

**Addressing the Multilevel Phenomenon of Abusive
Supervision from the Instrumental and Reactive
Perspectives**

Ng Boon Ching, Serene

Bachelor in Business Administration (Honours)

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of

The Australian National University

May 2012



Statement of Originality

The work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge, original and my own work, except where otherwise acknowledged. This thesis has not been submitted to any other university either in whole or in part.

Signed:.....

Ng Boon Ching, Serene

PhD Candidate

Date.....*2 May 2012*.....

Acknowledgements

“Simple in virtue, steadfast in duty.”

The perseverance and commitment to complete this thesis would not have been possible without the fundamental belief in the motto “Simple in virtue, steadfast in duty.” My PhD journey commenced with a very simple idea – to graduate with a PhD. However, this journey soon became a road of endurance that not only challenged my intellect but also deflated my ego. My supervisor once told me that doing well in academia is really about patience and endurance. One must be able to endure ego-deflating events and transform that negative energy into a positive drive towards better research. Often, people give up half way, not because they lack the intellect but because they lack the determination to continue the journey of endurance. Why did the tortoise and not the hare win the race? It is because the tortoise had only one thing in mind – to make it to the end through sheer determination. Hence, it was with one simple belief (I will complete my PhD) and by staying true to delivering consistent quality in my research that I have finally arrived at my destination.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to a number of people who have contributed to the completion of this thesis. Primarily, I want to thank my supervisor, chair of the research panel, Professor George Chen, who introduced me to research academia. As a human resources practitioner for more than 10 years, I would not have entered academia without Professor George Chen’s encouragement and confidence in my capability. While the PhD journey was

challenging at times, it was also been rewarding as I discovered new knowledge and developed my research skills. The journey was made all the more meaningful with the help of my supervisor. Not only was he an effective supervisor, but he also challenged me to seek excellence rather than mediocrity in my research and remain encouraging, especially when things seemed to come to a standstill or a road-block. He was a very understanding supervisor, providing personal advice on family matters and career development that went beyond the requirements of his role. To me, going beyond one's duty and caring for the student's well-being is the hallmark of an excellent teacher or supervisor, and for that, I shall always be indebted to my supervisor.

I would like to thank Dr. Alessandra Capezio and Dr. Zhang Xiujuan, advisors in my research committee, for their invaluable comments and their advice about which data collection strategies to adopt when conducting my field survey studies in China. I am also grateful for the support and guidance provided by Professor Samuel Aryee of Aston University in shaping the research model and fine-tuning the methodology. In addition, I want to acknowledge the timely support and assistance from Professor Simon Restubog, Dr. Lin Cui and Dr. Herman Tse for their methodological and statistical advice. My gratitude also goes to both my examiners, Professor Jiing-Lih Farh of The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology and Professor Xu Huang of Hong Kong Polytechnic University for their invaluable advice in shaping the quality of this dissertation.

On a personal level, I want to acknowledge several people who provided love, support and encouragement throughout my PhD journey. First, I am grateful to my wonderful husband, Goh Kok Wee, for his love, active encouragement, constant support and belief in my ability to complete my PhD. He was instrumental in providing financial, psychological and emotional support throughout the three year journey without which I would not have come this far. My two wonderful sons were also there, constantly providing comforting and encouraging words to their mummy (“Mummy, you can do it!”). My heartfelt thanks also go to my parents, my parents-in-law and my younger brother for their enduring love, care, support, and concern over the years. I am most blessed to have the entire family support me throughout the journey. I was never alone and I felt as though my family were doing this PhD with me!

Despite the frustrations encountered during my doctoral studies, I was also blessed to have very good and supportive PhD mates and friends who were there to cheer and comfort me when I was down. I want to thank Reena Ng, a close friend, for her constant support and encouragement. I am also indebted to Hataya Sibunruang, for letting me stay with her on several occasions, giving up her bed to sleep on an airbed instead. Thank you to Lina Tan for those wonderful meals we shared and for that particular meal (her first cooked meal since her mother passed away) that she had cooked up to comfort me. Not forgetting, my PhD mate, Ibu Risa Bhinekawati, who provided much laughter and who served as an appreciative audience prior to my thesis proposal oral presentation to the entire school.

One of the most difficult and resource-straining tasks in my PhD study was data collection. I am grateful to Dr. Ernie Goh and Law Chung Ming who helped to secure appropriate samples for both studies in Guangzhou, China. I also want to thank the managing director of the printing company and the human resource manager of the shoe-manufacturing company for their support, as well as the supervisors and employees from both companies for taking the time to participate in this research.

Finally, I would like to thank the Research School of Management (RSM), at the Australian National University especially our Head of School, Professor Pam Morrison and Associate Professor Ofer Zwikael for their funding support for my scholarship, grants to attend international conferences and our periodic PhD gatherings. My heartfelt appreciation also goes to the school's administrator, Kate Hogan who was always helpful in assisting me to manoeuvre through the necessary administration. The school's management support made my PhD sojourn all the more easy and memorable.

As I close this chapter of my doctoral studies and reflect on my achievements, I know that I have deepened my analytical skills and broadened my knowledge base on how to conduct high-quality research; but my most rewarding experiences were making good life-long friends and stretching my determination and perseverance beyond what I could possibly have imagined - all of which are important to and instrumental in sustaining one's lifelong journey.

List of Publications

Awards

Ng, B. C. S., Chen, Z. X., & Aryee, S. 2012. *Abusive supervision, silence climate and silence behaviors: A multi-level examination of the mediating processes in China*. Paper to be presented at the International Academy of Chinese Management Research, Hong Kong, 20-24 June 2012. (This paper is selected as one of the Finalists for Best Conference Micro Paper Award)

Ng, B. C. S. 2011. *Abusive supervision and subordinate's outcomes – The moderating role of power distance*. Paper presented at the Australia and New Zealand Academy of Management Conference, Wellington, New Zealand, 7-9 December 2011. (This paper was awarded the “Best Doctoral Student Paper” & “Best Paper in the International Management Track”)

Book Chapter

Ng, B. C. S., Chen, Z. X. & Aryee, S. 2012. Abusive supervision in Chinese work settings. *Handbook on Chinese Organizational Behavior*, Edgar Elgar.

Conference Papers & Presentations

Ng, B. C. S., Chen, Z. X., & Aryee, S. 2012. *A multilevel examination of the mediating and moderating processes of abusive supervision in China*. Paper to be presented at the Academy of Management Annual Meeting, Boston, Massachusetts, US, 3-7 August 2012.

Ng, B. C. S., Chen, Z. X., & Aryee, S. 2012. *Abusive supervision, silence climate and silence behaviors: A multi-level examination of the mediating processes in China*. Paper to be presented at the International Academy of Chinese Management Research, Hong Kong, 20-24 June 2012.

Ng, B. C. S. 2011. *An instrumental perspective to examining the abusive supervision phenomena*. Paper presented at the Australia and New Zealand Academy of Management Conference, Wellington, New Zealand, 7-9 December 2011.

Ng, B. C. S. 2011. *Abusive supervision and subordinate's outcomes – The moderating role of power distance*. Paper presented at the Australia and New Zealand Academy of Management Conference, Wellington, New Zealand, 7-9 December 2011.

Ng, B. C. S., Sibunruang, H., & Chen, Z. X. 2011. *A dual motivational perspective on the antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Annual Meeting, San Antonio, Texas, US, 12-16 August 2011.

Ng B. C. S. 2009, *Understanding abusive supervision*. Paper presented at the International Academy of Chinese Management Research, Dissertation Proposal Workshop, Chengdu, China, 11-14 July 2009.

Abstract

Abusive supervision is a dysfunctional workplace behavior that evokes images of tyrannical bosses publicly ridiculing and undermining their subordinates. There is compelling evidence that abusive supervision leads to poor employee's health, low productivity, high absenteeism and staff turnover (Tepper, 2007). Given its deleterious work outcomes, it is not surprising that the topic has attracted much research interest ranging from a demonstration of its nomological net to an examination of its antecedents and outcomes (Tepper, 2007).

Although much is now known about abusive supervision, there is a gap in connecting the current knowledge on how abusive supervision emerges and the processes through which it influences work outcomes. More importantly, we know very little about how abusive supervision manifests at the group level and the processes through which it influences both group and individual level outcomes. Hence, there is a need to take on an integrated and multilevel approach to understand the abusive supervision phenomenon from its antecedents to its demonstrated outcomes. This research uses two different studies to examine the abusive supervision phenomenon from the instrumental and reactive perspectives.

Drawing from the aggression literature that distinguishes between instrumental and reactive aggression, this research examines antecedents of abusive supervision from the instrumental perspective in the first study (Study

1) and the reactive perspective in second study (Study 2). Study 1 adopted an instrumental perspective and provided alternative explanation to the abusive supervision literature that supervisor's aggression can be "pulled" by supervisor's goals or motives. Results from Study 1 supported the cross-level effects of abusive supervision as an instrumental influence stemming from supervisor's just-world motive to redistribute justice. Such hostile actions, in turn, result in the abused subordinate perceiving the supervisor as unfair and failing to identify with him or her.

Study 2 adopted a reactive perspective to explain that supervisor's aggression (abusive supervision) is "pushed" by the perceived lack of interactional justice when supervisor experiences mistreatment from his or her immediate manager. In turn, the supervisor displace his or her frustrations on the subordinates that eventually results in negative work outcomes. Results from Study 2 showed that group level abusive supervision fostered two different climates – a climate of procedural injustice and a climate of silence. Our cross-level analyses also showed that group level abusive supervision influence subordinates' work behaviors (in-role performance silence behaviors) through subordinate's personal identification with the supervisor.

In addition, the two studies examined the moderating role that one's cultural orientation plays in the abusive supervision phenomenon and highlighted the need to examine power distance orientation from lens of the perpetrator and the victim. Results from Study 1 showed that subordinate's high power distance orientation mitigated the deleterious effects of abusive

supervision on subordinate's interactional injustice and personal identification with the supervisor. Conversely, Study 2 showed that a supervisor's high power distance orientation magnified the effects of his or her hostilities toward subordinates when the supervisor experienced unfair treatment from his or her immediate boss.

Supervisors' acts of hostilities are common in organizations (Tepper, 2007) and understanding why supervisors engage in such behaviors remains a challenge for scholars. This research is the first to adopt an integrated and multilevel approach in examining the broader social implications of abusive supervision - from the antecedents to their associated outcomes. It also explores the implications of cultural differences within the abusive supervision phenomenon. The theoretical and practical implications of this research are discussed and the limitations of the research are also addressed.

Table of Contents

Statement of Originality.....	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iii
List of Publications	vii
Abstract	ix
Table of Contents.....	xii
List of Tables	xvi
List of Figures.....	xvii
List of Abbreviations	xviii
CHAPTER 1 RESEARCH OVERVIEW	19
1.1 Introduction.....	19
1.2 Research Background	20
1.3 Theoretical Framework and Research Questions	22
1.4 Research Design and Scope	24
1.5 Research Contributions.....	26
1.5.1 Theoretical Contributions	26
1.5.2 Practical Contributions.....	30
1.6 Thesis Outline	31
1.7 Summary	32
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	34
2.1 Introduction.....	34
2.2 The Construct of Abusive Supervision.....	34
2.3 Review of Literature on Abusive Supervision.....	39
2.3.1 Conceptualizations of Abusive Supervision	39
2.3.2 Antecedents of Abusive Supervision.....	41

2.3.3 Mediators of Abusive Supervision.....	43
2.3.4 Consequences of Abusive Supervision.....	46
2.3.4.1 <i>Employee attitudes</i>	47
2.3.4.2 <i>Employee behaviors</i>	47
2.3.4.3 <i>Employee well-being</i>	48
2.3.4.4 <i>Impact beyond work context</i>	49
2.3.5 Moderators of Abusive Supervision.....	50
2.4 Underlying Theories.....	52
2.4.1 Frustration and Displaced Aggression Framework.....	52
2.4.2 Social Interactionist Framework of Aggression.....	54
2.4.3 Social Exchange Theory.....	56
2.4.4 Justice Theory.....	57
2.4.5 Social Influence Theory.....	59
2.4.6 Self-concept-based Leadership Theory.....	62
2.5 Summary.....	63
CHAPTER 3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT	64
3.1 Instrumental and Reactive Perspectives to Abusive Supervision.....	64
3.2 Study 1 - Instrumental Perspective to Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision.....	65
3.2.1 Study Overview.....	65
3.2.2 Supervisor's Just-World Motive and Abusive Supervision.....	68
3.2.3 Abusive Supervision and Subordinate's Interactional Justice.....	71
3.2.4 Abusive Supervision and Subordinate's Personal Identification.....	71
3.2.5 The Mediating Influence of Abusive Supervision.....	73
3.2.6 Abusive Supervision and Subordinates' Responses: The Moderating Role of Power Distance.....	75
3.3 Study 2 - Reactive Perspective to Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision.....	79
3.3.1 Study Overview.....	79
3.3.2 Supervisor's Interactional Justice and Abusive Supervision.....	81
3.3.3 Moderating Role of Supervisor's Power Distance.....	82
3.3.4 Abusive Supervision and Group Climates.....	84
3.3.5 The Mediating Role of Abusive Supervision.....	89
3.3.6 Abusive Supervision and Subordinates' Outcomes (In-role Performance and Silence Behaviors).....	90
3.3.7 The Mediating Role of Subordinate's Personal Identification.....	92
3.4 Summary.....	95

CHAPTER 4 A CROSS-LEVEL EXAMINATION OF SUPERVISOR'S JUST-WORLD MOTIVE AND CONSEQUENCES OF ABUSIVE SUPERVISION (STUDY 1)	96
4.1 Purpose and Scope of Study 1	96
4.2 Method	97
4.2.1 Sample.....	97
4.2.2 Procedures.....	98
4.2.3 Questionnaire	100
4.2.3 Measures	102
4.3 Data Analyses	104
4.3.1 Measurement and Structural Model.....	104
4.3.2 Mediation Analyses	106
4.3.3 Moderation Analyses	109
4.4 Results.....	110
4.4.1 Measurement Model	110
4.4.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations	112
4.4.3 Hypothesis Testing.....	113
4.5 Discussion	121
4.6 Summary	123
CHAPTER 5 A MULTILEVEL EXAMINATION OF SUPERVISOR'S INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE AND CONSEQUENCES OF ABUSIVE SUPERVISION (STUDY 2)	124
5.1 Purpose and Scope of Study 2	124
5.2 Method	125
5.2.1 Sample.....	125
5.2.2 Procedures.....	126
5.2.3 Questionnaire	129
5.2.4 Measures – Group Level Variables.....	130
5.2.5 Measures – Individual Level Variables	134
5.3 Data Analyses	136
5.3.1 Measurement and Structural Model.....	136
5.3.2 Justification for Aggregation	138
5.3.4 Data Analytical Strategy	139
5.4 Results.....	142
5.4.1 Measurement Models.....	142
5.4.2 Justification for Aggregation	146
5.4.3 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations	147

5.4.4 Hypotheses Testing.....	150
5.5 Discussion.....	159
5.6 Summary.....	163
CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION.....	165
6.1 Overall Discussion.....	165
6.2 Theoretical Contributions.....	171
6.2.1 Integrated Framework on Abusive Supervision.....	171
6.2.2 Abusive Supervision as an Instrumental Influence.....	172
6.2.3 Abusive Supervision as Multilevel Phenomenon.....	173
6.2.4 Personal Identification as Mediating Mechanism.....	174
6.2.5 The Moderating Role of Power Distance.....	175
6.3 Practical Implications.....	176
6.4 Limitations.....	178
6.5 Future Research.....	180
6.6 Thesis Conclusion.....	182
REFERENCES.....	184
LIST OF APPENDICES.....	199

List of Tables

TABLE 1.1 Summary of the Two Studies.....	25
TABLE 2.1 Comparison of Abusive Supervision with Other Related Constructs.....	38
TABLE 4.1 Summary of Hypotheses for Study 1	97
TABLE 4.2 CFA of the Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 1.....	111
TABLE 4.3 Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations for Variables in Study 1.....	113
TABLE 4.4 Results of HLM Analyses - Subordinate's Interactional Justice	115
TABLE 4.5 Results of HLM Analyses - Subordinate's Personal Identification.....	116
TABLE 4.6 Results of Moderating Role of Subordinate's Power Distance	118
TABLE 5.1 Summary of Hypotheses for Study 2	125
TABLE 5.2 CFA of Supervisor's Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 2	144
TABLE 5.3 CFA of Subordinate's Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 2.....	145
TABLE 5.4 ANOVA, ICC(1), ICC(2) and Rwg	146
TABLE 5.5 Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations for Variables in Study 2.....	149
TABLE 5.6 Results of Moderating Role of Supervisor's Power Distance	151
TABLE 5.7 Results of HLM Analyses - Subordinate's In-Role Performance	157
TABLE 5.8 Results of HLM Analyses - Subordinate's Silence Behaviors	159
TABLE 6.1 Summary of Results for Study 1	169
TABLE 6.2 Summary of Results for Study 2.....	170

List of Figures

FIGURE 3.1 Cross-Level Examination of Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision	67
FIGURE 3.2 Multilevel Examination of Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision	80
FIGURE 4.1 Interactive Effects of Subordinate's Power Distance and Abusive Supervision on Subordinate's Interactional Justice.....	119
FIGURE 4.2 Interactive Effects of Subordinate's Power Distance and Abusive Supervision on Subordinate's Personal Identification	120
FIGURE 5.1 Interactive Effects of Supervisor's Interactional Justice and Power Distance on Abusive Supervision	152
FIGURE 5.2 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) Results for Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision.....	154

List of Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
ANU	Australian National University
BJW	Belief in a just world
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CMV	Common method variance
HLM	Hierarchical linear modeling
ICC	Intra-class correlation
LMX	Leader member exchange
OB	Organizational behavior
OCB	Organizational citizenship behavior
OLS	Ordinary least square
PANAS	Positive affect and negative affect schedule
RMSEA	Root-mean-square approximation
SEM	Structural equation modeling
SPSS	Statistical package for social sciences
TLI	Tucker–Lewis index
US	United States

CHAPTER 1 RESEARCH OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

During the past decade, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of research conducted on the “dark side” or destructive side of supervisory behaviors, with particular focus on abusive supervision. Abusive supervision is an expression of non-physical hostility that supervisors perpetrate against their direct reports, such as belittling them, yelling at them or ignoring them. Such harmful behaviors have been linked to an array of negative outcomes for subordinates such as psychological distress (Tepper, 2000), problem drinking (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), family-directed aggression (Hoobler & Brass, 2006), and poor job performance (Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007). Given such deleterious outcomes, it is not surprising that more than thirty published articles in top tier peer-reviewed journals have addressed the abusive supervision phenomenon. Tepper (2007, p. 262) describes the scholarly inquiry as “nascent but quickly developing” and calls for more research to understand and explain this phenomenon.

Addressing Tepper’s (2007) call, this research aims to examine abusive supervision in the workplace from identifying the antecedents of abusive supervision to examining the mediating mechanisms and the associated outcomes of supervisors’ hostilities. Apart from examining the intervening mechanisms, this research also examines how a cultural moderator or more specifically, one’s power distance orientation can influence the intensity of the supervisor’s abuse as well as the subordinate’s reactions. This research also

extends current studies beyond the dyadic analysis of the abusive supervision phenomenon to multilevel analyses that systematically examine the social interactions between supervisor and team members.

1.2 Research Background

Although abusive supervision constitutes a low-base-rate phenomenon in the workplace (Tepper, 2007), there is ample empirical evidence that demonstrates its deleterious consequences. Tepper (2007) estimates that abusive supervision affects 13.6 percent of workers in the United States (US) while Tepper, Duffy, Henle and Lambert (2006) estimate associated costs of the health care and lost productivity (due to absenteeism) for US corporations to total a staggering US\$23.8 billion per annum. Apart from economic costs, there are personal and social costs associated with abusive supervision. Sustained hostility by a supervisor increases the subordinate's psychological distress, enhances illnesses while reducing health and well-being and contributes to family undermining (see Tepper, 2007 for review).

With more than thirty articles published in top tier peer-reviewed journals, the increase in the scholarly inquiry into the "dark sides" of leadership aims to address the high economic, personal and social costs caused by abusive supervision. The current scholarly work on abusive supervision focuses on three separate streams of research; namely: (1) antecedents to abusive supervision, (2) mediating mechanisms between abusive supervision and subordinate reactions, and (3) contextual moderators that affect the differential reactions of subordinates. In his review of current literature on abusive supervision, Tepper

(2007, p.285) characterizes the literature on abusive supervision as fragmented and states that “there is little that ties extant work together beyond the emphasis on abusive supervision.” There is a need for an integrated framework to examine the antecedents of supervisors’ hostility and the underlying processes leading to its demonstrated outcomes. Identifying the precursors to supervisor’s hostility is important in helping individuals and organizations understand and curb the prevalence of such detrimental effects in the workplace. Five years after Tepper’s (2007) review of the literature on abusive supervision, little is known about the antecedent conditions that predict abusive supervision. Tepper, Moss and Duffy (2011) continue to urge researchers to focus on investigating the antecedent conditions associated with abusive supervision.

A preponderance of studies undertaken by research scholars has examined the consequences of abusive supervision at the individual or dyadic level. Yet, little is known about how abusive supervision plays out in the wider context - within the group or team. Adopting a multilevel approach is vital in understanding the development and influence of abusive supervision in the workplace. By studying the interacting influences of group or team dynamics, we can then better understand how supervisor’s aggressions influences both group-level and individual-level outcomes. Moreover, by examining the influence of cultural moderator (power distance) through the lens of the supervisor and the subordinate, this research seeks to explain why some supervisors are more or less hostile and why subordinates react differentially to abusive supervision.

1.3 Theoretical Framework and Research Questions

The theoretical models used for the two studies in this research are guided by *three* general questions addressing the current shortcomings in the literature on abusive supervision. The first and second questions address important issues relating to abusive supervision in the workplace. *What are the antecedents of abusive supervision?* And *what are the consequences at the group and individual level?* The third question addresses the boundary conditions and asks *what is the extent of the moderating influence of one's power distance orientation in the abusive supervision phenomenon?*

This research comprises **two** studies and draws from the aggression literature that distinguishes between instrumental and reactive aggression (Anderson & Bushman, 2002) as the starting point to examine the abusive supervision phenomenon. The aggression literature is an interesting starting point to examine the abusive supervision phenomenon as past studies on abusive supervision have invoked the frustration and displaced aggression theory (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939) and argued that abusive supervision is a form of reactive aggression resulting from various forms of injustices (e.g. interactional injustice). Within the aggression literature, we also know that aggression can be instrumental in attaining goals (e.g. use of aggression to gain compliance). Yet it is surprising that there is no systematic investigation in examining the instrumental influence of abusive supervision in attaining supervisor's goals. The first study (Study 1) conceptualized abusive supervision as a form of instrumental influence that supervisors adopt to attain

their goals while the second study (Study 2) conceptualized abusive supervision as a form of reactive aggression that supervisors use to displace their aggression towards their subordinates after mistreatment from their own supervisor (i.e. supervisor's boss).

By adopting an instrumental perspective, Study 1 addressed an unexplored form of instrumental aggression where the act of aggression is motivated or pulled by supervisor's goals or motives. Underpinned by the social interactionist framework on aggression (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994), influencers are motivated to attain their goals and, in the pursuit of their goals, they may use coercive actions as a form of social influence over their victims. As such, Study 1 seeks to address the questions: *do supervisors with the just world motive induce abusive supervision?* And *how do the abused subordinates react?* This study also addresses the third research question on the moderating influence of one's cultural orientation and specifically asks: *how does the subordinate's power distance orientation moderate the relationship between abusive supervision and the subordinate's reactions?*

Study 2 adopts a reactive perspective to understanding the abusive supervision phenomenon. By invoking the frustration and displaced aggression theory (Dollard et al., 1939) and extending the current theorizing on abusive supervision from the individual level to group level, Study 2 explains supervisors' abusive behaviors as "pushed" aggressions resulting from their reactions of injustice that cause the aggrieved supervisors to displace their anger or frustrations onto their subordinates. More specifically, Study 2 aims to

answer an important question: *do supervisor's interactional injustices predict abusive supervision at the group level?* As such, Study 2 conceives abusive supervision as a socially embedded phenomenon and examines the processes that trigger abusive supervision at the group level. It also adopts a multilevel approach to understanding why and how abusive supervision influences outcomes at the group and individual levels. Study 2 seeks to address the question: *how does abusive supervision influence the emergence of group climates?* And *what is the intervening mechanism through which abusive supervision influences subordinate's work outcomes?*

Finally, Study 2 also adopts the interactionist perspective (Mischel, 1977) and examines the moderating role that supervisor's power distance orientation plays in the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and abusive supervision. Here, the cultural moderator is examined from the supervisor's perspective rather than the subordinate's perspective.

1.4 Research Design and Scope

Both studies focus on understanding the phenomenon of abusive supervision in the workplace. Study 1 was conducted using the cross-sectional design in a shoe manufacturing company employing more than 2,000 workers, while Study 2 was conducted using the temporal research design in a printing company employing more than 3,000 workers. Both companies are located in the manufacturing district of Panyu, Guangzhou (south-eastern China). Self-administered survey questionnaires for supervisors and subordinates were used to collect data in both companies. Data were collected from 76 supervisors and

280 subordinates in Study 1 and 87 supervisors and 329 subordinates in Study 2. Table 1.1 outlines the research method and scope for each study.

TABLE 1.1
Summary of the Two Studies

	Research Method and Scope
<p>Study 1 (Chapter 4)</p>	<p>Quantitative study to examine instrumental perspective from the antecedent and outcomes of abusive supervision.</p> <p>Quantitative study with a sample of 76 supervisors and 280 subordinates in a shoe manufacturing company located in Panyu, Guangzhou, China.</p> <p>Using a cross-sectional design, supervisor-reported and subordinate-reported measures were collected and results analyzed to test the cross-level main and indirect effects of abusive supervision as well as the moderating effects of subordinate's power distance.</p>
<p>Study 2 (Chapter 5)</p>	<p>Quantitative study to examine reactive perspective from the antecedent and outcomes of abusive supervision.</p> <p>Quantitative study with a sample of 87 supervisors and 329 subordinates in a printing company located in Panyu, Guangzhou, China.</p> <p>Using a temporal research design that collected data in two waves separated by 2 weeks interval, both supervisor-reported and subordinate-reported measures were collected and data analyzed to test the multilevel influence of abusive supervision on group and individual level outcomes as well as the moderating effects of supervisor's power distance orientation.</p>

In Study 1, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) utilizing the statistical software HLM version 6.08 (Bryk & Raudenbush, 2002) was used to analyze the cross-level effects, while moderated regression analysis with the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS 19.0) was used to test the moderating relationships. Confirmatory factor analysis was also performed using structure

equation modeling (SEM) with statistical software LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2001) to test the fit of the model. In Study 2, HLM, SEM and moderated regression analyses were used to test the hypothesized relationships. Detailed explanations for testing each of the hypothesized relationships are provided in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5.

1.5 Research Contributions

1.5.1 Theoretical Contributions

This research aims to contribute to the growing literature on abusive supervision in several ways. The contributions are briefly outlined in this chapter and the details are elaborated further in Chapter 6. First, both studies in this research aimed to provide an integrated framework that examines from the antecedent of supervisors' hostilities to their demonstrated outcomes. Current theorizing and empirical studies on abusive supervision are fragmented and focused on either explaining the antecedents of abusive supervision or examining the outcomes of abusive supervision. Hence, there is a need to fill the gap by examining from the antecedents to outcomes of abusive supervision. By using 2 studies, this research adopts both the instrumental and reactive perspectives to demonstrate the linkages from the predictors of abusive supervision to the demonstrated outcomes. Study 1 integrates social interactionist theory of aggression (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994) with social influence theory (Kelman, 1958) to examine abusive supervision as an instrumental influence used by supervisors to attain their goals/motives and how this backfires in terms of subordinate's negative reactions. Study 2 integrates

the frustration and displaced aggression theory (Dollard et al., 1939) with self-concept-based leadership theory (Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, Cremer & Hogg, 2004) to examine abusive supervision as reactive (or “pushed”) aggressions that supervisors displace onto their subordinates when they experienced mistreatment under their immediate bosses and how such abusive behaviors percolate downwards and influence subordinate’s work outcomes. Collectively, both studies provide a systematic and integrated approach to investigate the mechanisms linking from the antecedent to outcomes of abusive supervision from the instrumental and reactive perspectives.

Second, Study 1 conceptualizes abusive supervision as an instrumental aggression that supervisors adopt on their subordinates in order to attain their goals (in this case to maintain a just world). It provides an alternative explanation to the current abusive supervision literature that abusive supervision is a form of reactive aggression that supervisors displace onto their subordinates when they are mistreated. This may perhaps help to address an important but unanswered question: *if we know abusive supervision is bad, why does it persist?* Study 1 validates the social interactionist theory of aggression (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994) to demonstrate that supervisors may use instrumental aggression in pursuit of their goals and help explain the persistence of abusive supervision phenomenon in the workplace. While the theoretical application of instrumental aggression amongst Organizational Behavioral (OB) scholars has been around for the past decade, empirical evidence and validation is lacking. Study 1 provides the first empirical study to examine the influence of

instrumental aggression and opens up future avenues to explore other possible motives that may predict abusive supervision.

Third, Tepper (2007, p. 281) calls for research to move beyond individual level research to address “the strong likelihood that abusive supervision is a multilevel phenomenon.” Perhaps because Tepper (2000) conceptualized abusive supervision as a perceptual construct defined in terms of a subordinate’s perceived abuse at the hands of a supervisor, previous research have examined abusive supervision at the individual or dyadic level. Although it is intuitively plausible that supervisors may differentially abuse subordinates, this supervisor behavior takes place in a group context and may define the work environment within which subordinates work. Consequently, the neglect to examine abusive supervision from multilevel and cross-level perspectives may undermine our understanding of the processes that trigger abusive supervision and how and why it influences subordinates’ work outcomes. As such, this research addresses our current limited knowledge on how abusive supervision manifests at the group level and the processes through which it influences both group and individual level outcomes. Specifically, Study 1 adopts a cross-level approach and examined supervisor’s just-world motive as a predictor of abusive supervision (at the individual level) while Study 2 adopts a multilevel approach and examined supervisor’s interactional justice as the antecedent that influences abusive supervision (at the group level) which in turn, has effects on both group level (procedural justice climate and silence climate) and individual level outcomes (in-role performance and silence behaviors).

Fourth, studies on abusive supervision have predominantly relied on social exchange and justice theory to explain the underlying mechanisms through which abusive supervision influences subordinates' reactions. By extending and applying the self-concept-based leadership theory (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004) to the abusive supervision phenomenon, Study 2 shows that subordinate's personal identification, rather than interactional justice, mediated the relationship between the supervisor's abusive behaviors and the subordinates' outcomes (i.e., in-role performance and silence behaviors). In the Chinese society characterized by the rule of man rather than rule of law (Chen, Tsui & Farh, 2002) and where personalism matters (Redding, 1990), personal identification is more salient and intense in driving subordinates' attitudes and behaviors than mere perceptions of fairness.

Fifth, by including a cultural variable (power distance orientation) as a moderator in both studies, this research sought to clarify: (1) how the subordinate's power distance orientation influence his or her differential response to abusive supervision in Study 1, and (2) how the supervisor's power distance orientation at the group-level influences the intensity of his or her hostile behaviors in Study 2. This research adds to the literature by shedding light on the differing moderating influences that power distance orientation play in the abusive supervision phenomenon. Study 1 seeks to duplicate the recent empirical study by Lian, Ferris and Brown (2012) on the extenuating influence of subordinate's power distance on their reactions to abusive supervision in a Chinese work setting as opposed to Western setting. On the other hand, Study 2 seeks to validate the aggravating influence of supervisor's power distance on

their abusive behaviors towards subordinates; suggesting that the same cultural value can have different and opposite effects depending on who holds the value.

1.5.2 Practical Contributions

Despite the low-base occurrence of abusive supervision in most organizations, the costs for organizations and the associated personal and social problems have significant consequences. Although previous studies have recommended a zero-tolerance policy in relation to abusive supervision, this thesis broadens the range of alternatives for management to adopt.

First, understanding the causes of abusive supervision is the key to unlocking the negative consequences of abusive supervision. The results from Study 1 suggest that supervisors use coercive actions as a form of social influence to attain desired goals (in this case, to maintain a just world). It also showed that supervisors may not achieve their goals and helped to clarify and debunk the misconceptions that supervisors can use coercive actions to achieve desired outcomes. First, such findings may help abused subordinates understand why supervisors use intimidation and punishments; and to explore ways to meet supervisors' goals. Second, organizations need to educate supervisors about the myths surrounding the use of coercive actions as a means of achieving goals and help subordinates understand their supervisors' goals and devise ways to meet those goals.

As the world economy becomes increasingly global, it is important for organizations to manage culturally diverse workforces appropriately. This

research aims to help organizations understand how the cultural orientations of the supervisor and the subordinate may influence leadership behaviors and reactions to leadership respectively (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009). In turn, organizations can develop appropriate cultural training to sensitize supervisors and subordinates to cultural nuances and to mitigate the intensity and consequences of workplace abuse.

Last, organizations need to be aware that the deleterious effects of abusive supervision are not only confined to the abused individual subordinate but may also spill over to influence group outcomes. Study 2 demonstrated that abusive supervision engenders climates of procedural injustice and silence. Hence, to mitigate the emergence of a negative procedural justice climate, organizations need to enhance their communication channels and ensure that all employees have direct access to information about organization's policies and procedures. To mitigate the emergence of a silence climate, organizations also need to establish an open door policy (e.g. help-line or ombudsman line for employees to call) that encourages employees to speak out.

1.6 Thesis Outline

This thesis comprises of six chapters examining the abusive supervision phenomenon. Chapter 2 distinguishes the abusive supervision construct from other related constructs, such as supervisor's aggression and petty tyranny. Chapter 2 also reviews the current literature on abusive supervision and discusses the antecedents, mediating mechanisms, moderating influences and consequences of abusive supervision. The last section of Chapter 2 outlines the

six underlying theories that guided the hypotheses development for Study 1 and Study 2.

Chapter 3 presents the theoretical models and hypotheses for both studies. It discusses how the variables in each of the models are related by integrating the relevant theories and empirical studies from the literature. For Study 1, seven hypotheses were developed to address the instrumental perspective of abusive supervision and its associated outcomes. For Study 2, ten hypotheses were developed for Study 2 to address the reactive perspective of abusive supervision and its associated outcomes at both the group and individual level.

Both Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 discuss the methodology used to collect the data, as well as the data analytical strategy used for each study. In addition, Chapter 4 reports the findings for Study 1 and discusses that study's limitations. Chapter 5 reports the findings for Study 2 and discusses the limitations of that study.

Finally, Chapter 6 provides an overall summary of the results of both studies and discusses in detail the theoretical and practical contributions of both studies. Limitations and directions for future research are discussed and the last section of Chapter 6 provides an overall conclusion to this thesis.

1.7 Summary

This chapter, which serves as an introduction to this entire thesis, provided a background to the research about abusive supervision and identified

gaps in the existing literature. Three general research questions were raised and outlined to address these research gaps. A theoretical framework was also presented to provide the basis using two studies to examine the abusive supervision phenomenon. This chapter also outlined the research design and the scope of the two studies. Finally, the theoretical and practical contributions for both studies were highlighted in the concluding section of this chapter.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the current literature on abusive supervision. The first section defines abusive supervision and delineates the conceptual differences between abusive supervision with other related constructs, such as petty tyranny, supervisor aggression, supervisor undermining, destructive leadership and workplace bullying. Next, the chapter reviews the current literature on abusive supervision, focusing on (1) antecedents to abusive supervision, (2) the consequences of abusive supervision, (3) the mediating mechanisms - from the antecedents to outcomes of abusive supervision and (4) moderators affecting abusive supervision and subordinates' outcomes. Gaps within the literature on abusive supervision are identified together with the literature review. Finally, the underlying theories used in the two studies for this research are outlined.

2.2 The Construct of Abusive Supervision

In his seminal paper on abusive supervision, Tepper (2000: p.178) defines abusive supervision as *“subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact.”* In this definition, abusive supervision involves the subjective assessments made by subordinates based on their continuous exposure to hierarchical mistreatment (from supervisor to

subordinate). Here, supervisors' hostilities exclude both physical abuse and the intent to cause harm (Tepper, 2007).

Abusive supervision overlaps with other related concepts, such as petty tyranny, supervisor aggression, supervisor undermining, destructive leadership and workplace bullying. There is a need to clarify how these constructs overlap. Table 2.1 provides a summary comparing the salient differences and similarities between abusive supervision and other related constructs.

Abusive supervision and petty tyranny. As with abusive supervision, petty tyranny encompasses hostile acts that are downward focused from supervisor to subordinates such as belittling subordinates. However, petty tyranny differs from abusive supervision in that it includes non-hostile acts such as self-aggrandizement (e.g. using authority for personal gains), discouraging initiative (e.g. excluding employees from participating in decision-making), and lack of consideration (e.g. being unfriendly or unhelpful).

Abusive supervision and supervisor aggression. Closely related to the abusive supervision concept is supervisor aggression. It involves hostile acts targeted at subordinates and uses items that are similar to abusive supervision, such as "How often does your supervisor yell at you?" However, supervisor aggression differs from abusive supervision in that it entails physical acts that are intended to cause harm. Physical hostilities from supervisors are rare as they bear legal consequences while supervisor's intent to harm their subordinates is often difficult to detect and assess.

Abusive supervision and supervisor undermining. Social undermining is a form of counterproductive workplace behavior that may be perpetrated by supervisors and coworkers. In his literature review on abusive supervision, Tepper (2007) concedes that supervisor undermining is the concept most closely aligned with abusive supervision relative to other constructs. It overlaps with abusive supervision sharing similar items (e.g. “Has your supervisor belittled you or your ideas?”). Although supervisor undermining is explicitly defined to include “the intent to cause harm”, Tepper (2007) argues that when mistreating subordinates, the abusive supervisor’s proximate or immediate intent is not to cause harm.

Abusive supervision and destructive leadership. Destructive leadership is an emerging concept that shares similarities with abusive supervision. According to Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007), destructive leaders violate both the interests of the organization and those of their subordinates. Destructive leadership includes behaviors from all three domains of aggression namely: 1) indirect versus direct aggression, 2) passive versus active aggression and 3) physical versus verbal aggression. As with abusive supervision, destructive leaders undermine their subordinates’ well-being. However, these destructive leaders also engage in *both* physical and verbal behaviors that sabotage the organization’s interests.

Abusive supervision and workplace bullying. Perpetrators of workplace bullying use open attacks, abuse, social isolation and slander to attack their victims. Similar to the victims of abusive supervision, victims of

workplace bullying are teased, badgered, and insulted over a sustained period of time. However, workplace bullying includes physical attacks as well as verbal attacks and it can occur both vertically (from supervisor to subordinates and vice versa) and horizontally (among coworkers or peers).

TABLE 2.1

Comparison of Abusive Supervision with Other Related Constructs

Construct	Definition	Similarities	Differences
Abusive supervision	“Subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000: 178).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Downward mistreatment from supervisor to subordinate. • Hostilities include verbal and non-verbal abuse but exclude physical abuse. • No intent on the part of perpetrator to harm his or her target. 	
Petty tyranny	Managers’ use of power and authority “oppressively, capriciously, and..... vindictively” (Ashforth, 1997).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Downward mistreatment from supervisor to subordinate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes non-hostile acts (e.g. self-aggrandizement, discouraging initiatives).
Supervisor aggression	Supervisor’s behavior “that is intended to physically harm a worker or workers in the work related context” (Schat, Desmaris, & Kelloway, 2006).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Downward mistreatment from supervisor to subordinate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes physical acts • Includes the intent by perpetrator to cause harm.
Supervisor undermining	Supervisor’s behavior “intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation” (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002: 332).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Downward mistreatment from supervisor to subordinate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes the intent by perpetrator to cause harm.
Destructive leadership	Supervisor’s “behaviors by a leader...that violate the..... interest of the organization by undermining and/or sabotaging the organization’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction of subordinates” (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Downward mistreatment from supervisor to subordinate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes sabotage of organizational interests • Includes physical acts.
Workplace bullying	Occurs when “one or several individuals over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from one or several persons, in a situation where the target of bullying has difficulty in defending him or herself against these actions.” (Hoel & Cooper, 2001: 4).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Downward mistreatment from supervisor to subordinate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes mistreatment from coworkers (horizontal) and possibly subordinates to supervisors (upward mistreatment) • Includes physical attacks.

2.3 Review of Literature on Abusive Supervision

This section reviews and identifies gaps in the existing literature on abusive supervision. Appendix 1 summarizes the body of published research related to abusive supervision and extends the earlier review of the literature conducted by Tepper (2007). The structure of this review begins with the conceptualization of abusive supervision and how this is applied in both studies. Then, it follows with a discussion of the antecedents, the mediating processes, the consequences of abusive supervision and the moderators that affect the abusive supervision-employee outcome relationships.

2.3.1 Conceptualizations of Abusive Supervision

In the study by Mitchell and Ambrose (2007, p. 1159), abusive supervision was conceptualized as a form of “aggression” perceived by employees as intentionally harmful. At first glance, such conceptualization may appear to contradict Tepper’s (2000) definition of abusive supervision where the notion of intention to harm is excluded. The definition of workplace aggression specifically includes such a notion. The crux of the contention lies in the issue of who is making the evaluation. In the example provided by Tepper (2007), abusive supervisors may mistreat their subordinates with the intention of eliciting high performance rather than causing injury. Tepper (2007) clarifies that although there is wilful behavior, the abusive supervisor has no intention to cause harm. However, the subordinates may differ in their views and may perceive such harmful behaviors as an intention to cause harm.

Broadening Mitchell and Ambrose's (2007) conceptualization of abusive supervision, in Study 1, abusive supervision was conceptualized as a form of instrumental aggression. Tedeschi and Felson (1994) suggest that individuals or influencers use coercive actions, such as threats and punishments, to produce behavioral and attitudinal change in their targets. While the influencer may view coercive actions as a form of social influence, the target may deem such coercive actions as a form of aggression or abuse on the part of the influencer.

In Study 2, abusive supervision was conceptualized as a form of reactive aggression that supervisors displaced downwards onto their subordinates. This theorizing draws from the frustration and displaced aggression framework (Dollard et al., 1939). The current dominant stream of studies on abusive supervision adopts the frustration and displaced aggression framework to explain why supervisors mistreat their subordinates. Supervisors react to situational constraints such as contract violations or perceptions of injustices, and displace their frustrations toward their subordinates via their aggressions.

Study 2 also suggests that such hostile displays of behaviors can be observed as group-level phenomenon whereby all subordinates within the group share the same perceptions regarding their supervisor's abusive behaviors. Consistent with the conceptualization of transformational leadership at both the individual level and group level, findings from Study 2 extend Tepper's (2000) operationalization of abusive supervision from the subordinate's perceptions of

the supervisor's behaviors (individual level) to suggest that team members can perceive and observe their supervisor's behaviors at the group level.

2.3.2 Antecedents of Abusive Supervision

Three recent studies examining antecedents to abusive supervision have looked at the characteristics of subordinates and supervisors as precursors to abusive supervision. Kiazad, Restubog, Zagecnyzk, Kiewitz, and Tang (2010) demonstrate that supervisor's Machiavellianism is positively related to abusive supervision. On the other hand, Wu and Chang (2008) show that the subordinate's core self-evaluation predicts his or her perceptions of abusive supervision. Subordinates with low core self-evaluation tend to focus on negative aspects of their work and construe behaviors by their supervisor as abusive. Tepper et al., (2011) invoke the moral exclusion theory (Opatow, 1990) to explain why supervisors abuse specific subordinates. They argue that a subordinate's deep dissimilarities with his or her supervisor create relational conflict which explains supervisor's exclusionary practices against the targeted subordinate.

Another stream of studies has framed abusive supervision as a form of aggression using the frustration and displaced aggression framework (Dollard et al., 1939) to explain abusive supervision. Due to power asymmetry, supervisors who have experienced various forms of injustice (procedural injustice, interactional injustice and psychological contract violation) take out their frustrations on their subordinates. Tepper et al., (2006) show that supervisors who report higher levels of procedural injustice experienced depression which

translates into subordinate's perceptions of an abusive supervisor. Similarly, Hoobler and Brass (2006) find that when supervisors experience a breach of psychological contract, their subordinates report higher incidence of abusive supervision. In another study, Aryee, Chen, Sun, and Debrah (2007) show that supervisors who experience interactional injustice at the hands of their immediate bosses will take their frustrations out on their subordinates. These three studies suggest that organizational mistreatment is a key predictor of abusive supervision and that supervisors' aggression (also known as reactive aggression) is a reaction to unfair situations.

External factors may also influence supervisors' aggression. In a more recent study by Harris, Harvey, and Kacmar (2011), the authors draw from the same displaced frustration and aggression framework to suggest that conflicts with coworkers also induce supervisors' abusive behaviors. Restuborg, Scott, and Zagenczyk (2011) draws from the social learning theory and report that supervisors' assessment of aggressive workplace cultures and subordinates' perceptions of aggressive norms in the workplace predict supervisors' levels of hostile or abusive behaviors.

Given Tepper's (2000) conceptualization of abusive supervision as an individual-level perception, we do not yet know whether supervisors' abusive behaviors are specific to selected individual subordinates or are observed by all subordinates when supervisors displace their aggression downwards. Moreover, the literature on aggression distinguishes between instrumental and reactive aggression (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). While reactive aggression involves

“hot acts” driven (or “pushed”) impulsively in reaction to affective states, instrumental aggression consists of primarily “cold acts” motivated (or “pulled”) by cognitive judgment of the anticipated benefits and costs of engaging in such behaviors. Tedeschi and Felson (1994) propose an instrumental perspective of aggression to explain that aggression is a planned behavior that is instrumental in helping the actor achieves his or her desired goals. As instrumental aggression has not been addressed in the literature on abusive supervision, it is worth understanding what motivates supervisors to adopt coercive actions that subordinates deem abusive. Instrumental aggression allows a more complete understanding of aggression and provides an alternative perspective to our current understanding of abusive supervision phenomenon.

To address the gaps in the literature on antecedents to abusive supervision, Study 1 was conducted to provide an alternative instrumental perspective to explain supervisors’ hostility. Study 2 was conducted to re-examine injustice as a predictor of supervisors’ reactive aggression (i.e., abusive supervision) while broadening the conceptualization of abusive supervision from individual level to group level.

2.3.3 Mediators of Abusive Supervision

The predominant stream of empirical research on abusive supervision has generally taken on various forms of justice (procedural, interactional and distributive) to explain the mediating mechanism from abusive supervision to employee reactions. The justice literature and the social exchange theory (Blau,

1964) provide the theoretical underpinnings to explain the linking process from abusive supervision to employee outcomes.

Tepper (2000) found that organizational justice (a global construct) fully mediated the abusive supervision-employee outcome relationships. However, studies examining the mediating mechanisms of justice have been mixed and the types of injustice experienced (procedural or interactional) differ according to the sample of the studies. In their study, Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy (2002) used a military sample in the US and reported that subordinates' experiences of procedural justice mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). However, using a sample of employees from a telecommunications company in China, Aryee et al. (2007) found that only interactional justice mediated the abusive supervision-employee outcomes relationships (OCB-individual, OCB-organization and affective commitment). Procedural justice did not mediate the abusive supervision-employee outcomes relationships. In the military setting, the abused subordinates were likely to attribute injustice to procedural justice in an environment where rules and procedures are more salient. These abused subordinates were likely to blame their organization for failing to enforce procedures for disciplining abusers or failing to impose measures for protecting the abused. In turn, these victims "reciprocate" by reducing OCBs. However, Aryee et al., (2007) argue that personalism matters more than impersonal decision-making in their sample study of telecommunication employees in China. The abused employees were likely to attribute injustice to interactions with supervisors and to "reciprocate" with less commitment and lower OCBs.

Considered together, these studies investigating the various justice dimensions as mediating causal mechanisms suggest that (1) cultural context plays an important role in the salience of the various forms of justice, and (2) justice dimensions may only partially explain the underlying causal mechanisms.

Another stream of studies examines affective responses as mediating mechanisms in the abusive supervision-outcomes relationships. Aryee, Sun, Chen, and Debrah (2008) conceptualize abusive supervision as a workplace stressor and invoke the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) to explain emotional exhaustion as the underlying psychological mechanism through which abusive supervision affects subordinate's interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. The study by Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, and Duffy (2008) lends further support to the role affective responses play in the mediating process. They reported that affective commitment, an affective component of job attitude, mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and organizational deviance. In another study, Xu, Huang, Lam, and Miao (2012) reported that leader member exchange (LMX) mediated the abusive supervision-work outcomes (task performance, OCBs) link.

While the above studies illuminate our understanding of how abusive supervision weaves its negative influence on subordinates, little is known about how an abusive supervisor can affect a subordinate's sense of self. Self-concept is an important psychological motivator that drives the behaviors of the leader and his followers. Lord, Brown, and Feiberg (1999) emphasize that leaders can

affect subordinates' behaviors by influencing their self-concept. The self-concept-based leadership theory (Van Knippenberg, et al., 2004) proposes that the follower's self-identity may mediate the influence of leadership on the followers' attitude or behavior. Numerous studies on transformational leadership have provided empirical evidence that transformational leaders exert influence on followers by changing their followers' personal and social identification (Kark, Shamir & Chen, 2003; Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010). Hence, a potentially fruitful undertaking would be to investigate how the subordinate's relational self-concept (i.e., personal identification) is implicated under an abusive supervisor.

2.3.4 Consequences of Abusive Supervision

Since Tepper's (2000) seminal work on abusive supervision, the phenomenon has been empirically associated with negative consequences ranging from organizational deviance, job dissatisfaction, work-family conflict, psychological distress, employee resistance, and voluntary turnover to reductions in affective commitments and job performance. The consequences of abusive supervision can be broadly classified into four main categories, namely (1) employee attitudes, (2) employee behaviors, (3) employee well-being and (4) effects beyond the work context. These outcomes are discussed in detail below.

2.3.4.1 Employee attitudes

Extant research shows that abusive supervision is negatively related to employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction and affective commitment, and is positively related to intentions to quit (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004). For lower-level employees, the supervisor is synonymous with the organization and abused subordinates feel that their employer cares little about them. They are unlikely to identify with and develop a sense of attachment to the organization, and they fail to gain satisfaction from their work. They are also likely to leave the organization.

2.3.4.2 Employee behaviors

Studies have also associated abusive supervision positively with subordinates' dysfunctional resistance (Tepper, Duffy & Shaw, 2001), deviant behaviors (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009), silence behaviors (Rafferty & Restubog, 2010), counter productivity (Detert, Trevino, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007) and negatively to organizational citizenship behaviors (Aryee et al., 2007; Zellars et al., 2002) and job performance (Harris, Kacmar & Zivnuska, 2007). Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) and Tepper et al., (2009) have used different theories (e.g. frustration and displaced aggression theory, power-dependence theory) depending on the focus of their studies, to examine the relationship between abusive supervision and workplace deviance. Although the results of the two studies differ in the strength of the correlation, they consistently show that abused subordinates reciprocate by engaging in deviant behaviors. Apart from individual-level

deviant or counter-productive work behaviors, Detert et al., (2007) showed that abusive supervision was also related to unit-level counter-productivity (defined as food loss within the business unit), which in turn, affected restaurant profitability and customer satisfaction.

Conversely, abusive supervision is negatively related to OCB and job performance. OCBs are individual behaviors that are discretionary and not recognized by the formal reward system. Hence, based on the tenets of social exchange (Blau, 1964), victims under an abusive supervisor would not “reciprocate” with discretionary behaviors directed at organizations or individuals (Aryee et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2012; Zellars et al., 2002). In the study by Harris et al., (2007), abusive supervision is conceived as a job stressor. Subordinates need to expend time and energy “managing upwards” rather than focusing on their core job tasks, resulting in poorer job performance. Based on the above empirical evidences, one may conclude that abusive supervision is associated with negative outcomes for the subordinates and the organization.

2.3.4.3 Employee well-being

Abusive supervision is also linked to negative manifestations of employee psychological well-being, such as anxiety and depression (Tepper, 2000), poor life satisfaction (Tepper, 2000), somatic health complaints (Duffy et al., 2002), problem drinking (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), emotional exhaustion (Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2007) and job tension (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007). With abusive supervision as workplace stressor, abused subordinates have to muster resources and energies to cope

with their jobs. Such coping behaviors drain employees' resources, which in turn leads to health-related problems such as job tension, emotional exhaustion, somatic health complaints, drinking problems and depression.

2.3.4.4 Impact beyond work context

Empirical studies have demonstrated that abusive supervisor's influence extends beyond the employee's work domain. Abusive supervision has been linked to work-family conflict (Tepper, 2000) and family undermining (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Restubog et al., 2011), where employees project work-related resentment against their family members. This body of work supports the concept of displaced-aggression where mistreated subordinates use aggression against innocent and available targets such as their immediate family members.

The extensive studies examining the negative outcomes of abusive supervision have built a wide body of knowledge ranging from employees' attitudes and well-being to their behaviors in the workplace. The negative consequences of abusive supervision also spill over from the work domain into the family domain (work-family conflict and family undermining). Yet, there is still a gap in the understanding of how hostile supervisors weave their influence at the group level. According to Hershcovis and Barling (2009), future research on workplace aggression should explore the broader social network or relationships embedded in the experience of workplace aggression and how they influence victims' experiences and responses. Unless there is only one supervisor and one subordinate in the work team, there is a need to broaden our understanding of the dynamic interplay between the perpetrator and his or her

team members. Only by examining the group level influence can we have a more realistic and complete picture of the abusive supervision phenomenon. Unfortunately, the majority of studies have focused on examining only the consequences of abusive supervision at the individual level. We do not understand how such hostilities influence group climates such as the procedural justice climate and the climate of silence.

2.3.5 Moderators of Abusive Supervision

A valuable stream of research on abusive supervision has emerged to explain the differential impact of such toxic supervision on the consequences for subordinates. Various individual difference moderators and situational moderators have been investigated to explain the differential reactions of subordinates to abusive supervision. The individual difference moderators that are examined include job mobility (Tepper, 2000), conscientiousness and agreeableness (Tepper et al., 2001), subordinate's role definitions of OCB (Zellars et al., 2002), history of aggression and self-esteem (Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005), reasons for working (Dupre, Inness, Connelly, Barling, & Hopton, 2006), negative reciprocity beliefs (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), meaning of work (Harris et al., 2007), upward maintenance communications (Tepper et al., 2007) and intentions to quit (Tepper et al., 2009). The situational factors that moderate the relationship between abusive supervision and employees' outcomes include organizational management style (Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009), work unit structure (Aryee et al., 2008) and norms of organizational deviance (Tepper et al., 2008).

In tandem with research on the boundary conditions of abusive supervision-work outcome relationships, research has also examined the boundary conditions of the antecedents of abusive supervision. Studies have found individual differences, such as the supervisor's authoritarian style (Aryee et al., 2007), the supervisor's hostile attribution style (Hoobler & Brass, 2006) and the subordinate's negative affectivity (Tepper et al., 2006) moderate the relationships between the antecedents and the perceptions of abusive supervision.

Although an extensive list of moderators has been examined, gaps still exist in the scholarly inquiry into abusive supervision. While studies on abusive supervision have been conducted in both the Western and Asian context, the influence of individual-level cultural factors has been relatively under-explored. Tepper (2007) argues that cultural factors, and more specifically, power distance, may have moderating effects on the relationship between abusive supervision and employee-outcome and calls for more studies to address this issue. To date, only two published papers have examined the moderating role of individual-level cultural variables. The first is a paper by Liu, Kwan, Wu, & Wu (2010), which examined subordinate's traditionalism in the relationship between abusive supervision and revenge cognitions directed toward supervisors. The second is a paper by Lian, Ferris, and Brown (2012), which examined the mitigating and exacerbating effects of subordinates' power distance on interactional justice and interpersonal deviance using sample from the US. However, we do not know how individual power distance manifests its influences in the Chinese setting. Moreover, there is also a need to take into

consideration both the perpetrator's power distance orientation and victim's power distance orientation when examining their influences in the abusive supervision phenomenon.

There has been recent increasing interest among research scholars in the study of abusive supervision in the workplace. In this chapter, I have reviewed the current literature and identified the gaps in the literature on abusive supervision. Both studies described in Chapter 3 attempt to address these gaps. The first study adopts an instrumental perspective to examining the antecedent and outcomes of abusive supervision. The second study adopts a reactive perspective to examining the antecedent and outcomes of abusive supervision at both the individual and group level. The following sections elaborate on the underlying theories used for each of the studies.

2.4 Underlying Theories

2.4.1 Frustration and Displaced Aggression Framework

The frustration and displaced aggression theory (Dollard et al., 1939) was developed by a group of researchers from the disciplines of clinical psychology (Dollard), social psychology (Doob), physiological psychology (Miller), learning theory (Mowrer), and developmental psychology (Sears). The theory proposes that frustration creates an innate energy or drive that is released through direct attacks on targets. When the energy or drive is dammed by learned inhibitions (such as punishments), the energy or drive is pushed out or released through attacks on other targets (displaced aggression).

Dollard et al., (1939) offered two reasons for individuals displacing aggression. The first reason is the availability of the harm-doer for the victim to retaliate against. The second reason is the victim's fear of further retaliation from the harm-doer. Should either of these constraints occur, direct retaliation is curbed and aggressive behaviors may be redirected or displaced on less powerful or more available targets (e.g., coworkers).

The frustration and displaced aggression framework has been applied in literature on abusive supervision. Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) applied the theory to explain the relationship between abusive supervision and employee deviance. Abused employees choose to retaliate and displace their aggression toward the organization (organizational deviance) and individuals other than the supervisor (interpersonal deviance). Aryee et al., (2007) also draws from this theory to examine the trickle-down effects of supervisors' interactional justice to subordinates' perceptions of mistreatment. When supervisors experience interactional injustice, they displace their aggression downwards onto their subordinates and subsequently affect subordinates' experiences of interactional injustice. However, these studies have examined the abusive supervision phenomenon at the individual level, and there is limited understanding of the broader social network within which supervisors' hostilities affect team members. Hence, a key objective of Study 2 is to apply this frustration and displaced aggression framework using a multilevel approach to explain supervisor's interactional injustice as an antecedent of abusive supervision at the group level.

2.4.2 Social Interactionist Framework of Aggression

Unlike the frustration and displaced aggression framework which explains aggression as being “pushed out” by the perpetrator, the social interactionist framework of aggression explains aggression as being “pulled” by the end objectives that the perpetrator is trying to achieve. Supervisors have valued goals and in the pursuit of their goals, they may use coercive actions as a form of social influence on their subordinates. The social interactionist framework of aggression proposed by Tedeschi and Felson (1994) provides an alternative perspective that can be used to explain the abusive supervision phenomenon.

Before elaborating further on the social interactionist framework of aggression, there is a need to first define “coercive actions” and explain how coercive actions relate to aggression. Tedeschi and Felson (1994) broaden the narrow definition of aggression to include a more general form of social influence known as coercive actions. Coercive actions include threats and punishments that are intended to produce some change in the targeted person. Threats have been defined as a form of communication (Tedeschi, 1970) that is used to signal to the target (in this case, subordinates) what they should or should not be doing. Tedeschi (1970) also suggests that punishments may take the form of noxious stimulation, deprivation of existing resources and social punishments. Noxious stimulation involves the infliction of bodily pain on the target; deprivation of existing resources involves the imposition of costs upon or withdrawal of expected gains from the target; and social punishment involves

attacking the target's self-concept (such as criticism, name calling and social ostracism). Given the illegitimate consequences of using noxious stimulation, it is highly unlikely that supervisors will inflict bodily harm on their subordinates. Rather, supervisors are prone to use the other two forms of punishments, that is, deprivation of existing resources and social punishments.

Importantly, the use of the term coercive actions allows the researcher to use both lenses (the actor's perspective and the victim's perspective) to examine the abusive supervision phenomenon. From the actor's (supervisor's) perspective, coercive action is a form of social influence to change the target's (subordinate's) behaviors and attitudes. Often, the supervisor views his or her own coercive actions as legitimate and even moral (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). However, from the victim's perspective, coercive actions in the form of threats and punishments are a form of aggression or abuse on the part of the supervisor. Under the social interactionist framework of aggression, such coercive actions by supervisors are: (1) viewed as energy that is "pulled" rather than "pushed", (2) planned and premeditated behaviors contrasting with the unplanned and impulsive behaviors of frustrated aggression and, (3) instrumental from the supervisor's perspective in attaining their goals rather than causing harm.

Drawing from various literatures in sociology, psychology, and criminology, Tedeschi and Felson (1994) develop a comprehensive theory to explain why one engages in coercive actions. They identify three goals that actors of coercive actions possess. These goals include (1) effecting compliance in others, (2) creating and maintaining desired identities, and (3) maintaining a

just world. There is also theoretical support amongst organizational behavior scholars who propose that aggression may be instrumental in helping the actor attain his or her goals (O'Leary-Kelly, Paetzold, & Griffin, 2000; Scott, Colquitt, & Paddock, 2009). O'Leary-Kelly et al., (2000) framed sexual harassment as a form of behavior that actors choose in their pursuit of valued goals. Similarly, Scott et al., (2009) suggest that managers may choose to either adhere to or violate rules of justice depending on their motives to gain compliance, restore justice and promote or defend desired identities. Based on their interviews with managers, Butterfield, Trevino, and Ball (1996) also provide support for an instrumental explanation to why managers punish their subordinates. Other than the study by Butterfield et al., (1996), there is a lack of empirical evidence supporting an instrumental perspective of workplace aggression from supervisors directed toward their subordinates. One of the aims of Study 1 is to apply the social interactionist framework of aggression to the abusive supervision literature and examine the instrumental perspective of abusive supervision and its associated outcomes.

2.4.3 Social Exchange Theory

Blau (1964; p. 91) defines social exchange as “voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the return they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others.” This social exchange process is reciprocal in nature, and when reciprocations do not occur as expected, the other member may withdraw his or her services. The social interactions based on

these exchanges are guided by norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) that help create obligations for individuals to return favour when they receive any benefit.

In the abusive supervision context, the social exchange process is replaced with negative reciprocity where negative treatment is returned or repaid with negative treatment (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Again, this theory has predominantly been used to explain the relationships between abusive supervision and outcomes such as OCB, affective commitment and job performance (see earlier review on consequences of abusive supervision under section 2.3.4). Similarly, this framework will be used in Study 2 to explain the cross-level main effects of abusive supervision on subordinates' job performance and silence behaviors.

2.4.4 Justice Theory

Over decades, scholars have been interested in the study of workplace justice. Justice has been referred to as employees' individual perceptions of how fairly they each feel they are treated at work (Rupp, Bashshur, & Liao, 2005). Employees are exposed to events at work and when they experience injustice that results from such events, their sense of injustice guides their attitudes and behaviors.

According to the justice literature, there are three predominant forms of justice from which individuals evaluate and assess the fairness of events in the workplace. Distributive justice focuses on the fairness of outcome allocation; procedural justice focuses on the fairness of the procedures utilized to make

allocation decisions; and interactional justice focuses on the fairness of the interpersonal treatment the individual receives during the enactment of the procedures. Greenberg (1993) proposed a sub-division of interactional justice, which includes fairness judgments made about the information provided on procedures (informational justice) and the basic interpersonal behaviors directed at the employees (interpersonal justice).

With the increase in multilevel research in recent years, justice scholars are interested in how justice climates emerge and influence team-level outcomes. Through both bottom-up processes (by which individuals within workgroups come to develop a shared cognition about how the group as a whole is treated) and top-down processes (by which the organization imposes structures and contingencies on the group, which causes climates to emerge); individual perceptions of justice within meaningful work groups are shaped and shared among the work groups and a climate of justice emerges. The paper by Mossholder, Bennett, and Martin (1998) was the first influential piece to argue for the move of procedural justice from individual-level construct to the group-level phenomenon. The authors argue that when multiple group members perceived themselves as being treated in a similar way by authorities, “justice perceptions may emerge in the aggregate” (Mossholder et al., 1998, p. 132). Nauman and Bennett (2000) extend the Mossholder et al., (1998) findings showing that group cohesion, demographic similarity among group members and managers’ visibility fostered the emergence of a procedural justice climate and, in turn, predicted organizational commitment and helping behaviors. More

recently, Ehrhart (2004) found that servant leadership predicted a procedural justice climate and, in turn, influenced unit-level helping behaviors.

Within the literature on abusive supervision, Tepper (2000) found that organizational justice (a global construct) plays the mediating role between abusive supervision and negative consequences, such as reduced job and life satisfaction, lower affective and normative commitment, and psychological distress. Subsequent studies provide finer-grained analyses of procedural injustice (Zellars et al., 2002) and interactional injustice (Aryee et al., 2007) as mediating mechanisms in Western (US) and Eastern (China) contexts respectively. To date, no study has explored the influence of abusive supervision on justice at group level. Hence, a more fruitful avenue of research in abusive supervision is to move beyond individual level of justice to examine how abusive supervisors shape the climate of justice.

2.4.5 Social Influence Theory

Kelman's (1958; 1961) social influence theory was first introduced to examine persuasive communication (influence attempt) and then extended to examine long-term relationships. In recent years, this theory was applied to analyze the relationship of individuals to social systems (Kelman, 2006). In affecting influence, Kelman (1958, 1961) proposes and distinguishes three social influence processes (compliance, identification and internalization); each with its distinct set of antecedents and consequences.

Compliance can be said to occur when an individual accepts influence from another person or a group in order to attain a favorable reaction from the other, to either (1) gain specific reward or approval from others, or (2) avoid specific punishment controlled by the other or avoid disapproval from others (Kelman, 2006). The key antecedents for inducing compliance behaviors include the presence of means-control and limitation of choices. Individuals are induced to comply with the influencing agent's requests because they are concerned with attaining a favorable response from the influencing agent. The individual hopes to secure a specific reward or to avoid specific punishment that the influencing agent controls. Kelman (2006) provides the example of therapists' influences on their patients' behaviors. Patients are likely to obey the instructions of the therapist and engage in therapeutic work when the therapist behaves as a sanctioning agent.

On the second set of social influence, identification can be said to occur when an individual accepts influence from another person or a group in order to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship with the other (Kelman, 2006). The relationship may be based on reciprocity (meeting the other person's expectations) or modeling (taking on the role of the other person). A key antecedent for inducing identification with the influencer is the attractiveness of the influencer as a role model. The influencing agent possesses qualities that attract the individual to want to maintain a lasting relationship. Through role modeling, that individual defines his or her own role in terms of the influencing agent's role and attempts to either be like the influencing agent or actually take on the role of the influencing agent. In turn, that individual will

sculpture his or her behaviors and attitudes on the basis of the influencer. Referring again to Kelman's (2006) example of the therapist and the patient, the patient is more willing to commit to the entire therapeutic situation and will unfreeze his or her old behaviors and develop new behaviors.

Finally, internalization can be said to occur when an individual accepts influence from another in order to maintain the congruence of actions and beliefs with his or her own value system. Internalization differs from identification in that the individual finds satisfaction in the content of the induced new behaviors. The induced behaviors are congruent with one's individual values and meet one's needs and are expressed regardless of the presence of influencing agent.

Given that one of the main aims of Study 1 was to examine the instrumental influence supervisors' coercive actions on their subordinates, it is appropriate to examine if whether subordinates comply with such coercive influence. Prior literature on abusive supervision has mentioned the strained supervisor-subordinate relationship (Aryee et al., 2007) and low levels of affective commitment (Tepper et al., 2008) from subordinates toward their supervisors. Hence, drawing from Kelman's social influence theory in Study 1, this thesis suggests that personal identification may be another form of relational influence used by abusive supervisors toward targeted subordinates.

2.4.6 Self-concept-based Leadership Theory

The self-concept-based leadership theory (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004) proposes that the follower's self-identity may mediate the influence of leadership on the follower's attitudes and behaviors. Followers define their identities by: (1) their unique individuating characteristics (personal self), (2) their relationships with significant others (relational self), and (3) their shared identity with others (collective self). There is both theoretical and empirical support demonstrating that transformational leaders exert their influence on followers by changing their identities and self-concepts (Howell & Shamir, 2005; Kark et al., 2003; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Liu et al., 2010; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Specifically, transformational leadership changes the follower's self-identity, especially the relational self (personal identification). Through individualized consideration, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation from their transformational leader, the follower is motivated to become similar to the leader in terms of beliefs, values and behaviors. Empirical studies conducted by Kark et al., (2003) and Liu et al., (2010) found employees' personal identification mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and high dependency on leader as well as speaking up.

While this theory has been applied to explain the underlying mechanisms through which transformational leaders influence followers, it may also help to explain the underlying mechanisms through which abusive supervision influences subordinates' outcomes. Abusive leaders may fail to

influence followers' relational self-identity (i.e., personal identification); which, in turn, will affect subordinates' work outcomes. This will be elaborated in Chapter 3 in the hypotheses development.

2.5 Summary

This chapter reviewed and discussed the current literature on abusive supervision and delineated the abusive supervision construct from other related constructs. Despite the low base-rate phenomenon of abusive supervision in the workplace, there is no lack or shortage of empirical studies on the “dark side” of leadership. Existing literature focuses on various relationships from exploring the antecedents of abusive supervision to understanding the underlying causal mechanisms and finally examining contextual variables that explain differing employee reactions. This thesis adds to the gaps in the existing literature on the abusive supervision phenomenon by using two studies to examine abusive supervision from the instrumental and reactive perspectives. Last but not least, in the last section of this chapter, I discussed the six theories that underpin the development of the hypothesized relationships in Study 1 and Study 2 on abusive supervision.

CHAPTER 3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

DEVELOPMENT

This chapter presents two studies (Study 1 and Study 2) and provides the theoretical justifications for the hypothesized relationships in each of the two studies. First, the chapter provides an overview for each study and presents the respective model depicting the relationships among the study variables. Next, hypotheses are developed based on theoretical and empirical justifications to explain the hypothesized relationships for each of the models for both studies. Hypotheses pertaining to the instrumental perspective of abusive supervision are presented, followed by the reactive perspective to abusive supervision.

3.1 Instrumental and Reactive Perspectives to Abusive Supervision

Previous studies on abusive supervision (see Aryee et al., 2007; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) have drawn from aggression literature to explain abusive supervision as a form of reactive aggression in which supervisors engage when they are treated unfairly or when they are frustrated. However, the aggression literature distinguishes between instrumental and reactive aggression (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Reactive aggressions are “hot acts” driven (or “pushed”) automatically by impulses as reactions to contextual and/or situational circumstances. On the other hand, instrumental aggressions are primarily “cold acts” motivated (or “pulled”) by cognitive judgment of the anticipated benefits and costs of engaging in such behaviors. Organizational behavior scholars have argued that aggression may be instrumental in helping the actors attain their goals (O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2000; Scott et al., 2009).

Given the rich theoretical and empirical support in the literature for both instrumental and reactive aggression, this constitutes a good starting point from which to examine the instrumental and reactive influences of abusive supervision. Specifically, this research examined two forms of justice as predictors of supervisors' hostilities toward their subordinates: (1) supervisor's just-world motive and (2) supervisor's interactional justice. Study 1 examined the instrumental influence of supervisor's justice-world motive on abusive supervision and its associated outcomes. Study 2 examined the reactive influence of supervisor's interactional justice on group level abusive supervision and the accompanying consequences at both group level and individual level.

3.2 Study 1 - Instrumental Perspective to Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision

3.2.1 Study Overview

The first study draws from Tedeschi and Felson's (1994) social interactionist framework of aggression which interprets aggression (or coercive behaviors) as social influence behaviors where actors use coercive actions to produce some changes in their target's behaviors. According to Tedeschi and Felson (1994), coercive actions can be used by an actor to: (1) comply with actor's goals such as securing information, money, goods, sex, services or safety (i.e., compliance motive), (2) exact retributive justice for perceived wrongs (i.e., justice motive), or (3) bring about desired social and self-identities such as a tough or competent image (i.e., impression motive).

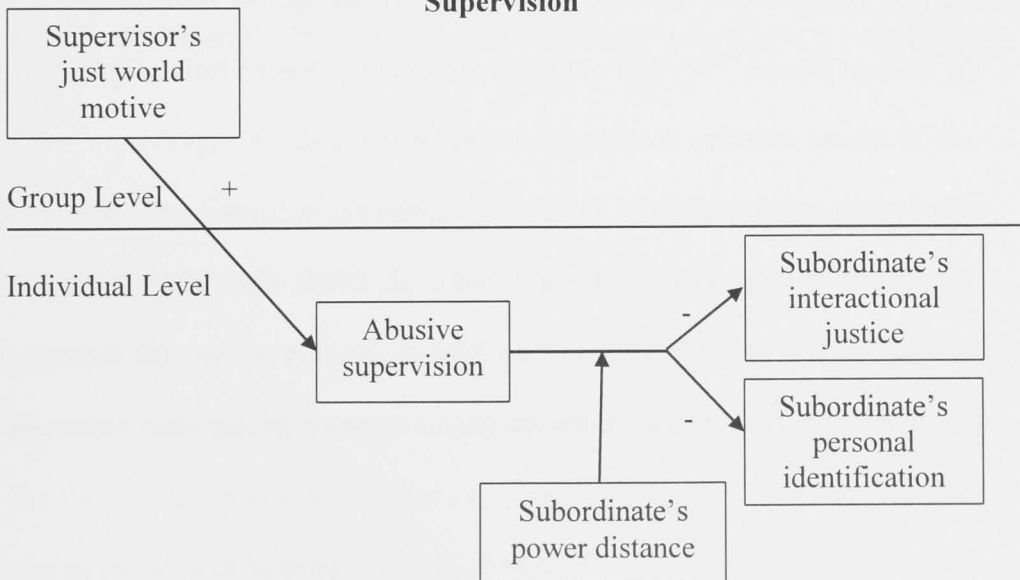
Given that the main focus of this research was to examine two forms of justice as predictors of supervisor's hostilities (one from instrumental perspective and another from reactive perspective), it was beyond the current scope of this research to explore the compliance motive and the impression motive. Instead, Study 1 was confined to exploring the role that supervisor's just-world motive plays in predicting abusive supervision.

As the supervisor attempts to maintain his or her just-world motive, how do the abused subordinates react? Prior work on the consequences of abusive supervision has shown that abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinates' perceptions of interactional justice (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000). Therefore, one may infer that the supervisor's motive to maintain a just-world may actually backfire because the abused subordinate may feel that his or her supervisor has treated him or her unfairly. While previous studies have examined only one aspect of the relationship (i.e., abusive supervision and the subordinate's interactional justice), it remains an empirical question to examine if the supervisor's motive to maintain a just world may backfire when supervisors engage in coercive actions. Whether abused subordinates will accept the supervisor's social influence is another question that needs to be addressed. Evidences from previous studies show that some subordinates retaliate against supervisors (e.g. Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) whereas other evidences show that subordinates' attitudes (e.g. affective commitment) and behaviors (e.g. extra-role behaviors) are adversely affected (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000). Yet, these studies have failed to answer whether the abused

subordinate will accept the supervisor’s influence when they use coercive actions with the aim of redistributing justice.

Finally, Study 1 also sought to understand the boundary conditions that explain the differential effects of the abusive supervision phenomenon. Most studies on abusive supervision have been conducted in the Western context and there remains a gap in our understanding of the influences of the cultural context. According to Tepper (2007), cultural factors may lead to abusive supervision being more or less acceptable and could thus have moderating effects on the relationship between abusive supervision and outcomes. Hence, an interesting theoretical and empirical question is: “How does subordinate’s power distance influence his or her responses to abusive supervision?” The model in Figure 3.1 depicts the hypothesized relationships for Study 1.

FIGURE 3.1
Cross-level Examination of Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision



3.2.2 Supervisor's Just-World Motive and Abusive Supervision

Before proceeding to describe the hypothesized relationships, there is a need to define motive. Following Simon (1964), motive is defined as the need or desire that causes one to choose one action over another with the intent to maximize opportunities to attain one's goals.

Belief in a just world (BJW) is a theory of justice based on the premise that people get what they deserve and deserve what they get. According to Lerner (1980), humans want to believe that individuals get what they deserve and deserve what they get. Injustice threatens one's belief system and motivates one to restore justice directly or to help maintain one's belief in a just world by reinterpreting the injustice and blaming and derogating the victims.

The just-world motive refers to the desire to take actions to ensure people are treated fairly and are entitled to what they deserve. Supervisors with the just-world motive are motivated to take actions against those who violate the rules of justice. They feel obligated not only to observe rules of justice but also to expect others to do likewise. From this perspective, supervisors' use of coercive actions, in particular, the use of punishment is driven by the concern to keep the scales of justice in balance (Scott et al., 2009). Derived from the BJW theory, the "just desert" theory and the "deterrence theory" provide theoretical justifications for supervisors' motivations to use punish or use sanctions against their subordinates.

The just desert theory (Carlsmith, Darley, & Robinson, 2002) explains why supervisors who possess just-world orientation would punish those who have violated normative rules of justice. In the study by Carlsmith et al., (2002), the authors show that the underlying motive for punishment is associated with the just deserts perspective, or the old and *barbaric lex talionis* law of “an eye for an eye”. Supervisors who are motivated to maintain a just world seek to rectify what they perceive as offensive and norm-violating behaviors on the part of subordinates. Retributive actions taken against subordinates are viewed as “just deserts” (Carlsmith et al., 2002). Such supervisors are not only interested in ensuring that social punishment is meted out to those who violate the norms of justice, but also interested in ensuring the punishment is commensurate with the moral outrage experienced. Hence, supervisors are likely to respond using forms of social punishments such as denying recognition, withholding rewards, or treating the recalcitrant subordinates disrespectfully. From the just desert perspective, achieving retributive justice is a proximal goal for the supervisor as it fulfils the supervisor’s desire to ensure that social punishment is meted out in a fair manner.

The second reason for the motive to maintain a just-world stems from a utilitarian perspective. The deterrence theory (Zimring & Hawkins, 1973) suggests that managers use punishment or sanctions to heighten risks to observers and deter them from engaging in future acts of justice violations. Trevino (1992) provides evidence of managers who hold the deterrence view punish individuals to deter others from behaving in prohibited behaviors. When subordinates engage in anti-normative behaviors, such as behaving uncivilly,

acting rudely to others and/or shirking their job responsibilities, supervisors are motivated to deter violations of justice norms (Messick, Bloom, Boldizar, & Samuelson, 1985). They are likely to respond with social punishments such as distributing inequitable rewards and denying voice.

In cases where supervisors are unable to restore justice by taking actions against the offender, supervisors are more likely to rationalize the injustice by attributing blame and derogating the victims. Hafer (2002) shows that individuals, who would not nor could not help innocent victims, disparage the victims by inferring that the victims deserve their fate. By derogating the victims, such individuals are able to restore and maintain their belief in a just world. In a case study of the downsizing of Atari, it was revealed that the retrenched employees were not only dismissed without warning, but also escorted from Atari premises and denigrated by the management who said “Now we’ve gotten rid of all the rummies...” (Sutton, Eisenhardt, & Jucker, 1986, p. 21).

Both the just desert theory and the deterrence theory suggest that supervisors who are motivated to maintain the scales of justice will use sanctions and punishments against subordinates who violate the norms of justice. Such coercive actions from the supervisor are, in turn, interpreted by the abused subordinate as unjustified, hostile and abusive. Based on the arguments above, the following hypothesis is proposed¹:

¹ Given that Aryee et al. (2007) has shown that supervisor’s interactional justice is positively related to abusive supervision, I controlled for supervisor’s interactional justice to examine the incremental influence of supervisor’s justice-world motive on abusive supervision in Study 1.

Hypothesis 1: Supervisor's just-world motive is positively related to abusive supervision.

3.2.3 Abusive Supervision and Subordinate's Interactional Justice

Interactional justice describes the quality of the interpersonal treatment that individuals receive at the hands of higher authority (Bies & Moag, 1986; Folger & Bies, 1989). The critical elements central to perceptions of interactional justice are: (1) clear and adequate explanations or justifications and, (2) treatment with dignity and respect toward the recipient. When the abused subordinates are yelled at and denigrated in front of others by their supervisors, they are likely to perceive interactional injustice as their supervisor fail to treat them with respect and propriety, and are insensitive to their personal needs. Empirical evidence has demonstrated subordinates' perception of interactional justice is negatively associated with abusive supervision (Aryee et al., 2007; Rafferty & Restubog, 2010; Tepper, 2000). Accordingly, it is hypothesized that a direct relationship exists between abusive supervision and subordinate's interactional justice:

Hypothesis 2: Abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinate's interactional justice.

3.2.4 Abusive Supervision and Subordinate's Personal Identification

Subordinate's personal identification may occur when an individual accepts influence because he or she wants to establish or maintain a satisfying

self-defining relationship with the leader (Kelman, 1958). The subordinate's identification reflects a conscious valuing of the supervisor's goals such that the behaviors requested by the supervisor are accepted or owned as personally important to the subordinate. Subordinates who identify with their supervisor either share the same goals or values as their supervisor or are prepared to change their behaviors so that their goals and values are similar to those of their supervisor. They are motivated to help their supervisors accomplish their goals such that they see them as their own personal successes or failures.

According to the social influence theory (Kelman, 1961), the key antecedents for identification with the influencer are: (1) the attractiveness of the influencer as a role model and, (2) the relationship the target shares with the influencer. Through role modeling, the individual defines his or her own role in terms of the influencing agent's role and will sculpture his or her own behaviors based on the influencer. Hence, supervisors who are role models and who build strong relationships with their subordinates will influence their subordinates to share their goals and to shape behaviors and attitudes toward achieving the supervisors' goals. Transformational leadership and charismatic leadership theories have both demonstrated the importance of personal identification as a mode of influence that leaders exert over their followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Kark et al., 2003).

While empirical evidence has demonstrated the positive relationship between transformational leadership and subordinate's personal identification, this study posits that abusive supervisors do not foster subordinates' personal identification. First, abused subordinates are unlikely either to attribute strong

qualities to their abusive supervisors or to model their own behaviors after the supervisors. Second, abusive supervisors are unable to build strong relationships with their subordinates. Aryee et al., (2007) described the relationship between the supervisor and the subordinates as “poor”, while Martinko, Harvey, Sikora, and Douglas (2010) reported a negative relationship between leader-member exchange and abusive supervision. Apart from poor-quality relationships, abusive supervisors also breed resentment and negative feelings among subordinates. Liu et al., (2010) found that revenge cognition is a mediator of the abusive supervision-employee outcome relationship while Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) showed that subordinates in fact retaliate against their abusive supervisors. It is not surprising to find the absence of role modeling; poor supervisor-subordinate relationships and subordinates’ negative sentiments help to explain why abused subordinates fail to identify with their supervisors. Based on the above arguments, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinate’s personal identification.

3.2.5 The Mediating Influence of Abusive Supervision

This study also examines the indirect influence of supervisors’ just-world motive on subordinates’ interactional justice and personal identification. Although I am not aware of any published research or theory linking supervisors’ just-world motive to subordinates’ responses, the previous arguments in the earlier sections of this thesis linking supervisors’ just-world motive and abusive supervision as well as the abusive supervision with

subordinates' responses (interactional justice and personal identification) may suggest that abusive supervision has a mediating effect. While I do not posit that abusive supervision is the only factor mediating the relationship between supervisor's just-world motive and subordinate's reactions, supervisor's abuse can serve as an explanatory mechanism and explain a relevant amount of variance in each consequence. Implicit in this line of reasoning is the notion that supervisors' motive can only be manifested through their behaviors enacted toward their subordinates, which in turn, induces subordinates to react either negatively or positively to such behaviors. For example, supervisors who have strong just-world motive are inclined to seek out subordinates who violate the norms of justice and to use coercive actions on these norm violators. In turn, the abused targets or subordinates feel they have been treated unfairly and they fail to identify with their supervisors. This line of reasoning is also consistent with 2 recent studies that provided arguments and supporting evidences demonstrating the mediating role of abusive supervision. For example, the study by Harris, Harvey and Kacmar (2011) showed that abusive supervision mediated the relationship between supervisor's relational conflict with coworkers and subordinates' outcomes (work effort and OCB). Similarly, the study by Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne and Marinova (in-press) also showed the trickle down influence of abusive manager's behaviors on abusive supervision and consequently workgroup deviance. As such, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Abusive supervision mediates the relationship between the supervisor's just-world motive and the subordinate's interactional justice.

Hypothesis 5: Abusive supervision mediates the relationship between the supervisor's just-world motive and the subordinate's personal identification.

3.2.6 Abusive Supervision and Subordinates' Responses: The Moderating Role of Power Distance

Several scholars have advanced theoretical arguments that suggest cultural value orientations can shape the behaviors, styles, skills and personality traits that characterize employees' perceptions of leadership effectiveness (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Javidan, Dorfman, deLuque, & House, 2006). In the study conducted by Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, and Dorfman (1999), the authors found that several attributes such as a domineering leader (someone who exerts substantial power within a group) is more accepted and more highly regarded in higher power distance societies. Subsequent studies have also demonstrated that cultural value orientations can play an important role in the ways in which followers react to transformational leaders (Kirkman et al., 2009; Spreitzer, Perttula, & Xin, 2005; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa, Lawler, & Avolio, 2007).

Study 1 examined the influence of subordinate's power distance orientation on his or her reactions to abusive supervision. Power distance is defined here as the extent to which one accepts that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 2001). It is conceptualized at

the individual level rather than at the country level. The mixed results from previous empirical studies examining culture at the country level (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Kuchinke, 1999; Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; Yu, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2002) suggest that cultural values can meaningfully affect the leadership process at the individual level rather than at the country level (Kirkman et al., 2009).

The culturally implicit theories of leadership provide the theoretical justification for explaining that the strength of abusive supervision on subordinates' reactions is dependent on the subordinate's cultural orientations, particularly, the subordinate's power distance orientation. Subordinates with high power distance orientation believe that leaders are superior and elite and deserve subordinates' respect and deference. These high power distance individuals are less likely to bypass their bosses; deeming such acts as insubordination. They are more likely to accept their own decision-making limitations and to trust their leaders to provide more reliable decisions (Javidan et al., 2006). Typical behaviors that characterize subordinates with high power distance orientation include obeying leaders' instructions without question, behaving submissively around managers and avoiding disagreements with leaders. Luthans, Peterson, and Ibrayeva (1998) posit that "dark leaders" emerge in cultures that endorse high power distance. Leaders such as Joseph Stalin and Mao Zedong were revered and accepted by their followers, despite their tyranny. Subordinates with high rather than low power distance orientations are more tolerant of the power asymmetry and are therefore more

likely to accept abusive behaviors (or less likely to perceive their supervisors as tyrannical) and less likely to question their supervisor's effectiveness.

The empirical study by Kirkman et al., (2009) demonstrates the moderating influence of power distance between transformational leadership and procedural justice. When subordinate's power distance orientation was low, there was an enhancement effect on the *positive* influence of transformational leadership and on the follower's perceptions of procedural justice. When one's power distance orientation was high, there was a reduction effect. However, this study posits that when the subordinate's power distance orientation is low, there is an enhancement effect on the *negative* relationship between abusive supervision and interactional justice and a reduction effect when the subordinate's power distance orientation is high. Subordinates with low power distance orientation value participation and involvement and are likely to perceive higher levels of interactional injustice when supervisors engage in hostility. Conversely, subordinates with high power distance orientation obey their supervisors' instructions and accept their supervisors' decision-making. They are more likely to maintain their perceptions of interactional justice under an abusive supervisor. The above arguments are consistent with the empirical study conducted by Lian, et al., (2012) which used a sample in the US to examine the mitigating effects of subordinates' high power distance on their evaluations of fairness when encountering an abusive supervisor. Consistent with the study by Lian et al., (2012), Study 1 replicates and tests the same hypothesis using a sample in China as follows:

Hypothesis 6: Subordinate's power distance moderates the negative relationship between abusive supervision and subordinate's interactional justice; the relationship is stronger for those lower, rather than higher, in power distance.

Power distance orientation would also exert a moderating influence on the negative relationship between abusive supervision and the subordinate's personal identification. Subordinates with high power distance (more hierarchical) are more willing to accept and maintain their identification with their hostile supervisors unlike those who are low in power distance orientation (egalitarian). On the other hand, individuals with low power distance orientation are more likely to expect and develop personalized relationships with their superiors when they view their leaders as approachable (Tyler, Lind, & Huo, 2000). When the norms for personalized interactions are violated, these subordinates with low power distance orientation are more likely to be affected by their supervisor's abusive treatment. Subordinates with low power distance will be less tolerant of or willing to endure hostilities from their supervisors and will fail to see any desirable qualities in their supervisors to emulate. Hence, subordinate's power distance will have moderating effects as follows:

Hypothesis 7: Subordinate's power distance moderates the negative relationship between abusive supervision and subordinate's personal identification; the relationship is stronger for those lower, rather than higher, in power distance.

3.3 Study 2 - Reactive Perspective to Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision

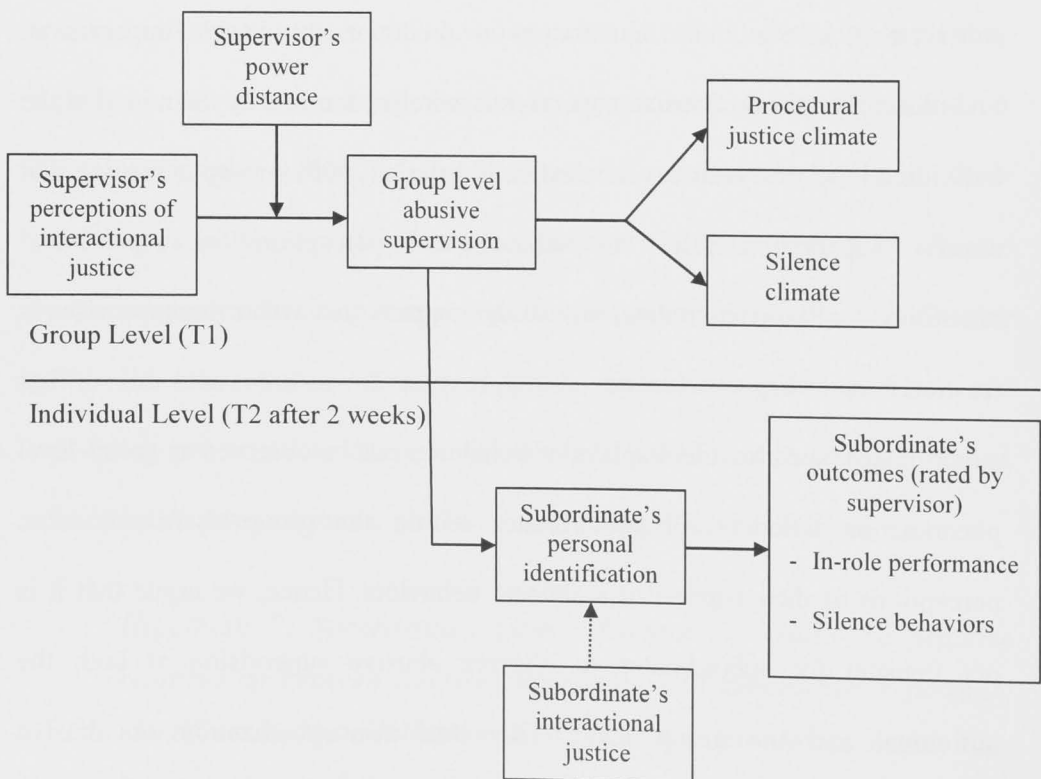
3.3.1 Study Overview

Study 2 examines the reactive influence of supervisors' interactional justice on group level abusive supervision and its associated outcomes at both the group and the individual levels. It differs from Study 1, which examines the instrumental influence of supervisor's just-world motive on abusive supervision and its related outcomes.

There are several goals for this study. First, it seeks to validate supervisor's interactional injustice as a predictor of abusive supervision. Previously, studies on abusive supervision were predominantly examined at the individual level or dyadic level based on Tepper's (2000) conceptualization that abusive supervision refers to subordinates' perceptions of supervisors' hostilities. Unlike past studies, this study suggests that when the supervisor is frustrated and displace his or her aggression downwards onto his or her subordinates, such hostile displays of behaviors can be observed as group-level phenomenon whereby all subordinates within the group share the same perceptions of their supervisor's abusive behaviors. Hence, we argue that it is not unusual for subordinates to observe abusive supervision at both the individual and the group level. This dual conceptualization of abusive supervision mirrors the literature on transformational leadership where transformational leadership can be observed at both the individual-level and group-level (Kark et al., 2003; Kirkman et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2005).

Second, this study adopts a multilevel approach examining the associated outcomes of abusive supervision at group level (procedural justice climate and silence climate) and at individual level (in-role performance and silence behaviors). Third, this study examines the supervisor's power distance orientation as a boundary condition that affects the intensity of his or her abusive behaviors. The model in Figure 3.2 below depicts the hypothesized relationships for Study 2.

FIGURE 3.2
Multilevel Examination of Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision



3.3.2 Supervisor's Interactional Justice and Abusive Supervision

The theory of frustration and displaced aggression (Dollard et al., 1939) provides the theoretical foundation to explain the relationship between the supervisor's interactional justice and abusive supervision. Research on displaced aggression suggests that individuals who become angry and frustrated with a harm-doer may displace their aggression toward individuals who are not the source of the harm (Dollard et al., 1939). Individual displaces aggression on others because (1) the harm doer may not be available to retaliate against or, (2) the victim may fear further retaliation from the harm doer. When either of these conditions occurs, the individual will displace his or her frustrations onto less powerful or more available targets such as his or her subordinates. Given the power asymmetry between supervisors and their immediate bosses, retaliation against a higher status offender can lead to reprisals (Bies & Tripp, 1998). Therefore, supervisors who experience interactional injustice at the hands of their immediate bosses are more likely to release their frustrations on their subordinates. Aryee et al., (2007) examined and found the negative relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and abusive supervision. However, following Aryee et al., (2007) study, one can only infer that it affects targeted or selected subordinates. Study 2 further argues that supervisors who experience interactional injustice at the hands of their immediate bosses will vent their frustrations upon their subordinates and such aggressive behaviors can be observed and elicit shared perceptions among the group members that their supervisors are hostile.

In Study 2, group level abusive supervision is defined as a perception shared among team or group members that their supervisor engages in a sustained display of both verbal and non-verbal hostile behaviors, excluding physical contact. According to the social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), the social context determines how individuals behave by influencing how they think and feel about aspects of their work environment. Subordinates who are working in shared environment are exposed to the same supervisor's behaviors and consequently interpret and develop a shared perception about their supervisor's behaviors. Hence, it is expected that subordinates of the same supervisor will have similar perceptions of that supervisor's behaviors than members of different groups resulting in the emergence of abusive supervision as group-level phenomenon. Based on the above discussion, this study hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1: Supervisor's interactional justice is negatively related to group level abusive supervision.

3.3.3 Moderating Role of Supervisor's Power Distance

The literature on workplace aggression has examined both situational and individual differences to predict workplace aggression. The interactionist perspective (Hattrup & Jackson, 1996) argues that situational factors may be a necessary but insufficient condition for predicting workplace aggression. This is also consistent with Folger and Skarlicki's (1998) "popcorn" model of workplace aggression which described organizational factors as "hot oil" and organizational members are "kernels". When both individual differences and

situational factors interact together, they are likely to “pop” or “explode”. The interactionist perspective has been applied in studies on abusive supervision. Aryee et al., (2007) showed that supervisors’ authoritarian leadership style (individual difference) interacted with supervisor’s interactional justice to predict abusive supervision. Similarly, Tepper et al. (2001) conceptualized abusive supervision as a situational factor moderated by the subordinate’s personality (conscientiousness and agreeableness) to predict the subordinate’s dysfunctional and constructive resistance.

Drawing from the interactionist perspective, this study argues that supervisor’s power distance orientation and supervisor’s interactional justice will interact to influence the intensity of abusive supervision. Supervisors who are subjected to interactional injustice at the hands of their immediate bosses may experience emotional states of anger, outrage, and frustration. While such aversive experiences may precipitate aggression, the degree or extent of aggression precipitated is contingent upon the dispositional characteristics of the individual. Consistent with the earlier conceptualization of power distance orientation at the individual level, supervisor’s power distance orientation deals with the supervisor’s beliefs about power, status and authority within the organization. Supervisors with low power distance orientation towards their subordinates are sensitive to the power asymmetry and they will endeavor to respect the rights of their subordinates to be treated as equals. Conversely, supervisors with high power distance orientation emphasize the power asymmetry between themselves and their subordinates, and they will expect their subordinates to be submissive and to demonstrate deference to their

authority. As such, when supervisors experience interactional injustice, those supervisors with high power distance orientations are more likely to intensify their aggressions toward their subordinates while those with low power distance orientation tend to inhibit the displacement of their aggressions onto their subordinates.

Hypothesis 2: Supervisor's power distance moderates the negative relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and group level abusive supervision such that the relationship will be stronger for those supervisors with high, rather than low power distance.

3.3.4 Abusive Supervision and Group Climates

Studies on leadership and leaders' behaviors have demonstrated that leaders can foster group climates that are perceived and shared among group members. Kozlowski and Doherty (1989, p. 547) maintained that climate formation is an "implicit aspect of leadership processes" and Neuman and Bennett (2000, p. 883) described leaders as "climate engineers". In addition, numerous empirical studies have also demonstrated how leaders' behaviors shape the formation of climates. For example, transformational leadership fostered a service climate (Liao & Chuang, 2007), servant leadership fostered a procedural justice climate (Ehrhart, 2004) and safety-specific transformational leadership engendered a safety climate (Barling, Loughlin, & Kelloway, 2002). Although past studies have shown that specific form of leadership style or behavior fosters different aspects of climate, this study extends the existing literature by suggesting that abusive supervision can promote multiple climates simultaneously. When supervisors manifest their abusive behaviors onto their

subordinates, the subordinates will perceive the supervisors' actions as unjust and may fear speaking out in case of retaliation from their supervisors. As such, two climates may emerge from abusive supervision: (1) procedural justice climate and (2) silence climate. This is consistent with Schneider's (1990) argument that multiple climates can exist in concert and supported in the recent study by Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke (2010) that showed servant leadership promotes both procedural justice climate and service climate.

Rupp et al., (2005) suggest that group climate emerges from both top-down and bottom-up processes. The bottom-up process draws from the social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and socialization literature to explain how subordinates use information gathered from others in their direct social contexts (e.g., peers) to form judgments about organizational practices, values, and norms. Given that members of the group are exposed to the same supervisor, policies and contextual characteristics, they will possess shared information and form common perceptions regarding the general practices and procedures within the group. In the top-down process, organizational policies, practices, and procedures influence how climates are formed within groups. In most cases, the interpretation and execution of organizational policies, practices and procedures are performed by the supervisors (Zohar & Luria, 2005) and this drives the extent to which a climate emerges. For example, in an organization with safety policies and procedures, a safety climate emerges when supervisors monitor safety issues, drive safety practices and reward subordinates for safety performance. To shape and reinforce a safety climate, supervisors would use social punishments (e.g.

workplace ostracism) for safety negligence and social rewards (e.g. lunch invitations) for safe behaviors. Thus, team members' perceptions of the safety climate depend on the supervisor's execution of company policies and procedures. In summary, both the top-down and bottom-up processes interact and converge to form the group climate commonly shared by team members.

Abusive supervision and procedural justice climate. Procedural justice climate is defined as “distinct group-level cognition about how a work group as a whole is treated” (Naumann & Bennett, 2000, p. 882). As discussed earlier, leader's behaviors directed towards the group may be an antecedent to the forming and strengthening of procedural justice climate. Past empirical evidences also support the role that the leader's behavior plays in shaping the formation of a procedural justice climate. Walumbwa, Wu, and Orwa (2008) reported that contingent reward transactional leadership promoted a procedural justice climate while Ehrhart (2004) found that the procedural justice climate partially mediated the relationship between servant leadership and unit-level OCB in their study on grocery chain stores.

In particular, studies examining the abusive supervision phenomenon at the individual level have shown that abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinates' perceptions of procedural justice (Zellars et al. 2002). This study proposes that the same negative relationship holds at the group level. As abusive supervision is conceptualized as a group level phenomenon that entails punitive behaviors directed toward the group rather than the individual members, the abused subordinates are likely to attribute such negative experiences to the lack of formalized procedures that ensure that they are not

mistreated or abused at work. Moreover, supervisor's lack of consistency, transparency and accuracy in reward allocation (e.g. "doesn't give subordinate credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort") coupled with the suppression of voices (e.g. "gives subordinate silent treatment") is likely to create perceptions amongst the team members that organizational decision-making process is not consistently applied, lacks ethics and morality; and denies them the opportunity to voice their opinions in shaping decision-making (Levanthal, 1980). Accordingly, abusive supervision as a leader behavior, is likely to foster a shared perception amongst of procedural injustice amongst the team members.

Abusive supervision and silence climate. A climate of silence is a shared perception among the group or team members that keeping silent is a wise strategy to protect one's self. In a theoretical paper on organizational silence, Morrison and Milliken (2000) introduced the concept of climate of silence to address the issue of why people do not speak out. A climate of silence is characterized by two shared beliefs: (1) speaking up about problems in the organization is not worth the effort, and (2) voicing one's opinions and concerns is dangerous (Morrison and Miliken, 2000). The literature on issue-selling and whistle-blowing suggest that employees are most likely to remain silent when they judge the efficacy of speaking up as low and the costs of doing so as high (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Miceli & Near, 1992; Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, & Roth, 1992; Withey, & Cooper, 1989). This study posits that subordinates under abusive supervisors are likely to perceive that team members will remain silent and refuse to speak in order to protect themselves as well as avoid retaliation from the higher authority rather than perceiving that

speaking up will be futile. Hence, this study focuses on and measures only one aspect of the silence climate, that is, the shared belief that keeping quiet helps to protect one's self.

Consistent with earlier discussion in this thesis on the emergence of a group climate, the shared perception of silence climate arises from both the bottom-up and the top-down process. According to Morrison and Milliken (2000), the climate of silence arises when team members engage in collective sense-making and "social contagion" as group or team members and interact with each other to make sense of their work environments. The top-down process occurs when managerial practices such as the tendency to reject or respond negatively to dissent, give rise to a climate of silence. In the case of abusive supervisors, they send cues to their subordinates that their opinions and feedback are not welcomed and when they react in hostile manner to subordinate's negative feedback; the subordinates will tend to collectively withhold their opinions. Tepper et al., (2007) found that subordinates under abusive supervisors tend to engage in more regulative maintenance tactics such as avoiding contact and censoring or distorting messages (e.g., talking superficially, avoiding asking for direction, and stretching the truth to avoid problems) to avoid retaliation from their supervisors. Hence, abusive supervision is likely to foster a perceived climate of silence at the group level. Taken together, this study hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 3a: Group level abusive supervision is negatively related to procedural justice climate.

Hypothesis 3b: Group level abusive supervision is positively related to silence climate.

3.3.5 The Mediating Role of Abusive Supervision

Consistent with my previous arguments linking the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and abusive supervision and the relationship between abusive supervision and group climates (procedural justice climate and silence climate), one can further argue that abusive supervision serve as an explanatory mechanism linking supervisor's interactional justice to group climates. The trickle-down framework suggests that when supervisors perceive injustice at the hands of their immediate bosses, they will displace their frustrations and display acts of aggression onto their subordinates. Such behaviors precipitate perceptions of procedural injustice and fear of speaking out amongst team members and, in turn, foster climates of procedural injustice and silence. As such, this study offers the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4a: Group level abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and procedural justice climate.

Hypothesis 4b: Group level abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and silence climate.

3.3.6 Abusive Supervision and Subordinates' Outcomes (In-role Performance and Silence Behaviors)

The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) provides the explanatory framework to explain the relationships between abusive supervision and subordinates' outcomes (in-role performance and silence behaviors). One of the basic tenets of social exchange theory is reciprocity, or repayment in kind (Gouldner, 1960). Reciprocity is usually thought of in terms of positive reciprocity, but there is also negative reciprocity, where negative treatment is returned or repaid with negative treatment (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Abusive supervision and in-role performance. Based on the tenets of the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), abused subordinates will not feel obligated to reciprocate supervisor's hostilities with in-role performance that will help supervisors to attain organizational goals. Instead, they are likely to "repay" their abusive supervisors by decreasing their level of performance. In their study on abusive supervision, Harris et al., (2007) found a negative relationship between abusive supervision and job performance at the supervisor-subordinate dyad level. As such, based on the theoretical underpinnings of social exchange and past empirical evidences, it is expected that abusive supervision will have a cross-level main effect on subordinate's in-role performance.

Abusive supervision and subordinate's silence behaviors. Employee silence refers to the intentional withholding of information by employees from others (Johannesen, 1974). It is characterized by non-communication resulting

from a conscious decision by employees to hold back seemingly important information, including suggestions, concerns, or questions (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Studies have shown that frontline employees are especially sensitive to risks rather than the benefits of speaking up to a higher-level authority (e.g., Edmonson, 1996, Tangirala, & Ramanujam, 2008). Unlike middle-level or senior-level managers who share informal relationships or networks with other authority figures, for these frontline employees, supervisors represent primary authority figures in the organizations. Hence, frontline employees are more vulnerable to adverse reactions from their supervisors and speaking out represents a riskier option as supervisors may perceive speaking out as a voice of dissent towards their supervisors (Tangirala, & Ramanujam, 2008). Given that Study 2 focuses predominantly on shop-floor production workers in a printing company, these employees hold valuable inputs that are critical in ensuring production safety and effectiveness. However, their position in the hierarchy often makes them vulnerable to supervisors' managerial practices and to facing normative pressures to remain silent.

Apart from the perceived risks of retaliation about speaking out to a higher authority, the poor-quality supervisor-subordinate relationship in abusive supervision reflects a poor-quality social exchange relationship such that abused subordinates will reciprocate supervisor's negative treatment by withholding information and suggestions that can improve organizational effectiveness. While Rafferty and Restubog (2010) did not find a direct relationship between abusive supervision and prosocial silence, they did show that abusive supervision indirectly influences prosocial silence through subordinate's

organization-based self-esteem and meaning of work. In consideration of the theoretical and empirical support, this study suggests that abusive supervision will have cross-level main effects on subordinate's in-role performance and silence behaviors.

Hypothesis 5a: Group level abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinate's in-role performance.

Hypothesis 5b: Group level abusive supervision is positively related to subordinate's silence behaviors.

3.3.7 The Mediating Role of Subordinate's Personal Identification

This study draws from the self-concept-based leadership theory (Kark et al., 2003; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004) which proposes that the follower's self-identity acts as a mediating mechanism between leadership and the follower's attitudes and behaviors. This theory suggests subordinate's personal identification is a mediating mechanism between abusive supervision and subordinates' behaviors (in-role performance and silence behaviors).

The self-concept-based leadership theory has been applied to examine the mediating role of subordinate's personal identification between transformational leadership and subordinate's voice behaviors (Liu et al., 2010) and follower's dependence (Kark et al., 2003). Through role-modeling and relationship building, transformational leadership exerts strong and enduring influences on follower's self-identity, in particular, their relational self with the leader (personal identification) which, in turn, influences follower's attitudes and behaviors. In fact, the underlying processes (such as role-modeling and

relationship building) by which leaders influence their follower's self-identity is also consistent with Kelman's (1958; 1961) social influence theory, which has been used to explain abusive supervision's social influence on subordinate's personal identification.

Subordinate's personal identification provides a more nuanced understanding of the psychological mechanism through which abusive supervision influences work outcomes. The distal work outcomes (in-role performance and silence behaviors) are driven by more proximal psychological state of subordinate's personalized identification with his or her supervisor. Given the relational nature and the pervasiveness of personalism (defined as the tendency to allow personal relationships to enter into decision-making) in the Chinese society, subordinates focus more on the quality of relationship he or she shares with the supervisor when determining whether he or she wants to reciprocate with higher levels of work effort or speaking out.

This personalized identification with supervisor is a more salient and direct psychological mechanism in driving work behaviors than mere interactional justice due to several reasons. Firstly, due to China's long history of feudalism and autocratic rule as well as the substantial power asymmetry that exists between supervisor and subordinate, there exists the natural acceptance of hierarchical structuring and legitimization for unequal superior-subordinate relationships. Subordinates are more likely to take for granted some forms of unfair treatment due to their deference for authority. For example, Bond, Wan, Leung and Giacalone (1985) showed that compared to Americans, Chinese from Hong Kong are more willing to accept insulting remarks from high-status

in-group person. Second, the Chinese society remains characterized by rule of man rather than rule of law (Chen & Francesco, 2000; Walder, 1991). Other than fairness, the subordinates are also exposed to their immediate supervisors' punitive behaviors that can create uncertainties, anxieties and fear that may impact work outcomes. In their study, Wu, Huang, Li and Liu (2012) found that perceived interactional justice did not mediate the relationship between authoritarian leadership and trust-in-supervisor. Similarly, it is not surprising that abusive supervision may impede subordinate's work outcomes through other alternative mechanisms other than interactional justice.

In the Chinese context, subordinates focus more on the quality of relationships in determining one's level of work effort as well as in assessing the risks of speaking out. This attachment to supervisor is based out of common familiarity with, frequent interactions and sharing of common values with the supervisor. It is personified as subordinate's identification with the supervisor. A recent study on a Chinese sample by Xu et al., (2012) provides empirical support for the relational-based mediating effects of leader-member exchange on the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' task performance and OCBs. Abusive supervision connotes a form of poor supervisor-subordinate relationship (Aryee et al., 2007) that affects the subordinate's level of personal identification with his or her supervisor. Hence, when a supervisor mistreats his or her subordinates, the abused subordinate will feel the strain in the supervisor-subordinate relationship and will therefore lower his or her level of personal identification with the supervisor, resulting in a decrease in or withdrawal of work effort. The low personal identification also

means that the abused subordinate is unable to identify or align with the supervisor's goals and will fail to voice out issues or concerns. Based on the above arguments, this study argues that personal identification is a more direct and salient psychological mechanism driving employees' behaviors than interactional justice with the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6a: Subordinate's personal identification but not interactional justice mediates the relationship between group level abusive supervision and subordinate's in-role performance.

Hypothesis 6b: Subordinate's personal identification but not interactional justice mediates the relationship between group level abusive supervision and subordinate's silence behaviors.

3.4 Summary

In this chapter, I presented two studies related to the abusive supervision phenomenon and the hypotheses grounded on theoretical and empirical findings. Study 1 examines the abusive supervision phenomenon from the instrumental perspective. Hypotheses 1 - 7 are developed and will be tested to confirm the hypothesized relationships. Study 2 adopts the multilevel approach and examines the reactive influence of supervisor's interactional justice as an antecedent of group level abusive supervision as well as the outcomes of abusive supervision at the group and individual level. Hypotheses 1 - 6 are developed and will be tested to confirm whether the hypothesized relationships are supported. Chapters 4 and 5 report and describe the methodology and measures used to test the hypotheses and present the results for both studies.

**CHAPTER 4 A CROSS-LEVEL EXAMINATION OF SUPERVISOR'S
JUST-WORLD MOTIVE AND CONSEQUENCES OF ABUSIVE
SUPERVISION (STUDY 1)**

This chapter begins with a brief description of the purpose and scope of Study 1 including the hypotheses to be tested. The subsequent sections describe the methodology, sample, procedures and measures used to conduct the study as well as the analytic strategy used to examine the data. Finally, the results of Study 1 are presented along with a discussion of the outcomes.

4.1 Purpose and Scope of Study 1

Previous studies turn to frustration and displaced aggression to explain abusive supervision as a form of reactive aggression. However, this study deviates from past studies by framing abusive supervision as instrumental in attaining the supervisor's goal, specifically, in maintaining a just world. This study examines whether supervisor's just-world motive backfires when the supervisor engages in coercive actions. It does this by examining the effects on the subordinate's interactional justice and his or her personal identification with the supervisor. In addition, this study moves beyond the individual level of analysis, adopting a cross-level design to examine the multilevel nature of abusive supervision. Finally, this study examines how a cultural variable, specifically, the subordinate's power distance, plays a moderating role in explaining the subordinate's differential reactions to abusive supervision. The hypotheses for Study 1 are summarized in Table 4.1 below.

TABLE 4.1**Summary of Hypotheses for Study 1**

Hypothesis 1	Supervisor's just-world motive is positively related to abusive supervision.
Hypothesis 2	Abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinate's interactional justice.
Hypothesis 3	Abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinate's personal identification.
Hypothesis 4	Abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's just-world motive and subordinate's interactional justice.
Hypothesis 5	Abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's just-world motive and subordinate's personal identification.
Hypothesis 6	Subordinate's power distance moderates the negative relationship between abusive supervision and the subordinate's interactional justice; the relationship is stronger for those lower, rather than higher, in power distance.
Hypothesis 7	Subordinate's power distance moderates the negative relationship between abusive supervision and the subordinate's personal identification; the relationship is stronger for those lower, rather than higher, in power distance.

4.2 Method**4.2.1 Sample**

Data for this study came from 280 employees and 76 supervisors in a large shoe manufacturing company located in Guangzhou, south-eastern China. At the time of the survey, this company employed more than 2,000 employees who were involved in design, production, distribution and administrative functions. Given that this was a large shoe-manufacturing company, it was not surprising to learn that many of the supervisors on the production floor had a wide span of control with 15-30 subordinates under each supervisor. The

available pool of supervisors was relatively smaller with slightly less than 100 supervisors in this company.

While there is no general rule in regards to the maximum number of participants in any given study, to have sufficient statistical power for cross-level analyses, this study focused on sampling more work groups with fewer individuals than fewer work groups with more individuals (Mathieu & Taylor, 2007). Following George (1990), this study considered employees to be members of a work group when they had the same supervisor. Hence, for some departments, multiple work groups were defined by the supervisor. For each work group, responses were collected from the supervisor and from at least four of his or her subordinates. For this study to achieve the desired ratio of one supervisor to four subordinates, the final sample was 78 supervisors and 312 subordinates.

4.2.2 Procedures

Data collection was initiated by sending a letter to the human resources department of the company explaining the purpose of the study, the plan of the survey and the scope of participation. Following the confirmation of an expression of interest from the human resources manager, a telephone conversation was held to discuss the details of the study, including the purpose of the sample, the sample selection and data collection procedures. In exchange for the company's participation, a report summarizing the key research findings about leadership and group effectiveness was provided to the management for their information.

With the company's consent to proceed with the survey, a meeting was scheduled with the human resources manager to discuss the sample selection, data collection procedures, time frame for data completion, and ethical requirements. As the key focal group in the selection process was the supervisor group, the human resources manager was asked to select relevant supervisors and four of each supervisor's subordinates to participate in the survey. When selecting supervisors, the human resources manager had to decide whether that particular mid-level supervisor should complete the subordinate's questionnaire or the supervisor's questionnaire but not both. After the relevant supervisors had been identified to take part in the survey, the human resources manager then adopted a random sampling approach to identify four subordinates for each of the identified supervisors. A few days after the meeting, the human resources manager provided a list of participants to complete the survey and information about where and when the briefing sessions for the study would be held. Ten briefing sessions each with 10-30 attendees were scheduled during a three-day period with three sessions allocated for supervisors and seven sessions allocated for subordinates. Supervisors and subordinates were scheduled to attend different sessions to minimize response pressure and problems associated with evaluating a person within the same room.

In this study, all survey participants received two introductory letters for the survey. The first set of introductory letter was sent by the company's management informing survey participants of the management's support for the research as well as details of the study; including how participants were selected for the study, the voluntary nature of participation, the confidentiality of the

survey and the invitation to attend a series of scheduled briefings conducted by the researcher. The second introductory letter was given to participants when they attended the scheduled sessions and explained the purpose of the survey and assured respondents of the confidentiality of the study.

During the scheduled sessions, as the principal investigator, I briefed the participants on the objectives of the research and the voluntary nature of participation. The participants were assured of the confidentiality of the study and that only aggregated data would be reported to the management. At the end of each briefing, each participant was given a package containing the cover letter regarding the research, an instruction sheet, the questionnaire and an enclosed envelope to seal their responses. The participants were given 20-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire on the spot and return the sealed envelope directly to the principal investigator.

4.2.3 Questionnaire

Two separate questionnaires (supervisor's questionnaire and subordinate's questionnaire) were administered during the data collection phase of this study. All questionnaires were coded to enable the matching between supervisors' responses with the subordinates' responses without compromising the confidentiality of the respondents. A cover letter was included in the package to explain the rationale for coding the questionnaire and to assure the survey respondents of the anonymity of their responses.

Both the subordinate's questionnaire and supervisor's questionnaire comprised four sub-sections with the first three sub-sections consisting of questions that measured the study variables while the last section collected information regarding the participant's background.

As the study was conducted in China, the English language questionnaires were translated into Chinese using the conventional method of translation and back translation (Brislin, 1980). The translation and back translation were conducted by two Chinese bilingual academics and a bilingual human resources practitioner (who was not from the same company). The translated versions of the two questionnaires were pre-tested on 20 of the existing employees within the shoe-manufacturing company to ensure there were no major misinterpretations of the questionnaire items. These 20 respondents were not included in the final sample.

A total of 78 supervisor's questionnaires and 312 subordinate's questionnaires were distributed and collected onsite. After excluding incomplete questionnaires and unmatched responses, the sample comprised 76 supervisors and 280 subordinates nested in 76 work groups. The final sample size represented a response rate of 97 percent and 90 percent for supervisors and subordinates respectively and the average group size was 3.7. The supervisors were, on average, 33.2 years of age and 70 percent were male with 69.6 percent having college or higher degrees. The subordinates were, on average, 29.5 years of age and 60.4 percent were male with 62.1 percent having college or higher degrees.

4.2.3 Measures

All measurement items used for Study 1 are listed in Appendix 2. The individual score for each measure was obtained by averaging the item responses for each of the measures. Detailed measures for Study 1 are elaborated below.

Independent variable. Supervisor's *just-world motive* was measured using the eight-item scale adapted from Lipkus, Dalbert, and Siegler's (1996) Belief in Just World for Others Scale. The items were screened by a panel of research experts (i.e., two senior management professors) for content validity. Sample items included "I want my subordinates to earn the rewards and punishments they get" and "I want my subordinates to treat each other with the respect they deserve". All responses to this scale used five-point scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree and all item responses were averaged to form a composite score for just-world motive. Of the eight items, one item "when my subordinates meet with misfortune, they have brought it upon themselves" was not included in the mean score for hypothesis testing because of its low correlations with rest of the other items. This is also consistent with the Lipkus et al., (1996) study that shows the item has low correlations and factor loading on this scale. The internal consistency reliability (alpha) for this scale was .83.

Mediating variable. *Abusive supervision* was measured using fifteen items developed and validated by Tepper (2000). Sample items of this measure included "My supervisor ridicules me" and "My supervisor tells me I'm incompetent". Subordinates were asked to indicate the frequency ranging from

(1) never to (5) very often with which their supervisor exhibits each of the fifteen behaviors. The alpha reliability for this scale was .87.

Moderating variable. Subordinate's *power distance* was measured using the seven-item shortened version of the scale used by Kirkman et al., (2009). Respondents assessed their level of agreement with (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree to items such as "In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates" and "Employees should not express disagreements with their managers." The alpha reliability for this scale was .70.

Dependent variables. Respondents assessed the two dependent variables (subordinate's personal identification and subordinate's interactional justice) using the five-point rating scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Subordinate's *perceived interactional justice* is adapted from Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) six-item scale. A sample for perceived interactional justice is "When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration." Subordinate's *personal identification* is measured with five items adapted from Mael and Ashforth (1992) and Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, and Popper (1998) scales. This scale focuses on the subordinate's personal identification with his or her direct supervisor. Sample items included "When someone criticizes my supervisor, it feels like a personal insult". The reliability alphas were .75 for personal identification and .80 for interactional justice respectively.

Control variables. Control variables included gender, age, educational

level and negative affectivity of the supervisors and subordinates as these variables are related to workplace aggression (Barling, Dupre, & Kelloway, 2009) and victimization (Aquino & Thau, 2009). Negative affectivity was measured using a ten-item scale from the positive affect and negative affect schedule (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegan, 1988) that reflects the extent to which the person feels distressed, upset, hostile, alert and irritable. Respondents rated the 10-item scale using five-point rating ranging from (1) not at all to (5) extremely. The alpha reliabilities for this scale were .83 and .81 for supervisor and subordinate, respectively.

This study also controlled for the supervisor's interactional justice as this has been found to predict abusive supervision in past research (Aryee et al., 2007). Supervisor's interactional justice, similar to subordinate's interactional justice, is measured using six items adapted from Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) six-item scale. The alpha reliability for supervisor's interactional justice was .79.

4.3 Data Analyses

4.3.1 Measurement and Structural Model

The first step in the data analyses involved conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2001). CFA is a widely used technique for evaluating the fit of a hypothesized indicator-construct structure and testing the psychometric properties of the measurement instrument using statistical fit criteria (Maruyama, 1998). Therefore,

demonstrating that the hypothesized model is superior to plausible alternative models would provide support for the better-fitting model capturing the perceptions of variables more accurately than alternatives. This was achieved by comparing the fit of the hypothesized five-factor measurement model (i.e., just-world motive, abusive supervision, personal identification, interactional justice and power distance orientation) with other plausible alternative models. Details of plausible alternative models for comparisons against the hypothesized model are reported in the results section of this study.

To determine if the data fit the model of the factor structure in this study, comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker Lewis index (TLI) and root-mean-square-error of approximation (RMSEA) fit indices were used to report the model fit. These fit indices are widely used and recommended by other researchers (e.g., Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). Use of CFI was recommended by Medsker, Williams, and Holahnan (1994) and Anderson and Gerbing (1988) while Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended the use of TLI in conjunction with other fit indices. RMSEA was also recommended as it accounts for model parsimony in assessing fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). All these indices have a value from 0.0 to 1.0. A value of closer to 1.0 for the CFI and TLI, and a value of closer to 0.0 for the RMSEA indicate a better fit. However, a general rule suggests that models with a CFI and TLI of higher than .90 should be reasonably strong. For RMSEA, Browne and Cudeck (1993) suggested that the value .08 or below implies a reasonable model fit.

In addition to the fit indices, chi-square value is important to assess the magnitude of the discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices of each measure (Hu & Bentler, 1995; Klein, 1998). Therefore, chi-square difference tests were utilized when comparing the alternative models with the hypothesized model. A significant chi-square provides support for the less restrictive model (Medsker et al., 1994).

4.3.2 Mediation Analyses

Hypotheses 1, 4 and 5 pertained to variables spanning both group level (supervisor's just-world motive) and individual level (abusive supervision and subordinate's personal identification and subordinate's interactional justice). To account for potential non-independence effects and cross-level effects, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) was used to test the multilevel data simultaneously. The HLM 6.06 software was used to examine the interactions between variables at different levels of analysis while accounting for their different sources of variances (Griffin, 2001; Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000).

The cross-level hypotheses were tested with the intercept-as-outcomes model and grand mean centering was used in all the analyses. This technique helps to reduce the covariance between intercepts and slopes; thereby reducing potential problems associated with multi-collinearity (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). The standard process for HLM is to run a series of hierarchical models to test the hypotheses that relate to different levels of analysis.

To demonstrate the hypothesized relationships between abusive supervision, supervisor's just-world motive and the two dependent outcomes (subordinate's interactional justice and subordinate's personal identification), the procedures specified by Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest the need to show the following steps: (1) independent variable (X) is linked to the dependent variable (Y); (2) the independent variable is linked to the mediator (M); (3) the mediator is linked to the dependent variable (Y); and 4) mediator affects the dependent variable in an equation including both the mediator and the independent variable.

However, when using Baron and Kenny's (1986) method, researchers may prematurely conclude that there is no evidence of indirect effects when X and Y are not associated; especially when there is a distal effect between X and Y or when there is evidence of suppression (Mackinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). According to Shrout and Bolger (2002), when the causal effects between X and Y is more distal, the power to detect a correlation reduces dramatically to .12 compared to .80 for a sample size of 80. On the other hand, suppression exists when the magnitude of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable becomes larger when a third variable is included. For Study 1, the effect of X on Y is likely to be distal rather than suppression effect as supervisor's just-world motive (the predictor) influence on subordinate's interactional justice and personal identification (the dependent variables) must manifest through the supervisor's behaviors toward their subordinates. Moreover, Mathieu and Taylor (2007) also argue that indirect effects are a special form of intervening effects whereby the

independent and dependent variables are not related directly, but are indirectly related through significant relationships with a linking mechanism.

Based on past empirical evidence as well as Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger's (1998: p. 260) suggestion that only Steps 2 and 3 are required to show mediation, Baron and Kenny's Step 1 (show the direct relationship between independent and dependent variable) was relaxed in this study to test the mediating effects of abusive supervision. The empirical study by Seibert, Silver and Randolph (2004) adopted similar procedures and relaxed the need to show the direct relationship between the independent variable (empowerment climate) and the dependent variable (individual job performance) to test the mediating influence of psychological climate. Based on the preceding argument, the steps used to illustrate mediating effects are:

- Step 1: Regress level 2 predictor (supervisor's just-world motive) with level 1 mediator (abusive supervision)
- Step 2: Regress level 1 mediator (abusive supervision) with level 1 dependent variables (subordinate's personal identification and subordinate's interactional justice)
- Step 3: When controlling for level 1 mediator (abusive supervision), the relationships between level 2 predictor (supervisor's just-world motive) and level 1 dependent variables (subordinate's personal identification and subordinate's interactional justice) are no longer significant.

To have sufficient statistical power for multilevel analysis, a large sample size is needed. While there are no clear guidelines for determining precisely how large the sample should be for different levels of analyses (Bassiri, 1988), Bryk and Raudenbush (1992) suggest that the appropriate sample size for HLM analysis based on the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) requirement is 10 observations per predictor. However, there is a sample size trade-off among between-and within-group observations (Hofmann, 1997). A large number of groups may offset a small number of observations per workgroup and vice versa. The statistical power for detecting group-level effects can be enhanced by increasing the number of workgroups rather than by increasing the number of individuals per workgroup (Bassiri, 1988). Given that this study aimed to detect group-level effects, the sample of 76 groups with 3-4 members in each group was deemed sufficient to provide statistical power to detect group-level effects.

4.3.3 Moderation Analyses

Moderated regression was used to test the moderating effects of the subordinate's power distance and abusive supervision on the dependent outcomes (subordinate's personal identification and subordinate's interactional justice). Several steps were taken to run the regression and test the moderating effects. The control variables were entered in the first step. The centered variable of abusive supervision was entered in the second step followed by the centered moderating variable of the subordinate's power distance. In the fourth and final step, the interaction term was created from the cross product of the

centered variables (abusive supervision X subordinate's power distance) and entered in the regressions (Aiken & West, 1991). Moderation occurs when the coefficient of the interaction item is significant.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Measurement Model

Given the small sample size relative to the measurement items, parcel items were created to improve the ratio of N relative to the parameter estimates (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). Item parcels refer to aggregate-level indicators that consist of the average of two or more items (Little et al., 2002). Procedures used by previous researchers (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988) were adopted and the number of items was reduced by creating two indicators for the construct – abusive supervision. Based on the factor analysis results, the items with the highest and lowest loadings for abusive supervision were combined first, followed by items with the next highest and lowest loadings, until all the items for the abusive supervision construct had been assigned to one of the indicators. The scores for each indicator were then computed as the mean of the scores on the items that constituted each indicator.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2001) was used to examine the distinctiveness of the multi-item variables in this study. The fit of a hypothesized five-factor Model 1 (i.e., just-world motive, abusive supervision, personal identification, interactional justice

and power distance orientation) was compared with a nested alternative four-factor Model 2 (combining subordinate's interactional justice with supervisor's just-world motive), three-factor Model 3 (combining subordinates' interactional justice, subordinate's power distance with supervisor's just-world motive), two-factor Model 4 (combining subordinate's personal identification with abusive supervision) and one-factor, Model 5 (combining all).

TABLE 4.2
CFA of the Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 1

Model	Chi-square	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 – Hypothesized five-factor model	735.85	314	.92	.91	.07
Model 2 – Four-factor model (combined just-world motive with interactional justice)	1702.60	318	.80	.78	.12
Model 3 – Three-factor model (combined just-world motive, interactional justice and power distance)	2229.44	321	.74	.72	.15
Model 4 – Two-factor model (combined abusive supervision with personal identification)	2627.93	323	.70	.68	.16
Model 5 – one-factor model	2291.88	324	.69	.66	.15

Notes: CFA = Confirmatory factor analyses; CFI = Comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation.

Table 4.2 shows that the hypothesized five-factor model ($\chi^2 = 735.85$, $p < .001$, CFI = .92, TLI = .91, and RMSEA = .07) fitted the data better than the four-factor model ($\chi^2 = 1702.60$, $p < .001$, CFI = .80, TLI = .78, and RMSEA = .12), three-factor model ($\chi^2 = 2229.44$, $p < .001$, CFI = .74, TLI = .72, and RMSEA = .15), two-factor model ($\chi^2 = 2627.93$, $p < .001$, CFI = .70, TLI = .68, and RMSEA = .16) and one-factor model ($\chi^2 = 2291.88$, $p < .001$, CFI = .69,

TLI = .66, and RMSEA = .15). The five-factor model had the best fit. The overall CFA, together with the model comparison results, provided support for conceptualizing and treating the individual-level and group-level variables as five distinct variables for subsequent HLM analyses.

4.4.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The means, standard deviations, correlations and reliabilities of individual and group variables for Study 1 are provided in Table 4.3. Consistent with hypotheses 2 and 3, abusive supervision was found to be negatively associated with the subordinate's personal identification and interactional justice at the individual level. Although not hypothesized, the results showed that abusive supervision was negatively related to the subordinate's power distance and positively related to subordinate's negative affectivity. At the group level, the supervisor's negative affectivity was found to be negatively associated with supervisor's interactional justice. To test the cross-level effects of supervisor's just-world motive on abusive supervision, HLM was used to examine the multilevel nature of the data.

TABLE 4.3

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-order Correlations for Variables in Study 1

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Just world motive	4.42	.38	(.83)							
2 Sup interactional justice	3.82	.53	.02	(.79)						
3 Sup negative affectivity	2.06	.55	-.06	-.21**	(.83)					
4 Abusive supervision	1.53	.49	.17**	-.07	.13*	(.87)				
5 Sub personal identification	3.38	.67	-.11	.14*	-.13*	-.31**	(.75)			
6 Sub interactional justice	3.53	.61	-.13*	.08	-.07	-.40**	.54**	(.80)		
7 Sub power distance	2.84	.58	-.19**	.01	-.06	-.15*	.35**	.29**	(.70)	
8 Sub negative affectivity	2.31	.69	.08	-.09	-.02	.23**	-.18**	-.27**	-.14*	(.81)

Notes: N = 280, Reliability coefficients are shown in diagonal in parentheses, Sup = supervisor, Sub = subordinate. Supervisor's just world motive, interactional justice and negative affectivity were calculated as group-level means, assigned back to individuals.

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

4.4.3 Hypothesis Testing

Before testing the cross-level hypothesis, the null model was run to examine whether there was significant systematic within- and between-work-group variance in subordinate's responses (personal identification and interactional justice). The null model helped partition the variances in subordinate's personal identification and interactional justice into within and between group components and provided a statistical test of the between-group variance. Results of the null model revealed chi-squares for personal identification ($\chi^2 = 141.73$, $p < .01$) and interactional justice ($\chi^2 = 206.74$, $p < .01$) were significant. The intra-class correlation (ICC) for personal identification was .19 and interactional justice was .32; indicating that 19 percent and 32 percent of the variances in personal identification and

interactional justice resided between groups. In summary, these results justified the appropriateness of cross-level analyses (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992).

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the supervisor's just-world motive would be positively related to abusive supervision. The HLM results from testing hypothesis 1 (Model 1), hypothesis 2 (Model 2) and hypothesis 4 (Model 3) are shown in Table 4.4. After controlling for the subordinates' and supervisors' demographics (age, gender and education), negative affectivity and supervisor's interactional justice, supervisor's just-world motive predicted abusive supervision ($\gamma = .23, p < .05$) and supported hypothesis 1. These results are shown in Table 4.4 (Model 1).

The second hypothesis predicted abusive supervision would be negatively related to the subordinate's interactional justice. Again controlling for subordinates' and supervisors' demographics (age, gender and education) and negative affectivity as well as supervisor's interactional justice, results in Table 4.4 (Model 2) show that abusive supervision predicted the subordinate's interactional justice ($\gamma = -.37, p < .01$) supporting hypothesis 2.

To test the mediating effects in hypothesis 4, the following conditions needed to be met: (1) the independent variable (supervisor's just-world motive) must be associated with the mediator (abusive supervision), (2) the mediator must be associated with the dependent outcome (subordinate's interactional justice) and (3) when controlling for the independent variable, the mediator must be significantly associated with the dependent variable. The first two conditions (reflected as hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2) were both supported.

Model 3 in Table 4.4 show that the effects of abusive supervision continued to be significant ($\gamma = -.36, p < .05$) whereas the effects of supervisor's just-world motive was non-significant ($\gamma = -.13, p > .05$); supporting the third condition of mediational analysis. Hence, hypothesis 4 was supported.

TABLE 4.4
Results of HLM Analyses – Subordinate's Interactional Justice

Variables	<u>Hypothesis 1</u>	<u>Hypothesis 2</u>	<u>Hypothesis 4</u>
	<u>Model 1</u>	<u>Model 2</u>	<u>Model 3</u>
	AS (γ)	EIJ (γ)	EIJ (γ)
Intercept	1.53**	3.54**	3.53**
Level 1			
- Sub age	-.00	-.00	-.00
- Sub gender	-.13*	.03	.03
- Sub education	.07	.05	.05
- Sub negative affectivity	.14**	-.18**	-.18**
- Abusive supervision		-.37**	-.36*
Level 2			
- Sup negative affectivity	.12	-.03	-.04
- Sup interactional justice	-.00	.05	.05
- Sup age	.01	-.00	-.00
- Sup gender	.01	.03	.03
- Sup education	-.08	.05	.06
- Sup just-world motive	.23*		-.13

Notes: HLM = Hierarchical linear modeling; Sub = Subordinate; Sup = Supervisor; AS = Abusive supervision; EIJ = Subordinate's interactional justice.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that abusive supervision would be negatively related to subordinate's personal identification with his or her supervisor. The results in Model 2 (refer to Table 4.5) show that abusive supervision predicted personal identification ($\gamma = -.34, p < .01$) after the inclusion of the control variables, thereby demonstrating support for hypothesis 3. With hypothesis 1

and 3 supported, the first two conditions for the mediating relationship between the supervisor's just-world motive and the subordinate's personal identification was satisfied. For the third condition, abusive supervision and supervisor's just-world motive was regressed on subordinate's personal identification. Model 3 in Table 4.5 reveals that the effects of abusive supervision continued to be significant ($\gamma = -.32, p < .01$) whereas the effects of the supervisor's just-world motive was non-significant ($\gamma = -.12, p > .05$); supporting the third condition of mediational analysis. Hence, hypothesis 5 is supported.

TABLE 4.5
Results of HLM Analyses – Subordinate's Personal Identification

Variables	<u>Hypothesis 1</u>	<u>Hypothesis 3</u>	<u>Hypothesis 5</u>
	<u>Model 1</u> AS (γ)	<u>Model 2</u> ID (γ)	<u>Model 3</u> ID (γ)
Intercept	1.53**	3.37**	3.37**
Level 1			
- Sub age	-.00	-.00	-.00
- Sub gender	-.13*	-.01	-.00
- Sub education	.07	-.01	-.01
- Sub negative affectivity	.14**	-.12*	-.12*
- Abusive supervision		-.34**	-.32**
Level 2			
- Sup negative affectivity	.12	-.11	-.12
- Sup interactional justice	-.00	.10	.10
- Sup age	.01	-.00	-.00
- Sup gender	.01	-.10	-.10
- Sup education	-.08	-.02	-.02
- Sup just-world motive	.23*		-.12

Notes: HLM = Hierarchical linear modeling; Sub = Subordinate; Sup = Supervisor; AS = Abusive supervision; ID = Subordinate's personal identification.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 4.6 shows the results of the moderated regression analyses that examined the main and interactive effects of the subordinate's power distance and abusive supervision on (1) subordinate's interactional justice and (2) subordinate's personal identification. To test the moderating effects, control variables were regressed onto the dependent variables (subordinate's interactional justice and personal identification). Here, only the subordinate's demographics (gender, age and education) and the subordinate's negative affectivity were included as control variables. In the second step, the main effects of abusive supervision and the subordinate's power distance were regressed on both dependent variables after including the control variables. The results show that both abusive supervision and the subordinate's power distance had significant relationships with the dependent outcomes using a one-tailed test. Consistent with hypothesis 2, abusive supervision was negatively related to the subordinate's interactional justice ($\beta = -.20, p \leq .01$). The subordinate's power distance was also positively related to the subordinate's interactional justice ($\beta = .16, p \leq .01$). Likewise, for the dependent variable of subordinate's personal identification, abusive supervision was negatively related to the subordinate's personal identification ($\beta = -.17, p \leq .01$) and consistent with our results for hypothesis 3. Subordinate's power distance was also positively related to the subordinate's personal identification ($\beta = .21, p \leq .01$).

In the final step of the moderated regression, the interaction term of abusive supervision with subordinate's power distance was regressed on the dependent variables. Using a one-tailed test, the results reveal that the

interactive term was positively related to the subordinate's interactional justice ($\beta = .08, p \leq .01$) and personal identification ($\beta = .06, p \leq .05$).

TABLE 4.6
Results of Moderating Role of Subordinate's Power Distance

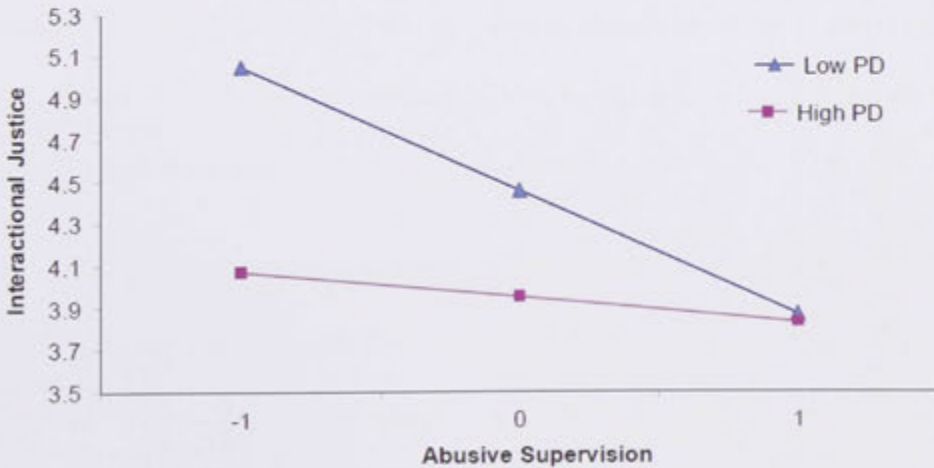
Variable	Sub interactional justice (β)	Sub personal identification (β)
<u>Step 1 – Control</u>		
Sub gender	.12*	.05
Sub negative affectivity	-.25**	-.18**
Sub age	-.00	.00
Sub education	.06	-.07
ΔR^2	.09**	.04**
ΔF	6.73**	2.88**
<u>Step 2 - Main Effects</u>		
Abusive supervision	-.20**	-.17**
Sub power distance	.16**	.21**
ΔR^2	.27**	.20**
ΔF	16.78**	11.39**
<u>Step 3 - Moderating Effects</u>		
Abusive supervision X Sub power distance	.08**	.06*
ΔR^2	.30**	.21**
ΔF	16.29**	10.35**

Notes: N = 280; Sub = Subordinate; * $p \leq .05$. ** $p \leq .01$ (one-tailed).

To interpret the demonstrated moderating effects, regression equations at high and low levels of subordinate's power distance orientation were solved. Following Cohen and Cohen (1983), high and low levels of the moderator were

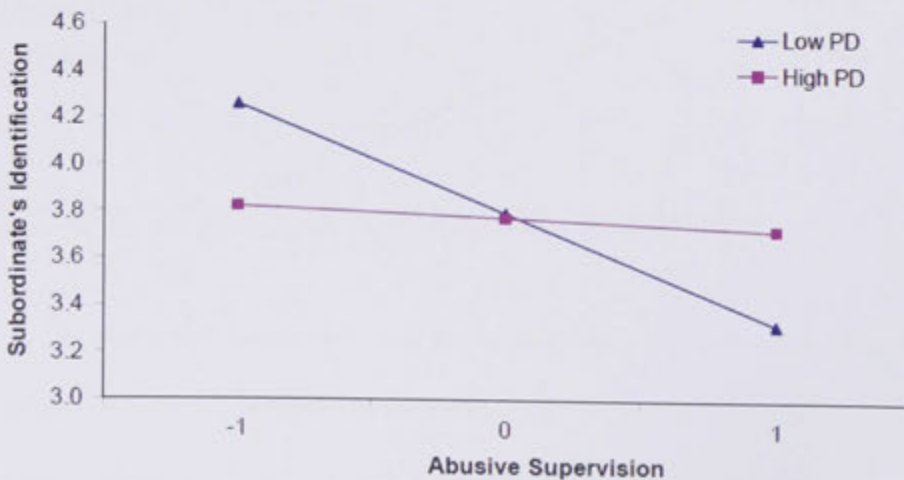
defined by plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean. Figure 4.1 indicates that the pattern of interactions were as predicted in that the negative relationship between abusive supervision and the subordinate's interactional justice was stronger for subordinates with lower power distance than for subordinates with higher power distance. Tests of the simple slopes indicated that the relation between abusive supervision and interactional justice was significant for both high power distance orientation subordinates and low power distance subordinates ($\beta = -.11, t = - 2.27, p < .05$ for high power distance subordinates; $\beta = -.28, t = -7.58, p < .01$ for low power distance orientation subordinates). Thus, hypothesis 6 received support for the moderating role of subordinate's power distance in the abusive supervision – subordinate's interactional justice relationship.

FIGURE 4.1
Interactive Effects of Subordinate's Power Distance and Abusive Supervision on Subordinate's Interactional Justice



Similarly, Figure 4.2 shows the same predicted pattern of interactions whereby the negative relationship between abusive supervision and the subordinate's personal identification was stronger for subordinates with lower power distance than for subordinates with higher power distance. Tests of the simple slopes indicated that the relation between abusive supervision and subordinate's personal identification was significant only for low power distance orientation subordinates ($\beta = -.22, t = -5.21, p < .01$) and not significant for those high power distance subordinates ($\beta = -.10, t = -1.87, n.s.$). Hence, the results suggest that the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinate's personal identification changes as a function of differences in power distance of subordinates within work units, and further demonstrates that low power distance subordinates reacts more adversely to abusive supervision. Thus, hypothesis 7 is supported.

FIGURE 4.2
Interactive Effects of Subordinate's Power Distance and Abusive Supervision on Subordinate's Personal Identification



4.5 Discussion

Study 1 conceptualizes abusive supervision as a form of instrumental aggression for a supervisor with just-world motive. In turn, subordinates perceive the use of sanctions and punishments by their supervisors as abusive resulting in perceived interactional injustice and a lack of personal identification with their supervisors. The results reveal that even after controlling for the supervisor's interactional justice, supervisor's just-world motive predicted abusive supervision; suggesting that abusive supervision is not only a form of reactive aggression, but also, more importantly, an instrumental behavior that supervisors use to attain valued goals. These findings resonate with existing literature that argues that aggression is a form of instrumental behavior (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2000; Scott et al., 2009; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994).

In turn, the abused subordinates encounter negative experiences which lead them to perceive low levels of interactional justice and personal identification with their hostile supervisors. This is especially so in Chinese organizations where personalism is pervasive (Aryee et al., 2007) and subordinates tend to rely on their supervisors rather than on organizations for resource allocations and promotional opportunities.

Study 1 also demonstrates that subordinates have differential reactions to abusive supervision. Subordinates with low power distance are less willing to accept the unequal distribution of power and hence will react more strongly; in terms of evaluation of justice as well as personal identification with their

abusive supervisors compared with subordinates with higher power distance, who submit themselves to unequal treatment from those in higher authorities.

Overall, these results provide strong evidence for the predicted relationships. As with other studies, this study has limitations that need to be addressed. First, the cross-sectional design meant that causal inferences are implied among the constructs. Although the results clearly demonstrate the predicted relationships, future studies could adopt a longitudinal design to address the issue of causality. Second, the data were obtained from a single domestic manufacturing company and therefore the results cannot be generally applied to other industries in China or to other cultural contexts. Third, although the data on just-world motive were obtained from a separate source (i.e., from supervisors), the mediator (abusive supervision) and the dependent variables (i.e., interactional justice and personal identification) were based on subordinate's self-reports. While results of the CFA demonstrated the distinctiveness of the focal variables, it is unclear whether the results involving the relationships are attributable to common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Fourth, this study has argued that supervisors with the justice-world motive will use punishments and sanctions against subordinates when they do not conform to justice norms. However, this study failed to address whether supervisors exact punishments on all or only specific subordinates who defy justice norms. This is an important issue that future research will need to address. Lastly, this study only examines only the proximal outcomes of abusive supervision and it is not known how these proximal outcomes translate into distal behaviors such as job performance. To

address this limitation, Study 2 examined the distal outcomes of abusive supervision.

4.6 Summary

Study 1 was designed to examine the cross-level effects of the supervisor's just-world motive on abusive supervision and the subsequent effects on subordinates' reactions. Study 1 also examined the influence of subordinate's power distance to explain the subordinates' differential reactions to abusive supervision. Correlation, hierarchical regression and moderated regression analyses were used to examine the hypothesized relationships. The relationships were first tested by confirming the hypothesized measurement model underlying the variables. Results provided evidence that the hypothesized five-factor measurement model including just-world motive, abusive supervision, interactional justice, personal identification and power distance fitted the data well beyond other plausible alternative factor models. HLM regressions were then performed and the results confirm the hypothesized relationships that the supervisors' just-world motive influenced the subordinate's interactional justice and personal identification indirectly through abusive supervision. Lastly, the moderated regressions confirm the moderating hypothesis that subordinates' power distance orientations were boundary conditions on abusive supervision - subordinates' outcome (interactional justice and personal identification) relationships.

CHAPTER 5 A MULTILEVEL EXAMINATION OF SUPERVISOR'S INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE AND CONSEQUENCES OF ABUSIVE SUPERVISION (STUDY 2)

This chapter begins with a brief description of the purpose and scope of Study 2 including the hypotheses to be tested. In the subsequent sections, the methodology, sample, procedures and measures used to conduct this study are described as well as the analytic strategy used to examine the results. Finally, the results are presented and the outcomes of Study 2 discussed.

5.1 Purpose and Scope of Study 2

Study 1 frames abusive supervision as an instrumental behavior in which supervisors engage to maintain the scales of justice and shows how it backfires when subordinates experience unfair treatment and fail to identify with their supervisors. Unlike the first study that frames justice as an individual difference, this study proposes situational justice (i.e., supervisor's interactional justice) as a predictor of supervisor's abusive behaviors. By using a multilevel design, this study examined the multilevel nature of abusive supervision and extended the consequences of abusive supervision to the emergence of group climates (procedural justice climate and silence climate) at the group level as well as subordinates' outcomes (silence behaviors and in-role behavior) at the individual level. Finally, this study examined how supervisor's power distance plays a moderating role in explaining the degree of the supervisor's abusive behaviors. The hypotheses for Study 2 are summarized in Table 5.1.

TABLE 5.1**Summary of Hypotheses for Study 2**

Hypothesis 1	Supervisor's interactional justice is negatively related to group level abusive supervision.
Hypothesis 2	Supervisor's power distance moderates the negative relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and group level abusive supervision such that the relationship will be stronger for those supervisors with high, rather than low power distance.
Hypothesis 3a	Group level abusive supervision is negatively related to procedural justice climate.
Hypothesis 3b	Group level abusive supervision is positively related to silence climate.
Hypothesis 4a	Group level abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and procedural justice climate.
Hypothesis 4b	Group level abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and silence climate.
Hypothesis 5a	Group level abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinate's in-role performance.
Hypothesis 5b	Group level abusive supervision is positively related to subordinate's silence behaviors.
Hypothesis 6a	Subordinate's personal identification but not interactional justice mediates the relationship between group level abusive supervision and subordinate's in-role performance.
Hypothesis 6b	Subordinate's personal identification but not interactional justice mediates the relationship between group level abusive supervision and subordinate's silence behaviors.

5.2 Method**5.2.1 Sample**

Data for this study came from 87 supervisors and 329 subordinates in a large printing company located in Guangzhou, south-eastern China. This company employs more than 3,000 employees who are involved in design,

production, logistics, sales and administrative functions. Most of the supervisors are located on the production floor of this printing company and wield wide control with 20-40 direct reports under each supervisor. While the company has a large pool of employees, the number of supervisors available for this study was slightly more than 100.

Similar to Study 1, this study focused on sampling more work groups with fewer individuals rather than fewer work groups with more individuals. In this study, employees who shared the same supervisor were considered as members of a work group (George, 1990). For each work group, responses were collected from the supervisor and four of his or her subordinates. Limiting the number of subordinates to four within each group has been an acceptable procedure in previous multilevel research studies on justice (e.g. Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Schminke, Cropanzano, & Rupp, 2002; Yang, Mossholder, & Peng, 2007).

5.2.2 Procedures

Prior to the data collection phase, a meeting was scheduled with the Managing Director as well as the Operations Director of the printing company to explain the objectives of the study, sample selection, data collection procedure, period to complete the surveys and the ethical requirements for the survey. In exchange for the company's participation, a report summarizing the key research findings was provided to the management for their reference. Consistent with the ethical requirements of the Australian National University (ANU), the company was told that they would not be provided with any

individual responses to survey questions. Instead, only summary information by question or department would be provided. The Managing Director's personal assistant was tasked as the point of contact within the company for coordination of the data collection.

The personal assistant, together with Operations Director, identified relevant supervisors with four direct reports to participate in the survey. When selecting supervisors (particularly the mid-level supervisors), they ensured that each particular mid-level supervisor was only allowed to complete either the subordinate's questionnaire or the supervisor's questionnaire, not both. After the relevant supervisors had been identified to take part in the survey, a random sampling approach was then adopted to identify four subordinates for each of the identified supervisors. A few days after the meeting, the personal assistant provided a list of employees to participate in the survey and arranged for a separate briefing with all human resources staff so that I, as the chief investigator, could clarify the data collection procedures to assure respondents' confidentiality.

In this study, both the supervisors and the subordinates received two survey packages to be completed at two points in time separated by approximately two weeks. The two-week separation period was discussed and agreed upon with the company to minimize operational disruptions while addressing methodological limitations or concerns about common method effects. At Time 1, supervisors and subordinates received a survey package from the human resources department containing a cover letter from the chief

investigator explaining the voluntary nature of the study, providing assurances of confidentiality and requesting their cooperation to complete the second set of questionnaire in approximately two weeks later. In addition to the cover letter, each package included the questionnaire and a self-adhesive envelope which allowed the respondents to seal their questionnaire and returned the completed questionnaire directly to the human resources department. Supervisors and subordinates were given three days to complete the survey, which was distributed on-site with the help of the human resources department. At the end of the data collection phase for Time 1, the completed surveys in sealed envelopes were collected from the human resources department. In total, 103 surveys were distributed to supervisors, while 412 surveys were distributed to subordinates. Completed surveys were collected from 100 supervisors and 401 subordinates. This translated into a response rate of 97 percent for supervisors and 97 percent for subordinates.

At Time 2, two weeks after the initial data collection, a second package was given to each of the initial 103 supervisors and 412 subordinates via the human resources department. In each package, the survey respondents received a cover letter requesting their cooperation to complete this second questionnaire. In compliance with the ANU's ethical requirements, they were assured of confidentiality. Similar to the data collection procedure outlined in Time 1, the respondents were given three days to complete their questionnaire on-site and returned the completed surveys in sealed envelopes to the human resources department.

After deleting for incomplete data and unmatched responses, the completed surveys for supervisors and their subordinates (for Time 1 and Time 2) were 87 supervisors and 329 subordinates, and the average group size was 3.8. This represents an overall response rate of 84 percent for supervisors and 80 percent for subordinates.

5.2.3 Questionnaire

Two separate questionnaires (supervisor's questionnaire and subordinate's questionnaire) were administered during Time 1 and Time 2 of the data collection phase for Study 2. All questionnaires were coded to enable the matching of supervisors' responses with their subordinates without compromising the confidentiality of the respondents. The cover letters that were included in both packages explained to the survey respondents the rationale for coding the questionnaire and assured them of the anonymity of their responses.

At Time 1, the supervisors were asked to assess their power distance orientation, the perceptions of interactional justice with their immediate bosses, and to provide their personal information (e.g. age). The subordinates, they were asked to rate their supervisor's abusive behaviors, group climates and provide their personal information. At Time 2, supervisors were asked to rate each of their subordinate's in-role performance and silence behaviors while the subordinates were asked to assess their personal identification and level of interactional justice with their supervisor.

The questionnaires were translated from English into Chinese using the conventional method of translation and back translation (Brislin, 1980). The translation and back translations were conducted by two Chinese bilingual academics and a bilingual human resources practitioner (who is not from the same company). The translated versions of the supervisor's and the subordinate's questionnaire for both Time 1 and Time 2 were also pre-tested on 20 of the existing employees within the printing company to ensure no major misinterpretation of the questionnaire items. These 20 respondents were not included in final sample.

Among the 329 subordinates, 31.4 percent were male, the average age was 29.7 years and 29.2 percent possessed college or higher degrees. Among the 87 supervisors, 37.9 percent were male, the average age was 31.6 years age and 35 percent have college or higher degrees.

5.2.4 Measures – Group Level Variables

All measurement items used for Study 2 are listed in Appendix 3. The measurement items for group-level variables and individual-level variables are discussed separately below. The individual scores for the supervisor's interactional justice and power distance orientation were obtained by averaging the item responses for each of the measures. On the other hand, abusive supervision, silence climate and procedural justice climate were measured by aggregating the individual subordinate's scores to the group-level.

Before elaborating on each of the group-level variables, it is essential to

specify the appropriate composition models used in this multilevel study (Chan, 1998; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Composition models define the relationships among variables at different levels of analysis that concern fundamentally the same content, but are qualitatively different (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Rousseau, 1985). The direct consensus model, the most commonly used model for aggregation (Chan, 1998) was employed to aggregate individual scores to the group-level for procedural justice climate. With a given minimal level of within-group agreement established, individual scores are then aggregated to the group-level. Studies that have operationalized procedural justice climate using the direct consensus method with some success in the literature include studies by Liao and Rupp (2005), Mossholder et al., (1998), Simons and Robertson (2003), and Tangirala & Ramanujam (2008).

However, the referent-shift consensus composition model which uses the group rather than the individual as the construct reference (Klein et al., 1994) was employed to measure abusive supervision and silence climate. The referent-shift approach rewords the measurement items and refers specifically to the treatment that the group receives. In turn, each team member's assessment of his or her treatment is then aggregated to the group-level. The referent-shift consensus model also leads to more agreement within groups and a better ability to distinguish between groups than do direct consensus models (Rupp et al., 2005).

Independent variable. Supervisor's *perceived interactional justice* is adapted from Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) six-item scale. Respondents rated

their responses to the six items using the five-point rating scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. A sample for perceived interactional justice was “When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration”. The alpha reliability for this scale was .85.

Moderating variable. Supervisor’s *power distance* was measured using the eight-item version of the scale used by Kirkman et al., (2009). Respondents assessed their level of agreement with (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree to items such as “In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates” and “Employees should not express disagreements with their managers.” Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .70.

Mediating variable. *Abusive supervision* was measured using fifteen items developed and validated by Tepper (2000) and adapted to capture subordinates’ perceptions of their supervisor’s treatment of his or her subordinates within the team. The focal reference was on team members (i.e., subordinates) rather than on the individual personally (i.e., me). Sample items of this measure included “My supervisor ridicules subordinates” and “My supervisor puts subordinates down in front of others”. Subordinates were asked to indicate the frequency ranging from (1) never to (5) very often that their supervisor exhibits each of the fifteen behaviors. Abusive supervision was the mean of group members’ responses on the fifteen abusive supervision items. The score for each of the subordinates in the group was then aggregated to the group-level. The group-level alpha reliability for this scale was .91 and obtained by averaging the item response per group and then calculating the scale

reliabilities at the aggregate level of analysis (Chen, Mathieu, & Bliese, 2005).

Dependent variable (procedural justice climate). Subordinates assessed the two dependent variables (procedural justice climate and silence climate) in Time 1 using the five-point rating scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Subordinates' perception of procedural justice climate is an emergent state where group members share a collective sense on the fairness of their company's policies and procedures. The procedural justice climate scale was adapted from Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) six-item scale. Sample items included "My present organization has procedures designed to ensure decisions are made in an unbiased manner" and "My present organization has procedures designed to ensure that all employee concerns are heard before decisions are made." The procedural justice climate score for each of the subordinates in the group was aggregated to the group-level. The group-level alpha reliability for this scale was .83.

Dependent variable (silence climate). Subordinates' perception of silence climate is an emergent state where group members share a collective sense of fear and choose to remain silent or to withhold information. The silence climate scale was adapted from Tangirala and Ramanujam (2008) five-item scale. Respondents were asked to rate "the extent to which members of their workgroup remain silent, withhold ideas, keep quiet to protect themselves". This scale was modified to capture the context of production safety in the printing company. Items included "remain silent when they have concerns about production safety in the workgroup" or "although have ideas for improving

production safety in the group, they do not speak up.” Similar to the procedural justice score, the silence climate score for each of the subordinates in the group was aggregated to the group-level. The group-level alpha reliability for this scale was .78.

5.2.5 Measures – Individual Level Variables

All individual-level measures used in Study 2 have been validated in the literature. The individual score for each measure was obtained by averaging the item responses for each of the measures.

Mediating variable. Respondents assessed the mediator (personal identification) using the five-point rating scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Subordinate’s personal identification was measured with five items adapted from Mael and Ashforth (1992) and Shamir et al., (1998) scales. This scale focuses on subordinate’s personal identification with his or her supervisor. The items were (1) “When someone criticizes my supervisor, it feels like a personal insult”, (2) “When someone praises my supervisor, it feels like a personal compliment”, (3) “My supervisor’s successes are my successes”, (4) “I identify very strongly with my supervisor”, and (5) “My supervisor is a role model for me to follow”. The reliability alpha for this scale was .74.

Outcome variables. Supervisors assessed the two dependent variables (subordinate’s in-role performance and silence behaviors) using the five-point rating scale from (1) never to (5) often to assess the frequency which each of their subordinates exhibits each workplace behaviors. *In-role performance* was

adapted from Janssen's (2001) five-item scale. Supervisors indicated the frequency with which their subordinates exhibited the following five statements: (1) "This subordinate fulfills the responsibilities required by his/her job description," (2) "This subordinate performs the tasks that are expected as part of the job," (3) "This subordinate meets performance requirements of the job," (4) "This subordinate adequately completes assigned duties," and (5) "This subordinate engages in activities that will directly affect his or her performance evaluation." The scale's alpha reliability was .68.

Supervisors rated their subordinate's silence behaviors using the measure adapted from Tangirala and Ramanujam's (2008) five-item scale. This scale was modified to capture the context of production safety in the printing company. Supervisors indicated the frequency with which their subordinates exhibited the following five statements: (1) "This subordinate remain silent when he or she has concerns about production safety in the workgroup", (2) "Although this subordinate has ideas for improving production safety in the group, he or she does not speak up", (3) "This subordinate has said nothing to others about potential production safety problems, (4) "This subordinate remain silent when he or she has information that may have helped prevent incidents in the workgroup, and (5) "This subordinate keeps quiet instead of asking questions about production safety in the workgroup". The alpha reliability for this scale was .78.

Control variables. Control variables in Study 2 included gender, age, educational level and negative affectivity of the supervisors and subordinates as

these variables were reportedly associated with workplace aggression (Barling et al., 2009) and victimization (Aquino & Thau, 2009).

Negative affectivity was measured with a ten-item scale adopted from the PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) using five-point rating scale ranging from (1) not at all to (5) extremely. An individual's negative affectivity reflects the extent to which that person feels distressed, upset, hostile, alert and irritable. The alpha reliabilities for this scale were .80 and .78 for supervisor and subordinate respectively.

In addition, this study controlled for subordinates' interactional justice as this has been examined in past research (Aryee et al., 2007) as a mediator between abusive supervision and subordinates' outcomes in past research (Aryee et al., 2007). Subordinate's interactional justice was measured using six items adapted from Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) scale. The alpha reliability for subordinate's interactional justice was .77.

5.3 Data Analyses

5.3.1 Measurement and Structural Model

The first step in analyzing the data involved conducting confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using statistical software LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2001) to assess distinctiveness of the multi-item variables in the model. CFA is a widely used technique for evaluating the fit of a hypothesized indicator-construct structure and testing the psychometric properties of the measurement instrument using statistical fit criteria (Maruyama, 1998).

Therefore, demonstrating that the hypothesized model is superior to plausible alternative models would provide support for the better-fitting model capturing the perceptions of variables more accurately than alternatives.

Given the extensive number of variables in Study 2, two sets of CFA were conducted for measures reported by supervisors and by subordinates. In the first measurement model (subordinate's response measurement model), the fit of the hypothesized five-factor measurement model (abusive supervision, silence climate, procedural justice climate, personal identification and subordinate's interactional justice) was compared with other plausible alternative models. In the second measurement model (supervisor's response measurement model), the fit of the hypothesized four-factor model (supervisor's interactional justice, supervisor's power distance, subordinate's in-role performance and subordinate's silence behaviors) was compared with other alternative models. Details of plausible alternative models for comparisons against the two hypothesized models are reported in the results section of this study.

As with Study 1, to determine if the data fit the model of the factor structure in this study, I continued to use comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker Lewis index (TLI), and root-mean-square-error of approximation (RMSEA) fit indices. In addition to the fit indices, a significant chi-square provides support for the hypothesized factor structure (Medsker et al., 1994).

5.3.2 Justification for Aggregation

As Study 2 is a multilevel study, it is essential to justify why some of the variables (e.g., abusive supervision, procedural justice climate and silence climate) can be aggregated as group-level constructs for model estimation (Rousseau, 1985). To do so, it was necessary to establish that there was agreement in the group-level variables among group members within groups, and that there was sufficient between-group variance for the same variables because the subordinates' data were nested in the group (Wech, 2001). There must be within-group agreement in order to justify the use of aggregate measures for the group level measures (abusive supervision, procedural justice climate and silence climate).

Recommendations outlined by Chan (1998), Hofmann (1997), and Klein, Dansereau, and Hall (1994) were followed regarding multilevel research to determine the degree to which the individual's perceptions of the group-level measures were shared within each of the 87 teams. Specifically, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to examine between-group variations in these group measures, and the intra-class (ICC) correlation values reflecting the within-group agreement of the constructs were computed (Bliese, 2000). There are two forms of ICC values with ICC (1) estimating the proportion of total variance of a measure that is explained by group membership and ICC (2) measuring the degree to which the group means within a sample is reliable and thus a useful measure of group properties. According to Bliese (2000), ICC (1) values that are different from zero are desirable and values higher than the

median value of .12 in the organizational literature represents moderate to moderately high ICC (1) values (Bliese & Hanges, 2004). For ICC (2) values, Glick (1985) suggests values above .60 are desirable. However, the literature on organizational behavior has reported a range of ICC (2) values from as low as .34 (see Liao & Rupp, 2005).

In addition to calculation of between-group variation using the ICC index, r_{wg} tests were conducted to assess the level of inter-rater agreement of the group-level variables within the groups. This agreement means that reliability of group-level variables takes into account the differences within groups relative to the differences between groups. While the threshold value for r_{wg} is .70 (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984), the higher the value of r_{wg} , the stronger is the within-group agreement of the construct (James et al., 1984).

5.3.4 Data Analytical Strategy

Study 2 involved examining: (1) mediating relationships at group level, (2) cross-level mediating relationships and (3) moderating relationships at the group level. To examine the relationships in (1) and (2), procedures similar to those used by Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) were followed. SEM and HLM were used to test the multilevel relationships at the group level and the cross-level respectively. Finally, for the moderating relationships, moderated regression was used to examine the interacting effects of supervisors' interactional justice and power distance orientation on their subordinates' perceptions of their abusive behaviors. In the following sections, the three data analytic approaches are described in detail.

Mediation analyses at group level. Hypotheses 1, 3 and 4 pertained to the relationships between level 2 variables and were examined SEM. The implicit assumption in using the SEM approach is that there is no further meaningful nesting in higher-level units (i.e., organizational level) creating non-independence. Given that all measures were taken from employees within one company rather than from a number of companies, there would be no violation of such assumption.

In testing the hypothesized mediating relationships at the group level, there is a need to distinguish between partial and full mediation. Two structural models were used to contrast and distinguish the partially and fully mediated relationships. The first (or null) structural model examined the hypothesized relationship that abusive supervision mediates the relationships between supervisors' interactional justice and the two dependent outcomes (procedural justice climate and silence climate). The alternative structural model added the direct path from the independent variable (supervisors' interactional justice) to the dependent variables. These two competing structural models were then tested using chi-square differences. Under the rule of model parsimony, the null model would be accepted if the chi-square difference was not significant and the alternative model would be accepted if the chi-square difference was significant.

Cross-level mediation analyses. Hypotheses 6 and 7 pertained to variables spanning both the group level (abusive supervision) and the individual level (subordinate's personal identification, in-role performance and silence

behaviors). Here, HLM was used to test the multilevel data simultaneously. The cross-level hypotheses were tested with intercept-as-outcome model and grand mean centering was used in all the analyses.

The standard process for HLM is to run a series of hierarchical models to test the hypotheses that relate to different levels of analysis. To demonstrate the mediating effects of subordinate's personal identification between abusive supervision and the two dependent outcomes (subordinate's in-role performance and silence behaviors), the procedures specified by Baron and Kenny (1986) were used to examine the following relationships: (1) independent variable (abusive supervision) linked to the dependent variables (subordinate's in-role performance and silence behaviors), (2) the independent variable linked to the mediator (subordinate's personal identification), and (3) mediator remaining significant after including both the mediator and the independent variable.

In addition to using HLM to test the relationships, it is also important to discuss the issue of statistical power for multilevel studies. To have sufficient statistical power for multilevel analysis, a large sample size is required. While there are no clear guidelines for determining precisely how large the sample should be for different levels of analyses (Bassiri, 1988), Bryk and Raudenbush (1992) suggest that the appropriate sample size for HLM analysis based on OLS requirement is 10 observations per predictor. However, there is a sample size trade-off among between-and within-group observations (Hofmann, 1997). A large number of groups may offset a small number of observations per workgroup and vice versa. The statistical power for detecting group-level

effects can be better enhanced by increasing the number of workgroups than by increasing the number of individuals per workgroup (Bassiri, 1988). Given that this study aimed to detect group-level effects, the sample of 87 groups with 3 to 4 members in each group was deemed sufficient to provide statistical power to detect group-level effects.

Moderation analyses. Moderated regression was used to test the moderating effects of supervisor's power distance and interactional justice on abusive supervision. The four steps taken to run the regressions and test the moderating effects were: (1) regressed with the control variables; (2) regressed with the centered variable of supervisor's interactional justice; (3) regressed the centered moderating variable of the supervisor's power distance; and finally (4) regressed the interaction term that was created from the cross-product of the centered variables (Aiken & West, 1991). Moderation would take place when the coefficient of the interaction term was significant.

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Measurement Models

As explained in the earlier section, two sets of CFAs were conducted to determine the validity and distinctiveness of the multi-item variables in this study. The CFAs were conducted using the software LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2001) to confirm the data fitted the hypothesized model. Fit indices of CFI, TLI and RMSEA, as well as chi-square test for each separate measure were used to examine and conclude the distinctiveness of the measures.

Prior to conducting the CFA analyses, there was a need to create item parceling to improve the ratio of N relative to the parameter estimates (Little et al., 2002). Similar to Study 1, the procedures used by previous researchers (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Brooke et al., 1988) were adopted and the number of items was reduced by creating two indicators for one of the constructs – abusive supervision. Based on the factor analysis results, the items with the highest and lowest loadings for abusive supervision were combined first, followed by items with the next highest and lowest loadings, and so on until all items for the abusive supervision construct had been assigned to one of the indicators. Scores for each indicator were then computed as the mean of the scores on the items that constituted each indicator.

In the first set of CFAs based on supervisors' responses, I compared the fit of a hypothesized four-factor model (supervisor's interactional justice, supervisor's power distance, subordinate's in-role performance and subordinate's silence behaviors) with a nested alternative three-factor Model 2 (combining subordinate's in-role performance and silence behaviors), two-factor Model 3 (combining supervisor's interactional justice and power distance), and a one-factor Model 4.

In the second set of CFAs based on subordinates' responses, I compared the fit of a hypothesized five-factor model (abusive supervision, silence climate, procedural justice climate, subordinate's personal identification and subordinate's interactional justice) with a nested alternative four-factor Model 2 (combining procedural justice climate with interactional justice), three-factor

Model 3 (combining procedural justice climate, interactional justice and silence climate), two-factor Model 4 (combining all four variables and abusive supervision), and a one-factor Model 5.

Table 5.2 presents the hypothesized supervisor's four-factor measurement models as well as other plausible models. The hypothesized four-factor model ($\chi^2 = 863.50$, $p < .001$, CFI = .83, TLI = .81, and RMSEA = .09) fits the data better than the three-factor model ($\chi^2 = 1262.07$, $p < .001$, CFI = .77, TLI = .75, and RMSEA = .11), the two-factor model ($\chi^2 = 1750.50$, $p < .001$, CFI = .70, TLI = .67, and RMSEA = .13) and the one-factor model ($\chi^2 = 2300.92$, $p < .001$, CFI = .61, TLI = .57, and RMSEA = .16). In conclusion, the four-factor model has the best fit. Based on the CFA results, together with the model comparisons, the results provided support conceptualizing and treating the variables reported by supervisors as four distinct variables for subsequent analyses.

TABLE 5.2
CFA of Supervisor's Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 2

Model	Chi-square	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 – Hypothesized four-factor model	863.50	246	.83	.81	.09
Model 2 – three-factor model (combined subordinate's in-role performance with silence behaviors)	1262.07	249	.77	.75	.11
Model 3 – two-factor model (combined interactional justice with power distance)	1750.50	251	.70	.67	.13
Model 4 – one-factor model	2300.92	252	.61	.57	.16

Notes: CFA = Confirmatory Factor Analyses; CFI = Comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation.

Table 5.3 presents the hypothesized subordinate's five-factor measurement models as well as other plausible models. The hypothesized five-factor model ($\chi^2 = 651.03$, $p < .001$, CFI = .89, TLI = .88, and RMSEA = .07) fits the data better than the four-factor model ($\chi^2 = 1400.27$, $p < .001$, CFI = .77, TLI = .74, and RMSEA = .12), the three-factor model ($\chi^2 = 1928.61$, $p < .001$, CFI = .67, TLI = .64, and RMSEA = .14), the two-factor model ($\chi^2 = 1827.65$, $p < .001$, CFI = .59, TLI = .55, and RMSEA = .16) and the one-factor model ($\chi^2 = 2763.16$, $p < .001$, CFI = .50, TLI = .46, and RMSEA = .17). In conclusion, the five-factor model has the best fit. Based on the CFA results, together with the model comparisons, the results provided support conceptualizing and treating the variables reported by subordinates as five distinct variables for subsequent analyses.

TABLE 5.3

CFA of Subordinate's Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 2

Model	Chi-square	Df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1 – Hypothesized five-factor model	651.03	242	.89	.88	.07
Model 2 – four-factor model (combined procedural justice climate with interactional justice)	1400.27	246	.77	.74	.12
Model 3 – three-factor model (combined procedural justice climate, interactional justice and silence climate)	1928.61	249	.67	.64	.14
Model 4 – two-factor model (combined all four variables and supervisor's abusive behaviors)	1827.65	251	.59	.55	.16
Model 5 – one-factor model	2763.16	252	.50	.46	.17

Notes: CFA = Confirmatory Factor Analyses; CFI = Comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation.

5.4.2 Justification for Aggregation

In the earlier section of this chapter, it was explained why there was a need to justify the aggregation of individual scores of subordinate's perceptions of abusive supervision, procedural justice climate and silence climate to the group-level. This was done by calculating within-group agreement (r_{wg}) and intraclass correlations - ICC (1) and ICC (2).

The results in Table 5.4 show that the between-group variance in supervisor's abusive behaviors [$F(86, 328) = 2.36, p < .001$], procedural justice climate [$F(86, 328) = 1.53, p < .01$], and silence climate [$F(86, 328) = 2.08, p < .001$] were significantly different from zero. For abusive supervision, the mean r_{wg} was .99 (median = .99), the ICC (1) was .27 and the ICC (2) was .58. For procedural justice climate, the mean r_{wg} was .97 (median = .98), the ICC (1) was .12 and the ICC (2) was .35. For silence climate, the mean r_{wg} was .96 (median = .97), the ICC (1) was .22 and the ICC (2) was .52.

TABLE 5.4
ANOVA, ICC (1), ICC (2) and R_{wg}

	Abusive supervision	Procedural justice climate	Silence climate
Average group size	3.78	3.78	3.78
F-statistics	2.36**	1.53*	2.08**
ICC (1)	.27	.12	.22
ICC (2)	.58	.35	.52
R_{wg}	.99	.97	.96

* $p < .01$ (two-tailed), ** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

The ICC (1) values for all three group-level variables were higher than the median value of .12 in the organizational literature (Bliese, 2000) and represent moderate to moderately high ICC (1) values (Bliese & Hanges, 2004). The ICC (2) values were also within acceptable range as smaller group sizes can lessen ICC (2) levels (Morgeson, 2005), possibly attenuating group-level relationships and making group-level tests overly conservative. Given that the data collection strategy for Study 2 was to increase the number of groups to increase the sensitivity of the group-level tests (cf. Raudenbush & Liu, 2000), lower ICC (2) values were inevitable. Although procedural justice climate reported the lowest ICC (2) value, it was comparable with those similar procedural justice climate constructs reported in the literature with ICC (2) values starting from .34 (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subirats, 2002).

Finally, the r_{wg} for all three group variables were above the threshold value of .70 suggesting high group-level agreement. Taken together, these results support that it was statistically appropriate to aggregate abusive supervision, procedural justice climate and silence climate and to analyze them at the group level.

5.4.3 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The means, standard deviations, correlations and reliabilities of individual and group variables for Study 2 are provided in Table 5.5. Consistent with the hypotheses 1, 3a and 3b, abusive supervision was found to be negatively related to supervisor's interactional justice and procedural justice

climate and positively related to silence climate at the group level. Although not hypothesized, the results show that abusive supervision was negatively related to supervisor's power distance.

At the individual level, subordinate's personal identification was positively related to subordinate's interactional justice and subordinate's in-role performance. However, there was no correlation between subordinate's personal identification and subordinate's silence behaviors. Though not hypothesized, subordinate's interactional justice was positively related to his or her personal identification with the supervisor and in-role performance but negatively related to silence behaviors. The correlation results provided initial evidence for the hypothesized relationships but failed to account for the multilevel nature of the data.

TABLE 5.5

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-order Correlations for Variables in Study 2

Study variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Gp level abusive supervision (t1)	1.48	.34	(.91)											
2 Procedural justice climate (t1)	3.67	.37	-.36**	(.83)										
3 Silence climate (t1)	2.17	.42	.41**	-.11*	(.78)									
4 Sup interactional justice (t1)	3.88	.53	-.29**	.08	-.22**	(.85)								
5 Sup power distance (t1)	2.91	.55	.25**	.03	.09	-.23**	(.70)							
6 Sup negative affectivity (t1)	1.98	.50	-.14*	.22**	-.03	-.26**	.00	(.80)						
7 Abusive supervision (t1)	1.47	.48	.65**	-.23**	.27**	-.21**	.15**	-.09	(.88)					
8 Sub personal identification (t2)	3.42	.59	-.11*	.10	-.10	.11	-.02	-.04	-.17**	(.74)				
9 Sub silence behavior (t2)	2.01	.71	.26**	-.04	.17**	-.30**	.20**	.23**	.18**	-.08	(.78)			
10 Sub in-role performance (t2)	3.92	.62	-.19**	-.06	-.06	.22**	-.28**	-.23**	-.14*	.15**	-.21**	(.68)		
11 Sub interactional justice (t2)	3.67	.48	-.16**	.05	-.11*	.22**	-.10	-.08	-.22**	.33**	-.20**	.21**	(.77)	
12 Sub negative affectivity (t1)	2.24	.67	.01	-.01	.06	.02	-.06	.11*	.20**	-.10	.03	.02	-.09	(.78)

Notes: N = 329, Reliability coefficients are shown in diagonal in parentheses, Sup = supervisor, Sub = subordinate. t1 = Time 1, t2 = Time 2. Group level variables (abusive supervision, procedural justice climate, silence climate, power distance, negative affectivity) were calculated as group-level means, assigned back to individuals. * p < .05 (two-tailed), ** p < .01 (two-tailed).

5.4.4 Hypotheses Testing

For hypotheses 1 and 2, moderated regression was used to examine the main and interactive effects of supervisor's interactional justice and supervisor's power distance on abusive supervision. To test the moderating effects, the first step was to regress the control variables onto the dependent variable (abusive supervision). The control variables were supervisor's demographics (gender, age and education) and negative affectivity. Next, supervisor's interactional justice and supervisor's power distance were regressed as main effects on abusive supervision after including the control variables. In the final step of the moderated regression, the interaction term of supervisor's interactional justice with supervisor's power distance was regressed on the dependent variable (abusive supervision).

Table 5.6 presents the results of the moderated regression analyses using OLS regression. The results show that supervisor's interactional justice had a significant negative relationship with supervisor's abusive behaviors ($\beta = -.09$, $p \leq .01$). Hence, hypothesis 1 was supported. However, supervisor's power distance was not significantly associated with supervisor's abusive behaviors ($\beta = .05$, $p > .05$). Consistent with hypothesis 2, the results reveal that the interactive term of supervisor's interactional justice with supervisor's power distance was negatively related to abusive supervision ($\beta = -.05$, $p \leq .05$) using a one-tailed test.

TABLE 5.6

Results of Moderating Role of Supervisor's Power Distance

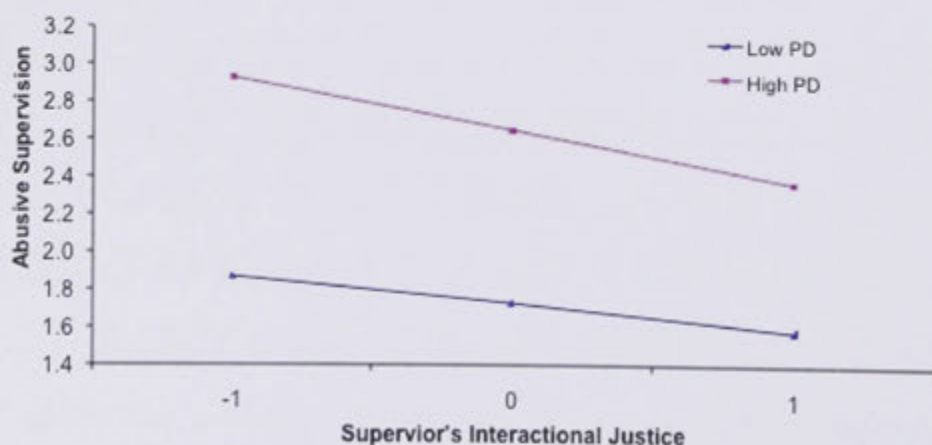
Variable	Abusive supervision (β)
<u>Step 1 – Control</u>	
Supervisor's gender	-.25**
Supervisor's negative affectivity	.08
Supervisor's age	.01
Supervisor's education	-.12**
ΔR^2	0.18**
ΔF	4.58**
<u>Step 2 - Main Effects</u>	
Supervisor's interactional justice (SIJ)	-.09**
Supervisor's power distance (SPD)	.05
ΔR^2	.27**
ΔF	4.91**
<u>Step 3 - Moderating Effects</u>	
SIJ X SPD	-.05*
ΔR^2	.29**
ΔF	4.68**

Notes: N = 87; * $p \leq .05$ and ** $p \leq .01$ (one-tailed).

To interpret the demonstrated moderating effects, regression equations were solved for at high and low supervisor's power distance orientation, without controlling for the demographics. Following Cohen and Cohen (1983), high and low levels of the moderator were defined by plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean. Figure 5.1 indicates that the pattern of interactions was as predicted in that the negative relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and abusive supervision was stronger for supervisors with higher power distance than for supervisors with lower power

distance. Tests of the simple slopes indicated that the relation between supervisor interactional justice and group level abusive supervision was significant only for supervisors with high power distance orientation ($\beta = -.11$, $t = -2.36$, $p < .05$) and not significant for those supervisor with low power distance orientation ($\beta = -.06$, $t = -1.24$, n.s.). The results suggest that the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and group level abusive supervision changes as a function of differences in power distance of supervisors, and further demonstrates that high power distance supervisors transgress onto their subordinates when they feel mistreated. Thus, hypothesis 2's prediction that supervisor's power distance will moderate the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and abusive supervision such that the negative relationship is stronger for a supervisor with high power distance is supported.

FIGURE 5.1
Interactive Effects of Supervisor's Interactional Justice and Power Distance on Abusive Supervision



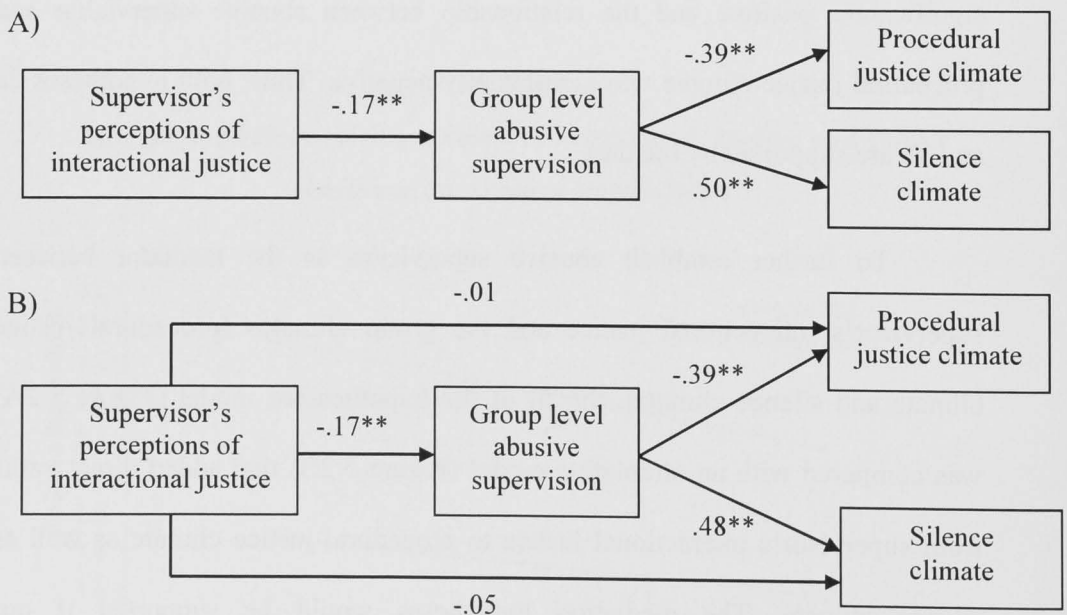
Next, for the analyses of the group-level variables, SEM was used to test hypotheses 3 and 4. MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002) noted that a simultaneous test of the significance of the path from an initial variable to a mediator and the path from the mediator to an outcome (as suggested by SEM) provides, relative to other approaches, the best balance of Type I error rates and statistical power.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b predicted that abusive supervision would be negatively related to procedural justice climate and positively related to silence climate. When examining the variables using SEM, all the group-aggregated item means were included as observed variables while supervisor's interactional justice was included as a latent variable. The SEM results in Figure 5.2 show that the relationship between abusive supervision and silence climate was significantly positive and the relationship between abusive supervision and procedural justice climate was significantly negative. Thus, both hypotheses 3a and 3b are supported by the data.

To further establish abusive supervision as the mediator between supervisor's interactional justice and the group climates (procedural justice climate and silence climate), the fit of the hypothesized model (Figure 5.2A) was compared with an alternative model (Figure 5.2B) that added direct paths from supervisor's interactional justice to procedural justice climate as well as silence climate. The mediation hypotheses would be supported if our hypothesized model fit does not improve when compared with the alternative model. SEM results showed that the hypothesized model (Figure 5.2A) had a

good fit ($\chi^2 = 43.80$, $p < .05$, CFI = .93, TLI = .90, and RMSEA = .09) while the alternative model (Figure 5.2B) had similar fit ($\chi^2 = 43.46$, $p < .05$, CFI = .92, TLI = .89, and RMSEA = .09). The chi-square difference between the hypothesized model and the alternative model was $\chi^2_{diff} (2) = 0.34$ (not significant). Under the rules of parsimony, I conclude that Figure 5.2A was a more parsimonious model that achieved the same fit level. Hence, abusive supervision mediated the relationships between supervisor's interactional justice and the two group climates (procedural justice climate and silence climate) and supported hypotheses 4a and 4b.

FIGURE 5.2
Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) Results for
Antecedent and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision



Hypothesized model A compared with alternative model B that add direct paths from supervisor's interactional justice to procedural justice climate and silence climate.

** $p < .05$ and ** $p < .01$.*

Hypotheses 5a and 5b predicted that abusive supervision would be negatively related to subordinate's in-role behavior and positively related to subordinate's silence behaviors. Before testing the cross-level hypotheses, null models were run to examine whether there were significant systematic within- and between- workgroup variances in subordinate's outcomes (in-role performance and silence behaviors). The null models helped partition the variance in in-role performance and silence behaviors into within- and between-group components and provided statistical tests of the between-group variance. Results of the null models revealed chi-squares for in-role performance, ($\chi^2 = 870.41, p < .001$) and silence behaviors, ($\chi^2 = 1741.42, p < .001$) demonstrating that the between-group variances for both variables were significant. The ICC for in-role performance was .71 and for silence behaviors was .84; indicating that 71 percent and 84 percent of the variances in in-role performance and silence behaviors resided between groups. These results justified the appropriateness of cross-level analyses (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992).

Hypothesis 5a predicted that abusive supervision would be negatively related to subordinate's in-role performance. The HLM result from testing hypothesis 5a is shown in Table 5.6 (Model 1). After controlling for subordinate's and supervisor's demographics (age, gender and education) and their negative affectivity, abusive supervision (which was aggregated to the group-level) predicted subordinate's in-role performance ($\gamma = -.44, p \leq .05$). Hypothesis 5a which predicted the cross-level main effects of abusive supervision on subordinate's in-role performance is supported.

To test the mediating effects in hypothesis 6a, the procedures outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) were followed. For the first step, abusive supervision should be related to subordinate's in-role performance. This is supported by the preceding paragraph which demonstrated support for hypothesis 5a. The second step required that abusive supervision be related to subordinate's personal identification. As shown in Table 5.7 (Model 2), after controlling for subordinates' and supervisors' demographics (age, gender and education) and their negative affectivities, abusive supervision (which was aggregated to the group-level) predicted subordinate's personal identification ($\gamma = -.34, p \leq .01$), thus meeting the second condition for mediation. For the third condition, abusive supervision and subordinate's personal identification were regressed onto subordinate's in-role performance. In addition to the usual controls, subordinate's interactional justice was also included as a control variable in the HLM regressions. Model 3 in Table 5.7 reveals that the mediating effects of subordinate's personal identification continued to be significant ($\gamma = .08, p \leq .05$), whereas the effect of abusive supervision was non-significant ($\gamma = -.38, p > .05$); supporting the third condition of mediational analysis. On the other hand, the coefficient for subordinate's interactional justice was not significant ($\gamma = .07, p > .05$). The results in Model 3 of Table 5.7 supported hypothesis 6a such that subordinate's personal identification and not subordinate's interactional justice mediated the relationship between supervisor's abusive behaviors and subordinate's in-role performance.

TABLE 5.7

Results of HLM Analyses – Subordinate's In-role Performance

Variables	<u>Hypothesis 5a</u>		<u>Hypothesis 6a</u>
	<u>Model 1</u> In-role performance (γ)	<u>Model 2</u> Personal identification (γ)	<u>Model 3</u> In-role performance (γ)
Intercept	3.91**	3.42**	3.91**
Level 1			
- Sub age	.01	.01*	.01
- Sub gender	.03	-.19*	.05
- Sub education	-.02	.12	-.03
- Sub negative affectivity	-.01	-.11*	-.00
- Sub interactional justice	-	-	.07
- Sub personal identification	-	-	.08*
Level 2			
- Sup negative affectivity	-.30**	-.01	-.29**
- Sup education	.18**	-.05	.18**
- Sup gender	-.09	.04	-.09
- Sup age	-.01	.01	-.01
- Abusive supervision	-.44*	-.34**	-.38

Note: HLM = Hierarchical linear modeling; Sub = Subordinate; Sup = Supervisor;
* $p \leq .05$. ** $p \leq .01$.

Hypothesis 5b predicted that abusive supervision would be positively related to subordinate's silence behaviors. The HLM result from testing hypothesis 5b is shown in Table 5.8 (Model 1). After controlling for subordinates' and supervisors' demographics (age, gender and education) and their negative affectivity, abusive supervision (which was aggregated to the group-level) predicted subordinate's silence behaviors ($\gamma = .45$, $p \leq .05$). The results supported hypothesis 5b and demonstrated the cross-level main effects of abusive supervision on subordinate's silence behaviors.

To test the mediating effects of subordinate's personal identification between abusive supervision and subordinate's silence behaviors, the same procedures were adopted as those used for hypothesis 6a. The first two conditions to demonstrate the mediating influence of subordinate's personal identification had been supported earlier. The first condition demonstrating the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinate's silence behaviors was supported in hypothesis 5b. Similarly, the second condition that required abusive supervision to be related to subordinate's personal identification had also been supported ($\gamma = -.34, p \leq .01$). For the third condition, abusive supervision and subordinate's personal identification were regressed onto subordinate's silence behaviors controlling for supervisor's and subordinate's demographics (age, gender and education), their negative affectivity and subordinate's interactional justice. Model 3 in Table 5.8 reveals that the mediating effects of subordinate's personal identification remained significant ($\gamma = -.08, p \leq .01$). Similarly, the effects of abusive supervision on subordinate's silence behaviors remained significant but it was reduced in magnitude compared with the same effect in Model 1. The results suggest that subordinate's personal identification partially mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinate's silence behaviors after controlling for subordinate's interactional justice.

A post-hoc analysis was conducted to examine if the two climate variables (procedural justice climate and silence climate) will have cross-level main effects on both individual level outcomes (in-role performance and silence behaviors). The regressed coefficients for silence climate on silence behaviors

and in-role performance are not significant ($\beta = .22, p > .05$ and $\beta = -.10, p > .05$). Similarly, the regressed coefficients for procedural justice climate on silence behaviors and in-role performance were not significant ($\beta = -.23, p > .05$ and $\beta = -.10, p > .05$). Hence, I conclude that there was no cross-level main effect of both climates on the individual level outcomes.

TABLE 5.8
Results of HLM Analyses – Subordinate’s Silence Behaviors

Variables	<u>Hypothesis 5b</u>		<u>Hypothesis 6b</u>
	<u>Model 1</u> Silence behaviors (γ)	<u>Model 2</u> Personal identification (γ)	<u>Model 3</u> Silence behaviors (γ)
Intercept	2.01**	3.42**	2.01**
Level 1			
- Sub age	.00	.01*	.00
- Sub gender	-.03	-.19*	-.05
- Sub education	-.01	.12	-.00
- Sub negative affectivity	.03	-.11*	.01
- Sub interactional justice	-	-	-.04
- Sub personal identification	-	-	-.08**
Level 2			
- Sup negative affectivity	.36*	-.01	.36*
- Sup education	-.01	-.05	-.01
- Sup gender	-.29	.04	-.30
- Sup age	.01	.01	.01
- Abusive supervision	.45*	-.34**	.41*

Notes: HLM = Hierarchical linear modeling; Sub = Subordinate; Sup = Supervisor;
* $p \leq .05$. ** $p \leq .01$.

5.5 Discussion

Unlike previous studies that conceptualized abusive supervision as the subordinate’s perceptions of his or her supervisor’s hostilities, Study 2 has

shown that abusive supervision emerges as a group-level phenomenon shared by members of the same workgroup regarding the extent to which their supervisors exhibit abusive behaviors. Such abusive behaviors represent a form of reactive aggression that supervisors displace against their subordinates when they (the supervisors) experience injustice at the hands of their immediate bosses.

This study resonates with Aryee's et al., (2007) study and supported the interactionist perspective to understanding antecedents of abusive supervision. Study 2 has shown that the extent of abusive supervision is determined by the interactions of the supervisor's perceptions of interactional justice and an individual difference variable - supervisor's power distance orientation. Supervisors with low power distance are more aware of power asymmetry in the supervisor-subordinate relationship and hence are more cautious of the need to maintain the power balance. They are less likely than supervisors with high power distance orientation to react aggressively toward their subordinates.

Taking a multilevel approach, this study also examined the consequences of abusive supervision at the group and individual levels. At the group-level, the findings support the hypothesized relationships that when supervisors perceive that they have been treated unfairly, they displaced their hostilities on their subordinates. In turn, the subordinates perceive themselves as being treated unfairly by their abusive supervisors (i.e., low procedural justice climate) and choose to remain silent for fear of reprisals from the abusive supervisors (i.e., high silence climate).

Consistent with the self-concept based leadership theory (Kark et al., 2003; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004) which proposes that the follower's self-identity may mediate the influence of leadership on the follower's attitudes and behaviors, the results of this study show that the subordinate's personal identification fully mediates the relationship between group level abusive supervision and the subordinate's in-role performance and partially mediated the relationship between group level abusive supervision and the subordinate's silence behaviors. The results also show that subordinate's personal identification, rather than the subordinate's interactional justice, accounts for the underlying mechanism linking abusive supervision with the subordinate's in-role performance and silence behaviors.

Overall, the results provide strong evidences for the predicted relationships. Like all other studies, this study had a number of limitations that needs to be addressed. First, the temporal research design meant that causal inferences are implied among the constructs. Although the results clearly demonstrate the predicted relationships and past research has validated the directions of the hypothesized relationships (e.g. supervisor's interactional injustice to abusive supervision), future studies may adopt longitudinal designs to address the issue of causality. Second, the data was obtained from a single domestic manufacturing company and hence the results cannot be generalized across other industries in China or to other cultural contexts. Third, the measure for in-role performance has a low internal consistency of .68. A plausible explanation for the low reliability is that the behavioral indicator utilized to capture the construct may have been too broad and may not necessarily be

contextually applicable in the printing industry. Fourth, the selection of supervisors and subordinates in the sample was based on the need to meet the minimum supervisor-subordinate ratio of 1:4. Supervisors with less than four subordinates were not included in the study. For those subordinates that were included in the study, a random sampling strategy was used to select subordinates to participate in the survey.

Similar to most other empirical studies on leadership, another major limitation of this study concerns the potential for common method variance (CMV) (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003). CMV may potentially inflate the hypothesized relationships at the individual and group levels. In this study, CMV was minimized by using different data sources, data aggregation and data collection separated by two-week interval. Specifically, the dependent variables for subordinate's in-role performance and silence behaviors were reported using supervisor's rather than subordinate's ratings. Furthermore, dependent variables such as procedural justice and silence climate focused on the shared perceptions among members in the work group rather than on individual member's perceptions and were aggregated to the group-level. This helped to reduce the individual-level variance that might be spurious to the observed results. Finally, by collecting two sets of responses from the supervisors and subordinates separated by a two-week interval, the likelihood that priming or consistency artifacts would inflate the observed relationships are also minimized.

With regards to the measurement of procedural justice climate, this study adopted a direct consensus composition method to operationalize subordinates' shared perceptions of their group climate. While research has adopted and operationalized this measurement using the direct consensus approach with some success, Rupp et al., (2005) have argued in preference of the referent approach which links the measurement to the theory to reflect the groups' experiences as opposed to individual member's experience within the group.

5.6 Summary

Study 2 was designed to examine the multilevel effects of supervisor's interactional justice on abusive supervision and the consequences of such abusive behaviors at the group level and individual level. The study also adopted an interactionist perspective and examined the individual differences of supervisor's power distance to explain the intensity of supervisor's abusive behaviors when they perceived interactional injustice. Correlation, structural equation modeling, hierarchical linear modeling and moderated regression analyses were used to examine the hypothesized relationships.

The relationships were tested by first confirming the hypothesized measurement model underlying the variables. The CFA results for the supervisor's four-factor hypothesized model and the subordinate's five-factor hypothesized model fitted the data well beyond other plausible alternative factor models. Moderated regressions were used to test and confirm the interacting effects of supervisor's individual differences (i.e., supervisor's power distance)

with supervisor's perceptions of interactional justice on group level abusive supervision.

SEM was used and the results supported the group-level mediating relationships, that is, abusive supervision mediated the relationships between supervisor's interactional justice and procedural justice climate and silence climate. For the hypothesized cross-level relationships, HLM regressions were performed, and the results confirmed that subordinate's personal identification, and not subordinate's interactional justice, fully mediated the relationship between group level abusive supervision and subordinate's in-role performance while partially mediating the relationship between group level abusive supervision and subordinate's silence behaviors.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter provides an overall summary of the results for both studies and highlights the implications for both theory and practice. Additionally, it discusses the limitations pertaining to these two studies and provides suggestions for future research to address some of these limitations. Finally, the chapter closes with a conclusion to the entire thesis.

6.1 Overall Discussion

Before discussing the overall results, it is important to reiterate the objectives of the present research. First, the aim of this research was to provide an integrated theoretical framework for examining the process from the antecedents of abusive supervision to its demonstrated outcomes. To address gaps in the literature on abusive supervision, three general research questions were developed: (1) why do supervisors abuse their subordinates? (2) what are the consequences? and (3) how does one's power distance orientation moderate the influence on the supervisor's abusive behaviors as well as the subordinate's reactions to abusive supervision?

As highlighted in Chapter 1, this research used two studies to examine the instrumental and reactive perspectives from the antecedents of abusive supervision to its associated outcomes. Study 1 adopted the instrumental perspective and investigated how supervisors with just-world motive use coercive actions as a form of social influence to attain their goals. Put simply, Study 1 investigated supervisor's just-world motive as a predictor of

subordinate's perceptions of abusive supervision. When supervisors engage in coercive actions to maintain their just-world motive, how do abused subordinates react? Here, the study investigated the indirect influence of the supervisor's just-world motive on subordinates' outcomes (subordinate's perceptions of interactional justice and personal identification) through abusive supervision as the mediator. This study also examined the moderating influence of subordinate's power distance orientation on his or her differential reactions to abusive supervision.

Consistent with the social interactionist framework of aggression, results from Study 1 show that the supervisor's justice-world motive predict abusive supervision; even after controlling for the supervisor's interactional justice. It confirms that abusive supervision can be an instrumental behavior that supervisors use to attain their goals of redistributing justice. In turn, the abused subordinate perceives such instrumental aggressions as unfair treatment and fails to personally identify with the supervisor. The subordinate's power distance orientation also moderates his or her differential reactions to abusive supervision. A subordinate with low power distance is less willing to accept the unequal distribution of power. As such, this low power distance subordinate will react more strongly to an abusive supervisor compared to a high power distance subordinate who submits to unequal treatment under those with higher authority.

For Study 2, there were three main objectives. The first was to validate the supervisor's interactional injustice as the predictor of team members'

aggregate perceptions of their supervisor's abusive behaviors (i.e., group level abusive supervision). The second objective was to adopt a multilevel approach and examine the associated outcomes of abusive supervision at both group level (procedural justice climate and silence climate) and individual level (in-role performance and silence behaviors). The third objective was to examine the supervisor's power distance orientation as a boundary condition that affects the intensity of his or her abusive behaviors.

The results of Study 2 provides support for the frustration and displaced aggression framework and validates the negative relationship between the supervisor's interactional justice and group level abusive supervision. It is consistent with Aryee et al., (2007) findings and extends the findings beyond the conceptualization of abusive supervision as an individual-level phenomenon to a group-level phenomenon. Through socialization among the members of a team, team members share and perceive similar behaviors about their abusive supervisor; resulting in the emergence of group level abusive supervision phenomenon.

The intensity of the supervisor's abusive behaviors is dependent on the supervisor's power distance orientation. Supervisors with high power distance orientation tend to aggravate and intensify their hostilities toward subordinates when the supervisors feel mistreated by their immediate bosses. This differs for supervisors with low power distance orientation.

Study 2 also examined the outcomes of abusive supervision. At the group level, abusive supervision fostered a climate of procedural injustice as

well as a climate of silence. At the individual level, the study showed that subordinate's personal identification rather than interactional injustice mediated the relationships between abusive supervision and subordinate's in-role performance and silence behaviors.

The findings detailed in Chapter 4 provide all of the empirical support for the hypothesized relationships in Study 1 (instrumental perspective of abusive supervision), while the findings in Chapter 5 provide the empirical support for the hypothesized relationships in Study 2 (reactive perspective of abusive supervision). Table 6.1 and Table 6.2 present the summaries of the results of the examined hypotheses for both studies.

TABLE 6.1
Summary of Results for Study 1

Hypotheses	Hypothesized Relationships	Results
Hypothesis 1	Supervisor's just-world motive is positively related to abusive supervision.	Supported
Hypothesis 2	Abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinate's interactional justice.	Supported
Hypothesis 3	Abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinate's personal identification.	Supported
Hypothesis 4	Abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's just-world motive and subordinate's interactional justice.	Supported
Hypothesis 5	Abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's just-world motive and subordinate's personal identification.	Supported
Hypothesis 6	Subordinate's power distance moderates the negative relationship between abusive supervision and subordinate's interactional justice; the relationship is stronger for those lower, rather than higher, in power distance.	Supported
Hypothesis 7	Subordinate's power distance moderates the negative relationship between abusive supervision and subordinate's personal identification; the relationship is stronger for those lower, rather than higher, in power distance.	Supported

TABLE 6.2
Summary of Results for Study 2

Hypotheses	Hypothesized Relationships	Results
Hypothesis 1	Supervisor's interactional justice is negatively related to group level abusive supervision.	Supported
Hypothesis 2	Supervisor's power distance moderates the negative relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and group level abusive supervision such that the relationship will be stronger for those supervisors with high, rather than low power distance.	Supported
Hypothesis 3a	Group level abusive supervision is negatively related to procedural justice climate.	Supported
Hypothesis 3b	Group level abusive supervision is positively related to silence climate.	Supported
Hypothesis 4a	Group level abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and procedural justice climate.	Supported
Hypothesis 4b	Group level abusive supervision mediates the relationship between supervisor's interactional justice and silence climate.	Supported
Hypothesis 5a	Group level abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinate's in-role performance.	Supported
Hypothesis 5b	Group level abusive supervision is positively related to subordinate's silence behaviors.	Supported
Hypothesis 6a	Subordinate's personal identification but not interactional justice mediates the relationship between group level abusive supervision and subordinate's in-role performance.	Supported
Hypothesis 6b	Subordinate's personal identification but not interactional justice mediates the relationship between group level abusive supervision and subordinate's silence behaviors.	Partially supported

6.2 Theoretical Contributions

6.2.1 Integrated Framework on Abusive Supervision

This research responds to Tepper's (2007) call to provide an integrated framework that examines abusive supervision from the antecedents to its demonstrated outcomes. The current literature on abusive supervision is fragmented with studies either focusing on antecedents to abusive supervision or on investigating the outcomes of abusive supervision. Hence, there is a need for systematic investigation that takes an integrated approach to examine the implicit assumption that these antecedents lead to deleterious outcomes.

The results from Study 1 show that when supervisors use coercive actions as an instrumental influence to attain their motive to maintain a just world, their actions backfire. Not only do abused subordinates perceive their supervisors as unfair, the influencing tactics fail to work and subordinates are unable to identify with the influencer. The results of Study 1 integrates the social interactionist theory of aggression (Tedeschi & Felson 1994) with social influence theory (Kelman, 1958; 1961) to demonstrate the linkages from the antecedent to the associated outcomes of abusive supervision (which is otherwise investigated separately in current abusive supervision literature).

The results of Study 2 show that supervisors react to interpersonal injustice that they experienced from their immediate bosses and displace their aggression onto their subordinates. In turn, their subordinates fail to identify with them and reciprocate with poor in-role performance and silence behaviors.

This study integrates the frustration and displaced aggression framework (Dollard et al., 1939) with self-concept-based leadership theory (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004) to explain the linking mechanisms between the antecedents and the demonstrated outcomes of abusive supervision.

6.2.2 Abusive Supervision as an Instrumental Influence

The current literature on abusive supervision suggests that abusive supervision is a reaction to frustrations (such as supervisor's injustice) and when supervisors cannot retaliate against the perpetrators, they displace downwards and mistreat their subordinates. The results from Study 1 showed that supervisor's just-world motive predicts abusive supervision even after controlling for supervisor's interactional injustice. Hence, Study I provides an alternate explanation that supervisor's aggression may be "pulled" by supervisor's valued goals rather than "pushed" by supervisor's frustrations. The instrumental use of aggression to attain one's goals may thus address an important issue regarding the persistence of abusive supervision in the workplace.

Apart from validating the applicability of Tedeschi and Felson's (1994) social interactionist framework on aggression in the abusive supervision literature, this study opens up future avenues of research to explore other possible motives that may lead supervisors to use instrumental aggression on their subordinates. Besides, the current literature on instrumental aggression is at best theoretical and lacks empirical evidence and validation. This study takes

the first step in providing an empirical study to examine the influence of instrumental aggression.

6.2.3 Abusive Supervision as Multilevel Phenomenon

Much is now known about abusive supervision; yet there is limited knowledge on how abusive supervision manifests at the group level and the linkages to group and individual level outcomes. Study 2 broadened the literature on abusive supervision by examining the phenomenon at the multilevel. Presently, most studies on abusive supervision have followed Tepper's (2000) conceptualization which refers to subordinate's perceptions of supervisor's hostilities. Except for one study by Detert et al., (2007) that examined abusive supervision on counter-productivity at restaurants, no other studies have moved beyond the individual or dyadic level of analyses to examine abusive supervision as a multilevel phenomenon (Tepper, 2007). Moreover, Detert et al., (2007) did not attempt to explain nor elaborate how abusive supervision emerged as a collective perception among subordinates.

Drawing from social information processing theory, the results from Study 2 show individual member's perceptions of abusive supervision can be aggregated to the group level. In other words, team members under an abusive supervisor collectively experience and share the same perceptions of their supervisor's hostile behaviors. More importantly, the neglect to examine abusive supervision from a multilevel perspective may undermine our understanding of the processes that trigger abusive supervision and how and why it influences subordinate's work outcomes. Accordingly, Study 2 conceives

abusive supervision as a socially embedded phenomenon and broadens current theorizing on the influences of abusive supervision at the group and individual level.

With the conceptualization of abusive supervision as a group level variable, Study 2 extends the outcomes of abusive supervision from individual outcomes to group outcomes. Through top-down and bottom-up processes (see Chapter 3), supervisor's abusive behaviors foster both a climate of procedural injustice and a climate of silence. Study 2 sheds light on the dynamic interplay between the abusive supervisor and his or her team members and opens up future possibilities of uncovering more group level outcomes. By adopting the multilevel approach, Study 2 also extends our understanding of the trickle down influence of group-level abusive supervision on individual level outcomes (subordinate's in-role performance and silence behavior).

6.2.4 Personal Identification as Mediating Mechanism

Another important contribution of this research is the unraveling of a new mediating mechanism through which abusive supervision influences subordinates' outcomes. Unlike previous studies which rely on social exchange and justice theory to explain the mediating mechanisms, this research sheds new light on the mediating role that the subordinate's personal identification plays in the abusive supervision-subordinate outcome relationships; particularly in the Chinese work setting. The results of Study 2 show that the subordinate's personal identification and not interactional justice mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and the subordinate's in-role performance as well

as silence behaviors. In a relationship-based society such as China where personalism matters, the leader's influence on the follower's outcomes or reactions through personalized identification has a more salient, direct and intense effects on in-role performance and silence behaviors than mere perceptions of fairness. Notably, in the Chinese context, subordinates are likely to take for granted some forms of unfair treatment due to their deference for authority (Wu, Huang, Li & Liu, 2012). Thus, it is through the intensity of their personalized relationships with their supervisors, rather than mere perceptions of fairness, that subordinates are more willing to put in higher performance and speak out.

6.2.5 The Moderating Role of Power Distance

Tepper (2007) has called for studies to address the role that culture plays in understanding the abusive supervision phenomenon. In Study 1, I examined the moderating role of subordinate's power distance on the relationships between abusive supervision and the subordinate's interactional injustice and personal identification. In Study 2, I examined the moderating role of supervisor's power distance on the relationship between the supervisor's interactional justice and abusive supervision.

Both studies contribute to the existing literature on how an individual-level culture value influences both the supervisor's and the subordinate's differential reactions. Study 1 replicates the mitigating influence of subordinate's power distance on the outcomes of abusive supervision that had been examined in the Western context; by using the Chinese sample in China to

demonstrate the universal influence of subordinate's power distance in both western and eastern settings. Study 2 examines the aggravating influence of supervisor's power distance on the intensity of the supervisor's abusive behaviors. More importantly, this research shows that the same cultural value can operate in opposite directions depending on who holds the cultural value. While high power distance orientation aggravates the intensity of supervisor's abusive behaviors, subordinates with low power distance orientation react more negatively to supervisors' abusive behaviors. Thus, this research highlights the need to consider one's cultural values from the perpetrator's and victim's perspectives.

6.3 Practical Implications

There are several practical implications that can contribute to eradicating or minimizing the negative impact of abusive supervision within the organizations. First, Study 1 confirmed that supervisors use coercive actions as a form of social influence to attain desired goals (in this case, to maintain the scales of justice), and that these may result in subordinates failing to identify with their supervisor, and perceiving their interpersonal treatment as unfair. Organizations need to educate supervisors that instrumental aggression may not work and suggest other forms of coaching to help supervisors achieve their desired outcomes. Similarly, it is important for subordinates to understand the motives that underlie supervisors' use of punishments and sanctions. Organizations can sensitize subordinates to supervisors' motives and provide sufficient training to help them meet supervisors' goals.

In addition, both the supervisor's just-world motive and the supervisor's interactional injustice were found to be predictors of abusive supervision. Hence, organizations may need to continuously monitor supervisors' perceptions of the justice climate and carry out justice training for supervisors with the aim of reducing the occurrence of abusive supervision in the workplace.

This research also supported the moderating roles that supervisors' and subordinates' power distance orientations play in the abusive supervision phenomenon. Given today's challenges of managing a culturally diverse work force, this research reaffirms the need for organizations to invest in cultural training for supervisors and subordinates to mitigate the intensity of supervisors' abuse in the workplace as well as alleviate the detrimental consequences of subordinates' behaviors.

Lastly, by adopting the multilevel approach to examining the outcomes of abusive supervision, this research has shown that both climate of procedural injustice and climate of silence are engendered by supervisors' abusive behaviors. Organizations need to understand the role that supervisors play in fostering the emergence of such climates and the actions that can be taken to address the issue. To mitigate negative procedural justice climate from shaping, organizations need to encourage more mainstream communication (e.g. town hall meetings, company newsletters or news campaigns) to reach out to employees directly and emphasize company policies and procedures. To mitigate the emergence of a silence climate, organizations also need to establish

and encourage open door policy to encourage employees to speak out. Having an ombudsman or ethics helpline would give the voiceless the opportunity to speak out.

6.4 Limitations

As with all other research, this research has its limitations. The general limitations that apply to both Study 1 and Study 2 will be discussed first, followed by the specific limitations for each study.

Both studies employed a cross-sectional research design, which has made it difficult to conclude the causal-effect of the hypothesized relationships. For example, it is plausible to argue that a climate of procedural injustice or a climate of silence may predict abusive supervision. However, Erhat's (2004) study demonstrated the certainty of the hypothesized causal relationship between leaders' behaviors and the emergence of climate. Notwithstanding, future studies could adopt longitudinal designs to address the issue of causality.

Another limitation of this research concerns the potential for CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). CMV may arguably inflate the hypothesized relationships for both studies when the variables are measured with a self-reported single source. In Study 1, the antecedent (just-world motive) was obtained from supervisor's self-reports while the mediator (abusive supervision) and the dependent variables (interactional justice and personal identification) were based on subordinates' self-reports.

In Study 2, CMV was minimized by designing the data collection method such that the reported measures were collected from different sources (supervisor and subordinates) and separated by a two-week interval. By collecting two sets of responses from both the supervisors and the subordinates, separated by a two-week interval, Study 2 reduced the likelihood of priming or consistency artifacts that could inflate the observed relationships. Moreover, the dependent variables, such as procedural justice and silence climate, focused on the shared perceptions among members in a group rather than on the perceptions of individual members' and aggregated to the group-level. This helped to reduce the individual-level variance that might be spurious to the observed results.

The third limitation of this research lies in the lack of generalizability of the conclusions from both studies. The data for the two studies came from the manufacturing industry within China and therefore the results cannot be generalized to other industries in China or to other cultural contexts such as the United States.

There are also limitations specific to each of the two studies. For Study 1, the major limitation was the failure to examine situational factors that may prompt supervisors with just-world motive to use punishments and sanctions against subordinates. For example, we do not know whether supervisors exact punishments on all or only certain subordinates who defy justice norms. This is an important issue for future research to address. Lastly, the study investigated

the proximal outcomes of abusive supervision and we do not know how these proximal outcomes translate into distal behaviors such as job performance.

The research methodology was further strengthened in Study 2, which extended the findings of Study 1 by examining the distal outcomes (in-role performance and silence behaviors) of abusive supervision. In Study 2, two of the variables suffered from measurement problems. First, the in-role performance scale suffered from low reliability (Cronbach alpha of .68), which may be attributable to the construct being too broad to be contextually applied to the printing industry. The procedural justice climate adopted a direct consensus approach to aggregate individual team members' score rather than the referent approach and hence failed to link the measurement to the theory that reflects groups' shared experiences as opposed to individual member's experiences within the group.

6.5 Future Research

The results from this research offer several avenues for future research. First and foremost, this research provides an alternative framework for examining the instrumental influence of supervisors' hostilities in attaining valued goals. Tedeschi and Felson (1994) suggested that other motives such as the compliance motive and the motive to maintain a desired identity drive the influencer to use coercive actions against targets. Future research could explore these two motives as predictors of abusive supervision.

Second, this research extends the examination of the abusive supervision phenomenon from individual-level to group-level. Future research should continue to validate the conceptualization of abusive supervision at the group-level and explore other types of group outcomes such as team effectiveness.

Third, future research could explore other possible outcomes (e.g. the wide array of OCBs) through which subordinate's personal identification may mediate the abusive supervision-outcomes relationships. In addition, future research could also explicate and distinguish between the mediating influence of personal identification and LMX through which supervisors influence the attitudes and behaviors of subordinates'. While the results from Study 2 suggests that relational influence rather than fairness treatment is more important in driving subordinate's behaviors in the Chinese setting, researchers could investigate and offer finer-grained analysis of this relational influence in order to identify the differing outcomes that may be transmitted via personal identification or LMX.

Fourth, this research only explores the moderating influence of one aspect of the cultural dimensions (supervisor's and subordinate's power distance orientation). Other cultural moderators, such as uncertainty avoidance, collectivism and traditionality need to be explored to understand their moderating influences in the abusive supervision phenomenon.

6.6 Thesis Conclusion

Abusive supervision is toxic to organizations and represents a failure on the part of organizations to care for their subordinates. In the last decade, a plethora of research has emerged that examines the antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision. This research contributes to the stream of research by adopting an integrated and multilevel approach to examining the abusive supervision phenomenon from the reactive and instrumental perspectives. It also uses the cultural lens of the supervisor and the subordinate to examine the boundary conditions of supervisor's abusive behaviors and subordinate's reactions.

This research provides an integrated framework that examines the abusive supervision phenomenon from the antecedents to outcomes of abusive supervision that is currently fragmented and focused either on the antecedents or outcomes of abusive supervision.

The findings from this research corroborate that reactive justice (interactional justice) and instrumental justice (justice-world motive) are predictors of abusive supervision. In other words, abusive supervision constitutes a form of instrumental ("pulled") and reactive ("pushed") aggression that can be motivated by supervisor's motive to re-distribute justice and/or reactions to perceptions of unfairness that cause supervisors to displace their hostilities downwards on their subordinates.

It also expands the current conceptualization of abusive supervision from the individual to the group level and draws attention to the influence of abusive supervision on group level outcomes that are relatively under explored in previous research. Furthermore, at the individual level, abusive supervision influences the subordinate's behaviors (in-role behaviors and silence behaviors) through personal identification rather than interactional justice; indicating that an alternative mediating mechanism based on personalism may matter more in the Chinese work setting than in the Western work setting.

Finally, supervisors' and subordinates' power distance have differential influences where high power distance supervisors exacerbate the intensity of abusive supervision while low power distance subordinates react more negatively to abusive supervision resulting in lower in-role performance and silence behaviors.

This research offers a much needed conceptual and empirical advancement in the literature on abusive supervision moving from the dyadic to multilevel. The findings in both studies underscore the utility of adopting a multiple level and cultural perspective on examining abusive supervision. It is hoped that this research will inspire future studies to explore other possible antecedents that predict abusive supervision and the linkages from group-level abusive supervision to other new group level and individual outcomes.

REFERENCES

- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. 1991. *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. 2003. Organization structure as a moderator of the relationship between procedural justice, interactional justice, perceived organizational support, and supervisory trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88: 295-305.
- Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. 2002. Human aggression. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53: 27-52.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. 1988. Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103: 411-423.
- Aquino, K., & Thau, S. 2009. Workplace victimization: Aggression from the target's perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60: 717-741.
- Aryee, S., Chen, Z. X., Sun, L. Y., & Debrah, Y. A. 2007. Antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision: Test of a trickle-down model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1): 191-201.
- Aryee, S., Sun, L. Y., Chen, Z. X., & Debrah, Y. A., 2008. Abusive supervision and contextual performance: The mediating role of emotional exhaustion and the moderating role of work unit structure. *Management and Organization Review*, 4(3): 393-411.
- Ashford, S. J., Rothbard, N. P., Piderit, S. K., & Dutton, J. E. 1998. Out on a limb: The role of context and impression management in selling gender-equity issues. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43: 23-57.
- Avolio, B. J., Zhu, W., Koh, W., & Bhatia, P. 2004. Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25: 951-968.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Heatherton, T. F. 1994. A general approach to representing multifaceted personality constructs: Application to state self esteem. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 1: 35-67.
- 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.
- Barling, J., Dupré, K. E., & Kelloway, E. K., 2009. Predicting workplace aggression and violence. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60: 671-692.

- Barling, J., Loughlin, C., & Kelloway, E. K. 2002. Development and test of a model linking safety-specific transformational leadership and occupational safety. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3): 488-496.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. 1986. The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51: 1173-1182.
- Bassiri, D. 1988. *Large and small sample properties of maximum likelihood estimates for the hierarchical linear model*. Unpublished PhD dissertation, Department of Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education, Michigan State University.
- Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. S. 1986. Interactional justice: Communication criteria for fairness. In B. Sheppard (Ed.), *Research on negotiation in organizations*, 43-55. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. 1998. Revenge in organization: The good, the bad, and the ugly. In R. Griffin, A. O'Leary-Kelly, & J. Collins (Eds.), *Dysfunctional behavior in organizations: Non-violent dysfunctional behavior*. Stamford, CT: JAI Press.
- Blau, P. M. 1964. *Power and exchange in social life*. New York: J Wiley & Sons.
- Bliese, P. 2000. Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability. In K. Klein, & S. Kozlowski (Ed.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bliese, P. D. & P. J. Hanges 2004. Being both too liberal and too conservative: The perils of treating grouped data as though they were independent. *Organizational Research Methods*, 7(4): 400-417.
- Bond, M. H., Wan, K. C., Leung, K., & Giacalone, R. A. 1985. How are responses to verbal insults related to cultural collectivism and power distance? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 16(1): 111-127.
- Brislin, R. W. 1980. Translation and content analysis of oral and written materials. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology*, 2: 389-444.
- Brooke, P. P., Russell, D. W., & Price, J. L. 1988. Discriminant validation of measures of job satisfaction, job involvement and organization commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73: 139-145.

- Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. 1993. Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In: K. A. Bollen, & J. S. Long (Ed.), *Testing structural equation models*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bryk, A. S., & Raudenbush, S. W. 1992. *Hierarchical linear models*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.
- Bryk, A. S., & Raudenbush, S. W. 2002. *Hierarchical linear models*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.
- Burton, J. P., & Hoobler, J. M. 2006. Subordinate self-esteem and abusive supervision. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 18(3): 340.
- Butterfield, K. D., Trevino, L. K., & Ball, G. A. 1996. Punishment from the manager's perspective: A grounded investigation and inductive model. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(6): 1479-1512.
- Carlsmith, K. M., Darley, J. M., & Robinson P. H. 2002. Why do we punish?: Deterrence and just deserts as motives for punishment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(2): 284-299.
- Chan, D. 1998. Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83: 234-246.
- Chen, Z. X. & Francesco, A. M. 2000. Employee demography, organizational commitment and turnover intentions in China: do cultural differences matter? *Human Relations*, 53: 869-887.
- Chen, G., Mathieu, J. E., & Bliese, P. D. 2005. A framework for conducting multilevel construct validation. In F. J. Yammarino and F. Dansereau (Eds.), *Multilevel issues in organizational behavior and processes (Research in multilevel issues, volume 3)*, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. 1983. *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. 1998. *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. 2005. Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6): 874-900.
- Detert, J. R., Trevino, L. K., Burris, E. R., & Andiappan, M. 2007. Managerial modes of influence and counterproductivity in organizations: A longitudinal business-unit-level investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4): 993-1005.

- Dollard, J., Doob, L., Miller, N., Mowrer, O., & Sears, R. 1939. *Frustration and aggression*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. 2002. Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(2): 331-351.
- Duffy, M. K., Shaw, J. D., Scott, K. L., & Tepper, B. J. 2006. The moderating roles of self-esteem and neuroticism in the relationship between group and individual undermining behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5): 1066-1077.
- Dupré, K. E., Inness, M., Connelly, C. E., Barling, J., & Hopton, C. 2006. Workplace aggression in teenage part-time employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5): 987-996.
- Edmondson, A. 1996. Learning from mistakes is easier said than done: Group and organizational influences on the detection and correction of human error. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 32(1): 5-28.
- Ehrhart, M. G. 2004. Leadership and procedural justice climate as antecedents of unit-level organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 57: 61-94.
- Folger, R., & Bies, R. 1989. Managerial responsibilities and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 2: 79-90.
- Folger, R., & Skarlicki, D. 1998. A popcorn metaphor for employee aggression. In R. W. Griffin, A. O'Leary-Kelly, & J. M. Collins (Eds.), *Dysfunctional behavior in organizations: Non-violent dysfunctional behavior*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- George, J. M. 1990. Personality, affect, and behavior in groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75: 107-116.
- Glick, W. H. 1985. Conceptualizing and measuring organizational and psychological climate: Pitfalls in multilevel research. *Academy of Management Review*, 10: 601-616.
- Gouldner, D. L. 1960. The norm of reciprocity. *American Sociological Review*, 25: 165-167.
- Greenberg, J. 1993. The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.) *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management*: 79-103. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Griffin, M. A. 2001. Dispositions and work reactions: A multilevel approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 1142-1151.

- Hafer, C. L. 2002. Why we reject innocent victims. *The justice motive in everyday life*. UL: Cambridge University Press Cambridge.
- Harris, K. J., Harvey, P., & Kacmar, K. M. 2011. Abusive supervisory reactions to coworker relationship conflict. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(5): 1010-1023.
- Harris, K. J., Kacmar, K. M., & Zivnuska, S., 2007. An investigation of abusive supervision as a predictor of performance and the meaning of work as a moderator of the relationship. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3): 252-263.
- Hartog, D. N., House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A. & Dorfman, P. W. 1999. Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2): 219-256.
- Harvey, P., Stoner, J., Hochwarter, W., & Kacmar, C. 2007. Coping with abusive supervision: The neutralizing effects of ingratiation and positive affect on negative employee outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3): 264-280.
- Hattrup, K., & Jackson, S. E. 1996. Learning about individual differences by taking situations seriously. In *Individual differences and behavior in organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hershcovis, M. S., & Barling, J. 2009. Towards a multi-foci approach to workplace aggression: A meta-analytic review of outcomes from different perpetrators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(1): 24-44.
- Hobfoll, S. E. 1989. Conservation of resources. *American Psychologist*, 44(3): 513-524.
- Hobman, E. V., Restubog, S. L. D., Bordia, P., & Tang, R. L. 2009. Abusive supervision in advising relationships: Investigating the role of social support. *Applied Psychology*, 58(2): 233-256.
- Hofmann, D. 1997. An overview of the logic and rationale of hierarchical linear models. *Journal of Management*, 23: 723-744.
- Hofmann, D. A., & Gavin, M. B. 1998. Centering decisions in hierarchical linear models: Implications for research in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 24: 623-641.
- Hofmann, D. A., Griffin, M., & Gavin, M. 2000. The application of hierarchical linear modeling to organizational research. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.). *Multilevel theory, research and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

- Hofstede, G. 2001. *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Hoobler, J. M., & Brass, D. J. 2006. Abusive supervision and family undermining as displaced aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5): 1125-1133.
- House, R., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. 2002. Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: An introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business*, 37(1): 3-10.
- Howell, J. M., & Shamir, B. 2005. The role of followers in the charismatic leadership process: Relationships and their consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, 30: 96-112.
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. 1995. Evaluating model fit. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling. Concepts, issues, and applications*. London: Sage Publications.
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. 1999. Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6: 1-55.
- Inness, M., Barling, J., & Turner, N. 2005. Understanding supervisor-targeted aggression: A within-person, between-jobs design. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(4): 731-739.
- Janssen, O. 2001. Fairness perceptions as a moderator in the curvilinear relationships between job demands, and job performance and job satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44 (5): 1039-1050.
- James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. 1984. Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69: 86-98.
- Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., de Luque, M. S., & House, R. J. 2006. In the eye of the beholder: Cross cultural lessons in leadership from project GLOBE. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20(1): 67-90.
- Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. 1993. LISREL8: *Structural equation modeling with the SIMPLIS command language*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. 2001. LISREL8: *Structural equation modeling with the SIMPLIS command language*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

- Kark, R., Shamir, B., & Chen, G. 2003. The two faces of transformational leadership: Empowerment and dependency. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2): 246-254.
- Kark, R., & Van Dijk, D. 2007. Motivation to lead, motivation to follow: The role of the self-regulatory focus in leadership processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 32: 500-528.
- Kenny, D. A., Kashy, D. A., & Bolger, N. 1998. Data analysis in social psychology. In D. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (4th Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Kelman, H. C. 1958. Compliance, identification, and internalization three processes of attitude change. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 2(1): 51.
- Kelman, H. C. 1961. Processes of public opinion. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 25(1): 57-78.
- Kelman, H. C. 2006. Interests, relationships, identities: Three central issues for individuals and groups in negotiating their social environment. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 57: 1-26.
- Kiazad, K., Restubog, S. L. D., Zagenyck, T. J., Kiewitz, C., & Tang, R. L. 2010. In pursuit of power: The role of authoritarian leadership in the relationship between supervisors' Machiavellianism and subordinates' perceptions of abusive supervisory behavior. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 44(4): 512-519.
- Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Farh, J. L., Chen, Z. X., & Lowe, K. B. 2009. Individual power distance orientation and follower reactions to transformational leaders: A cross-level, cross-cultural examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4): 744-764.
- Klein, R. B. 1998. *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Klein, K. J., Dansereau, F., & Hall, R. J. 1994. Levels issues in theory development, data collection, and analysis. *Academy of Management Review*, 19: 195-229.
- Kozlowski, S. W., & Doherty, M. L. 1989. Integration of climate and leadership: Examination of a neglected issue. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(4): 546-553.
- Kozlowski, S.W. J., & Klein, K. J. 2000. A multilevel approach to theory and research in organizations: Contextual, temporal and emergent processes. In K. J. Klein, & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, methods in organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Kuchinke, K. P. 1999. Leadership and culture: Work-related values and leadership styles among one company's U.S. and German telecommunications employees. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 10: 135-155.
- Leventhal, G. S. 1980. What should be done with equity theory? New approaches to the study of fairness in social relationships. In K. Gergen, M. Greenberg, & R. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research*. New York: Plenum.
- Lerner, M. J. 1980. *The belief in a just world: A fundamental delusion*, New York: Plenum Pub Corp.
- Liao, H., & Chuang, A., 2007. Transforming service employees and climate: A multilevel, multisource examination of transformational leadership in building long-term service relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4): 1006-1019.
- Liao, H., & Rupp, D. E. 2005. The impact of justice climate and justice orientation on work outcomes: A cross-level multifoci framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90: 242-256.
- Lian, H. W., Ferris, D. L., & Brown, D. J. 2102. Does power distance exacerbate or mitigate the effects of abusive supervision? It depends on the outcome. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(1): 107-123.
- Lipkus, I. M., Dalbert, C., & Siegler, I. C. 1996. The importance of distinguishing the belief in a just world for self versus for others: Implications for psychological well-being. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22(7): 666-677.
- Little, T. D., Cunningham, W. A., Shahar, G., & Widaman, K. F. 2002. To parcel or not to parcel: Exploring the question, weighing the merits. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 9: 151-173.
- Liu, J., Kwan, H. K., Wu, L., & Wu, W. 2010. Abusive supervision and subordinate supervisor-directed deviance: The moderating role of traditional values and the mediating role of revenge cognitions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(4): 835-856.
- Liu, W., Zhu, R. H., & Yang, Y. K., 2010. I warn you because I like you: Voice behavior, employee identifications, and transformational leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(1): 189-202.
- Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., & Feiberg, S. J. 1999. Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader/follower relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 78: 167-203.

- Luthans, F., Peterson, S. J., & Ibrayeva, E. 1998. The potential for the "dark side" of leadership in post-communist countries. *Journal of World Business*, 33(2): 185-201.
- Mael, F., & Ashforth B. E. 1992. Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(2): 103-123.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Krull, J. L., & Lockwood, C. M. 2000. Equivalence of the mediation, confounding and suppression effect. *Prevention Science*, 1(4): 173-181.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. 2002. A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects. *Psychological Methods*, 7(1): 83-104.
- Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., Sikora, D., & Douglas, S. C., 2010. *Abusive supervision: Perception or reality?* Paper presented at the annual meetings of the Academy of Management, Montreal, Canada.
- Maruyama, G. M. 1998. *Basics of structural equation modeling*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Mathieu, J. E. & Taylor, S. R. 2007. A framework for testing meso-mediational relationships in organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(2): 141-172.
- Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., Hoobler, J. M., Wayne, S. J. & Marinova, S. V. in-press. A trickle-down model of abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*.
- Medsker, G. J., Williams, L. J., & Holahan, P. J. 1994. A review of current practices for evaluating causal-models in organizational-behavior and human-resources management research. *Journal of Management*, 20: 439-464.
- Messick, D. M., Bloom, S. Boldizar, J. P., & Samuelson, C. D. 1985. Why we are fairer than others. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 21(5): 480-500.
- Miceli, M. P., & Near, J. P. 1992. *Blowing the whistle*. New York: Lexington Books.
- Mitchell, M. S. & Ambrose, M. L. 2007. Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4): 1159-1168.

- Morgeson, F. P. 2005. The external leadership of self-managing teams: Intervening in the context of novel and disruptive events. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(3): 497-508.
- Morrison, E. W., & Milliken, F. J. 2000. Organizational silence: A barrier to change and development in a pluralistic world. *Academy of Management Review*, 25: 706-725.
- Mossholder, K. W., Bennett, N., & Martin, C. L. 1998. A multilevel analysis of procedural justice context. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19: 131-141.
- Naumann, S. E., & Bennett, N. 2000. A case for procedural justice climate: Development and test of a multilevel model. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43: 881-889.
- Niehoff, B. P., & Moorman, R. H. 1993. Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(3): 527-556.
- O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., Paetzold, R. L., & Griffin, R. W. 2000. Sexual harassment as aggressive behavior: An actor-based perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(2): 372-388.
- Opatow, S. 1990. Moral exclusion and injustice: An introduction. *Journal of Social Issues*, 46(1): 1-20.
- Pillai, R., Scandura, T. A., & Williams, E. A., 1999. Leadership and Organizational Justice: Similarities and Differences across Cultures. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30(4): 763-779.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. 2003. Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 879-903.
- Podsakoff, P., & Organ, D. 1986. Self-reports in organizational research: Problems & prospects. *Journal of Management*, 12: 531-544.
- Rafferty, A. E., & Restubog, S. L. 2010. The influence of abusive supervisors on followers' organizational citizenship behaviors: The hidden costs of abusive supervision. *British Journal of Management*, 22(2): 270-285.
- Raudenbush, S. W. & Bryk, A. S. 2002. *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Restubog, S. L., Scott, K. L. & Zagecnyzk, 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.
- Ross, L. 1977. The intuitive psychologist and his shortcomings: Distortions in the attribution process. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 10: 173-220.
- Rousseau, D. M. 1985. Issues of level in organizational research: Multilevel and cross-level perspectives. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Ed.), *Research in organizational behavior*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Rupp, D. E., Bashshur, M., & Liao, H. 2005. Justice climate, past present and future: Models of structure and emergence. *Multilevel issues in organizations and time*. JAI Press.
- Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. 1978. A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23: 224-253.
- Saunders, D. M., Sheppard, B. H., Knight, V., & Roth, J. 1992. Employee voice to supervisors. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 5: 241-259.
- Schminke, M., Cropanzano, R., & Rupp, D. E. 2002. Organization structure and fairness perceptions: The moderating effects of organizational level. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 89: 881-905.
- Schneider, B. 1990. The climate for service: An application of the climate construct. In: B. Schneider (Ed.), *Organizational climate and culture*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schneider, B., Salvaggio, A. N., & Subirats, M. 2002. Climate strength: a new direction for climate research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(2): 220.
- Scott, B. A., Colquitt, J. A., & Paddock, E. L. 2009. An actor-focused model of justice rule adherence and violation: The role of managerial motives and discretion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(3): 756-769.
- Shamir, B., Zakay, E., Breinin, E., & Popper, M. 1998. Correlates of charismatic leader behavior in military units: Subordinates' attitudes, unit characteristics, and superiors' appraisals of leader performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(4): 387-409.
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. 2002. Mediation in experimental and non-experimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7: 422-445.

- Seibert, S. E., Silver, S. R. & Randolph, W. A. 2004. Taking empowerment to the next level: A multiple-level model of empowerment, performance, and satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(3): 332-349.
- Simon, H. A., 1964. On the concept of organizational goal. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 9(1): 1-22.
- Simons, T., & Roberson, Q. 2003. Why managers should care about fairness: The effects of aggregate justice perceptions on organizational outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88: 432-443.
- Spreitzer, G. M., Perttula, K. H., & Xin, K. 2005. Traditionality matters: An examination of the effectiveness of transformational leadership in the United States and Taiwan. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(3): 205-227.
- Sutton, R. I., Eisenhardt, K. M. & Jucker, J. V. 1986. Managing organizational decline: Lessons from Atari. *Organizational Dynamics*, 14(4): 17-29.
- Tangirala, S., & Ramanujam, R. 2008. Employee silence on critical work issues: The cross level effects of procedural justice climate. *Personal Psychology*, 61: 37-68.
- Tedeschi, J. T. 1970. Threats and promises. In P. Swingle (Ed.) *The structure of conflict*: New York: Academic Press.
- Tedeschi, J. T., & Felson, R. B. 1994. *Violence, aggression, and coercive actions*. Washington, D. C., American Psychological Association.
- Tepper, B. J. 2000. Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2): 178-190.
- Tepper, B. J. 2007. Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 33(3): 261.
- Tepper, B. J., Carr, J. C., Breaux, D. M., Geider, S., Hu, C., & Hua, W. 2009. Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 109(2): 156-167.
- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., & Shaw, J. D., 2001. Personality moderators of the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' resistance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5): 974-983.
- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., Henle, C. A., & Lambert, L. S. 2006. Procedural injustice, victim precipitation and abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, 59(1): 101-123.

- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., Hoobler, J., & Ensley, M. D. 2004. Moderators of the relationships between coworkers' organizational citizenship behavior and fellow employees' attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(3): 455-465.
- Tepper, B. J., Henle, C. A., Lambert, L. S., Giacalone, R. A., & Duffy, M. K., 2008. Abusive supervision and subordinates' organization deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(4): 721-732.
- Tepper, B. J., Moss, S. E., & Duffy, M. K. 2011. Predictors of abusive supervision: Supervisor perception of deep level dissimilarity, relational conflict and subordinate performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(2): 279 – 294.
- Tepper, B. J., Moss, S. E., Lockhart, D. E., & Carr, J. C., 2007. Abusive supervision, upward maintenance communication, and subordinates' psychological distress. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(5): 1169-1180.
- Thau, S., Bennett, R. J., Mitchell, M. S., & Marrs, M. B. 2009. How management style moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and workplace deviance: An uncertainty management theory perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108(1): 79-92.
- Trevino, L. K. 1992. The social effects of punishment in organizations: A justice perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 17(4): 647-676.
- Tyler, T. R., Lind, E. A., & Huo, Y. J. 2000. Cultural values and authority relations: The psychology of conflict resolution across cultures. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, 6: 1138-1163.
- Van Knippenberg, D., Van Knippenberg, B., Cremer, D. D., & Hogg, M. A. 2004. Leadership, self, and identity: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15: 825–856.
- Walder, A. G. 1991. Workers, managers and the state: the reform era and the political crisis of 1989. *China Quarterly*, 127: 467-492.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Hartnell, C. A., & Oke, A., 2010. Servant leadership, procedural justice climate, service climate, employee attitudes, and organizational citizenship behavior: A cross-level investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3): 517-529.
- Walumbwa, F. O., & Lawler, J. J. 2003. Building effective organizations: transformational leadership, collectivist orientation, work-related attitudes and withdrawal behaviors in three emerging economies. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(7): 1083-1101.

- Walumbwa, F. O., Lawler, J. J., & Avolio, B. J. 2007. Leadership, individual differences, and work-related attitudes: A cross-culture investigation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 56: 212–230.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Orwa, B., Wang, P., & Lawler, J. J. 2005. Transformational leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction: A comparative study of Kenyan and U.S. financial firms. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 16(2): 235-256.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Wu, C., & Orwa, B. 2008. Contingent reward transactional leadership, work attitudes, and organizational citizenship behavior: The role of procedural justice climate perceptions and strength. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(3): 251-265.
- Walumbwa, F. O., & Schaubroeck, J. 2009. Leader personality traits and employee voice behavior: Mediating roles of ethical leadership and work group psychological safety. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(5): 1275-1286.
- Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R. D., Wang, D., & Chen, Z. X. 2005. Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48: 420 – 432.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. 1988. Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54: 1063-1070.
- Wech, B. A. 2001. *Team-member exchange and trust contexts: Effects in individual level outcome variables beyond the influence of leader-member exchange*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Louisiana State University, Louisiana, USA.
- Withey, M. J., & Cooper, W. H. 1989. Predicting exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 34: 521-539.
- Wu, T. Y., & Chang H. 2009. Abusive supervision and employee emotional exhaustion: dispositional antecedents and boundaries. *Group Organization Management*, 34(2): 143-169.
- Wu, M., Huang, X., Li, C., & Liu, W. 2012. Perceived interactional justice and trust in supervisor as mediators for paternalistic leadership. *Management and Organization Review*, 8(1): 97-121.
- Xu, E., Huang, X., Lam, C. K., & Miao, Q., 2012. Abusive supervision and work behaviors. The mediating role of LMX. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(4): 531-543.

- Yang, J., Mossholder, K. W., & Peng, T. K. 2007. Procedural justice climate and group power distance: An examination of cross-level interaction effects. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3): 681-692.
- Yu, H., Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. 2002. The effects of transformational leadership on teachers' commitment to change in Hong Kong. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 40: 368-389.
- Zellars, K. L., Tepper, B. J., & Duffy, M. K. 2002. Abusive supervision and subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(6): 1068-1076.
- Zimring, F. E., & Hawkins, G. 1973. *Deterrence*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Zohar, D., & Luria, G. 2005. A multilevel model of safety climate: Cross-level relationships between organization and group-level climates. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(4): 616-628.

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Summary of literature on abusive supervision.....	200
Appendix 2 Measurement items for Study 1.....	211
Appendix 3 Measurement items for Study 2.....	214
Appendix 4 Subordinate's questionnaire for Study 1.....	217
Appendix 5 Supervisor's questionnaire for Study 1.....	220
Appendix 6 Supervisor's questionnaire for Study 2 (Time 1).....	224
Appendix 7 Supervisor's questionnaire for Study 2 (Time 2).....	227
Appendix 8 Subordinate's questionnaire for Study 2 (Time 1).....	230
Appendix 9 Subordinate's questionnaire for Study 2 (Time 2).....	234

Summary of Literature on Abusive Supervision

S/N	Article Ref	Focus	Independent variables	Mediators	Moderators	Dependent variables
1	Tepper, Moss, & Duffy (2011). Predictors of abusive supervision: supervisor perceptions of deep-level dissimilarity, relation conflict, and subordinate performance. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> . 54(2): 279 – 294.	Antecedents of abusive supervision	Perceived dissimilarity with subordinate	Perceived relationship conflict	Supervisor evaluation of subordinate's job performance	Abusive supervision
2	Kiazad, Restubog, Zagenczyk, Kiewitz, & Tang, (2010) In pursuit of power: The role of authoritarian leadership in the relationship between supervisors' Machiavellianism and subordinates' perceptions of abusive supervisory behavior. <i>Journal of Research in Personality</i> . 44(4): 512-519	Antecedents to abusive supervision	Supervisor's Machiavellianism	Authoritarian leadership	Subordinate's OBSE	Abusive supervision

3	Harris, Harvey, & Kacmar (2011). Abusive supervisory reactions to coworker relationship conflict. <i>The Leadership Quarterly</i> , 22(5): 1010-1023.	Antecedents of abusive supervision	Coworker relationship conflict	Abusive supervision	LMX quality	Work effort and OCB
4	Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk (2011). When distress hits home: The role of contextual factors and psychological distress in predicting employees' responses to abusive supervision. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 96(4): 713-729.	Antecedents of abusive supervision	Aggressive norms	Abusive supervision & psychological distress	a) Gender b) Relationship-oriented occupations	Supervisor directed deviance and spouse undermining
5	Wu & Chang (2009). Abusive supervision and employee emotional exhaustion: dispositional antecedents and boundaries. <i>Group Organization Management</i> , 34(2): 143-169.	Antecedents of abusive supervision	Subordinate' core-self evaluations (self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism & locus of control)	Abusive supervision	a) Susceptibility to emotional contagion b) perceived coworker support	Emotional exhaustion

6	Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah. (2007). Antecedents and outcomes of abusive Supervision: Test of a trickle-down model. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> 92(1): 191-201.	Antecedents of abusive supervision	Supervisor's perception of interactional justice	Abusive supervision	Authoritarian leadership style (supervisor perception è abusive supervision)	OCB-O, OCB-I, Affective commitment
7	Hoobler & Brass (2006). Abusive supervision and family undermining as displaced aggression. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> 91(5): 1125-1133.	Antecedents of abusive supervision	Supervisor's perception of psychological contract of violation	Abusive supervision	Supervisor's hostile attribution bias	Family undermining
8	Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert (2006). Procedural injustice, victim precipitation, and abusive supervision. <i>Personnel Psychology</i> 59(1): 101-123.	Antecedents of abusive supervision	Supervisor's perceptions of procedural justice	Supervisor's depression	Subordinate's negative affectivity	Abusive supervision
9	Xu, Huang, Lam, & Miao (2012). Abusive supervision and work behaviors: The mediating role of LMX. <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i> .	Mediator	Abusive supervision	Leader member exchange	NA	Task performance, OCB-I and OCB-O.

10	Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy (2008). Abusive supervision and subordinates' organization deviance. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 93(4): 721-732.	Mediator	Abusive supervision	Affective commitment	Norms toward organizational deviance	Organizational deviance
11	Aryee, Sun, Chen, & Debrah (2008). Abusive supervision and contextual performance: The mediating role of emotional exhaustion and the moderating role of work unit structure. <i>Management and Organization Review</i> , 4(3): 393-411.	Mediator	Abusive supervision	Emotional exhaustion	Work unit structure - mechanistic and organic	Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication
12	Aryee, Chen, Sun & Debrah (2007). Antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision: Test of a trickle-down model. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> 92(1): 191-201.	Mediator	Abusive supervision	a) Subordinates' perception of interactional justice, b) Subordinates' perception of procedural justice (ns)	Authoritarian leadership style	OCB-O, OCB-I, Affective commitment

13	Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy (2002). Abusive supervision and subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 87(6): 1068-1076.	Mediator	Abusive supervision	Procedural justice	Subordinate's OCB-role definitions (in-role versus extra-role)	Subordinate's OCB
14	Tepper (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> : 43(2): 178-190.	Mediator	Abusive supervision	Organizational justice (procedural justice, interactional justice, distributive justice)	Job mobility	Voluntary turnover, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment, continuance commitment, work-family conflict, psychological distress
15	Lian, Ferris, & Brown (2012). Does power distance exacerbate or mitigate the effects of abusive supervision? It depends on the outcome. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> : 97(1): 107-123.	Moderators	Abusive supervision	Likelihood of rewards	Subordinate's power distance	Interactional justice and interpersonal deviance

16	Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua (2009). Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. <i>Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes</i> , 109(2): 156-167.	Moderators	Abusive supervision	NA	Intentions to quit	Organizational deviance and supervisor-directed deviance
17	Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs (2009). How management style moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and workplace deviance: An uncertainty management theory perspective. <i>Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes</i> , 108(1): 79-92.	Moderators	Abusive supervision	NA	Perceived authoritarian organizational management style depicting situational uncertainty	Workplace deviance (interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance)

18	Hobman, Restubog, Bordia, & Tang (2009). Abusive supervision in advising relationships: Investigating the role of social support. <i>Applied Psychology</i> , 58(2): 233-256.	Moderators	Abusive supervision	NA	Advisor and team member support (cross domain stress buffering & within domain stress exacerbation)	For stress exacerbation hypothesis (advisor support): anxiety (+) and psychological well-being (-). For stress-buffering hypothesis (high team member support): satisfaction and anxiety (negligible association).
19	Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr (2007). Abusive supervision, upward maintenance communication, and subordinates' psychological distress. <i>The Academy of Management Journal</i> , 50(5): 1169-1180.	Moderators	Abusive supervision	NA	Upward maintenance communications (Lee, 1998) - regulative maintenance & direct maintenance	Subordinate's psychological distress

20	Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska (2007). An investigation of abusive supervision as a predictor of performance and the meaning of work as a moderator of the relationship. <i>The Leadership Quarterly</i> 18(3): 252-263.	Moderators	Abusive supervision	NA	Meaning of work (an aspect of empowerment)	Job in-role performance (self-rated, leader-rated & performance appraisal)
21	Harvey, Stoner, Hochwater, & Kacmar (2007). Coping with abusive supervision: The neutralizing effects of ingratiation and positive affect on negative employee outcomes. <i>The Leadership Quarterly</i> 18(3): 264-280.	Moderators (3-way interaction)	Abusive supervision	NA	3-way interaction - ingratiation & positive affect	Job tension, emotional exhaustion & turnover intent
22	Mitchell & Ambrose (2007). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> 92(4): 1159-1168.	Moderators	Abusive supervision	NA	Negative reciprocity beliefs (quid pro quo belief)	Workplace deviance: a) supervisor directed deviance, b) organizational deviance, c) interpersonal deviance (to others)

23	Bamberger & Bacharach (2006). Abusive supervision and subordinate problem drinking: Taking resistance, stress and subordinate personality into account. <i>Human Relations</i> , 59(6): 723.	Moderators	Abusive supervision	Somatic stress (non-significant)	Conscientiousness and agreeableness	Problem drinking
24	Dupré, Inness, Connelly, Barling, & Hopton (2006). Workplace aggression in teenage part-time employees. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> 91(5): 987-996.	Moderators	Workplace factors: a) Interactional injustice, b) Abusive supervision	NA	Individual factors: a) financial reasons for working, b) personal fulfillment reasons	Workplace aggression: a) psychological workplace aggression, b) physical workplace aggression
25	Inness, Barling, & Turner (2005). Understanding supervisor-targeted aggression: A within-person, between-jobs design. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> 90(4): 731-739.	Moderators	a) Situational factors (abusive supervision & interactional justice), b) Individual factors (History of aggression & self-esteem)	NA	a) Individual factors (history of aggression & self-esteem)	Supervisor directed aggression

26	Tepper, Duffy, Hobbler, & Ensley (2004). Moderators of the relationships between coworkers' organizational citizenship behavior and fellow employees' attitudes. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> 89(3): 455-465.	Moderators	Co-worker's OCB	NA	Abusive supervision	Employee's attitudes (job satisfaction & affective commitment)
27	Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw (2001). Personality moderators of the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' resistance. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> 86(5): 974-983.	Moderators	Abusive supervision	NA	Conscientiousness and agreeableness	Employee resistance: a) constructive resistance, and b) dysfunctional resistance
28	Burton & Hoobler (2006). Subordinate self-esteem and abusive supervision. <i>Journal of Managerial Issues</i> , 18(3): 340.	Moderator	Abusive supervision	NA	Gender	State self-esteem

29	Detert, Trevino, Burris, & Andiappan (2007). Managerial modes of influence and counterproductivity in organizations: A longitudinal business-unit-level investigation. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 92(4): 993-1005.	Consequences	a) Abusive supervision, b) managerial oversight & c) ethical leadership	Counterproductivity (food loss)	NA	Restaurant profitability and customer satisfaction
----	--	--------------	---	---------------------------------	----	--

Measurement Items for Study 1

1. Independent variable

Supervisor's just-world motive

1. I want this organization to treat my subordinates fairly
2. I want my subordinates to get what they deserve
3. I want my subordinates to treat each other fairly
4. I want my subordinates to earn the rewards and punishments they get
5. I want my subordinates to treat each other with the respect they deserve
6. I want my subordinates to get what they are entitled to have
7. I notice and reward my subordinates for their efforts

2. Mediator

Abusive supervision

1. My supervisor ridicules me
2. My supervisor tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid
3. My supervisor puts me down in front of others
4. My supervisor makes negative comments about me to others
5. My supervisor tells me I am incompetent
6. My supervisor invades my privacy
7. My supervisor does not give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort
8. My supervisor blames me to save him/herself from embarrassment
9. My supervisor breaks promises he/she makes
10. My supervisor lies to me
11. My supervisor gives me silent treatment
12. My supervisor is rude to me
13. My supervisor reminds me of my past mistakes and failures
14. My supervisor expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason
15. My supervisor does not allow me to interact with my coworkers

3. Dependent variables

a) Subordinate's perceived interactional justice

When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor...

1.treats me with kindness and consideration
2.offers adequate justification for the decisions
3.treats me with respect and dignity
4.is sensitive to my personal needs
5.shows concern for my rights as an employee
6.deals with me in a truthful manner

b) Subordinate's personal identification

1. When someone criticizes my supervisor, it feels like a personal insult
2. When someone praises my supervisor, it feels like a personal compliment
3. My supervisor's successes are my successes
4. I identify very strongly with my supervisor
5. I have complete faith in my supervisor
6. My supervisor is a role model for me to follow

4. Moderator

Subordinate's power distance

1. In most situations, supervisors should make decisions without consulting their subordinates
2. In work-related matters, supervisors have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates
3. Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it
4. Employees should not express disagreements with their supervisor
5. Supervisors should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others
6. Supervisors who let their employees participate in decisions lose power
7. A company's rules should not be broken—not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest

5. Control variables

a) Supervisor's perceived interactional justice

When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor...

1.treats me with kindness and consideration
2.offers adequate justification for the decisions
3.treats me with respect and dignity
4.is sensitive to my personal needs
5.shows concern for my rights as an employee
6.deals with me in a truthful manner

b) Supervisor's and subordinate's negative affectivity

The following words describe different feelings and emotions. Please rate how you would generally feel:

1. Distressed
2. Upset
3. Guilty
4. Scared
5. Hostile
6. Irritable
7. Ashamed
8. Nervous
9. Jittery
10. Afraid

Measurement Items for Study 2

1. Independent variable

Supervisor's interactional justice

When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor...

1.treats me with kindness and consideration
2.offers adequate justification for the decisions
3.treats me with respect and dignity
4.is sensitive to my personal needs
5.shows concern for my rights as an employee
6.deals with me in a truthful manner

2. Mediators

a) Abusive supervision

1. My supervisor ridicules subordinates
2. My supervisor tells subordinates their thoughts or feelings are stupid
3. My supervisor puts subordinates down in front of others
4. My supervisor makes negative comments about subordinates to others
5. My supervisor tells subordinates they're incompetent
6. My supervisor lies to subordinates
7. My supervisor invades subordinates' privacy
8. My supervisor doesn't give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort
9. My supervisor blames subordinates to save himself/herself from embarrassment
10. My supervisor breaks promises he/she makes
11. My supervisor is rude to subordinates
12. My supervisor gives subordinates silent treatment
13. My supervisor expresses anger at subordinates when he/she is mad for another reason
14. My supervisor reminds subordinates of their past mistakes and failures
15. My supervisor does not allow subordinates to interact amongst coworkers

b) Subordinate's personal identification

1. When someone criticizes my supervisor, it feels like a personal insult.
2. When someone praises my supervisor, it feels like a personal compliment.
3. My supervisor's successes are my successes.
4. I identify very strongly with my supervisor
5. I have complete faith in my supervisor
6. My supervisor is a role model for me to follow

3. Dependent variables

a) Procedural justice climate

My present organization has procedures designed to...

1. Collect accurate and complete information necessary for making decisions
2. Provide opportunities to appeal or challenge a decision
3. Ensure decisions are made in an unbiased manner
4. Provide feedback regarding a decision and its implementation
5. Allow clarification or additional information about a decision when requested by employees
6. Ensure that all employee concerns are heard before decisions are made

b) Climate of silence

To protect themselves, members of my team.....

1. Remain silent when they have concerns about production safety
2. Do not speak up although they had ideas for improving production safety
3. Said nothing to others about potential production safety problems
4. Remain silent when they had information that might have helped prevent an incident in the team
5. Keep quiet instead of asking questions about production safety in the team.

c) Subordinates's in-role performance

1. This subordinate always completes the duties specified in his/her job description
2. This subordinate fulfills all responsibilities required by his/her job
3. This subordinate often performs essential duties. (modified item)
4. This subordinate never neglects aspects of the job that he/she is obligated to perform
5. This subordinate meets all the formal performance requirements of the job

d) Subordinate's silence behaviors

1. This subordinate choose to remain silent even when he/she has concerns about production safety in the workgroup
2. Although this subordinate has ideas for improving production safety in the group, he/she does not speak up
3. This subordinate said nothing to others about potential production safety problems
4. This subordinate remain silent when he/she has information that might have helped prevent an incident in the work-group
5. This subordinate kept quiet instead of asking questions about production safety in the workgroup

4. Moderator

Supervisor's power distance

1. In most situations, supervisors should make decisions without consulting their subordinates
2. In work-related matters, supervisors have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates
3. Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their supervisor from being effective
4. Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it
5. Employees should not express disagreements with their supervisor
6. Supervisors should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others
7. Supervisors who let their employees participate in decisions lose power
8. A company's rules should not be broken—not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest

5. Control variables

a) Subordinate's perceived interactional justice

When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor...

1. treats me with kindness and consideration
2. offers adequate justification for the decisions
3. treats me with respect and dignity
4. is sensitive to my personal needs
5. deals with me in a truthful manner
6. shows concern for my rights as an employee

b) Supervisor's and subordinate's negative affectivity

The following words describe different feelings and emotions. Please rate how you would generally feel:

1. Distressed
2. Upset
3. Guilty
4. Scared
5. Hostile
6. Irritable
7. Ashamed
8. Nervous
9. Jittery
10. Afraid

Supervisor's Questionnaire in Study 1

问卷编号：_____

主管问卷

尊敬的女士/先生：

感谢您抽出宝贵的时间参加这项研究。由澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院的研究人员所设计，本研究的目的在于研究公司内部主管与下属的行为。您的参与对我们的研究非常重要。

请您在填答前仔细阅读问卷说明。填写完毕后，请将问卷装入信封、封好，交还给我们的研究人员或交给人事部门。

本课题组向您承诺“我们对您所填答的问卷进行严格保密”。问卷采用不记名方式，贵公司的任何人都不会看到您所填的答案。问卷收集后会立刻交由电脑进行整体分析，数据输入电脑后问卷将会被销毁。研究报告只有总体数据，不含任何个人资料及数据，请放心如实填答。

衷心感谢您的参与！

澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院

博士候选人黄文静

第一部分

一。请您根据自己的真实想法或感受，不必参考别人的意见，选择您对下列各项陈述的同意程度并在右侧相应的数字上划圈（O）。

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 我希望公司会公平地对待我的下属。.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我希望我的下属得到他们应得的东西。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我希望我的下属公平地对待彼此。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我希望我的下属所得的奖赏或惩罚是公平的。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我希望我的下属给予彼此应有的尊重。.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我希望我的下属有权享有他们应得的。.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我会注意到下属的努力并加以奖赏。.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. 当我的下属遭遇到不幸时，那是他们咎由自取。.....	1	2	3	4	5

二。请您根据自己的真实想法或感受，不必参考别人的意见，选择您对下列各项陈述的同意程度并在右侧相应的数字上划圈（O）。

下列各题，每一题目的开头是：“在作出与我的工作有关的决定时，我的上司…”

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 会用亲切与关心的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 会告知我决定的理由。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 会用尊重的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 体恤我个人的需求。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 以真诚的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 关心我个人员工的权利。.....	1	2	3	4	5

三。下面这些题目是描述不同感觉和情绪的形容词。请圈（O）选适当的数字来描述您总体的感觉和情绪。

	几乎不	一点	普通	时常	经常
1. 苦恼的 / 忧愁的	1	2	3	4	5
2. 困扰 / 烦乱的	1	2	3	4	5
3. 内疚的	1	2	3	4	5
4. 紧张的	1	2	3	4	5
5. 有敌意的	1	2	3	4	5
6. 急躁的	1	2	3	4	5
7. 羞愧的	1	2	3	4	5
8. 不安的	1	2	3	4	5
9. 受惊吓的	1	2	3	4	5
10. 害怕的	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分：背景资料

以下请您填写您个人背景资料，以作为整体分析之用。

- 1. 您的年龄：_____ 岁
- 2. 您的性别：_____ 男 _____ 女
- 3. 您的教育程度：初中以下 高中/中专 大学专科 大学本科 研究生
- 4. 您在这个公司工作多长时间：_____ 年 _____ 月
- 5. 您的职位：基层主管 中层主管 高层主管
- 6. 您的职务：_____
- 7. 您所在的部门名称：_____

*****非常感谢您的帮助！*****

Subordinate's Questionnaire in Study 1

问卷编号: _____

员工问卷

尊敬的女士/先生:

感谢您抽出宝贵的时间参加这项研究。由澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院的研究人员所设计, 本研究的目的在于研究公司内部主管与下属的行为。您的参与对我们的研究非常重要。

请您在填答前仔细阅读问卷说明。填写完毕后, 请将问卷装入信封、封好, 交还给我们的研究人员或交给人事部门。

本课题组向您承诺“我们对您所填答的问卷进行严格保密”。问卷采用不记名方式, 贵公司的任何人都不会看到您所填的答案。问卷收集后会立刻交由电脑进行整体分析, 数据输入电脑后问卷将会被销毁。研究报告只有总体数据, 不含任何个人资料及数据, 请放心如实填答。

衷心感谢您的参与!

澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院

博士候选人黄文静

第一部分

一. 请您根据自己的真实想法或感受, 不必参考别人的意见, 选择您对下列各项陈述的同意程度并在右侧相应的数字上划圈 (O)。

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 当有人批评我的主管时, 我觉得就像批评我个人一样。.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 当有人赞赏我的主管时, 我觉得就像赞赏我个人一样。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 主管的成功就是我的成功。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我非常认同我的主管。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我的主管是我为人处事的好榜样。.....	1	2	3	4	5

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 大部份的情况下, 主管应当独立决定工作事务, 无需跟下属商量.	1	2	3	4	5
2. 主管有权要求下属完全服从工作上的一切事情。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 经常怀疑主管职权的下属, 有时会让主管无法有效管理。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 一旦高层级主管做了决定, 公司的员工就不该表示怀疑。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 下属不应该反对主管作出的决定。.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 主管不需与别人商量便能做出正确的决定。.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. 当主管让下属参与决策时, 主管会失去自己的权力。.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. 即使违背公司规定是为了公司好, 员工也不该违背公司的规定.	1	2	3	4	5

二. 下列各题, 每一题目的开头是: “在作出与我的工作有关的决定时, 我的主管…”

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 会用亲切与关心的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 会告知我决定的理由。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 会用尊重的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 体恤我个人的需求。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 以真诚的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 关心我员工个人的权利。.....	1	2	3	4	5

三. 下面描述主管与下属在互动中表现的行为。对每一种说法选择您与主管的相处中, 主管表现下列行为的频率, 并在右侧相应的数字上划圈(O)。

	从未如此	很少如此	偶尔如此	时常如此	经常如此
1. 我的主管会取笑我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我的主管会告诉我说我的想法很愚蠢。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我的主管当着众人面前贬低我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我的主管会对外人说我的坏话。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我的主管会对我说我缺乏能力或效力。.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我的主管会对我撒谎。.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我的主管会侵犯我的隐私。.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我的主管不会对我工作所做的努力给予奖励。.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. 我的主管会责怪我以免除自己的尴尬。.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我的主管会对我不守诺言。.....	1	2	3	4	5
11. 我的主管对我很粗鲁/无礼。.....	1	2	3	4	5
12. 我的主管冷落我或对我沉默不语。.....	1	2	3	4	5
13. 我的主管为了别的事情气恼时会把怒火发到我身上。.....	1	2	3	4	5
14. 我的主管会提起我过去的错误和失败。.....	1	2	3	4	5
15. 我的主管不让我我和同事互相交往或合作。.....	1	2	3	4	5

四. 下面这些题目是描述不同感觉和情绪的形容词。请圈(O)选适当的数字来描述您总体的感觉和情绪。

	几乎不	一点	普通	有时	经常
1. 苦恼的 / 忧愁的.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 困扰 / 烦乱的.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 内疚的.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 紧张的.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 有敌意的.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 急躁的.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. 羞愧的.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. 不安的.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. 受惊吓的.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. 害怕的.....	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分：背景资料

以下请您填写您个人背景资料，以作为整体分析之用。

1. 您的年龄：____ 岁
2. 您的性别：____ 男 ____ 女
3. 您的教育程度：初中以下 高中/中专 大学专科 大学本科 研究生
4. 您在这个公司工作多长时间：____ 年 ____ 月
5. 您与现任主管共事多长时间：____ 年 ____ 月
6. 您的职位：员工 基层主管 中层主管
7. 您的职务：_____
8. 您所在的部门名称：_____

*****非常感谢您的帮助! *****

Supervisor's Questionnaire in Study 2 (Time 1)

问卷编号：_____

主管问卷（T1）

尊敬的女士/先生：

感谢您抽出宝贵的时间参加这项研究。本研究的目的在于研究公司内主管与下属的行为。由澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院的研究人员所设计，这项研究将分两次，邀请您填写两种不同的问卷。您的参与对我们的研究非常重要。

请您在填答前仔细阅读问卷说明。填写完毕后，请将问卷装入信封、封好，交还给我们的研究人员或交给人事部门。

本课题组向您承诺“**我们对您所填答的问卷进行严格保密**”。问卷采用不记名方式，贵公司的任何人都不会看到您所填的答案。问卷收集后会立刻交由电脑进行整体分析，数据输入电脑后问卷将会被销毁。研究报告只有总体数据，不含任何个人资料及数据，请放心如实填答。

衷心感谢您的参与！

澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院

博士候选人黄文静

第一部分

一。请您根据自己的真实想法或感受，不必参考别人的意见，选择您对下列各项陈述的同意程度并在右侧相应的数字上划圈（O）。

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 大部份的情况下，主管应当独立决定工作事务，无需跟下属商量。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 主管有权要求下属完全服从工作上的一切安排。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 经常怀疑主管职权的下属，有时会让主管无法有效管理。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 一旦高层主管做了决定，公司的员工就不该表示怀疑。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 下属不应该反对主管作出的决定。.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 主管不需与别人商量便能做出正确的决定。.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. 当主管让下属参与决策时，主管会失去自己的权力。.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. 即使违背公司的规定是为了公司好，员工都不该违背公司的规定。	1	2	3	4	5

二。下列各题，每一题目的开头是：“在作出与我的工作有关的决定时，我的上司…”

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 会用亲切与关心的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 会告知我决定的理由。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 会用尊重的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 体恤我个人的需求。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 以真诚的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 关心我个人员工的权利。.....	1	2	3	4	5

三。下面这些题目是描述不同感觉和情绪的形容词。请圈（O）选适当的数字来描述您总体的感觉和情绪。

	几乎不	一点	普通	时常	经常
1. 苦恼的 / 忧愁的	1	2	3	4	5
2. 困扰 / 烦乱的	1	2	3	4	5
3. 内疚的	1	2	3	4	5
4. 紧张的	1	2	3	4	5
5. 有敌意的	1	2	3	4	5
6. 急躁的	1	2	3	4	5
7. 羞愧的	1	2	3	4	5
8. 不安的	1	2	3	4	5
9. 受惊吓的	1	2	3	4	5
10. 害怕的	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分：背景资料

以下请您填写您个人背景资料，以作为整体分析之用。

1. 您的年龄：_____岁
2. 您的性别：_____男 _____女
3. 您的教育程度：初中以下 高中/中专 大学专科 大学本科 研究生
4. 您在这个公司工作多长时间：_____年 _____月
5. 您的职位：基层主管 中层主管 高层主管
6. 您的职务：_____
7. 您所在的部门名称：_____

*****非常感谢您的帮助！*****

Supervisor's Questionnaire in Study 2 (Time 2)

问卷编号: _____

主管问卷 (T2)

尊敬的女士/先生:

再次感谢您抽出宝贵的时间来填写另一份不同的问卷。本研究是由澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院的研究人员设计的, 目的在于研究公司内主管与下属的行为。您的参与对我们的研究非常重要。

请您在填答前仔细阅读问卷说明, 填写完毕后, 请将问卷装入信封、封好, 交还给我们的研究人员或交给人事部门。

本课题组向您承诺“我们对您所填答的问卷进行严格保密”。问卷采用不记名方式, 贵公司的任何人都不会看到您所填的答案。问卷收集后会立刻交由电脑进行整体分析, 数据输入电脑后问卷将会被销毁。研究报告只有总体数据, 不含任何个人资料及数据, 请放心如实填答。

衷心感谢您的参与!

澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院

博士候选人黄文静

问卷编号：_____

填答问卷说明

您与您的四位下属被随机选择参加这项研究。在这项研究中，您的回答将被严格保密，并以总体的方式报告，而不会提到个人的答案。感谢您的支持！

请注意：您一定要按照下属的编号对应来作解答。否则，我们的数据就无法匹配！在填完问卷后，请将下栏中下属的姓名用橡皮擦去，以保密。

	问卷编号	下属姓名
下属A		
下属B		
下属C		
下属D		

背景资料

以下请您填写您个人背景资料，以作为整体分析之用。

1. 您的年龄：_____岁

2. 您的性别：_____男 _____女

3. 您的职位： 基层主管 中层主管 高层主管

4. 您的职务：_____

5. 您所在的部门名称：_____

下面，请您依据下列每个句子来评价您的下属的行为与表现。请分别针对每位下属，在相应的栏目中填入适当的数字“1”至“5”，以表达您对该下属的行为与表现的观察和看法。

例如：在下题中，如果您觉得下属A“总是”帮助同事，请在“下属A”的栏目中填入“5”的数字。如果下属B“从不”帮助同事，请在“下属B”的栏目中填入“1”的数字等等。

例句：该下属会帮助同事。..... 下属 A (5) 下属 B (1) 下属 C (3) 下属 D (4)

1 = 从不 2 = 很少 3 = 有时 4 = 很多时候 5 = 总是

	下属 A	下属 B	下属 C	下属 D
1. 该下属会执行自己工作上规定的责任。.....	()	()	()	()
2. 该下属会完成工作上所要求的任务。.....	()	()	()	()
3. 该下属会达到工作上所要求的表现。.....	()	()	()	()
4. 该下属会完成指派的任务。.....	()	()	()	()
5. 该下属会参与那些会直接影响自己工作考绩的活动。.....	()	()	()	()
6. 该下属就算对团队有疑虑,为了自保他/她不会说出来。.....	()	()	()	()
7. 该下属知道如何改善团队,但为了自保他/她却不会说。.....	()	()	()	()
8. 该下属为了自保,没有跟其他人提起潜在团队的问题。.....	()	()	()	()
9. 该下属有常识能防止团队内发生意外,但为了自保他/她却不说。.....	()	()	()	()
10. 该下属在寻找资讯时没有对团队员工提出疑问,反而保持沉默。.....	()	()	()	()

*****非常感谢您的帮助!*****

Subordinates's Questionnaire in Study 2 (Time 1)

问卷编号：_____

员工问卷 (T1)

尊敬的女士/先生：

感谢您抽出宝贵的时间参加这项研究。本研究的目的在于研究公司内主管与下属的行为。由澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院的研究人员所设计，这项研究将分两次，邀请您填写两种不同的问卷。您的参与对我们的研究非常重要。

请您在填答前仔细阅读问卷说明。填写完毕后，请将问卷装入信封、封好，交还给我们的研究人员或交给人事部门。

本课题组向您承诺“我们对您所填答的问卷进行严格保密”。问卷采用不记名方式，贵公司的任何人都不会看到您所填的答案。问卷收集后会立刻交由电脑进行整体分析，数据输入电脑后问卷将会被销毁。研究报告只有总体数据，不含任何个人资料及数据，请放心如实填答。

衷心感谢您的参与！

澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院

博士候选人黄文静

第一部分

一。下面描述主管与下属在互动中表现的行为。对每一种说法选择您与主管的相处中,主管表现下列行为的频率,并在右侧相应的数字上划圈 (O)。

	从 未 如 此	很 少 如 此	偶 尔 如 此	时 常 如 此	经 常 如 此
1. 我的主管会取笑下属。.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我的主管会告诉下属说他/她们的想法很愚蠢。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我的主管当着众人面前贬低下属。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我的主管会对外人说下属的坏话。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我的主管对下属说他/她们缺乏能力或效力。.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我的主管会对下属撒谎。.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我的主管会侵犯下属的隐私。.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我的主管不会对下属工作所做的努力给予奖励。.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. 我的主管会责怪下属以免除自己的尴尬。.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我的主管会对下属不守诺言。.....	1	2	3	4	5
11. 我的主管对下属很粗鲁/无礼。.....	1	2	3	4	5
12. 我的主管冷落下属或对下属沉默不语。.....	1	2	3	4	5
13. 我的主管为了别的事情气恼时会把怒火发到下属身上。.....	1	2	3	4	5
14. 我的主管会提起下属过去的错误和失败。.....	1	2	3	4	5
15. 我的主管不让下属互相交往或合作。.....	1	2	3	4	5

二。请您根据自己的真实想法或感受，不必参考别人的意见，选择您对下列各项陈述的同意程度并在右侧相应的数字上划圈(O)。

下列各题，每一题目的开头是：“为了自保，我团队的成员……”。

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 就算对团队有疑虑，他们也不会说。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 知道如何改善团队，但他们却不会说。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 没有跟其他人提起团队潜在的问题。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 有常识能防止团队内发生意外，但他们却不说。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 在寻找信息时没有对团队员工提出疑问，反而保持沉默。	1	2	3	4	5

下列各题，每一题目的开头是：“我的公司在制定决策时，有一套作法……”。

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 来收集正确和完整的资讯。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 让员工有机会申诉或提出异议。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 确保做出的决定是公正的。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 对决定和执行的情况提供反馈。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 允许员工要求澄清或补充决策资讯。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 确保员工的关注都被考虑到。	1	2	3	4	5

三。下面这些题目是描述不同感觉和情绪的形容词。请圈(O)选适当的数字来描述您总体的感觉和情绪。

	几乎不	一点	普通	有时	经常
1. 苦恼的 / 忧愁的.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 困扰 / 烦乱的.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 内疚的.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 紧张的.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 有敌意的.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 急躁的.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. 羞愧的.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. 不安的.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. 受惊吓的.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. 害怕的.....	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分：背景资料

以下请您填写您个人背景资料，以作为整体分析之用。

1. 您的年龄：____ 岁
2. 您的性别：____ 男 ____ 女
3. 您的教育程度：初中以下 高中/中专 大学专科 大学本科 研究生
4. 您在这个公司工作多长时间：____ 年 ____ 月
5. 您与现任主管共事多长时间：____ 年 ____ 月
6. 您的职位：员工 基层主管 中层主管
7. 您的职务：_____
8. 您所在的部门名称：_____

*****非常感谢您的帮助!*****

Subordinates's Questionnaire in Study 2 (Time 2)

问卷编号：_____

员工问卷（T2）

尊敬的女士/先生：

再次感谢您抽出宝贵的时间来填写另一份不同的问卷。本研究是由澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院的研究人员设计的，目的在于研究公司内部主管与下属的行为。您的参与对我们的研究非常重要。

请您在填答前仔细阅读问卷说明，填写完毕后，请将问卷装入信封、封好，交还给我们的研究人员或交给人事部门。

本课题组向您承诺“我们对您所填答的问卷进行严格保密”。问卷采用不记名方式，贵公司的任何人都不会看到您所填的答案。问卷收集后会立刻交由电脑进行整体分析，数据输入电脑后问卷将会被销毁。研究报告只有总体数据，不含任何个人资料及数据，请放心如实填答。

衷心感谢您的参与！

澳大利亚国立大学经济与商务学院

博士候选人黄文静

第一部分

一. 请您根据自己的真实想法或感受, 不必参考别人的意见, 选择您对下列各项陈述的同意程度并在右侧相应的数字上划圈(O)。

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 当有人批评我的主管时, 我觉得就像批评我个人一样。.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 当有人赞赏我的主管时, 我觉得就像赞赏我个人一样。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 主管的成功就是我的成功。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我非常认同我的主管。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我的主管是我为人处事的好榜样。.....	1	2	3	4	5

下列各题, 每一题目的开头是: **“在作出与我的工作有关的决定时, 我的主管...”**

	非常不同意	不同意	不能确定	同意	非常同意
1. 会用亲切与关心的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. 会告知我决定的理由。.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. 会用尊重的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. 体恤我个人的需求。.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. 以真诚的态度对待我。.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. 关心我个人员工的权利。.....	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分：背景资料

以下请您填写您个人背景资料，以作为整体分析之用。

1. 您的年龄：_____岁

2. 您的性别：_____男 _____女

3. 您的职位： 员工 基层主管 中层主管

4. 您的职务：_____

5. 您所在的部门名称：_____

*****非常感谢您的帮助！*****