DISSERTATION

ABUSIVE SUPERVISION AND EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERS' IMPLICIT

FOLLOWERSHIP THEORIES

Submitted by

Uma Kedharnath

Department of Psychology

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Doctoral Committee:

    Advisor: Alyssa Mitchell Gibbons

    Jennifer Harman
    Chris Henle
    Kurt Kraiger

ABSTRACT

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FOLLOWERSHIP THEORIES

In this study, I integrated research on abusive supervision and leaders' implicit followership theories (LIFTs; Sy, 2010). An important proposition of LIFTs theory is that matching between LIFTs and an employee's characteristics should yield the most positive employee outcomes; however, these matching effects in the LIFTs context have not yet been tested. Therefore, I examined the extent to which agreement and disagreement between employees' perceptions of their supervisor's LIFTs and employees' ratings of their own characteristics related to two outcomes – abusive supervision and LMX. Results from two samples of student employees supported the prediction that employee perceptions of supervisor LIFTs and their own characteristics would be associated with lower abusive supervision and higher LMX. In addition, perceived LIFTs and employee characteristics interacted such that employees who reported highly positive supervisor LIFTs and highly positive employee characteristics also reported the least abusive supervision and the highest quality relationships with their supervisor. The greater the discrepancy between employees' supervisor LIFTs ratings and their employee characteristics ratings, the higher the abusive supervision that they reported, supporting the matching hypothesis suggested by LIFTs theory. Finally, the level of discrepancy between employees' supervisor LIFTs ratings and their employee characteristics ratings significantly related to LMX only in one of the two samples, providing partial support for this hypothesis. Overall, this study shows that various

combinations of perceived LIFTs and employee characteristics influence employee outcomes in important ways.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

Leadership is one of the most heavily researched areas in psychology and business. A large part of leadership research focuses on behaviors and supervisory styles that make leaders successful, such as transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), ethical leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006), and authentic leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Over the past two decades, researchers have started to focus on the destructive side of leadership. Destructive leadership has been defined in many different ways; however, a common thread that links the various definitions is the presence of harmful methods used by leaders to influence and lead employees (Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013). Destructive leadership is a broad term to describe a harmful style of leadership that includes exhibiting negative personality traits such as narcissism and Machiavellianism (Paulhus & Williams, 2002) and exhibiting negative leader behaviors such as aggression (Schat, Desmarias, & Kelloway, 2006), bullying (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002), social undermining (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), and abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000).

Researchers have used the label "abusive supervision" to study hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors that can psychologically and emotionally harm employees (e.g., Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001). Several studies have demonstrated that abusive supervision has negative and costly consequences for employees and organizations. For example, abusive supervision is associated with higher levels of employee absenteeism and lower levels of employee productivity (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). Abusive supervision occurs with enough frequency and magnitude that it is a concern for organizations. Schat, Frone and Kelloway (2006) estimate that roughly 13% of employees experience abusive supervision, and others find that between 10% and 16% of employees experience abusive supervision (Namie & Namie, 2000). Such negative outcomes can translate into an annual cost of over $23 billion for

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organizations in absenteeism, health care costs and lower productivity (Tepper et al., 2006),

suggesting that abusive supervision has very tangible negative consequences not only for the

employees who are victims of it, but also the organizations themselves. Therefore, researching

predictors of abusive supervision is important because it can aid us in understanding and

preventing such behavior. However, the antecedents of abusive supervision are not as clearly

understood as its consequences.

My goal in this study is to examine potential predictors of abusive supervision, which can

be useful in understanding and addressing perceptions of abusive behaviors in organizations. I

examine a specific form of employee perceptions as a predictor of abusive supervision.

Employee perceptions are relevant to abusive supervision because reports of abuse seem to

depend as much on employee perceptions as they do on actual supervisor behaviors. The specific

employee perceptions that I examine are employees' perceptions of their leaders' implicit

followership theories (LIFTs; Sy, 2010). LIFTs are defined as leaders' cognitions and beliefs

about followers' characteristics. I predict that employees who believe that their leaders have

positive beliefs about followers' characteristics will report lower abusive supervision, and that

employees who believe that their leaders have negative beliefs about followers' characteristics

will report greater abusive supervision. In this study, I propose that the level of match or

mismatch between employee reports of their leaders' beliefs and their own characteristics

predicts abusive supervision. I do this by building on LIFTs theory as my primary focus, and

integrating research from other theories including implicit leadership theory, Theory X and Y,

and expectancy violations theory. In addition, I extend existing research on LIFTs, abusive

supervision, and leader-member exchange theory (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

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Abusive Supervision

Tepper (2000) defined abusive supervision as employees' perceptions of the degree to which their supervisors exhibit sustained patterns of aggressive or hostile nonverbal and verbal behaviors. Abusive supervision consists of a wide range of behaviors. A supervisor who consistently criticizes an employee in front of others, inappropriately blames employees, is rude and inconsiderate to employees, undermines employees, unfairly takes credit, yells at employees, has angry outbursts, invades employees' privacy, or uses coercive tactics can be considered abusive (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2006; Tepper et al. 2011). Tepper (2000) noted that abusive behaviors may reflect indifference (e.g., a supervisor yelling at her employees simply to increase productivity) or malicious intent towards employees (e.g., a supervisor humiliating an employee to send a message to other employees). A critical defining feature of abusive supervision is that such behaviors are sustained over time (Tepper, 2000). In other words, a one-time incident in which a supervisor criticizes an employee in front of others when under stress does not typically constitute abusive supervision.

Consequences of abusive supervision. Research on abusive supervision has primarily focused on the negative consequences of abusive supervision, and several of the findings have been replicated. There are well-established and substantial negative consequences for employees who report abusive supervision. The literature suggests that abusive supervision influences employees' job attitudes, performance, psychological distress, and work-family conflict (Tepper, 2007). Research shows that employees who feel that their supervisor is abusive tend to report lower job satisfaction (Schnat, Desmarais, & Kelloway, 2006; Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004). Employees who perceive that they are abused are also more likely to quit their job, and employees who do not quit report lower job and life satisfaction, lower job commitment,

more work-family conflict, and higher psychological distress (Tepper, 2000). Employees who perceive abusive supervision report feeling irritation and fear of experiencing aggression from their supervisor in the future, and are more likely to be more aggressive against coworkers (Schat, Desmarais, et al., 2006). Finally, abusive supervision is also associated with employee depression (Tepper, 2000) and job strain (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007).

In addition to individual-level consequences, the consequences of abusive supervision can directly or indirectly impact the organization's bottom line. Researchers find that employees who report abusive supervision tend to retaliate against supervisors (e.g., gossiping, being rude) and the organization (e.g., stealing; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Abusive supervision is also negatively related to employee performance (Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007). Employees also resist supervisors' influence tactics (e.g., withholding organizational citizenship behaviors; engaging in counterproductive behaviors such as theft and sabotage) more often when they perceive that they are being abused (Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001).

Antecedents of abusive supervision. The abusive supervision literature suggests that organization-level, supervisor-level, and employee-level factors all contribute to perceptions of abusive supervision. Research suggests that the perceived cause of abusive supervision influences employees' perceptions and reactions to abusive supervision. For example, researchers found that employees who attribute abusive supervision as being the organization's fault are more likely to engage in counterproductive work behaviors directed at the organization rather than the supervisor (Bowling & Michel, 2011).

In addition to organization-level factors, there are also supervisor-level factors that make followers more likely to perceive abuse. For example, researchers have found links between abusive supervision and supervisor depression (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). There

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are also several findings suggesting that the organizational context can foster supervisors' abusive behaviors toward employees. For example, researchers have found a link between supervisors' perceptions of interactional injustice from the organization and employee reports of abusive supervision (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007). Some research suggests that supervisors who report that they are not treated well by the organization tend to displace their anger and frustration by taking out their negative emotions on their subordinates. For example, Hoobler and Brass (2006) found that supervisors who feel that their psychological contract is violated by the organization and have hostile attribution bias (i.e., interpreting others' behavior as hostile even if it is not; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994) have subordinates who report a higher incidence of abusive supervision.

Researchers have also started to examine predictors of abusive supervision at the employee level. For example, recent studies have demonstrated that followers' attribution styles influence their perceptions of abusive supervision. Researchers found that subordinates' hostile attribution styles (e.g., blaming one's supervisor for negative performance evaluations even if the supervisor did not have hostile intentions) positively predicted reports of abusive supervision, while subordinates' positive perceptions of leader-member exchange (LMX) negatively predicted reports of abusive supervision (Martinko, Harvey, Sikora, & Douglas, 2011). Other researchers found that those who show negative affectivity are more easily victimized (Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999), and tend to be more common targets (Tepper, 2007). Generally, there is consensus in the literature that abusive supervision results from the interaction of several organization-level and individual-level factors, as opposed to resulting only from isolated acts of aggression performed by malicious supervisors (e.g., Felps, Mitchell, & Byington, 2006).

Implicit theories in the workplace

In this study, I examine employees' perceptions of their leaders' cognitions about followers as an antecedent to abusive supervision. LIFTs (Sy, 2010) are defined as leaders' beliefs about followers' personal characteristics and attributes. LIFTs are based on the foundation of implicit leadership theories (ILTs; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984) which I will review next, and Theory X and Y (McGregor, 1960) which I will review later.

Implicit leadership theories. Implicit leadership theories (ILTs) refer to individuals' pre-existing assumptions about their prototypical leader's traits, behaviors and abilities (Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, & Blascovich, 1996). A prototype is a set of the most salient or "typical" features of members in some category; for example, people have mental representations of what a leader is (e.g., "leaders are intelligent", "leaders are assertive"). People use their existing cognitive prototypes to make judgments about the actual characteristics that their leaders possess (e.g., "I think my manager is intelligent"). An important part of ILT is the matching process. In the leadership context, the matching process consists of employees comparing their cognitive prototypes to their supervisor's actual characteristics. For example, an employee's prototype of leaders may include features such as "assertive" and "hard working". This employee would then compare his prototypical features to his supervisor's characteristics. If the supervisor's characteristics "match" with the employee's prototype (e.g., he is assertive and hardworking), the employee is more likely to consider his supervisor to be a leader. When a supervisor "matches" with employees' prototypes and is categorized as a leader, followers are more likely to make favorable inferences about the supervisor's degree of power and making influential decisions at work (Schyns & Hansbrough, 2008) and the leader's perceived effectiveness (Nye & Forsyth, 1991).

Prototype terminology. In the ILT literature, the terms "prototype" and "anti-prototype" are commonly used to describe characteristics of leaders. *Prototypic* characteristics are those that most people would view as desirable indicators of leadership. Others characteristics are *anti-protoypic,* or characteristics that appear undesirable, yet may be strongly associated with the idea of leadership for some people (e.g., Tyranny; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). However, there is some conceptual confusion regarding the meaning of the terms "anti-prototypic" and "prototypic". Specifically, it is not clear from the ILT literature whether the term "anti-prototypic" indicates traits that are characteristic of negative leadership behaviors, or traits that are not characteristic of leadership. The word "prototype" from the cognitive categorization literature (i.e., salient features of a category) lends itself to suggesting that "anti-prototypical" traits are those that are *not characteristic* of a leader. However, Epitropaki and Martin (2005) defined anti-prototypic traits as those that are "negatively associated with leadership" (p.660). One way to interpret this definition is that anti-prototypic characteristics are negative behaviors that can still be considered effective leadership behaviors. Another is that anti-prototypic behaviors are behaviors that are negatively related to *effective* leadership – that is, representative of *ineffective* leader-like behaviors. There is a conceptual difference between viewing tyranny as a trait that is *uncharacteristic* of a leader, and viewing tyranny as a trait that is *undesirable* in a leader.

Employees may not follow those who exhibit behaviors that are uncharacteristic of a leader because they may not consider such people to be leaders. In contrast, people can follow "bad" leaders because these undesirable characteristics may be a part of one's conceptualization of a leader (e.g., destructive leaders; Einarsen, Aasland & Skogstad, 2007). Further, these characteristics can even be seen as effective in some work contexts and situations (e.g.,

aggressive leadership in the military context; Harms, Spain & Hannah, 2011). Therefore, the term "anti-prototypical" refers to traits that are seen as socially undesirable or negatively characteristic of a leader, as opposed to traits that are uncharacteristic of a leader. For the sake of clarity, I will use the terms "positive" and "negative" from here on instead of "prototypical" and "anti-prototypical", respectively. This is done to represent the idea that both positive and negative characteristics represent leaders regardless of whether they are desirable or undesirable.

Leaders' Implicit Followership Theories

LIFTs dimensions. LIFTs are built on the same underlying principles as implicit leadership theories (ILTs; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984), but with a different emphasis. In the same manner that employees have prototypes about leaders, LIFTs theory argues that leaders also have prototypes about followers. These prototypes are believed to operate in many of the same ways that leader prototypes operate in ILTs. LIFTs, like ILTs, are complex and multidimensional. Sy (2010) introduced six LIFTs dimensions after surveying supervisors and managers across various industries and compiling the most frequently mentioned characteristics of followers. The six dimensions that make up LIFTs are *Industry, Enthusiasm, Good Citizen, Conformity, Insubordination,* and *Incompetence* (Sy, 2010). Sy classified Industry, Enthusiasm and Good Citizen as prototypical or positive LIFTs, and he classified Conformity, Insubordination, and Incompetence as follower anti-prototypical or negative LIFTs.

Implications of LIFTs. The limited research on LIFTs suggests that leaders' expectations of followers have an impact on follower outcomes. For example, Whiteley, Johnson and Sy (2012) found that positive expectations (LIFTs) positively influence the quality of the relationship between leaders and followers (LMX), which in turn positively influences follower job performance. Leaders' positive LIFTs also influence followers' perceptions of leaders'

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charisma, which then influences follower performance. Leaders' negative LIFTs, when combined with leaders' negative affect, negatively relate to follower perceptions of leaders' charisma (Johnson, Sy, & Kedharnath, in preparation). Positive LIFTs and leader and follower wellbeing are positively related, as well as positive LIFTs and leader' and followers' liking for each other (Kruse, 2010).

Researchers have also examined the role of mediators and moderators in the in the relationship between leaders' LIFTs and follower outcomes. For example, Whiteley (2010) studied the Pygmalion effect (Eden, 1992) as a mediator. His study on leader-follower dyads suggests that positive LIFTs increase followers' expectations of performance, which leads to a better quality of relationship between leaders and followers, and consequently results in a higher level of follower performance. Another study showed that LIFTs moderated the relationship between employee personality and employee outcomes including job satisfaction, performance, and citizenship behaviors (Kim-Jo & Choi, 2010). Specifically, the Industry and Good Citizen dimensions of LIFTs moderated the relationship between agreeableness and job performance such that supervisors rated agreeable employees as better performers when supervisors believed that employees are highly industrious (e.g., hard-working, productive), and interestingly, showed fewer Good Citizen behaviors (e.g., loyal, team player).

Negative LIFTs. As of now, research has raised more questions than insights regarding the conceptual nature and measurement of negative LIFTs (e.g., Conformity; Kedharnath, 2011). The limited published work on LIFTs (e.g., Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012) focuses solely on positive LIFTs. In examining the LIFTs dimensions through various studies, researchers find that negative LIFTs function differently than positive LIFTs, and that they are more complex than positive LIFTs in terms of conceptual definition and measurement (e.g., Johnson & Kedharnath,

2010; Kedharnath, 2011). Positive LIFTs have only shown weak or moderate correlations with the negative LIFTs dimensions, and the positive and negative LIFTs dimensions do not load onto one common underlying LIFTs factor (e.g., Sy, 2010). Previous LIFTs studies (e.g., Sy, 2010) demonstrate that the three positive LIFTs dimensions are strongly correlated with each other, and that the dimensions strongly load onto an underlying "Positive LIFTs" factor. The three negative LIFTs dimensions do not all correlate significantly with each other and do not load strongly onto an underlying "Negative LIFTs" factor. For example, the Conformity dimension is not significantly related to the Insubordination dimension in Sy's study. I also found the same pattern in a different study on LIFTs (Kedharnath, 2011). The weak relationships among the negative LIFTs dimensions imply that the negative LIFTs dimensions are somewhat independent of each other. For example, a supervisor who thinks that employees are insubordinate may not necessarily think that employees also conform (e.g., are easily influenced). Based on these findings, it is clear that more research on negative LIFTs is warranted.

Since negative LIFTs need further conceptual and scale development, I will focus on positive LIFTs in this paper as this can expand our existing knowledge on LIFTs and abusive supervision. Therefore, my hypotheses will be framed by drawing comparisons between those who report their supervisors as having *high* positive LIFTs (i.e., thinks that employees are generally high on positive characteristics such as enthusiasm and diligence) and those who report their supervisors as having *low* positive LIFTs (i.e., thinks that employees are generally low on positive characteristics). Conceptually, low positive LIFTs are distinct from high negative LIFTs, and high positive LIFTs are distinct from low negative LIFTs.

Measuring the employee perspective. Research on LIFTs is gaining momentum (Epitropaki, Sy, Martin, Tram-Quon, & Topakas, 2013). However, the existing LIFTs research

measures LIFTs from the leader's perspective. By definition, supervisor LIFTs reside in the mind of the supervisor and are communicated to employees through various mechanisms (e.g., supervisors' management and relational behaviors). However, LIFTs researchers have not yet examined employee perceptions of the supervisors' LIFTs that are communicated. I argue that there are important processes that occur between supervisor LIFTs and employee outcomes that also need to be examined (see Figure 1). Specifically, the manifestation of the supervisor's LIFTs and the employee perceptions of those manifestations have not yet been examined in the LIFTs literature. The chain of events depicted in Figure 1 is based on Azjen's (1985) theory of planned behavior, which posits that a person's attitudes predicts his or her intentions to perform certain behaviors, which then leads to the expected behaviors. This theory has been supported in the literature (e.g., Martin et al., 2010). Based on the premise that attitudes predict behaviors, a leader's conception of followers should relate to his or her subsequent behaviors towards followers. These behaviors should then be perceived by employees, who then draw conclusions about the leader's behaviors and the attitudes behind them. In this study, I propose to test the most proximal predictor of employee outcomes to fill in the research that tests more distal predictors of employee outcomes such as supervisors' reports of LIFTs. I examine employee's subjective ratings of their supervisor's perceptions of employee characteristics because subjective perceptions can have a strong impact on employees' psychological reactions (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Edwards & Cable, 2009). Once this chain of events has been empirically supported, researchers can examine potential moderators and mediators that may influence this chain of events (e.g., leader's self-control or neuroticism, employee-level individual differences).

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Supervisor LIFTs	→	Subsequent supervisor behaviors	→	Employee perceptions of behaviors and LIFTs	→	Employee outcomes (AS & LMX)
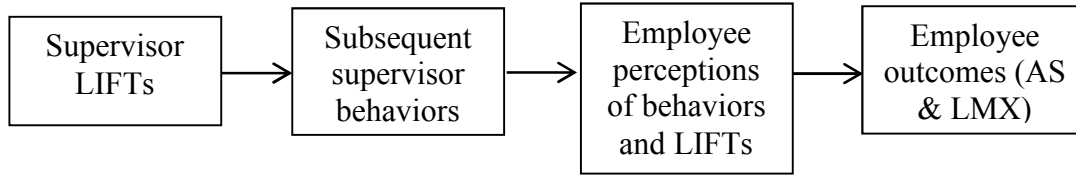
Figure 1. Employees' role in supervisor LIFTs.

Additionally, abusive supervision is commonly measured from the employee perspective (Martinko, Harvey, Sikora, & Douglas, 2011). A major challenge in measuring abusive supervision is that the process of perceiving and reporting abusive supervision is very subjective. Different employees may view the same supervisor's behavior differently. For example, supervisors who abuse their employees may have employees who do not perceive their supervisor's behaviors as abusive. Similarly, supervisors who do not perceive displaying abusive behaviors may have employees who report abuse. In other words, reports of abusive supervision appear to be influenced by employees' subjective perspective of their supervisor's actions and attitudes. Since reports of abusive supervision stem from a combination of supervisor behaviors and employee perceptions, it is important to examine employee perceptions to understand the differences in employees' reactions to their supervisors' behaviors (e.g., Tepper, 2007). For example, Tepper proposed that employees vary in their reactions to abusive behaviors that are attributed to injurious motives compared to behaviors that are attributed to constructive or performance-enhancing motives. Empirical findings support this proposal; for example, employees who attributed their supervisor's abusive supervisory behaviors to performance-promotion reasons (e.g., "My boss yelled at me because she wants me to improve") showed more creativity at work than employees who attributed their supervisor's abusive behaviors to injury-initiation motives (e.g., "My boss yelled at me because she wants me to feel humiliated in front of others") (Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012).

Similarly, other research on abusive supervision calls for a more detailed understanding of employee-level antecedents that may explain their perceptions of abusive supervision. Martinko, Harvey, Brees and Mackey (2013) implore researchers to examine employees' implicit leadership theories (employees' pre-existing beliefs about leadership) and implicit work theories (employees' attitudes about work and authority figures) as antecedents of abusive supervision. This call for research, along with a growing literature on employee attributions, highlights a heightened interest in the role of employees' cognitions in abusive supervision.

Overall effects of LIFTs. Implicit leadership theory research contends that leaders' attributes and characteristics can manifest in two ways – overall or main effects, and matching effects (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). I propose that these mechanisms exist in LIFTs as well.

Overall effects of LIFTs on abusive supervision. Overall or main effects are the direct relationships between an employee's perceptions of supervisor LIFTs (e.g., dedication, enthusiasm) and employee outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, turnover intentions). According to implicit leadership theories and other leadership theories, leaders who have more positive characteristics are likely to have employees with positive outcomes. This approach to leadership is commonly used in topics such as transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1998) and path-goal theory (House, 1996). In the LIFTs context, a leader who has high or strong positive LIFTs is someone who believes that followers possess positive characteristics such as diligence, enthusiasm, loyalty, and so on. A leader who has low positive LIFTs believes that followers lack positive characteristics such as diligence and loyalty. Supervisors with low positive LIFTs are more likely to exhibit negative behaviors because they may treat followers in a manner consistent with their negative conceptions of followers (e.g., "Followers are not hardworking, so I will act accordingly"). This

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is an example of the Golem effect, in which negative expectations can result in negative follower outcomes (Babad, Inbar, & Rosenthal, 1982). The overall or main effects of LIFTs correspond with McGregor's (1960) classic paradigm about leadership cognitions and behaviors – Theory X and Y.

Theory X and Y. McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Y's basic tenet is that leaders' assumptions about employees can predict leaders' management style and behaviors towards their employees. McGregor proposed that supervisors who believe that employees are lazy, dislike work, lack self-direction, and need close supervision prescribe to the Theory X point of view. Supervisors who believe that employees are capable of being responsible and will try to solve organizational issues prescribe to the Theory Y perspective. Limited empirical evidence on Theory X and Y exists, and of those studies, a handful support McGregor's paradigm. For example, managers who held Theory X views tend to prefer antisocial methods of gaining compliance from employees such as deceit and threats. In contrast, managers who held Theory Y views tend to prefer prosocial methods of gaining compliance from employees such as esteem and ingratiation (Neuliep, 1987). Neuliep (1996) found that Theory X and Y managers held different perceptions of the effectiveness of hypothetical unethical behaviors. More recently, Sager (2008) found that supervisors who held a Theory X perspective tended to display different communication styles than supervisors who held a Theory Y perspective. Specifically, supervisors with a Theory X perspective used more dominant communication behaviors with their employees, while supervisors with a Theory Y perspective used more supportive communication behaviors with their employees.

Arguably, Theory Y behaviors, which are more likely to involve participative decision-making and developmental performance appraisals, are more effective in today's work place

than Theory X behaviors (Forrester, 2000). Conceptually, Theory Y behaviors map onto high positive LIFTs (e.g., "Followers are enthusiastic and hardworking") while Theory X behaviors map onto low positive LIFTs (e.g., "Followers are unenthusiastic and lazy"). Theoretically, a supervisor who believes that followers are generally industrious, enthusiastic and reliable (Theory Y) should have a better relationship with *all of* his or her followers than a supervisor who believes that followers are generally lazy, unenthusiastic, or unreliable (Theory X).

Expectancy violations theory. In addition to predictions by McGregor's Theory X and Y, another relevant framework to consider for this study is expectancy violations theory (Burgoon, 1993; Jussim, Coleman, & Lerch, 1987). According to expectancy violations theory (EVT), expectancies are lasting cognitive patterns that influence how a person interprets interpersonal interactions and makes sense of others' behaviors. When people observe behaviors that deviate from their expectancies, their expectancies are violated and they try to interpret the "deviant" behavior and act accordingly (Burgoon, 1993). The violation is judged as positive or negative (Burgoon, 1978). An example of a positive violation in the context of the workplace would be a supervisor who gets an unexpectedly large annual performance bonus even though her performance over the past year was average. An example of a negative violation for a supervisor would be getting a pay cut or a demotion even though her performance was above average over the past year. While EVT research has been based primarily in the communication literature, the tenets of the theory may apply to the overall or main effects and matching effects in LIFTs. Most of the EVT literature has tested overall effects though matching effects are a natural extension of the existing literature. In an experimental study, Burgoon and LePoire (1993) examined expectancy violations theory in the context of communication. They found that those who hold positive expectations of others generally perceive and rate others' personal

attributes more favorably. Based on this research and the predictions of McGregor's (1960) Theory X, I expect that employees who report having supervisors with positive expectations (high positive LIFTs) will also report that their supervisor exhibits fewer abusive behaviors towards employees.

Hypothesis 1a. Employees who report having supervisors with high positive LIFTs will be less likely to report abusive supervision compared to employees who have supervisors with low positive LIFTs.

Overall effects of employee characteristics on abusive supervision. In addition to supervisors' LIFTs, employee characteristics are also an important factor to consider in the role of abusive supervision. I propose that employees who exhibit negative characteristics are more likely to perceive supervisor abuse than employees who exhibit positive characteristics, regardless of the valence of supervisors' LIFTs. For example, employee personality plays an important role such that employees who show lower levels of emotional stability tend to be targets of workplace bullying more than employees who show higher levels of emotional stability (Coyne et al., 2003, Persson et al., 2009). In addition, employees who are lower on extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness also tend to be targets of workplace aggression (Glaso et al., 2007). Note that traits like extraversion and agreeableness map onto LIFTs characteristics like "outgoing" and "team player", respectively, and conscientiousness maps onto LIFTs characteristics like "hardworking" and "productive".

Employees who display behaviors that suggest low enthusiasm, laziness, or unreliability are likely to evoke negative emotions in their supervisors. Such a trend is reflected in Burgoon and LePoire's (1993) study where evaluators rated unpleasant or uninvolved communication behaviors from targets more negatively than employees who exhibited positive communication

behaviors, even when the raters held positive expectations about the employees. This study suggests that employees' actual characteristics play an important role in how they are perceived by their leader, in addition to leaders' expectations of employees.

Hypothesis 1b. Employees who report high positive characteristics will report less abusive supervision compared to employees who report low positive characteristics.

Matching effects. In addition to demonstrating that employees' characteristics influence how they are treated, it is also critical to observe employee characteristics in order to test the matching effects. LIFTs and Theory X and Y are conceptually similar in that they attempt to explain how leaders' conceptions about employees influence employee-level and organizational-level outcomes. However, the theory of LIFTs extends Theory X and Y by incorporating the matching aspects proposed by the implicit leadership theory literature (e.g., Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984; Lord & Maher, 1993). So far, matching effects have been studied in the ILT context and not in the LIFTs context.

Matching effects in the ILT context. In the implicit leadership theory context, a match occurs where a follower's conception of leadership matches well with his or her leader's actual characteristics. A follower who believes that leaders are sensitive and dynamic would "match" with a leader who displays sensitive and dynamic behaviors. Similarly, a follower who believes that leaders are masculine and tyrannical would "match" with a leader who displays masculine and tyrannical behaviors. According to implicit leadership theory, the greater the discrepancy that exists between followers' conceptions of leaders and their leaders' actual characteristics, the more negative the employee outcomes will be. For example, a follower who believes that leaders are masculine and tyrannical would not match well with a leader who displays feminine and modest behaviors.

The degree to which a supervisor's characteristics match with employees' conceptions of a leader can predict employees' inferences about the supervisor. For example, followers made inferences about the degree of power and discretion that their supervisor has at work based on how closely their supervisor matched their prototype of a leader (Maurer & Lord, 1991). Epitropaki & Martin (2005) demonstrated both overall main effects and matching effects for positive dimensions of leadership. For examples, leaders who possessed characteristics such as intelligence and sensitivity had a higher quality of relationship with their followers (LMX). The authors also found matching effects such that a lower degree of discrepancy between employees' prototypes of leaders and leaders' actual characteristics resulted in higher LMX. They found that the negative leader characteristics (e.g., Tyranny) did not have overall effects, and did not have matching effects unless the negative characteristics were an important part of employees' concept of leaders. Both overall and matching effects predicted employee outcomes including well-being, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. These results are promising for the current study because matching in the LIFTs context is based on the matching processes in ILTs.

Matching effects of LIFTs on abusive supervision. Until this point, researchers have only hypothesized and examined the overall effects of positive LIFTs on employee outcomes (e.g., Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012), but the LIFTs theory predicts matching effects as well (Lord & Maher, 1993). The matching effects are theoretically more challenging to predict than the overall effects. This is partially because predictions about the link from cognitions to behaviors as predicted by various theories seem to conflict in some cases. For example, according to McGregor's (1960) Theory X, leaders with a positive view of followers should treat *all* employees in a positive, encouraging manner. However, according to expectancy violations theory, leaders with a positive view of followers should treat only employees who meet their

expectations in a positive manner. As previously mentioned, expectancy violations theory suggests that those who violate expectations are judged more extremely than those who meet expectations (Jussim, Coleman, & Lerch, 1987). In the case of supervisors who have high positive LIFTs, employees who exhibit enthusiasm, diligence, and other positive behaviors will meet their supervisor's expectations. When an employee meets the supervisor's expectations, the supervisor is expected to have a positive relationship and interactions with that employee.

Hypothesis 2a. Employees who perceive positive supervisor LIFTs and report positive characteristics will report less abusive supervision.

LIFTs theory also predicts that the higher the discrepancy experienced between LIFTs and employee characteristics, the worse the employee outcomes will be. Since there is no empirical support for this prediction yet, I draw on expectancy violations theory. EVT also supports the prediction that leaders with high expectations are expected to have a negative relationship with followers who do not display those positive characteristics (e.g., lack of enthusiasm) compared to followers who possess positive characteristics. For example, research on teachers' expectations of students suggests that teachers who have a positive prototype of students tend to differentiate between students who meet their expectations and students who do not. Students who do not meet their teacher's positive expectations tended to be neglected or taught less frequently (Rist, 2000). Similarly, in the context of the workplace, supervisors who have high expectations of employees may also treat employees are unable to meet high expectations more negatively. In such cases, the supervisor may feel disappointment and frustration, and may be more likely to take out their frustration by abusing such an employee. According to expectancy violations theory, this is because such followers negatively violate their leaders' idea of typical followers.

In addition to research from the expectancy violations theory perspective, research on abusive supervision also suggests that a matching effect or a discrepancy plays a role in the way that supervisors treat their employees. For example, findings by Tepper, Moss, & Duffy (2011) highlight the trend that those who have different fundamental values and attitudes than the supervisor are more likely to perceive abuse than those employees who have similar values as the supervisor. Based on these findings, we can conclude that some employees are more likely to report abuse than others. Logically, then, it seems that followers whose characteristics fall outside the supervisor's expected follower characteristics may be more likely to perceive abusive supervision, especially if the follower does not meet the expectations that come with high positive LIFTs.

Hypothesis 2b. Employees who report higher discrepancies between their supervisor LIFTs ratings and their employee characteristics ratings will report higher abusive supervision.

Implicit leadership theories or leaders' implicit followership theories are not clear on the chain of events that occurs if an employee exceeds the expectations of his or her supervisor. For example, supervisors who have low positive LIFTs (i.e., expect that employees are low on enthusiasm or diligence) and have an employee who has positive characteristics (e.g., high enthusiasm or diligence) may have a positive reaction to such employees. This gap in the LIFTs and ILT literature may be explained by expectancy violations theory, which explicitly addresses this piece. According to EVT (Jussim, Coleman, & Lerch, 1987), people with unexpected positive characteristics will be perceived and rated more favorably than those with unexpected negative characteristics (Jussim, Fleming, Coleman, & Kohberger, 1996). For example, Burgoon and LePoire (1993) found that communication partners in a lab study who behaved pleasantly were rated more positively by their partner when the partner had expected them to be unpleasant

than partners who expected pleasant behaviors prior to communicating with their partner. Based on the theory and these findings, I hypothesize that employees who fail to meet their supervisor's high positive LIFTs are more likely to report abuse than employees who exceed their supervisor's LIFTs.

Hypothesis 2c. Employees will report higher perceptions of abusive supervision when their ratings of their supervisor's LIFTs are higher than ratings of their own characteristics, compared to when their own characteristics are higher than their ratings of their supervisors' LIFTs.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

In addition to predicting abusive supervision, it is also valuable to examine the role of LIFTs as a potential antecedent of leader-member exchange. According to the leader-member exchange theory (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) the relationship between a leader and his or her subordinates can vary in quality. That is, leaders develop close relationships with a few employees. These employees are considered "in-group members", and are given autonomy, responsibility, and opportunities for development. In these high-quality relationships, supervisors go beyond what is specified in formal job descriptions. In contrast, low-quality relationships involve fewer high-quality interactions between the leader and his or her employee. The relationship between the supervisor and these "out-group members" is generally defined by the formal organizational contract between the leader and employee (Liden, Sparrow & Wayne, 1997). As a construct, LMX has been successfully replicated across many studies and contexts (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007), so it is helpful to understand how LIFTs fit into the nomological network by examining the relationship between LIFTs and LMX. Conceptually, it seems logical that employees' perceptions of supervisors' LIFTs would relate to

the quality of the relationship formed between a supervisor and his or her employee. Existing research on LIFTs supports the relationship between LIFTs and LMX (Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012).

Abusive supervision and LMX. LMX has been studied in relation to abusive supervision in several recent studies. Harris, Harvey and Kacmar (2011) examined LMX as a moderator of the relationship between supervisors' conflict with coworkers and supervisors' abusive behaviors toward employees. Their rationale was that employees who are in the low LMX category should experience abusive supervisory behaviors more strongly or frequently than employees who report high LMX. The authors found that employees in low quality LMX relationships generally reported higher levels of abusive supervision. The relationship between abusive supervisors and employees is one of disrespect, non-supportiveness, and lower commitment to each other (Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000). Abusive supervisors tend to have employees who exhibit psychological distress (Tepper, 2000) and decreased self-efficacy (Duffy et al., 2002), and are likely to retaliate against their supervisor (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). In addition, Lian, Ferris and Brown (2012) found support for LMX as a mediated moderator where the interaction between abusive supervision and LMX predicted employees' organizational deviance. Given the nature of the relationship between abusive supervision and LMX, I expect that employees who report low LMX also perceive abusive supervisor behaviors. Since the processes that lead to a low or high quality relationship and low or high levels of abusive supervision are related, the theoretical rationale and research findings used to frame hypotheses 1 and 2 also apply to the following hypotheses.

LIFTs as a predictor of LMX. The relationship between a supervisor and employee is also an important indicator of a supervisor's expectations of employees and the degree to which

employees meet those expectations. Employees' perceptions of their leaders' expectations and meeting those expectations are expected to relate to interpersonal interactions between the leader and employee. Research suggests that individuals' interpretation and evaluation of behaviors aligns with their implicit theories (Engle & Lord, 1997). Accordingly, positive and negative LIFTs should predict high and low quality supervisor-employee relationships, respectively.

Overall effects of LIFTs on LMX. As previously mentioned, leaders who have low positive LIFTs believe that followers lack positive characteristics, and are therefore more likely to exhibit negative behaviors towards followers. The overall or main effects of LIFTs on LMX have been examined. Sy (2010) found that leaders' positive LIFTs positively predicted employee reports of LMX, and Whiteley et al. (2012) replicated these findings in leader-employee dyads. Outside the realm of LIFTs research, prior research shows that leaders' expectations of follower success positively predicts employee reports of LMX (McNatt & Judge, 2004; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Hypothesis 3a. Employees who report having supervisors with high positive LIFTs will

report greater LMX than employees who have supervisors with low positive LIFTs.

Overall effects of employee characteristics on LMX. In addition to LIFTs, the role of employee characteristics in LMX should also be considered. Employees who exhibit positive characteristics communicate that they are capable of performing their job, which sets the stage for forming higher quality leader-follower relationships (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012). Employees who exhibit low positive characteristics (e.g., lazy, unenthusiastic) are likely to be seen as incompetent and form lower quality relationships with their supervisor (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Additionally, a recent meta-analysis reports a significant relationship between follower competence and LMX (Dulebohn et al. 2012). In addition to employees' level

of competence, employees' personality factors such as extraversion and agreeableness

significantly predict LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Taken together, these studies suggest that

employees' characteristics play an important role in the formation and evolvement of the leader-

follower relationship.

Hypothesis 3b. Employees who report high positive characteristics will report greater LMX

than employees who report low positive characteristics.

Matching effects of LIFTs on LMX. LIFTs theory posits that leaders with a positive

view of followers should treat only employees who meet their expectations in a positive manner.

As previously mentioned, matching effects on LMX have been supported in the ILT literature

(Epitropaki & Martin, 2005), and not yet in the LIFTs literature. In addition, expectancy

violations theory suggests that those who violate expectations are judged more extremely than

those who meet expectations (Jussim, Coleman, & Lerch, 1987). In the case of supervisors who

have high positive LIFTs, employees who exhibit enthusiasm, diligence, and other positive

behaviors will meet their supervisor's expectations. This sets the stage for the formation of a

high quality leader-follower relationship.

Hypothesis 4a. Employees who perceive positive supervisor LIFTs and report positive

characteristics will report higher LMX with their supervisor.

As previously mentioned, LIFTs theory also predicts that the higher the discrepancy

experienced between LIFTs and employee characteristics, the worse the employee outcomes will

be. In the context of the workplace, supervisors who have high expectations of employees may

treat employees are unable to meet high expectations more negatively. EVT research and abusive

supervision research suggests that when there is a discrepancy between expectations and

characteristics, this discrepancy interacts with the way that supervisors treat their employees

(e.g., Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). Followers whose characteristics fall outside the supervisor's expected follower characteristics may be less likely to form a high quality relationship with their supervisor, especially if their characteristics do not meet the expectations that come with positive LIFTs.

Hypothesis 4b. Employees will report lower LMX the more that their ratings of their supervisor's LIFTs disagrees with employee ratings of their own characteristics (especially high positive LIFTs matched with low positive characteristics).

According to EVT research (Jussim, Fleming, Coleman, & Kohberger, 1996; Burgoon & LePoire, 1993), those with unexpected positive characteristics will be perceived more favorably than those with unexpected negative characteristics. Based on the theory and research findings, I hypothesize that employees who fail to meet their supervisor's high positive LIFTs are less likely to form high quality relationships with their supervisors than employees who exceed their supervisor's LIFTs.

Hypothesis 4c. Employees will report lower LMX when their ratings of their supervisor's LIFTs are higher than ratings of their own characteristics, compared to when their own characteristics are higher than their ratings of their supervisors' LIFTs.

METHODS

Sample

To test these hypotheses, I collected data from undergraduate students at a large university who reported working at least 10 hours per week. I recruited students in various upper-level business and psychology courses (sample 1); these students were offered extra credit for participating in the study. I also invited students in the psychology research pool to take the survey (sample 2); these students were offered research credit for their participation. 87% of sample 1 participants are Caucasian, with the remaining 13% reporting Asian, African American, Latino, or other ethnicities. 81% of sample 2 participants are Caucasian, with the remaining 19% reporting Asian, African American, Latino, and other ethnicities. Sample 1 was comprised largely of juniors and seniors, compared to students in sample 2, who were mostly first year undergraduates. Students in sample 1 worked significantly longer with their company than students in sample 2. Students in sample 1 worked with their supervisors about as long at students in sample 2. Overall, students in sample 1 worked significantly fewer hours per week than students in sample 2. The average age of students in sample 1, as expected, was significantly higher than students in sample 2. Participants also worked across various industries (Table 1).

Table 1
Descriptive statistics across sample 1 and sample 2

	Sample 1 (n = 264)		Sample 2 (n = 303)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Age	21.52	1.78	19.10	2.76
Organizational Tenure	1.90	1.63	1.54	1.46
Work Hours per week	20.57	8.71	22.86	7.72
Years with current supervisor	1.64	0.73	1.53	0.67
Female	57.8%		45.5%	
Industry				
Customer support	27%		32.6%	
Sales	22.7%		26.9%	
Production & manufacturing	11.2%		10.6%	
Other	26%		18%	

Procedure

I invited students to take a 20 minute survey online to receive extra credit or research credit. I explained that I am studying interpersonal processes at work including the interactions between employees and their supervisors. I also explained that students' data would be treated in a confidential manner and would not be shared with their supervisor or their organization. I gave the students directions and a link to the survey, which was hosted by Qualtrics. In order to avoid collecting personal information, I did not ask students for their name or other identifying information on the survey and each student was assigned an alphanumeric code by the random number generator function in Qualtrics.

Measures

Leaders' implicit followership theories (LIFTs). Employees reported on what they thought their supervisor's perceptions of employees are using an 18 item, 6 factor scale developed by Sy (2010). The six factors are Industry, Enthusiasm, Good Citizen, Conformity, Insubordination, and Incompetence. Since I am only examining positive LIFTs in this study, I

only included the positive LIFTs scales in the analyses (i.e., Industry, Enthusiasm, Good Citizen). Each factor is represented by three items. For example, the items "Hardworking", "Productive", and "Goes above and beyond" load onto the Industry factor. Participants were given a list of these items and asked to indicate the extent to which their supervisor believed each item was characteristic of employees in general. Employees made their ratings on a 10 point scale (*1 = not at all characteristic*; *10 = extremely characteristic*). The items and Cronbach's alphas for each subscale are included in Table 2.

Employee characteristics. After rating their supervisor's LIFTs, employees rated themselves on the six LIFTs factors using the same scale that they used to report their supervisor's LIFTs. The items and Cronbach's alphas for each subscale are included in Table 2.

Abusive supervision. Employees completed Tepper's (2000) 15-item measure of abusive supervision, which focuses on employee perceptions of their supervisor's behaviors. Sample items from the scale are, "My supervisor puts me down in front of others", "My boss invades my privacy", and "My supervisor tells me my thoughts and feelings are stupid". The scale ranges from 1, "Very Rarely" to 7 "Very Frequently". The Cronbach's alphas for the scale are included in Tables 3 and 4. To reduce the possibility that participants would guess the hypotheses or clearly notice the presence of abusive supervision questions, I presented the abusive supervision questions last in the survey. Further, I mixed in the abusive supervision items with items from another leadership behavior scale (i.e., the LBDQ-XII form of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire; Stogdill, 1963) to make the abusive supervision items seem less obvious.

Leader-member exchange. Employees completed a measure of LMX using a 7 item scale. The five point Likert scale measures LMX from the employees' perspective (Paglis & Green, 2002). Sample items are "I know where I stand with my supervisor . . . I usually know

how satisfied he/she is with what I do", and "My supervisor understands my job problems and needs". The Cronbach's alphas for the scale are included in Tables 3 and 4.

Analysis

I used polynomial regression and response surface techniques to examine the hypotheses. Response surface analysis (RSA) is a data analysis technique that allows researchers to examine the degree to which the congruence between two predictors relates to an outcome (Edwards, 1994; Shanock et al., 2010). RSA has been used to answer various questions in a wide range of topics. It is very useful for examining how the agreement or disagreement between two predictors relates to an outcome, and how the *degree* of the discrepancy relates to the outcome. For example, Edwards (1994) used RSA to examine the congruence or fit between employees' desired job attributes (e.g., autonomy) and their actual levels of these job attributes. RSA has also been used to examine person-environment fit (Edwards & Parry, 1993), self-observer rating discrepancies in 360° feedback (Gentry et al. 2007), and discrepancies between managers' and teams' perceptions of organizational support (Bashshur, Hernandez, & Gonzalez-Roma, 2011). Another important reason to use response surface analysis is that this technique allows researchers to predict the effect that the *direction* of the discrepancy should have on the outcome of interest. For example, Bashshur et al. (2011) found that when managers perceived the team as receiving higher levels of POS than the team's perceptions of POS, the team was higher in negative affect while team performance decreased.

I used RSA to examine the match between employees' perceptions of their supervisor's LIFTs and employees' self-ratings on the LIFTs dimensions, and how the match or agreement predicts employee perceptions of abusive supervision. RSA uses polynomial regression to examine the agreement or disagreement between two predictors. It has more explanatory power

than using moderation alone or calculating difference scores (Shanock et al., 2010). Notably, RSA models the complexity of the interaction between the two predictors and the outcome by representing the agreement, degree of agreement or disagreement, and direction of the discrepancy on a three dimensional graph. The graph allows readers to visualize the complex relationship between the two predictors and the outcome. RSA is the appropriate technique to examine my matching hypotheses because it provides rich data on the degree of match or mismatch between my two predictors and outcomes in a way that ordinary moderation, structural equation modeling (SEM), or difference scores cannot. For example, I cannot easily examine the degree of match or mismatch or the direction of the match or mismatch using moderation or SEM; however, RSA is designed to answer these very questions.

RESULTS

Common Method Variance

Since the data are single-source and were collected at one time, common method variance is potentially an issue for these data (Spector, 1987). In order to assess the presence of common method variance (CMV), I used a single-method factor approach which involves controlling for a single source of method bias (i.e., survey method bias) and has been used frequently in research (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). I started by conducting confirmatory factor analyses to test my hypothesized factor structure (i.e. a four factor model in which both predictors – supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics – and both outcomes – abusive supervision and LMX – would each load onto their own factor). In keeping with convention, I considered several fit indices in determining whether a model fit well or poorly (McDonald & Ho, 2002).

A single factor model did not fit the data well in either sample (fit statistics shown in Tables 5 and 6). Values greater than 0.90 for the NFI and TLI and less than 0.08 for the RMSEA are typically considered acceptable fit (McDonald & Ho, 2002). The hypothesized four-factor model fit significantly better than the single-factor model, with the overall goodness-of-fit indices indicating an acceptable if not good fit. Next, I added a common method factor to the four factor model, which involved loading all the items across all measures onto one underlying factor. This method factor accounted for the measurement error that came with using a single source to measure all my data (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The addition of this method factor to my hypothesized four-factor model improved model fit, with the overall goodness-of-fit indices indicating an acceptable if not good fit. Finally, I tested whether the predictors were distinct from

each other (models 1a and 2a in tables 5 and 6) and whether the outcome variables were distinct from each other (models 1b and 2b in tables 5 and 6).

In comparing the item loadings, I observed that the item loadings onto their respective factors generally loaded more highly onto their hypothesized factors rather than onto the common method factor. The exceptions were in sample 1, where the LIFTs items "Excited", "Outgoing", "Happy", "Team player", and "Loyal" and the corresponding employee characteristics had a higher loading onto the common method factor rather than onto their hypothesized factors. This suggests that these ten items (i.e., five items in the LIFTs scale and the corresponding five items in the employee characteristics scale) in sample 1 were most susceptible to common method variance.

Occurrence of Discrepancies

Following the procedure described by Shanock et al. (2010), I examined how many participants in each sample had discrepancies between LIFTs and employee characteristics (i.e., how many participants' supervisor LIFTs disagreed with their ratings of their own characteristics). It is important to understand the base rate of discrepancies and the direction of the discrepancies before conducting response surface analysis. If I were to find very few or no discrepancies between participants' scores on the predictors, for example, there would be limited utility in conducting the response surface analysis.

First, I standardized the scores for the predictor variables by creating z scores, and then compared the z scores of the variables (Shanock et al., 2010). When a participant's z score for LIFTs was half a standard deviation higher than his or her z score for employee characteristics, it was coded as "1" (i.e., LIFTs score was substantially higher than characteristics score). When a participant's z score for LIFTs was half a standard deviation below than his or her z score for

employee characteristics, it was coded as "-1" (i.e., LIFTs score was significantly lower than

characteristics score). When a participant's LIFTs and employee characteristics scores were

within half a standard deviation of each other, it was coded as a "0" (i.e., no discrepancy between

this participant's scores). In sample 1, over half the sample had discrepancies in their scores with

25% of LIFTs scores being lower than employee characteristics scores, and 27% of LIFTs scores

being higher than employee characteristics. In sample 2, 43% of the sample had discrepancies in

their scores with 21% of LIFTs scores being lower than employee characteristics scores, and

22% of LIFTs scores being higher than employee characteristics. Based on these figures, we can

conclude that there are a substantial number of discrepancies in both directions in both samples.

Therefore it is practical to move on to testing the hypotheses.

Sample 1 results

  Descriptives. The means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study

variables for the sample 1 (i.e., the business and upper-level psychology sample; $N = 264$) are

reported in Table 3. The means for supervisor LIFTs ($M = 7.75$ on a 10 point scale), employee

characteristics ($M = 8.35$ on a 10 point scale), and LMX ($M = 3.81$ on a 5 point scale) were high.

In contrast, the occurrence and degree of abusive supervision was fairly low in sample 1 ($M =$

1.73 on a 7 point scale, range = 1 to 5). The correlations between the variables in sample 1 were

moderate or strong, and all the correlations were significant and in the expected directions. The

reliabilities were high for all the variables including supervisor LIFTs ($\alpha = .92$), employee

characteristics ($\alpha = .88$), abusive supervision ($\alpha = .94$), and LMX ($\alpha = .92$).

  Overall effects. To examine the main effects of supervisor LIFTs and employee

characteristics on abusive supervision (hypotheses 1a and 1b), I regressed abusive supervision on

supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics in a hierarchical regression model to examine

whether employee characteristics explained incremental variance beyond supervisor LIFTs. Supervisors' positive LIFTs negatively predicted abusive supervision, ($\beta = -0.32$, $p < .05$), with the model predicting 20.5% of the variability in abusive supervision ($R^2 = .21$). Therefore, hypothesis 1a was supported in sample 1. When abusive supervision was regressed on just employee characteristics alone, employee characteristics significantly predicted abusive supervision ($\beta = -0.29$, $p < .05$), with the model predicting 10.4% of the variance in abusive supervision ($R^2 = .10$). However, when both predictors were included in the same regression analysis, only supervisor LIFTs predicted abusive supervision ($R^2 = .20$, $\beta = -0.29$, $p < .05$). Employee characteristics did not significantly predict abusive supervision when both predictors were included in the analysis ($R^2 = .20$, $\beta = -0.07$, $p > .05$) and did not predict incremental variance beyond supervisor LIFTs ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $p > .05$). This suggests that employee characteristics share a high amount of variance with the LIFTs variable. Therefore, although hypothesis 1b was technically supported in sample 1 in that employee characteristics predicted abusive supervision on its own, because the lack of incremental variance predicted suggests that the apparent support is weaker than expected.

It is important to note that the predictors are strongly related, and multicollinearity can make it difficult to parse out how much variance each predictor is predicting in the outcome. To confirm that the main effects I found were not solely due to the high correlations between the predictors, I ran a relative weights analysis. A relative weights analysis was particularly useful for parsing out the variance predicted by these highly correlated variables because the estimates are produced while setting predictors to be orthogonal (i.e., uncorrelated to each other) so that they are not affected by multicollinearity (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011).

I found that supervisor LIFTs predicted 74.1% of the explained variance in abusive supervision (raw weight or unique R^2 = .16; 95% CIs [.04, .27]), while employee characteristics predicted only 25.9% of the explained variance in abusive supervision (unique R^2 = .05; 95% CIs [.00, .13]). The 95% confidence interval listed should not be interpreted as the confidence around the raw weight. Rather, these confidence intervals reflect the difference between the raw weight and a random variable. Therefore, because these intervals exclude zero, each predictor explains more variance than would be expected by chance (Tonidandel, LeBreton, & Johnson, 2009).

To examine the main effects of supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics on LMX (hypotheses 3a and 3b), I regressed LMX on supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics in a hierarchical regression model. Supervisors' positive LIFTs positively predicted LMX, (R^2 = .17, β = 0.27, p < .05). Therefore, hypothesis 3a was supported. Employee characteristics on their own predicted LMX (R^2 = .10, β = 0.26, p < .05). Similar to the results when regressing abusive supervision on both predictors, only supervisor LIFTs predicted LMX (R^2 = .16, β = 0.27, p < .05). Once the supervisor LIFTs variable was included in the analysis, employee characteristics did not significantly predict LMX (R^2 = .17, β = 0.09, p > .05) and did not predict incremental variance beyond supervisor LIFTs (ΔR^2 = 0.01, p > .05). Therefore, hypothesis 3b was supported in sample 1, but not as strongly as predicted. To confirm these findings, I ran a relative weights analysis and found that supervisor LIFTs predicted 68.1% of the explained variance in LMX (unique R^2 = .12; 95% CIs [.05, .23]), while employee characteristics predicted only 31.9% of the explained variance in LMX (unique R^2 = .05; 95% CIs [.02, .11]).

Matching effects. To examine the matching hypotheses, I conducted response surface analyses (RSA; Box & Draper, 1987; Edwards, 1995). In addition to estimating the main effects

of the predictors on abusive supervision (hypotheses 1a and 1b) and on LMX (hypotheses 3a and 3b), RSA provided a direct test of my matching hypotheses (hypotheses 2a-2c and 4a-4c).

__Matching effects of the predictors on abusive supervision__. First, I centered the employee ratings of their supervisors' LIFTs (b_1) in the equation below) and employees' self-ratings (b_2) to the midpoint of their respective scales to make interpretation easier and reduce the potential for multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991; Edwards, 1994; Shanock et al., 2010). Then, I formed quadratic terms for each of the two predictors by squaring employees' perceptions of their supervisor's LIFTs (b_3) and employees' self-ratings on the LIFTs dimensions (b_5). Next, I created an interaction term by multiplying the centered predictors (b_4). Finally, I tested a polynomial regression model including all of these predictors to calculate regression coefficients. The model explained 28.3% of the variability in abusive supervision ($R^2 = .28$). The polynomial regression model for abusive supervision was:

$$\text{Abusive supervision} = b_0 + b_1\text{LIFTs} + b_2\text{Characteristics} + b_3\text{LIFTs}^2 + b_4 \text{ LIFTs x Characteristics} + b_5\text{Characteristics}^2 + e$$

Response surface analysis uses the regression coefficients to plot a three-dimensional response surface plot (see Figure 2). First, I will interpret the slope for the line of agreement between employee ratings of supervisor LIFTs and employee ratings of their own characteristics (hypothesis 2a). A significant negative slope along the line of agreement indicates that higher levels of the predictors (as opposed to lower levels) predict lower abusive supervision. Moving from the front of the graph to the back following the X=Y line, the line of agreement related to abusive supervision has a negative slope and is significant ($\beta = -0.31$, $p < .05$). This indicates that the agreement between supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics has an impact on employees' perceptions of abusive supervision such that when LIFTs and employee

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characteristics are in perfect agreement, abusive supervision decreases as LIFTs and

characteristics increase. In other words, employees who reported high supervisor LIFTs and

employee characteristics were less likely to perceive abusive supervision. Therefore, hypothesis

2a is supported in sample 1.

Hypothesis 2b tested the degree of discrepancy between the two predictors. I tested this

by examining the line of disagreement or discrepancy (X = -Y) and focusing on the curvature

along the line of disagreement (i.e., the degree of discrepancy between the two predictors and its

effect on abusive supervision). The curvature is significant along this line ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < .05$),

indicating that the degree of discrepancy between supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics

predicts abusive supervision. In other words, abusive supervision increases more sharply when

the two predictors increasingly disagree. Hypothesis 2b is supported in sample 1. Hypothesis 2c

tested whether the direction of discrepancy matters for employees' perceptions of abusive

supervision. I tested this by examining the slope along the line of discrepancy (i.e., the direction

of discrepancy between the two predictors and its effect on abusive supervision). The slope was

not significant ($\beta = 0.06$, $p > .05$). Since this slope was not significant, employees were not

significantly more or less likely to report abusive supervision depending on the direction of the

discrepancy. Hypothesis 2c is not supported in sample 1.

To interpret the graph below (Figure 2), take note of the scales for each of the variables.

Abusive supervision is on a 7 point scale, while both of the predictors are on a 10 point scale.

The axes along the X and Y scales reflect the centering of the LIFTs and employee

characteristics scales to their means (i.e., 7.75 out of 10 for the supervisor LIFTs scale and 8.35

for the employee characteristics scale). Shanock et al. (2010) recommend centering to the middle

of the scale, which would be 5.5 on the LIFTs and employee characteristics scale. However, this

assumes that the observed data are normally distributed. Since the LIFTs and employee characteristics scales are skewed negatively (i.e., high means), it is more appropriate to center to the respective means of each scale (Edwards, 2001). The blue line of agreement (X=Y) runs from the back left corner to the front right corner. Note that abusive supervision levels are at their lowest along this line. In addition, the negative slope from front to back shows that as we move from the back-left to the front-right corner (i.e., from low LIFTs and employee characteristics ratings), abusive supervision decreases. Abusive supervision is lowest where LIFTs and employee characteristics ratings are highest (front-right corner), and higher towards the back left corner where LIFTs and characteristics are lowest.

The dotted purple line moving from left to right is the line of disagreement (X= -Y). We can see from the up-turned curves at either end of the line of discrepancy that the higher the discrepancy, the higher the level of abusive supervision reported. Note that the highest levels of abusive supervision depicted in the graph are outside the range of actual responses, considering that the range of abusive supervision scores in sample 1 was 1 – 5 on a 7 point scale. Finally, the direction of discrepancy did not matter – those who had higher LIFTs ratings than employee characteristics ratings did not have a different level of abusive supervision than those who had higher employee characteristics ratings than LIFTs ratings as shown by the similar heights of the two ends of the dotted line of discrepancy. If one end were higher than the other, we would conclude that the direction of the discrepancy matters (i.e., scoring above or below LIFTs scores would relate to abusive supervision).

Figure 2. Abusive supervision predicted by the discrepancy between perceived supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics in Sample 1.

Matching effects of the predictors on LMX. To examine the matching effects of the predictors on LMX in sample 1, I repeated the response surface analysis procedure described above by conducting a polynomial regression. The model predicted 20% of the variability in LMX ($R^2 = .20$). A significant positive slope along the line of agreement indicates that higher levels (as opposed to lower levels) predict higher LMX. Moving from the front of the graph to the back following the X=Y line, the line of agreement related to LMX has a positive slope ($\beta = 0.34, p < .05$). This slope indicates that when supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics agree, a higher level of LIFTs or employee characteristics predicts higher LMX. Therefore, hypothesis 4a is supported in sample 1.

Hypothesis 4b tested the degree of discrepancy between the two predictors. I focused on the curvature along the line of disagreement (i.e., X = -Y or the degree of discrepancy between the two predictors and its effect on LMX). The curvature is significant along this line ($\beta = -0.11$,

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p < .05), meaning that LMX decreases more sharply as the degree of discrepancy between

supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics increases. Therefore, hypothesis 4b is supported

in sample 1. Hypothesis 4c tested whether the direction of discrepancy matters for LMX. I

examined the slope along the line of discrepancy (i.e., the direction of discrepancy between the

two predictors and its effect on LMX). The slope was negative and non-significant (β = -0.08, *p*

> .05), indicating that LMX was not significantly impacted when employees report higher

supervisor LIFTs than ratings of their own characteristics. Therefore, hypothesis 4c is not

supported in sample 1.

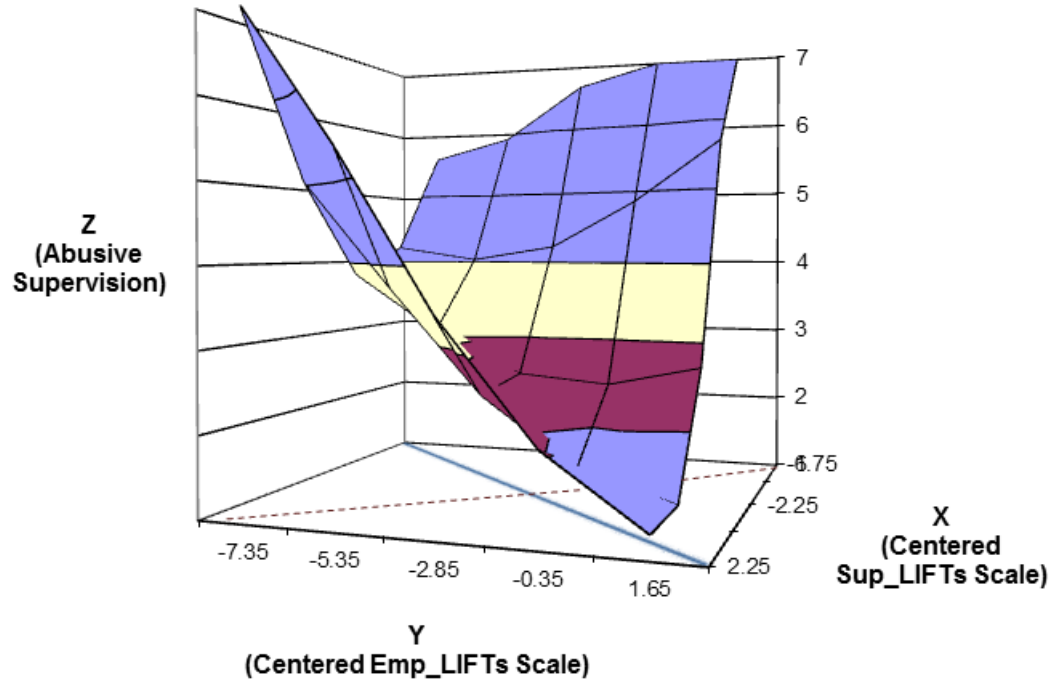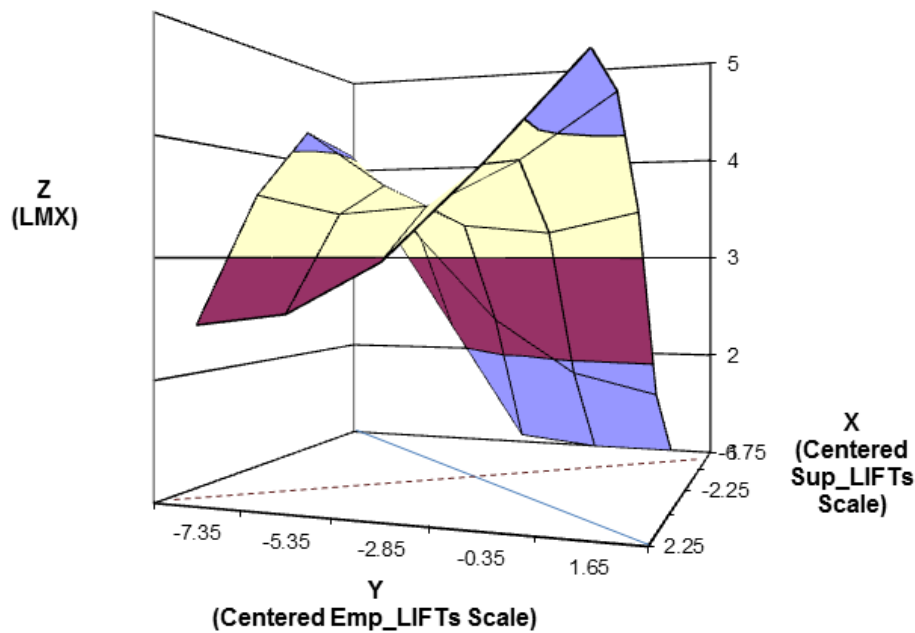*Figure 3*. LMX predicted by the discrepancy between perceived supervisor LIFTs and employee

characteristics in Sample 1.

Sample 2 results

    Descriptives. The means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study

variables are reported in Table 4. In sample 2 (i.e., psychology pool; *N* = 303), the means for

supervisor LIFTs (*M* = 7.74 on a 10 point scale), employee characteristics (*M* = 8.13 on a 10

point scale), and LMX (M = 3.87 on a 5 point scale) were high. In contrast, the occurrence and

degree of abusive supervision was fairly low in the psychology pool (M = 2.02 on a 7 point scale,

range = 1 to 6.64). The correlations between the variables in the psychology pool were moderate

or strong, and all the correlations were significant and in the expected direction. The reliabilities

were high for all the variables including supervisor LIFTs (α = .93), employee characteristics (α

= .91), abusive supervision (α = .96), and LMX (α = .91).

Overall effects. To examine the main effects of supervisor LIFTs and employee

characteristics on abusive supervision (hypotheses 1a and 1b), I used the same approach that I

took in study 1 and regressed abusive supervision on supervisor LIFTs and employee

characteristics. Supervisors' positive LIFTs predicted abusive supervision (R^2 = .10, β = -0.27, p

< .05). Employee characteristics also significantly predicted abusive supervision on their own (R^2

= .13, β = -0.35, p < .05). However, when both predictors were included in the same regression

analysis, supervisor LIFTs did not significantly predict abusive supervision (R^2 = .13, β = -0.10,

p > .05). Therefore, hypothesis 1a was supported in sample 2, but it should be noted that the

support was weaker than expected. Employee characteristics, in contrast, significantly predicted

abusive supervision (R^2 = .13, β = -0.27, p < .05) and explained incremental variance beyond

supervisor LIFTs (ΔR^2 = 0.01, p < .05). Therefore, hypothesis 1b was supported in sample 2.

Note that this pattern is opposite of my findings in sample 1, where supervisor LIFTs

predicted incremental variance above and beyond employee LIFTs but employee characteristics

did not predict incremental variance in abusive supervision. This pattern is one of the reasons

that I conducted a relative weights analysis on the main effects in both samples; I wanted to

confirm that the switching of the predictors' magnitude across samples was not due solely to

multicollinearity. I ran a relative weights analysis and found that supervisor LIFTs predicted

38.8% of the explained variance in abusive supervision (unique R^2 = .05; 95% CIs [.01, .10]), while employee characteristics predicted 61.2% of the explained variance in abusive supervision (unique R^2 = .08; 95% CIs [.02, .16]).

To examine the main effects of supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics on LMX (hypotheses 3a and 3b), I regressed LMX on supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics. Supervisors' positive LIFTs positively predicted LMX, (R^2 = .11, β = 0.19, $p < .05$). Therefore, hypothesis 3a was supported in sample 2. Employee characteristics also significantly predicted LMX (R^2 = .13, β = 0.23, $p < .05$). When both predictors were included in the same regression analysis, both employee characteristics (R^2 = .12, β = 0.16, $p < .05$) and supervisor LIFTs (R^2 = .13, β = 0.09, $p < .05$) significantly predicted LMX. Further, employee characteristics explained incremental variance beyond supervisor LIFTs (ΔR^2 = 0.01, $p < .05$). Therefore, hypothesis 3b was supported in sample 2. Note that this pattern is slightly different than my findings in sample 1, where employee characteristics did not predict incremental variance beyond supervisor LIFTs in LMX. To confirm these findings, I ran a relative weights analysis and found that supervisor LIFTs predicted 44.7% of the explained variance in LMX (unique R^2 = .06; 95% CIs [.01, .12]), while employee characteristics predicted 55.3% of the explained variance in LMX (unique R^2 = .08; 95% CIs [.02, .15]).

Matching effects of the predictors on abusive supervision. To examine matching effects, I conducted response surface analysis using the same procedure that I used with sample 1 (i.e., polynomial regression). The model predicted 18.8% of the variability in abusive supervision (R^2 = .19). The axes along the X and Y for the sample 2 graphs (Figures 4 and 5) reflect the centering of the LIFTs and employee characteristics scales to their means (i.e., 7.74 out of 10 for the supervisor LIFTs scale and 8.13 for the employee characteristics scale). Again, I centered to

the respective means of the scales since they are negatively skewed in this sample as well, and Edwards (2001) recommends centering this way when the data are skewed. A significant positive slope along the line of agreement indicates that higher levels (as opposed to lower levels) of the predictor variables predict lower abusive supervision. Moving from the front of the graph to the back following the X=Y line, the line of agreement related to abusive supervision has a negative slope and is significant ($\beta = -0.25$, $p < .05$). This indicates that when the two predictors agree, a higher level of both predictors relates to lower perceptions of abusive supervision. In other words, employees who report high supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics were less likely to perceive abusive supervision. Therefore, similar to sample 1 findings, hypothesis 2a is supported in sample 2.

Hypothesis 2b tested the degree of discrepancy between the two predictors. I tested this by focusing on the curvature along the line of disagreement (X = -Y). There was a positive curvature along this line ($\beta = 0.18$, $p < .05$), indicating that abusive supervision increased more sharply the more that supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics disagreed. Therefore, similar to sample 1 findings, hypothesis 2b is supported in sample 2. Hypothesis 2c tested whether the direction of discrepancy matters for employees' perceptions of abusive supervision. I tested this by examining the slope along the line of discrepancy. The slope was positive but was not significant ($\beta = 0.09$, $p > .05$), indicating that abusive supervision perceptions did not vary significantly when employees reported a discrepancy such that supervisor LIFTs were higher than ratings of their own characteristics. Mirroring my sample 1 findings, hypothesis 2c is not supported in sample 2.

Figure 4. Abusive supervision predicted by the discrepancy between perceived supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics in Sample 2.

Matching effects of the predictors on LMX. Finally, I conducted a polynomial regression to test the matching effects of the predictors on LM X ($R^2 = .19$). A significant positive slope along the line of agreement indicates that higher levels (as opposed to lower levels) predict higher LMX. Moving from the front of the graph to the back following the X=Y line, the line of agreement related to LMX had a positive and significant slope ($\beta = 0.23, p < .05$). This indicates that when LIFTs and characteristics are in perfect agreement, a higher level of supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics predicted higher LMX. Parallel to my sample 1 findings, hypothesis 4a is supported in sample 2. Hypothesis 4b tested the degree of discrepancy between the two predictors. I examined the line of disagreement (X = -Y) and focused on the curvature along the line of disagreement. The curvature along this line is non-significant ($\beta = 0.02, p > .05$). If the curvature were significant, it would indicate that the higher the discrepancy between

supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics, the higher the LMX. Therefore, hypothesis 4b is not supported in sample 2. Note that hypothesis 4b was supported in sample 1.

Hypothesis 4c tested whether the direction of discrepancy matters for LMX. I examined the slope along the line of discrepancy (i.e., the direction of discrepancy between the two predictors and its effect on LMX). The slope was not significant ($\beta = 0.11$, $p > .05$), indicating that LMX does not change significantly when the direction of the discrepancy is such that LIFTs ratings are higher than employee characteristics ratings. Similar to my sample 1 findings, hypothesis 4c is not supported in sample 2.

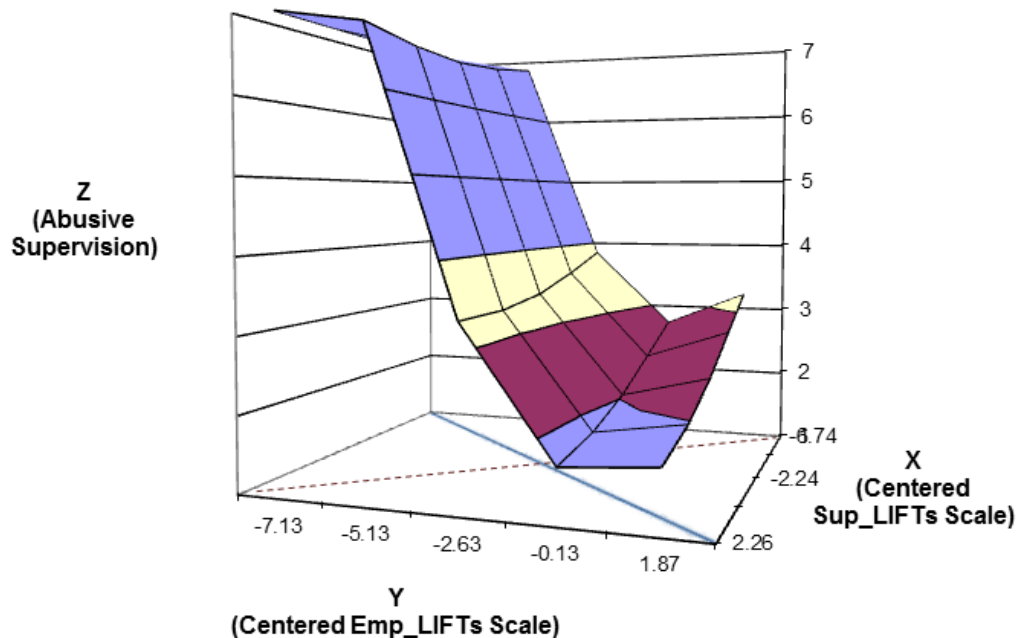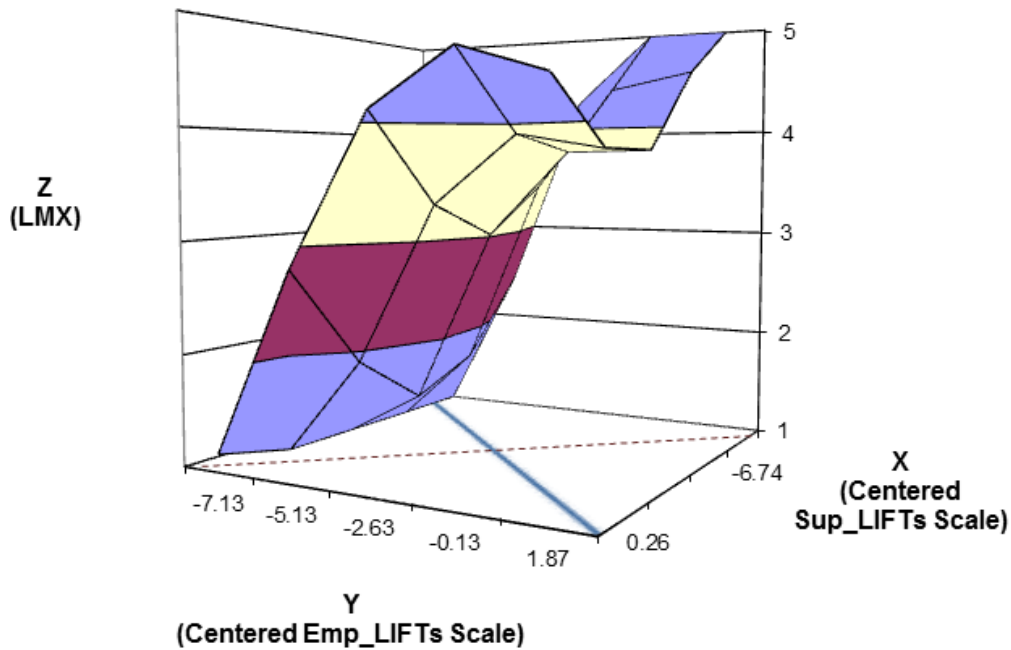*Figure 5*. LMX predicted by the discrepancy between perceived supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics in Sample 2.

In sum, most of the hypotheses were supported. A table is provided for review of the support found for each hypothesis across each sample (Table 7).

Table 7

Comparison of hypothesis support across samples

Hypothesis	Sample 1		Sample 2	
	Beta	Supported	Beta	Supported
1a	-0.32*	Yes	-0.27*	Yes**
1b	-0.29*	Yes**	-0.35*	Yes
2a	-0.31*	Yes	-0.25*	Yes
2b	0.28*	Yes	0.18*	Yes
2c	0.06	No	0.09	No
3a	0.27*	Yes	0.19*	Yes
3b	0.26*	Yes**	0.23*	Yes
4a	0.34*	Yes	0.23*	Yes
4b	-0.11*	Yes	0.02	No
4c	-0.08	No	0.11	No

* $p < .05$.

** The main effect of this predictor was significant, but it did not explain incremental variance beyond the other predictor when it was included in a regression analysis with both predictors.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, I examined the extent to which agreement and disagreement between perceptions of supervisors' LIFTs and employee characteristics related to two outcomes – abusive supervision, and LMX. As expected, employee perceptions of supervisor LIFTs and their own characteristics predicted abusive supervision and LMX in both samples. In addition to finding support for the main effects, I also found support for the matching effects. Employees who reported high supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics also reported low abusive supervision and high quality relationships with their supervisor. In addition, the more that employees' supervisor LIFTs ratings disagreed with their employee characteristics ratings, the higher the abusive supervision that they reported. These findings are meaningful because this is the first evidence supporting the hypothesized matching tenet of LIFTs theory. As predicted, higher levels of discrepancy in the LIFTs and characteristics ratings also related to lower levels of LMX. However, I only found this relationship to be true in sample 1 and not in sample 2, yielding mixed support for this prediction. Finally, the direction of the discrepancy did not relate to employee reports of abusive supervision or LMX. In other words, having higher LIFTs ratings than employee characteristics ratings (or vice versa) did not make a difference in the outcomes.

As hypothesized, employees who perceived that their supervisor has highly positive LIFTs reported less abusive supervision in both samples. In addition, employees who perceived that their supervisor has positive LIFTs also reported having a high quality relationship with their supervisor. This is the first test of employees' perceptions of their supervisor's LIFTs, and these findings suggest that employees' perceptions of their supervisors' attitudes are powerful enough to play a role in their perceptions of various leadership behaviors (i.e., relational and abusive behaviors). Similarly, employees who perceived having highly positive employee characteristics

also reported less abusive supervision in both samples. In addition, employees who perceived that they have positive characteristics also reported having a high quality relationship with their supervisor in both samples. These findings imply that employees with highly positive characteristics at work (e.g., enthusiastic, loyal) may elicit more positive behaviors from their supervisors. However, it is important to note that employees generally rated themselves highly on positive characteristics, and it is possible these ratings may be exaggerated. However, inflated self-ratings are not unique to these samples; this trend is consistent with trends found in the performance appraisal literature, which supports the finding that self-ratings are higher than ratings provided by others (e.g., Nowack, 1992). Had the self-ratings been extremely inflated, these data would not have had significant relationships with the outcomes.

Finally, these predictors, while highly correlated, predicted the outcomes differentially across samples and in most cases, predicted unique variance in the outcomes. The predictors related differently to the outcomes such that supervisor LIFTs ratings were stronger predictors of abusive supervision and LMX in sample 1, while employee characteristics ratings were stronger predictors of the outcomes in sample 2. This pattern may have occurred partially due to multicollinearity. However, relative weights analysis showed that both predictors explained unique variance in the outcomes across both samples. Therefore, this pattern may also be a result of real differences between samples, which will be discussed in the next section. This finding suggests that employees can, to some extent, delineate between their supervisor's expectations and their perceptions of their own attitudes and behaviors at work, which brings us to the matching effects. The nature of the delineation between supervisor's expectations and one's own characteristics should be further explored. This delineation may be related to individual differences such as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) or locus of control (Spector, 1982) in such a

way that these individual differences may moderate the relationship between employee perceptions of supervisor LIFTs and employee outcomes.

For example, employees who have high self-efficacy may be less likely to experience negative affect or lower performance when they perceive that they do not match their supervisor's expectations. Self-efficacy beliefs influence individuals to become motivated to be successful (Bandura, 1997), so employees who have high self-efficacy may be more likely to address a perceived mismatch between their supervisor's LIFTs and their own characteristics by changing their behaviors to match their supervisor's expectations. Similarly, employees who have external locus of control may be more likely to take action to address a perceived mismatch by changing their behaviors compared to employees who have internal locus of control. Employees with internal locus of control may see the mismatch as being their fault.

The hypothesized matching effects between the predictors and abusive supervision were consistent across both samples. In both samples, employees who perceived that their supervisor had high positive LIFTs and also perceived having these positive characteristics reported lower abusive supervision (hypothesis 2a). In addition, the higher the discrepancy between employees' LIFTs ratings and their ratings of their own characteristics, the higher the level of abusive supervision reported (hypothesis 2b). This effect was observed across both samples as well. These results are the first evidence of matching effects predicting employee outcomes according to LIFTs theory (Sy, 2010). We can conclude that in addition to general main effects, the complexities of matching effects are also important, theoretically and practically, for employee outcomes. These findings suggest that on some level, employees pick up on their supervisors' perceptions of employees. In addition, they compare their supervisor's beliefs about employee characteristics to their own characteristics. The result of this mental comparison – that is, the

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level of agreement between these two factors, relates to employee outcomes such as employee perceptions of leaders' behaviors. Employees may use this comparison process as a sense-making mechanism (Weick, 1995) to explain their perceptions of abusive supervisions (e.g., "I do not meet my boss's expectations, which is probably why she criticized me at the group meeting today"). These results are also consistent with expectancy violation theory (Jussim, Coleman, & Lerch, 1987), which posits that those who violate expectations are judged more extremely than those who match expectations.

While the degree of discrepancy predicted abusive supervision, the direction of the discrepancy (hypothesis 2c) did not relate to abusive supervision in either sample. In other words, employees whose supervisor LIFTs ratings were higher than ratings of their own employee characteristics did not report higher abusive supervision compared to employees whose LIFTs ratings were lower than their ratings of their own characteristics. Employees who perceived that they did not match with their supervisor's expectations, regardless of whether those expectations are positive or negative, were worse off than employees who perceived a match. Note that this prediction is not made explicitly by LIFTs theory. That is, the *degree* of congruence between LIFTs and employee characteristics is emphasized (e.g., Epitropaki, Sy, Martin, Tram-Quon, & Topakas, 2013; Sy, 2010), but the LIFTs literature does not make clear predictions about what would happen when LIFTs ratings are higher than employee characteristics, and the literature is silent about what would happen when LIFTs ratings are lower than employee characteristics. Therefore, this study extends LIFTs theory by adding a level of intricacy to the theory's predictions.

Since LIFTs theory did not make explicit predictions about the direction of discrepancies, I borrowed from the logic and findings of expectancy violations theory to form predictions about

the direction of discrepancies in LIFTs theory. My results do not support the predictions made by expectancy violations theory, which posits that people with unexpected positive characteristics (i.e., surpass low expectations) will be treated more positively than people who do not meet expectations (Jussim, Coleman, & Lerch, 1987). Theoretically, the EVT predictions are based on the congruence between self- and other- ratings (e.g., Burgoon, 1993) – in this case, I would need to examine the congruence between supervisors' LIFTs ratings and their employees' characteristics. It is possible that supervisors who perceive that their employees exceed their expectations would be pleasantly surprised, as predicted by EVT. However, I examined only employee perceptions in my study. It is possible that employees who perceive that they exceed their supervisor's LIFTs may have inflated self-ratings. Another explanation for these findings is that there may not have been enough statistical power to test these hypotheses. Despite the large sample sizes, I may have needed more discrepancies in the samples to detect this effect. However, given that this finding was replicated consistently across two outcomes and two samples, these findings suggest that the mere presence of a discrepancy may play a more important role in predicting abusive supervision, not the direction of the discrepancy. These hypotheses should be replicated in future studies to further clarify this finding.

The matching effects of the predictors on LMX were mostly consistent across the samples. Employees who perceive that they are in line with their supervisor's positive expectations also report having a harmonious, high-quality relationship with their supervisor compared to employees who do not perceive meeting their supervisor's high expectations. This effect, predicted in hypothesis 4a, was supported in both samples. These findings suggest that LIFTs may be a mechanism through which supervisor-employee relationships are formed. Employees who fit their leaders' positive schema may be more likely to "start off on the right

foot" with their supervisor and maintain a higher quality relationship with their supervisor than employees who do not perceive matching with their leader's expectations. However, longitudinal research is needed to examine the workings of LIFTs as mechanism through which relationships are formed.

The relationship between the degree of discrepancy between the predictors and LMX, predicted by hypothesis 4b, was supported in sample 1. That is, employees who reported higher levels of discrepancy between LIFTs and employee characteristics scores also reported lower quality supervisor-employee relationships. Surprisingly, hypothesis 4b was not supported in sample 2. The degree of discrepancy between LIFTs and employee characteristics scores did not relate to the quality of the supervisor-employee relationship in sample 2 despite predictions from expectancy violation theory that those who match expectations should have more positive outcomes (Jussim, Coleman, & Lerch, 1987). This inconsistency in the prediction of score discrepancy on LMX is surprising given that the discrepancy consistently predicted abusive supervision across both samples. The relationship between LMX and abusive supervision has been consistently replicated across several studies as being negative (Harris, Harvey, & Kacmar, 2011; Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012) such that employees who report abusive supervision also tend to report lower LMX. Therefore, I expected to find a consistent pattern between my predictors, abusive supervision and LMX across both samples.

There may be several plausible reasons for this finding. First, there may not have been adequate power to test this hypothesis. The results presented here suggest that there may be a small effect size. Note that the regression coefficients for this relationship are much smaller than the betas found for hypothesis 2b (i.e., the degree of discrepancy between the predictors on abusive supervision). This inconsistency between samples may also reflect a real trend in sample

2 such that students who reported a discrepancy between LIFTs and employee characteristics scores did not feel much differently about the relationship with their supervisor than students who did not report a discrepancy between those scores. In addition, in a previous study, I also found that supervisor ratings of LIFTs did not predict employee ratings of LMX (Kedharnath, 2011). This previous finding, combined with the finding in the current study, raises questions about the relationship between the predictors and LMX. The relationship between LIFTs and LMX appears to be more complicated than expected, and should be further explored.

Finally, the results for hypothesis 4c were consistent with the findings for hypothesis 2c across both samples. The direction of the discrepancy did not relate to LMX in either sample. In other words, employees whose supervisor LIFTs ratings were higher than ratings of their own employee characteristics did not report lower LMX than employees whose LIFTs ratings were lower than their ratings of their own characteristics. Similar to the findings for hypothesis 2c, I may have needed more discrepancies in both directions to test this effect with more statistical power.

Overall, several of the hypotheses regarding the matching effects of the predictors on abusive supervision were supported, with mixed support for the degree of discrepancy between the predictors on LMX, and no support for the hypotheses regarding the direction of the discrepancies. In order to better understand the differences in matching hypotheses between samples, it is helpful to examine the manner in which the main effects varied across samples.
Differences in main effects across samples.

The main effects of the predictors on the outcomes varied across samples in a significant way. Alone, each predictor significantly predicted the outcomes as expected. However, when both predictors were included in the same analysis, each predictor behaved differently depending

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on the sample. For example, each predictor significantly predicted abusive supervision on its own. However, when both predictors were included in the same analysis, supervisor LIFTs predicted abusive supervision more strongly than employee characteristics in sample 1, and employee characteristics predicted abusive supervision more strongly than supervisor LIFTs in the second sample. One plausible explanation for the varying relationships between samples is the presence of common method variance. Confirmatory factor analyses revealed that five items in the LIFTs and employee characteristics scale were more susceptible to common method variance and multicollinearity in sample 1, and not in sample 2. Common method variance can change the observed relationship between constructs either by inflating or deflating those relationships (Conway & Lance, 2010).

In addition to common method variance, another reason for these differences between samples may be sampling error. Sampling error exists when a subset or sample of a population is tested; it is the difference between the population estimates and the sample estimates. Each subset of the population will have slightly different estimates (Johnson, 2004), which partially accounts for the different findings across the two samples. Sampling error is plausible in my samples based on the 95% confidence intervals around the regression coefficients. For example, the regression coefficient for supervisors' positive LIFTs predicting abusive supervision in sample 1 was β = -0.32 and the 95% confidence interval [-0.40, -0.25] was fairly wide. In addition, the regression coefficient for supervisors' positive LIFTs predicting abusive supervision in sample 2 was β = -0.27 and the 95% confidence interval [-0.36, -0.17] was also fairly wide. These regression coefficients are similar and the confidence intervals are fairly wide, suggesting that the population value may be the same for both samples and that the differences in

samples may be partially due to sampling error fluctuations. Therefore, it is important not to over-interpret the difference in main effects on abusive supervision between samples.

The main effects of the predictors on LMX were mostly consistent between samples. I found partial or full support for the main effect of each predictor on LMX. Alone, each predictor significantly and positively predicted LMX in both samples. When both predictors were included in the same analysis, supervisor LIFTs predicted incremental variance in LMX above and beyond employee characteristics in sample 1. The same trend was observed in sample 2. Employee characteristics did not significantly predict LMX when included as a predictor with supervisor LIFTs in sample 1. However in sample 2, both predictors were significant and explained incremental variance in LMX. Like the differences in the main effects on abusive supervision that were observed between samples, there may be some factors that explain the slight variation in the main effects of employee characteristics on LMX. For example, social desirability may distort the relationship between employee characteristics and LMX in sample 1, or, similar to the implications for abusive supervision, there may be a real difference in the strength of predictors on LMX across samples. Methodologically, social desirability may also have played a large role in the differences between the samples. Social desirability can distort survey responses (e.g., Mueller-Hanson, Heggestad, & Thornton, 2003; Murphy & Dzieweczynski, 2005) and lead researchers away from the true relationships between variables.

In sample 1, social desirability may have been particularly salient because of the recruitment method used to invite sample 1 students to participate in my study. I recruited sample 1 by visiting various upper-level business and psychology classes and briefly presenting the study to students. I explained that I was studying interpersonal processes in the workplace – specifically, interactions between supervisors and employees. I mentioned that in addition to

taking the survey, students should also recruit their supervisor to take the survey. I emphasized that even though students' extra credit was not contingent on their supervisor taking the survey, students should recruit their supervisors in order for me to properly study these relationships. In contrast, I recruited sample 2 by posting a research study announcement for the psychology pool where I explained the same points that I explained to sample 1. However, the research study announcement did not emphasize the recruitment of participants' supervisors as strongly as I did in person. This emphasis for sample 1 may have had an unforeseen consequence. Specifically, my emphasis on students recruiting their supervisors to take the survey may have inadvertently led to sample 1 participants distorting their responses in such a way that the students thought about their supervisors looking at their responses while taking the survey. This could have led students to report less abusive supervision and higher supervisor LIFTs in general.

Additionally, students in sample 1 who have a negative relationship with their supervisor may have decided not to take the survey when they heard me describe the study. This would explain the high supervisor LIFTs and employee characteristics ratings and low abusive supervision ratings in sample 1, and the varying strengths of the predictors between the two samples. This distortion in sample 1 may have happened despite my clarification that the survey was anonymous and that supervisors would not see their employees' responses.

I also conducted a relative weights analysis (Johnson, 2000) on the variables in both samples, and found that the variance explained in the outcomes by the uncorrelated predictors was consistent with the regression results. That is, supervisor LIFTs ratings predicted more unique variance in abusive supervision and LMX in study 1, and employee characteristics ratings predicted more unique variance in the outcomes in study 2. Therefore, there may be an actual difference in the way that each predictor functions in each sample – in other words, employee

perceptions of supervisor LIFTs may have had a stronger impact on abusive supervision in sample 1 while employee characteristics may have had a stronger impact on abusive supervision in sample 2.

This may be the case for several reasons. Participants in sample 1, who are mainly upper-level students with more work experience than lower-level students, may think about supervisors' expectations more deeply than lower-level students. Students in sample 2, to some degree, may perceive that their own behaviors and characteristics alone dictate how well they perform at work. They may fail to account for how well their behaviors match up with their supervisor's expectations. An alternate explanation is that freshmen students in the psychology pool (sample 2) hold qualitatively different jobs than more senior students, who may hold more career-relevant jobs and have a functional working relationship with their supervisor. In terms of vocational development, students are likely to be more invested in jobs that will help them build skills that will help them start or advance in their careers. In addition, they are likely to report higher job involvement and engagement (Kanungo, 1982) and have a more interdependent relationship with their supervisor in a job that they are invested in. This may influence employees in sample 1 such that they build stronger relationships with their supervisors in order to advance in their career than employees in sample 2.

Limitations and future research

This study had limitations, one of which was the sample. Participants were students who reported working part-time. Therefore, this sample is demographically different than a sample of working adults. However, the cognitive processes reflected in perceiving a supervisor's expectations and mental comparison with one's own characteristics is a process that can arguably be captured by the student samples. A sizeable percentage of the students worked in relationship-

oriented jobs, including customer service, sales, and marketing, which are all jobs in which employees are more susceptible to abusive supervision and psychological distress (Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011). Further, the perceptions of abusive supervision and leader-member exchange should not vary between college students and working adults; rather, reports of abusive supervision and LMX should be based more strongly on the participant's supervisors. In addition, the students in both samples reported working at least 20 hours per week, and for an average of a year and a half with their current supervisor. This amount of time should allow ample opportunity for employees to make observations of their supervisor's expectations.

With the current data, I can conclude that employee' reports of supervisor-level perceptions are important and are associated with employee outcomes. I have tested the most proximal or immediate predictors of employee outcomes in this study. While this is an important starting point, the next step is to go beyond proximal predictors and examine more distal predictors including various supervisor behaviors that may stem from LIFTs and supervisors' self-reports of their own LIFTs. To better understand how LIFTs are communicated from supervisors to employees, researchers should examine the congruence between supervisors' own LIFTs ratings their employees' perceptions of the supervisor's LIFTs. This would allow us to test the accuracy of employees' perceptions of LIFTs. This would also allow us to test whether supervisor ratings of LIFTs (i.e., distal predictors) are more powerful predictors of employee outcomes than employee ratings of their supervisor's LIFTs (i.e. proximal predictors). If employee ratings of LIFTs are found to be generally accurate, then it may be possible to use employee ratings of LIFTs as a proxy for supervisor LIFTs ratings in future research and practice. Researchers should also explore how LIFTs relate to various leader behaviors and leadership styles. In this study, I examined abusive supervision and LMX. Future studies can

expand on these findings by examining transformational leadership behaviors (Bass, 1985), ethical leadership behaviors (Brown & Trevino, 2006), and authentic leadership behaviors (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999), or other approaches to leadership.

Using supervisor reports of LIFTs, we can also examine the influence of having low positive LIFTs on supervisor outcomes in addition to testing employee outcomes. For example, supervisors with low positive LIFTs may report feeling higher levels of stress and lower levels of job satisfaction, or even find their job to be less meaningful than supervisors with high positive LIFTs. A large and important part of supervising employees includes interacting with and motivating them. Supervisors who have low or negative expectations are expected to struggle with these behaviors more than supervisors who have positive expectations of employees. Similar to research demonstrating the effects of positive LIFTs via the Pygmalion effect (Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012), supervisors with low positive LIFTs may influence their employees through the Golem effect (i.e., negative expectations hurt employee attitudes and performance; Babad, Inbar, & Rosenthal, 1982) through low LMX and low performance expectations. Such questions can only be answered well with a sample consisting of work groups or supervisor-employee dyads.

Another limitation of the study was that based on the means and standard deviations, there may be range restriction in the predictors and the outcomes such that participants reported high scores on LIFTs, employee characteristics and LMX, and low levels of abusive supervision. This implies that the correlations between these variables may be reduced. However, there is evidence that the low abusive supervision means found in my samples are not unique to my study. Other researchers using Tepper's (2000) scale also report low means on abusive supervision (e.g., $M = 1.49$ on a 5 point scale of abusive supervision, Aryee et al., 2007; $M =$

1.66 on a 5 point scale, Lian et al., 2014; $M = 1.60$ on a 5 point scale, Harvey, Harris, Gillis, &

Martinko, 2014), suggesting that abusive supervision typically has a low base rate in several

samples. The other limitations of the study were common method variance and social

desirability, as described in the discussion of the differences in main effects across samples.

 The study design was cross-sectional, which had several implications for the conclusions

of the study. First, it is not possible to determine the causal order of LIFTs in relation to abusive

supervision or LMX. While the causal model that I proposed on page 12 may be theoretically

justifiable, it was not possible to test that model (or rule out other plausible causal orders) given

the study design. Further, the relationship between abusive supervision and LMX is a complex

one, and researchers have tested them in different ways in relation to one another. For example,

LMX has been tested as a moderator between workplace conflict and abusive supervision

(Harris, Harvey, & Kacmar, 2011), a mediated moderator where the interaction between abusive

supervision and LMX predicted deviance (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012), and as a mediator

between leader's emotional intelligence and employee trust along with abusive supervision as

another mediator in this relationship (Xiaqi, 2012). Given the support for these varying

relationships between abusive supervision and LMX, further research is needed to understand the

causal order between these variables. Based on this study design, it is not possible to conclude

whether low LMX leads to abusive supervision, whether abusive supervision leads to low LMX,

or if there is another order. For example, an employee who perceives abuse may try to make

sense of the supervisor's behaviors and conclude that the supervisor has low expectations of

employees; this conclusion may then relate to employee outcomes such as lower job satisfaction.

 Future research should consider the role of affect in the relationship between LIFTs and

employee outcomes. In this study, I have argued for the impact of LIFTs on abusive supervision

as a cognitive process in which employees perceive abusive supervision in relation to a mismatch between their supervisors' LIFTs ratings and their own characteristics. This may make the process seem logical and methodical (e.g., "My supervisor criticized me because I'm not a team player"). Realistically, abusive supervision can occur an in-the-moment, highly affect-driven manner (e.g., "My supervisor criticized me because he just had a bad meeting with his superiors"). Supervisors' stress levels have been shown to predict negative emotions such as anger and anxiety, which in turn are associated with abusive supervisory behaviors (Mawritz, Folger, & Latham, 2013). Mawritz et al. argue that abusive supervision is a function of negative aspects in the workplace.

Similarly, research on trickle-down effects of abusive supervision (e.g., Aryee et al., 2007; Hoobler & Brass, 2006) supports a metaphorical kick-the-dog or trickle-down chain of events, in which supervisors who perceive injustice from the organization or feel that their psychological contract has been violated tend to act out against employees. However, Aryee et al. and Hoobler & Brass (2006) did not explicitly examine the affective outcomes of injustice or psychological contract violation. Restubog et al. (2011) found that employees who are abused at work tend to take out their frustration on family members. These researchers accounted for *employee* affect by finding that employees' psychological distress was the affective link between perceptions of abusive supervision and undermining their spouse. There has been very little research on the role of supervisor affect on abusive supervision, and researchers are only now starting to examine this antecedent. Hoobler & Hu (2013) noted the gap in the abusive supervision literature and examined the role of state negative affect as an antecedent of abusive supervision. They found that supervisors' interactional injustice positively predicted supervisors' negative affect, which in turn predicted abusive supervision.

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My study does not account for the role of affect between LIFTs and abusive supervision. However, an understanding of a cognitive antecedent in abusive supervision is still valuable. As these findings suggest, there is more to abusive supervision than supervisor emotions. For example, while supervisors' perceived injustice and employee reports of abusive supervision were related (Aryee et al., 2007), not all supervisors who experience injustice from their organization took out their frustration on their employees. There are other factors at play in addition to supervisors' negative affect. LIFTs may moderate the relationship between negative affect and abusive supervision, for example. To gain a more thorough understanding of the supervisor-level antecedents that predict abusive supervision, future research should integrate the cognitive and affective factors that work in conjunction in the processes leading up to abusive supervision.

In addition to examining the role of affect in LIFTs, future research should also examine other factors that may relate to LIFTs. For example, employees who vary in their work ethic may differ in their reports of LIFTs and abusive supervision, such that employees with a strong work ethic may report lower abusive supervision and higher supervisor LIFTs because they may exhibit more positive behaviors at work. In addition, employees with a strong work ethic may have realistic expectations that when they do not perform well at work, they are likely to face negative consequences. In contrast, employees who hold a weak work ethic are more likely to have unrealistic expectations about the challenging nature of work or have a low desire to pour themselves into their work. This may make employees with a low work ethic more prone to abusive supervision, especially if their supervisor has highly positive LIFTs.

Finally, the LIFTs scale (Sy, 2010) requires further research. Sy proposed 6 discrete LIFTs factors – three positive and three negative scales. The positive LIFTs scales function as

expected in that they relate positively to each other well and load onto an underlying "positive LIFTs" factor (e.g., Kedharnath, 2011; Whiteley et al., 2012), but the negative LIFTs scales do not function as well as the positive scales (Kedharnath, 2011). The negative LIFTs scales do not load well onto an underlying factor. This may be for conceptual reasons; one of the factors that did not load well onto an underlying "negative LIFTs" factor was the Conformity scale. This may be because conformity may not be considered as a negative characteristic in all contexts (e.g., military). The context appears to be an important factor in the social constructions of followership (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010), and should be further explored in LIFTs theory. Another reason to examine the negative LIFTs scale in future research is to further understand the conceptual relationship between positive and negative LIFTs. For example, it would be valuable to examine whether the presence of negative LIFTs is equally as predictive of negative outcomes as the absence of positive LIFTs, or whether the presence of negative LIFTs would be more predictive of negative outcomes than the absence of positive LIFTs. Research suggests that for those who are highly sensitive, the absence of positive feedback can be just as distressing as the presence of negative feedback (Cikara & Girgus 2010). Similarly, it is possible that the absence of positive LIFTs (i.e., low positive LIFTs) can be potentially as influential as the presence of negative LIFTs (i.e., high negative LIFTs). This line of research would help in exploring the differences between high negative LIFTs and low positive LIFTs.

Conclusion

This study tests an important step that happens between supervisors' displays of attitudes and behaviors, and employee outcomes. At a broad level, this study contributes to the leadership literature because we can conclude that employees perceive their leader's expectations and

compare how their own characteristics measure up to those expectations. More specifically, this study contributes to the development of LIFTs theory and the abusive supervision literature in several ways. Conceptually, this study contributes to the literature because is the first to show evidence of matching effects in the LIFTs literature. We now know that employees perceive and report their impressions of their supervisor's expectations of employees and compare them to guess how closely they match those expectations. This process may not always be explicit; it may happen automatically. We also know that this mental calculation can influence important employee outcomes, such as their perceptions of abusive supervision or the supervisor-employee relationship. In addition to contributing to the LIFTs literature, this study also contributes a unique perspective to the abusive supervision literature. Namely, it provides support for the existence and importance of a cognitive antecedent of abusive supervision perceptions that has not been previously examined in this manner. A methodological strength of the data collection method used was the availability of data from different organizations across several types of industries, which increases the generalizability of these findings.

Practically speaking, this research suggests that employees who evaluate themselves on their characteristics at work can obtain a valuable tool to gain insight into their attitudes and behaviors at work. For example, employees who self-report that they do not think they are as enthusiastic at work as their supervisor would like can use this observation to think about why this is the case, and perhaps have insightful and developmental conversations with their supervisors about their supervisor's expectations of them at work and how they match those expectations. Conversations like this can also provide supervisors with valuable feedback about their employee's perceptions of their expectations. For example, a supervisor who comes across as thinking that followers are lazy may not realize that they communicate that attitude to

employees. Therefore, feedback of this nature can be incredibly valuable and developmental for supervisors. In conclusion, this study demonstrates the importance of employee perceptions of supervisor LIFTs in abusive supervision.

Table 2

Leader's implicit followership theories scale items and alphas

Factors	Items	Sample 1	Sample 2
Industry	Hardworking Productive Goes above and beyond	$\alpha =.89$	$\alpha =.87$
Enthusiasm	Excited Outgoing Happy	$\alpha =.80$	$\alpha =.88$
Good Citizen	Loyal Reliable Team player	$\alpha =.79$	$\alpha =.83$

Table 3

Sample 1 (Upper-level business and psychology students)

Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations , and Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Supervisor LIFTs ratings	7.75	1.36	*0.91*							
2. Employee self-ratings on LIFTs	8.35	1.08	0.60**	*0.88*						
3. Abusive supervision	1.73	0.98	-0.45**	-0.32**	*0.94*					
4. Leader member exchange	3.81	0.89	0.41**	0.31**	-0.49**	*0.92*				
5. Years with current supervisor	1.64	0.73	-0.01	-0.04	-0.02	0.17**	-			
6. Sex	1.6	0.49	0.17**	0.20**	-0.14*	-0.06	-0.02	-		
7.Age	21.52	1.78	-0.13*	-0.12	0.17**	-0.08	0.15*	-0.25**	-	
8. Years with current company	1.90	1.63	-0.18**	-0.1	0.09	0.06	0.70**	-0.08	0.13*	-

Note. Italicized values along the main diagonal are coefficient alphas. Gender was coded such that males =1 and females =2.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .005$.

Table 4
Sample 2 (Psychology pool)

Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations , and Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Supervisor LIFTs ratings	7.74	1.45	*0.93*							
2. Employee self-ratings on LIFTs	8.13	1.26	0.72**	*0.91*						
3. Abusive supervision	2.02	1.25	-0.31**	-0.35**	*0.96*					
4. Leader member exchange	3.87	0.82	0.33**	0.36**	-0.48**	*0.91*				
5. Years with current supervisor	1.53	0.67	0.01	0.07	-0.06	0.19**	-			
6. Sex	1.47	0.5	0.19**	0.27**	-0.13*	0.04	0.03	-		
7.Age	19.1	2.76	-0.03	0	0	0.02	0.06	-0.05	-	
8. Years with current company	1.54	1.46	-0.20**	-0.06	0.06	0.13*	0.70**	-0.01	0.07	-

Note. Italicized values along the main diagonal are coefficient alphas. Gender was coded such that males =1 and females =2.

* *p* < .05.

** *p* < .005.

Table 5

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results – Sample 1

Number of Factors	Factors	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi2$	Delta df	p
1	SupLIFTs, EmpChar, LMX, AS	4052.27	594	0.49	0.46	0.15	0.14	-	-	-
4	SupLIFTs, EmpChar, LMX, AS	1613.27	588	0.85	0.84	0.08	0.06	2439.00*	6	0.000
3	[SupLIFTs+EmpChar], LMX, AS	1996.10	591	0.79	0.78	0.09	0.07	382.84	3	0.000
5	SupLIFTs, EmpChar, LMX, AS, Method	1279.56	552	0.89	0.88	0.07	0.06	333.71	27	0.000
1a	[SupLIFTs + EmpChar]	1113.80	135	0.66	0.62	0.16	0.10	-	-	-
2a	SupLIFTs, EmpChar	733.05	134	0.79	0.77	0.13	0.07	380.76**	1	0.000
1b	[LMX + AS]	1259.69	135	0.69	0.65	0.18	0.14	-	-	-
2b	LMX, AS	391.25	134	0.93	0.92	0.08	0.05	868.44***	1	0.000

* *Note*. The delta chi-squared estimate for the four-factor model is in comparison with the one factor model, while the three- and five-factor models are in comparison with the four-factor model.

** The two-factor model is in comparison with model 1a.

*** The two-factor model is in comparison with model 1b.

Table 6

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results – Sample 2

Number of Factors	Factors	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi2$	Delta df	p
1	SupLIFTs, EmpChar, LMX, AS	5866.72	594	0.44	0.41	0.17	0.18	-	-	-
4	SupLIFTs, EmpChar, LMX, AS	2286.77	588	0.82	0.81	0.10	0.07	3579.95*	6	0.000
3	[SupLIFTs+EmpChar], LMX, AS	2672.19	591	0.78	0.77	0.11	0.07	385.42	3	0.000
5	SupLIFTs, EmpChar, LMX, AS, Method	1664.85	552	0.88	0.87	0.08	0.08	265.04	27	0.000
1a	[SupLIFTs + EmpChar]	1516.52	135	0.69	0.65	0.18	0.09	-	-	-
2a	SupLIFTs, EmpChar	1143.18	134	0.77	0.74	0.16	0.07	373.34**	1	0.000
1b	[LMX + AS]	1614.93	135	0.70	0.66	0.19	0.14	-	-	-
2b	LMX, AS	698.66	134	0.88	0.87	0.12	0.05	916.27***	1	0.000

* *Note*. The delta chi-squared estimate for the four-factor model is in comparison with the one factor model, while the three- and five-factor models are in comparison with the four-factor model.

** The two-factor model is in comparison with model 1a.

*** The two-factor model is in comparison with model 1b.

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