1825. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JKM-02-2021-0167>
- Harari, D., Swider, B. W., Steed, L. B., & Breidenthal, A. P. (2018). Is perfect good? A meta-analysis of perfectionism in the workplace. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 103(10), 1121–1144. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000324>
- Harju, L. K., Hakanen, J. J., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2016). Can job crafting reduce job boredom and increase work engagement? A three-year cross-lagged panel study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 95–96, 11–20. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.07.001>
- Herman, J. L., & Tetrick, L. E. (2009). Problem-focused versus emotion-focused coping strategies and repatriation adjustment. *Human Resource Management*, 48(1), 69–88. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20267>

- Hewitt, P. L., & Flett, G. L. (1991). Perfectionism in the self and social contexts: Conceptualization, assessment, and association with psychopathology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(3), 456–470. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.60.3.456>
- Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist*, 52(12), 1280-1300. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.52.12.1280>
- Higgins, E. T. (1998). Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (pp. 1–46). Academic Press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60381-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60381-0)
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44(3), 513-524. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of General Psychology*, 6(4), 307-324. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.6.4.307>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2011). Conservation of resource caravans and engaged settings. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(1), 116–122. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.2010.02016.x>
- Hobfoll, S. E., Freedy, J. R., Green, B. L., & Solomon, S. D. (1996). Coping in reaction to extreme stress: The roles of resource loss and resource availability. In M. Zeidner & N. S. Endler (Eds.), *Handbook of coping: Theory, research, applications* (pp. 322–349). John Wiley & Sons.
- Hobfoll, S. E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J.-P., & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of resources in the organizational context: The reality of resources and their consequences. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 5(1). <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104640>
- Holman, D., Escaffi- Schwarz, M., Vasquez, C. A., Irmer, J. P., & Zapf, D. (2023). Does job crafting affect employee outcomes via job characteristics? A meta-analytic test of a key job crafting mechanism. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 97(1), 47–73. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12450>
- Hom, P. W., Lee, T. W., Shaw, J. D., & Hausknecht, J. P. (2017). One hundred years of employee turnover theory and research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(3), 530–545. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000103>
- Hom, P. W., Mitchell, T. R., Lee, T. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (2012). Reviewing employee turnover: Focusing on proximal withdrawal states and an expanded criterion. *Psychological Bulletin*, 138(5), 831–858. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027983>

- Hong, Y., Chen, M., Chen, C., & Qiu, M. (2024). Abusive supervision and nursing students' intention to leave the nursing profession: A moderated mediation model of emotional exhaustion and the nurse-patient relationship. *BMC Nursing*, 23(1), 361. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12912-024-02025-5>
- Hong, Y.-H., Ford, M. T., & Jong, J. (2024). Employee benefit availability, use, and subjective evaluation: A meta-analysis of relationships with perceived organizational support, affective organizational commitment, withdrawal, job satisfaction, and well-being. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 109(12), 1921–1947. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0001202>
- Hoyle, R. H. (2010). Personality and self-regulation. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Handbook of personality and self-regulation* (pp. 1–18). Wiley Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444318111.ch1>
- Huang, L.-C., Lin, C.-C., & Lu, S.-C. (2020). The relationship between abusive supervision and employee's reaction: The job demands-resources model perspective. *Personnel Review*, 49(9), 2035–2054. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-01-2019-0002>
- Huang, S., Wang, W., & Yin, H. (2016). The missing links between emotional job demand and exhaustion and satisfaction: Testing a moderated mediation model. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 22(1), 80–95. <https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2015.21>
- Hulin, C. L., Roznowski, M., & Hachiya, D. (1985). Alternative opportunities and withdrawal decisions: Empirical and theoretical discrepancies and an integration. *Psychological Bulletin*, 97(2), 233–250. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.97.2.233>
- Ilies, R., Curşeu, Petru L., Dimotakis, Nikolaos, & Spitzmuller, M. (2013). Leaders' emotional expressiveness and their behavioural and relational authenticity: Effects on followers. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 22(1), 4–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2011.626199>
- Isen, A. M. (1987). Positive affect, cognitive processes, and social behavior. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (pp. 203–253). Academic Press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60415-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60415-3)
- Jiang, B., Qiu, H., Liu, S., & Zhang, J. (2024). Employee perceived overqualification and innovation performance: The roles of self-oriented perfectionism and job crafting. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 15. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2024.1398163>
- Johnson, S. K. (2008). I second that emotion: Effects of emotional contagion and affect at work on leader and follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(1), 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.12.001>
- Jones, E. E., & Kelly, J. R. (2009). No pain, no gains: Negative mood leads to process gains in idea-generation groups. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 13(2), 75–88. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013812>

- Junker, T. L., Fong, C. Y. M., Gorgievski, M., Gawke, J. C. L., & Bakker, A. B. (2023). From job crafting to job quitting? Testing a wise proactivity perspective. *Career Development International*, 28(6/7), 666–685. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-06-2022-0163>
- Kabasakal, H., Dastmalchian, A., Karacay, G., & Bayraktar, S. (2012). Leadership and culture in the MENA region: An analysis of the GLOBE project. *Special Issue: Leadership in a Global Context*, 47(4), 519–529. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2012.01.005>
- Kim, H., Im, J., Qu, H., & NamKoong, J. (2018). Antecedent and consequences of job crafting: An organizational level approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 30(3), 1863–1881. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-01-2017-0040>
- Kim, J. K., Holtz, B. C., & Hu, B. (2020). Rising above: Investigating employee exemplification as a response to the experience of shame induced by abusive supervision. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 93(4), e12327. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12327>
- Kim, T., Jung- Eun Yoo, J., Lee, G., & Kim, J. (2012). Emotional intelligence and emotional labor acting strategies among frontline hotel employees. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 24(7), 1029–1046. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596111211258900>
- Kooij, D. T. A. M., van Woerkom, M., Wilkenloh, J., Dorenbosch, L., & Denissen, J. J. A. (2017). Job crafting towards strengths and interests: The effects of a job crafting intervention on person–job fit and the role of age. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102, 971–981. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000194>
- Kundi, Y. M., Hollet-Haudebert, S., & Peterson, J. (2022). Career adaptability, job crafting and subjective career success: The moderating roles of lone wolf personality and positive perfectionism. *Personnel Review*, 51(3), 945–965. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-04-2020-0260>
- Kwok, S. Y. C. L., Cheng, L., & Wong, D. F. K. (2015). Family emotional support, positive psychological capital and job satisfaction among Chinese white-collar workers. *Journal of Happiness Studies: An Interdisciplinary Forum on Subjective Well-Being*, 16(3). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-014-9522-7>
- Lam, L. W., Xu, A. J., & Loi, R. (2018). Is emotional engagement possible in emotionally demanding jobs? The role of leader-member exchange (LMX). *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 17(1), 42–52. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000194>
- Lanaj, K., Chang, C.-H. “Daisy,” & Johnson, R. E. (2012). Regulatory focus and work-related outcomes: A review and meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 138(5), 998–1034. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027723>
- Larsen, J. T., McGraw, A. P., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2001). Can people feel happy and sad at the same time? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(4), 684–696. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.81.4.684>

- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. Springer Publishing Company.
- Leana, C., Appelbaum, E., & Shevchuk, I. (2009). Work process and quality of care in early childhood education: The role of job crafting. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(6), 1169–1192. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2009.47084651>
- Lee, S., Kim, S. L., & Yun, S. (2018). A moderated mediation model of the relationship between abusive supervision and knowledge sharing. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 29(3), 403–413. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.09.001>
- Lee, S., Yun, S., & Srivastava, A. (2013). Evidence for a curvilinear relationship between abusive supervision and creativity in South Korea. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(5), 724–731. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.07.002>
- Lee, T. W., Hom, P., Eberly, M., & Li, J. (Jason). (2018). Managing employee retention and turnover with 21st century ideas. *Organizational Dynamics*, 47(2), 88–98. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2017.08.004>
- Lee, T. W., Hom, P. W., Eberly, M. B., & Mitchell, T. R. (2017). On the next decade of research in voluntary employee turnover. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 31(3), 201–221. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2016.0123>
- Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (1994). An alternative approach: The unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover. *The Academy of Management Review*, 19(1), 51–89. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258835>
- Lian, H., Brown, D. J., Ferris, D. L., Liang, L. H., Keeping, L. M., & Morrison, R. (2014). Abusive supervision and retaliation: A self-control framework. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(1), 116–139. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0977>
- Liang, L. H., Hanig, S., Evans, R., Brown, D. J., & Lian, H. (2018). Why is your boss making you sick? A longitudinal investigation modeling time-lagged relations between abusive supervision and employee physical health. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(9), 1050–1065. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2248>
- Liao, Z., Lee, H. W., Johnson, R. E., Song, Z., & Liu, Y. (2021). Seeing from a short-term perspective: When and why daily abusive supervisor behavior yields functional and dysfunctional consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 106(3), 377–398. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000508>
- Lichtenthaler, P. W., & Fischbach, A. (2019). A meta-analysis on promotion- and prevention-focused job crafting. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 28(1), 30–50. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2018.1527767>

- Liu, B., Ma, Y., Wang, H., Li, F., & Liu, G. (2024). Abusive supervision and organizational citizenship behavior: A meta-analysis based on the perspective of multiple theories. *Current Psychology*, 43(6), 5341–5354. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-023-04738-3>
- Liu, C., Sun, S., & Dube, F. N. M. (2021). The buffering effects of subordinates' forgiveness and communication openness on abusive supervision and voice behavior. *Sage Open*, 11(3), 21582440211041081. <https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440211041081>
- Liu, D., Liao, H., & Loi, R. (2012). The dark side of leadership: A three-level investigation of the cascading effect of abusive supervision on employee creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(5), 1187–1212. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0400>
- Liu, Y., Prati, L. M., Perrewé, P. L., & Ferris, G. R. (2008). The relationship between emotional resources and emotional labor: An exploratory study. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 38, 2410–2439. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2008.00398.x>
- Lu, S., Wang, L., Ni, D., Shapiro, D. L., & Zheng, X. (2023). Mitigating the harms of abusive supervision on employee thriving: The buffering effects of employees' social-network centrality. *Human Relations*, 76(9), 1441–1473. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00187267221091469>
- Mackey, J. D., Frieder, R. E., Brees, J. R., & Martinko, M. J. (2017). Abusive supervision: A meta-analysis and empirical review. *Journal of Management*, 43(6), 1940–1965. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315573997>
- Mahmood, A., Seth, M., Srivastava, S., Jain, A. K., & Laaser, K. (2024). A study on abusive supervision – turnover intention relationship: A mediated moderated model of voice behavior and workplace friendship. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 45(8), 1315–1334. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-10-2023-0596>
- March, J. G., & Simon, H. A. (1958). *Organizations*. Wiley.
- Martin, L. L., Ward, D. W., Achee, J. W., & Wyer, R. S. (1993). Mood as input: People have to interpret the motivational implications of their moods. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64(3), 317–326. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.64.3.317>
- Masood, H., Karakowsky, L., & Podolsky, M. (2021). Exploring job crafting as a response to abusive supervision. *Career Development International*, 26(2), 174–200. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-06-2020-0163>
- Matta, F. K., Erol- Korkmaz, H. T., Johnson, R. E., & Biçaksiz, P. (2014). Significant work events and counterproductive work behavior: The role of fairness, emotions, and emotion regulation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(7), 920-944. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1934>

- Mawritz, M. B., Dust, S. B., & Resick, C. J. (2014). Hostile climate, abusive supervision, and employee coping: Does conscientiousness matter? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(4), 737–747. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035863>
- May, D., Wesche, J. S., Heinitz, K., & Kerschreiter, R. (2014). Coping with destructive leadership: Putting forward an integrated theoretical framework for the interaction process between leaders and followers. *Zeitschrift Für Psychologie*, 222(4), 203–213. <https://doi.org/10.1027/2151-2604/a000187>
- Meijman, T. F., & Mulder, G. (1998). Psychological aspects of workload. In P. J. D. Drenth, H. Thierry, & C. J. de Wolff (Eds.), *Handbook of work and organizational: Work psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 5–33). Psychology Press/Erlbaum (UK) Taylor & Francis.
- Michalak, R., Kiffin-Petersen, S., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2017). Coping with interpersonal mistreatment: Not a case of “either or,” but rather “it depends.” In C. L. Cooper & J. C. Quick (Eds.), *The handbook of stress and health: A guide to research and practice* (pp. 365–387). Wiley Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118993811.ch22>
- Mirabito, A. M., Solnet, D., Cockburn, B. S., Golubovskaya, M., Hu, X. (Judy), McClelland, L. E., & Robinson, R. N. S. (2025). Crafting the road to well-being for precarious frontline workers: Explicating the role of jolts and resources. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 157, 104097. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2025.104097>
- Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62(2), 237–240. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.62.2.237>
- Montani, F., Dagenais-Desmarais, V., Giorgi, G., & Grégoire, S. (2018). A conservation of resources perspective on negative affect and innovative work behaviour: The role of affect activation and mindfulness. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 33(1), 123–139. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-016-9480-7>
- Naeem, M., Ozuem, W., Howell, K., & Ranfagni, S. (2023). A step-by-step process of thematic analysis to develop a conceptual model in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 22, 16094069231205789. <https://doi.org/10.1177/16094069231205789>
- Nauman, S., Raja, U., Haq, I. U., & Bilal, W. (2019). Job demand and employee well-being. *Personnel Review*, 48(5), 1150–1168. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-04-2018-0127>
- Nielsen, K., & Abildgaard, J. S. (2012). The development and validation of a job crafting measure for use with blue-collar workers. *Work & Stress*, 26(4), 365–384. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2012.733543>
- Niessen, C., Weseler, D., & Kostova, P. (2016). When and why do individuals craft their jobs? The role of individual motivation and work characteristics for job crafting. *Human Relations*, 69(6), 1287–1313. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726715610642>

- Niu, W., Wu, W., & Ma, J. (2022). LMX and employee turnover intention: A social identity approach. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 63(3), 219–228. <https://doi.org/10.1111/sjop.12800>
- Niven, K. (2016). Why do people engage in interpersonal emotion regulation at work? *Organizational Psychology Review*, 6(4), 305–323. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2041386615612544>
- Ocampo, A. C. G., Reyes, M. L., Chen, Y., Restubog, S. L. D., Chih, Y.-Y., Chua-Garcia, L., & Guan, P. (2020). The role of internship participation and conscientiousness in developing career adaptability: A five-wave growth mixture model analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 120, 103426. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103426>
- Oh, J. K., & Farh, C. I. C. (2017). An emotional process theory of how subordinates appraise, experience, and respond to abusive supervision over time. *The Academy of Management Review*, 42(2), 207–232. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2014.0347>
- Ouyang, K., Lam, W., & Wang, W. (2015). Roles of gender and identification on abusive supervision and proactive behavior. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 32(3), 671–691. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-015-9410-7>
- Park, J. H., Carter, M. Z., DeFrank, R. S., & Deng, Q. (2018). Abusive supervision, psychological distress, and silence: The effects of gender dissimilarity between supervisors and subordinates. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 153(3), 775–792. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3384-3>
- Park, S., & Park, S. (2023). Contextual antecedents of job crafting: Review and future research agenda. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 47(1/2), 141–165. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-06-2021-0071>
- Park, Y., & Fritz, C. (2015). Spousal recovery support, recovery experiences, and life satisfaction crossover among dual-earner couples. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(2), 557–566. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037894>
- Park, Y., & Haun, V. C. (2017). Dual-earner couples' weekend recovery support, state of recovery, and work engagement: Work-linked relationship as a moderator. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 22(4). <https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000045>
- Parker, A., Waldstrøm, C., & Shah, N. P. (2023). The coevolution of emotional job demands and work-based social ties and their effect on performance. *Journal of Management*, 49(5), 1601–1632. <https://doi.org/10.1177/01492063221087636>
- Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. (2010). Making things happen: A model of proactive motivation. *Journal of Management*, 36(4), 827–856. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310363732>

- Parker, S. K., & Liao, J. (2016). Wise proactivity: How to be proactive and wise in building your career. *Organizational Dynamics*, 45(3), 217–227. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2016.07.007>
- Parker, S. K., Wang, Y., & Liao, J. (2019). When is proactivity wise? A review of factors that influence the individual outcomes of proactive behavior. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 6(6), 221–248. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012218-015302>
- Peng, K. Z., Wong, C., & Che, H. (2010). The missing link between emotional demands and exhaustion. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(7), 777–798. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683941011075300>
- Petrou, P., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2015). Job crafting in changing organizations: Antecedents and implications for exhaustion and performance. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 20(4), 470–480. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039003>
- Podsakoff, N. P., LePine, J. A., & LePine, M. A. (2007). Differential challenge stressor-hindrance stressor relationships with job attitudes, turnover intentions, turnover, and withdrawal behavior: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(2), 438–454. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.438>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2016). Recommendations for creating better concept definitions in the organizational, behavioral, and social sciences. *Organizational Research Methods*, 19(2), 159–203. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428115624965>
- Pradhan, S., & Gupta, P. (2021). Abusive supervision and work-family conflict: An empirical investigation of Indian professionals. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 32(3), 493–513. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCMA-07-2020-0130>
- Pradhan, S., & Jena, L. K. (2018). Abusive supervision and job outcomes: A moderated mediation study. *Evidence-Based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, 6(2), 137–152. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EBHRM-06-2017-0030>
- Pradhan, S., Srivastava, A., & Jena, L. K. (2020). Abusive supervision and intention to quit: Exploring multi-mediational approaches. *Personnel Review*, 49(6), 1269–1286. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-12-2018-0496>
- Reh, S., Wieck, C., & Scheibe, S. (2021). Experience, vulnerability, or overload? Emotional job demands as moderator in trajectories of emotional well-being and job satisfaction across the working lifespan. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 106(11), 1734–1749. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000859>
- Reinecke, L., Klatt, J., & Krämer, N. C. (2011). Entertaining media use and the satisfaction of recovery needs: Recovery outcomes associated with the use of interactive and noninteractive entertaining media. *Media Psychology*, 14(2), 192–215. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15213269.2011.573466>

- Restubog, S. L. D., Scott, K. L., & Zagenczyk, T. J. (2011). When distress hits home: The role of contextual factors and psychological distress in predicting employees' responses to abusive supervision. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(4), 713–729. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021593>
- Rubenstein, A. L., Eberly, M. B., Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (2018). Surveying the forest: A meta- analysis, moderator investigation, and future- oriented discussion of the antecedents of voluntary employee turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, 71(1), 23–65. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12226>
- Rudolph, C. W., Katz, I. M., Lavigne, K. N., & Zacher, H. (2017). Job crafting: A meta-analysis of relationships with individual differences, job characteristics, and work outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 102, 112–138. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.05.008>
- Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23(2), 224–253. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2392563>
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3), 185–211. <https://doi.org/10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG>
- Sawhney, G., Klinefelter, Z., & Britt, T. W. (2018). Integrating coping and recovery: Review and recommendations for future research. *Journal of Applied Biobehavioral Research*, 23(4), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jabr.12156>
- Scholze, A., & Hecker, A. (2024). The job demands-resources model as a theoretical lens for the bright and dark side of digitization. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 155, 108177. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2024.108177>
- Schyns, B., & Schilling, J. (2013). How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(1), 138–158. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.001>
- Seo, M.-G., Barrett, L. F., & Bartunek, J. M. (2004). The role of affective experience in work motivation. *The Academy of Management Review*, 29(3), 423–439. <https://doi.org/10.2307/20159052>
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7(4), 422–445. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.7.4.422>
- Siong, Z. M. B., Mellor, D., Moore, K. A., & Firth, L. (2006). Predicting intention to quit in the call centre industry: Does the retail model fit? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(3), 231–243. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940610659579>
- Smith, M. M., Sherry, S. B., Vidovic, V., Saklofske, D. H., Stoeber, J., & Benoit, A. (2019). Perfectionism and the five-factor model of personality: A meta-analytic review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 23(4), 367–390. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868318814973>

- Smith, T. A., Boulamatsi, A., Dimotakis, N., Tepper, B. J., Runnalls, B. A., Reina, C. S., & Lucianetti, L. (2022). "How dare you?!": A self- verification perspective on how performance influences the effects of abusive supervision on job embeddedness and subsequent turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, 75(3), 645–674. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12494>
- Sonnentag, S. (2001). Work, recovery activities, and individual well-being: A diary study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6(3), 196–210. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.3.196>
- Sonnentag, S., & Fritz, C. (2007). The recovery experience questionnaire: Development and validation of a measure for assessing recuperation and unwinding from work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12(3), 204–221. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.3.204>
- Sonnentag, S., & Fritz, C. (2015). Recovery from job stress: The stressor-detachment model as an integrative framework. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(1), 72–103. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1924>
- Sonnentag, S., & Geurts, S. A. E. (2009). Methodological issues in recovery research. In S. Sonnentag, P. L. Perrewé, & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *Current perspectives on job-stress recovery* (pp. 1–36). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. [https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-3555\(2009\)0000007004](https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-3555(2009)0000007004)
- Sonnentag, S., Venz, L., & Casper, A. (2017). Advances in recovery research: What have we learned? What should be done next? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 22(3), 365–380. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000079>
- Stempel, C. R., & Rigotti, T. (2018). Leaders' gender, perceived abusive supervision and health. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 9, 2427. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02427>
- Sternberg, R. J. (1998). A balance theory of wisdom. *Review of General Psychology*, 2(4), 347–365. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.2.4.347>
- Stoeber, J. (2018). The psychology of perfectionism: Critical issues, open questions, and future directions. In J. Stoeber (Ed.), *The psychology of perfectionism: Theory, research, applications* (pp. 333–352). Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.
- Stoeber, J., & Corr, P. J. (2017). Perfectionism, personality, and future-directed thinking: Further insights from revised reinforcement sensitivity theory. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 105, 78–83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.09.041>
- Stoeber, J., & Gaudreau, P. (2017). The advantages of partialling perfectionistic strivings and perfectionistic concerns: Critical issues and recommendations. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 104, 379–386. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.08.039>

- Stoeber, J., & Janssen, D. P. (2011). Perfectionism and coping with daily failures: Positive reframing helps achieve satisfaction at the end of the day. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping*, 24(5), 477–497. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10615806.2011.562977>
- Stoeber, J., Kempe, T., & Keogh, E. J. (2008). Facets of self-oriented and socially prescribed perfectionism and feelings of pride, shame, and guilt following success and failure. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 44(7), 1506–1516. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2008.01.007>
- Stoeber, J., & Otto, K. (2006). Positive conceptions of perfectionism: Approaches, evidence, challenges. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 10(4), 295–319. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr1004_2
- Stoeber, J., Otto, K., Pescheck, E., Becker, C., & Stoll, O. (2007). Perfectionism and competitive anxiety in athletes: Differentiating striving for perfection and negative reactions to imperfection. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42(6), 959–969. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2006.09.006>
- Sungu, L. J., Hu, E., & Weng, Q. (2020). Goal commitment buffers the negative effects of perceived abusive supervision. *The Journal of Psychology*, 154(4), 273–291. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.2019.1709403>
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). *An integrative theory of intergroup conflict*. In W. G. Austin, & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33-37). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- ten Brummelhuis, L. L., & Bakker, A. B. (2012). A resource perspective on the work–home interface: The work–home resources model. *American Psychologist*, 67(7), 545–556. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027974>
- Teoh, M. W., Wang, Y., & Kwek, A. (2019). Coping with emotional labor in high stress hospitality work environments. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 28(8), 883–904. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2019.1571979>
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2), 178–190. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1556375>
- Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 261–289. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307300812>
- Tepper, B. J., Simon, L., & Park, H. M. (2017). Abusive supervision. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 4, 123–152. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-041015-062539>
- Terry-Short, L. A., Owens, R. G., Slade, P. D., & Dewey, M. E. (1995). Positive and negative perfectionism. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 18(5), 663–668. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869\(94\)00192-U](https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(94)00192-U)

- Tews, M. J., Michel, J. W., & Stafford, K. (2019). Abusive coworker treatment, coworker support, and employee turnover. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 26(4), 413–423.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051818781812>
- Thacker, R. A., & Stoner, J. (2012). Supervisors' instrumental and emotional influences on subordinate help-seeking behavior: An exploratory study. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 42(1), 40–61.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2011.00870.x>
- Thin, S., Nakpun, T., Nitadpakorn, S., Sorofman, B., & Kittisopee, T. (2021). What drives pharmacists' turnover intention: A systematic review. *Pharmacy Practice-Granada*, 19(4), 2559.
<https://doi.org/10.18549/PharmPract.2021.4.2559>
- Thoresen, C. J., Kaplan, S. A., Barsky, A. P., Warren, C. R., & de Chermont, K. (2003). The affective underpinnings of job perceptions and attitudes: a meta-analytic review and integration. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(6), 914–945.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.129.6.914>
- Tims, M., & Bakker, A. B. (2010a). Job crafting: Towards a new model of individual job redesign. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36, 1–9.
<https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v36i2.841>
- Tims, M., & Bakker, A. B. (2010b). Job crafting: Towards a new model of individual job redesign. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36, 1–9.
<https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v36i2.841>
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2012a). Development and validation of the job crafting scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(1), 173–186.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.05.009>
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2012b). Development and validation of the job crafting scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(1), 173–186.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.05.009>
- Tims, M., Twemlow, M., & Fong, C. Y. M. (2022). A state-of-the-art overview of job-crafting research: Current trends and future research directions. *Career Development International*, 27(1), 54–78. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-08-2021-0216>
- Tjosvold, D. (2008). The conflict-positive organization: It depends upon us. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29(1), 19–28. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.473>
- Tröster, C., & Van Quaquebeke, N. (2021). When victims help their abusive supervisors: The role of LMX, self-blame, and guilt. *Academy of Management Journal*, 64(6), 1793–1815.
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2019.0559>

- Troth, A. C., Lawrence, S. A., Jordan, P. J., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2018). Interpersonal emotion regulation in the workplace: A conceptual and operational review and future research agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 20(2), 523–543. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijmr.12144>
- Trougakos, J. P., Beal, D. J., Green, S. G., & Weiss, H. M. (2008). Making the break count: An episodic examination of recovery activities, emotional experiences, and positive affective displays. *Academy of Management Journal*, 51(1), 131–146. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2008.30764063>
- Tse, H. H. M., Troth, A. C., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Liden, R. C. (2021). New perspectives for studying the role of affect in interpersonal work relationships. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 42(9), 1135–1143. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2574>
- Tuxford, L. M., & Bradley, G. L. (2015). Emotional job demands and emotional exhaustion in teachers. *Educational Psychology*, 35(8), 1006–1024. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2014.912260>
- Usunier, J. (2011). Language as a resource to assess cross-cultural equivalence in quantitative management research. *Journal of World Business*, 46(3), 314–319. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2010.07.002>
- Van de Ven, B., van den Tooren, M., & Vlerick, P. (2013). Emotional job resources and emotional support seeking as moderators of the relation between emotional job demands and emotional exhaustion: A two-wave panel study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 18, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030656>
- van Vegchel, N., Jonge, J. de, Söderfeldt, M., Dormann, C., & Schaufeli, W. (2004). Quantitative versus emotional demands among Swedish human service employees: Moderating effects of job control and social support. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 11(1), 21–40. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.11.1.21>
- Velez, M. J., & Neves, P. (2016). Abusive supervision, psychosomatic symptoms, and deviance: Can job autonomy make a difference? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 21(3), 322–333. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039959>
- Vogel, R. M., & Bolino, M. C. (2020). Recurring nightmares and silver linings: understanding how past abusive supervision may lead to posttraumatic stress and posttraumatic growth. *Academy of Management Review*, 45(3), 549–569. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2017.0350>
- Vreeker-Williamson, E., Gill, H., & Spence, J. R. (2023). The “perfect storm”—Perfectionists’ perceptions and experiences of abusive supervision. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 22(3), 158–167. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000320>
- Wang, H., Li, P., & Chen, S. (2020). The impact of social factors on job crafting: A meta-analysis and review. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(21). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17218016>

- Wang, H., & Tang, T. (2022). How daily supervisor abuse and coworker support affect daily work engagement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13. 880528. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.880528>
- Wang, H., Wei, L., & Zhang, R. (2024). When subordinates respond constructively to abusive supervision: The moderating role of performance goal orientation. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 39(1), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-03-2022-0111>
- Wang, M., Liu, S., Liao, H., Gong, Y., Kammeyer-Mueller, J., & Shi, J. (2013). Can't get it out of my mind: Employee rumination after customer mistreatment and negative mood in the next morning. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(6), 989–1004. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033656>
- Wang, Y., Parker, S. K., Wu, C.-H., Zhou, M., & Liao, J. (2025). Wise proactivity: Antecedents, outcomes, and a mechanism. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2887>
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063–1070. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.54.6.1063>
- Wee, E. X. M., Liao, H., Liu, D., & Liu, J. (2017). Moving from abuse to reconciliation: A power-dependence perspective on when and how a follower can break the spiral of abuse. *Academy of Management Journal*, 60(6), 2352–2380. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2015.0866>
- Weiss, H. M., & Beal, D. J. (2005). Reflections on affective events theory. In N. M. Ashkanasy, W. J. Zerbe, & C. E. J. Härtel (Eds.), *The effect of affect in organizational settings* (pp. 1–21). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1746-9791\(05\)01101-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1746-9791(05)01101-6)
- Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective Events Theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews* (pp. 1–74). Elsevier Science/JAI Press.
- Wells, J., Scheibein, F., Pais, L., Rebelo dos Santos, N., Dalluege, C.-A., Czakert, J. P., & Berger, R. (2023). A systematic review of the impact of remote working referenced to the concept of work–life flow on physical and psychological health. *Workplace Health & Safety*, 71(11), 507–521. <https://doi.org/10.1177/21650799231176397>
- Williams, J., & MacKinnon, D. (2008). Resampling and distribution of the product methods for testing indirect effects in complex models. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 15, 23–51. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705510701758166>

- Williams, W. C., Morelli, S. A., Ong, D. C., & Zaki, J. (2018). Interpersonal emotion regulation: Implications for affiliation, perceived support, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 115(2), 224–254. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pspi0000132>
- Wojtczuk-Turek, A., Turek, D., Tan, L., & Gao, H. (2024). The manner in which you craft your job depends on the context: Evidence from Poland and China. *Cross Cultural & Strategic Management*, 31(4), 584–610. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CCSM-05-2023-0081>
- Wrzesniewski, A., & Dutton, J. E. (2001). Crafting a job: Revisioning employees as active crafters of their work. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(2), 179–201. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2001.4378011>
- Xing, L., Sun, J. (James), & Jepsen, D. (2021). Feeling shame in the workplace: Examining negative feedback as an antecedent and performance and well-being as consequences. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 42(9), 1244–1260. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2553>
- Yagil, D., Ben-Zur, H., & Tamir, I. (2011). Do employees cope effectively with abusive supervision at work? An exploratory study. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 18(1), 5–23. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020548>
- Yasuda, Y., & Goegan, L. D. (2023). The relationship between regulatory focus, perfectionism, and school burnout. *Social Psychology of Education*, 26(4), 903–923. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-023-09776-0>
- Yıldız, E. (2024). *SmartPLS ile yapısal eşitlik modellemesi: Reflektif ve formatif yapılar* (3rd ed.). Seçkin.
- Yoon, D. J., Bono, J. E., Yang, T., Lee, K., Glomb, T. M., & Duffy, M. K. (2022). The balance between positive and negative affect in employee well-being. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 43(4), 763–782. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2580>
- Zainal Badri, S. K., & Ngo, M. S. M. (2024). Is job crafting beneficial for millennial employees? A moderated mediation model of affective organizational commitment, turnover intention and entrepreneurial leadership. *Journal of Management Development*, 43(6), 881–895. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-06-2024-0202>
- Zhang, F., & Parker, S. K. (2019). Reorienting job crafting research: A hierarchical structure of job crafting concepts and integrative review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 40(2), 126–146. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2332>
- Zhang, H., Zhang, M., Zhang, L., & Jiang, F. (2024). The influence of workplace friendship on job crafting: Based on affective events theory. *Current Psychology*, 43(21), 19180–19197. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-024-05715-0>

- Zhang, J., & Liu, J. (2018). Is abusive supervision an absolute devil? Literature review and research agenda. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 35(3), 719–744. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-017-9551-y>
- Zhang, T., & Li, B. (2020). Job crafting and turnover intention: The mediating role of work engagement and job satisfaction. *Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal*, 48(2), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.8759>
- Zhang, Y., & Liao, Z. (2015). Consequences of abusive supervision: A meta-analytic review. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 32(4), 959–987. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-015-9425-0>
- Zheng, J., Gou, X., Li, H., Xia, N., & Wu, G. (2021). Linking work–family conflict and burnout from the emotional resource perspective for construction professionals. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 14(5), 1093–1115. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJMPB-06-2020-0181>
- Zheng, X., Dan, Q., Wu, Z., Luo, S., & Peng, X. (2022). A job demands–resources perspective on kindergarten principals’ occupational well-being: The role of emotion regulation. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(22), 15030. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph192215030>
- Zhu, Z., Aitken, J. A., Kim, J., Baines, J. I., Kaplan, S. A., Dalal, R. S., & Hassani, J. (2025). Cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation interventions in the workplace and their impact on job performance: An ecological momentary intervention approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 98(2), e70020. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.70020>
- Zimmerman, R. D. (2008). Understanding the impact of personality traits on individuals’ turnover decisions: A meta-analytic path model. *Personnel Psychology*, 61(2), 309–348. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2008.00115.x>
- Zimmerman, R. D., & Darnold, T. C. (2009). The impact of job performance on employee turnover intentions and the voluntary turnover process. *Personnel Review*, 38(2), 142–158. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480910931316>