

2-23-2015

Don't Get Mad, Get Even: How Employees Abused by Their Supervisor Retaliate Against the Organization and Undermine Their Spouses

Krzysztof Duniewicz

Florida International University, kduni001@fiu.edu

DOI: 10.25148/etd.FI15032150

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/etd>

 Part of the [Industrial and Organizational Psychology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Duniewicz, Krzysztof, "Don't Get Mad, Get Even: How Employees Abused by Their Supervisor Retaliate Against the Organization and Undermine Their Spouses" (2015). *FIU Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. 1848.

<https://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/etd/1848>

This work is brought to you for free and open access by the University Graduate School at FIU Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in FIU Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of FIU Digital Commons. For more information, please contact dcc@fiu.edu.

FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

DON'T GET MAD, GET EVEN: HOW EMPLOYEES ABUSED BY THEIR
SUPERVISOR RETALIATE AGAINST THE ORGANIZATION AND UNDERMINE
THEIR SPOUSES

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

PSYCHOLOGY

by

Krzysztof Duniewicz

2015

To: Dean Michael R. Heithaus
College of Arts and Sciences

This dissertation, written by Krzysztof Duniewicz, and entitled Don't Get Mad, Get Even: How Employees Abused by Their Supervisors Retaliate Against the Organization and Undermine their Spouses, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

Stefany Coxe

Valentina Bruk-Lee

Karl G. Kroeck

Chockalingam Viswesvaran, Major Professor

Date of Defense: February 23, 2015

The dissertation of Krzysztof Duniewicz is approved.

Dean Michael R. Heithaus
College of Arts and Sciences

Dean Lakshmi N. Reddi
University Graduate School

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Jolanta Duniewicz and Jan Duniewicz, and my wife, Magdalena Kaszyca. Thank you for always supporting me, inspiring me, and encouraging me to pursue my education and fulfill my dreams.

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

DON'T GET MAD, GET EVEN: HOW EMPLOYEES ABUSED BY THEIR
SUPERVISORS RETALIATE AGAINST THE ORGANIZATION AND UNDERMINE
THEIR SPOUSES

by

Krzysztof Duniewicz

Florida International University, 2015

Miami, Florida

Chockalingam Viswesvaran, Major Professor

My study investigated the effects of abusive supervision on work and family outcomes including supervisor-directed and organization-directed deviance and spousal undermining. Using a moderated-mediation model, the relationship of abusive supervision on outcome variables was proposed to be mediated by moral courage and moderated by leader-member exchange (a-path) and work and family role quality (b-path). Two separate studies were conducted using a sample (N=200) recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk and through relatives of students at a large US public southeastern university (N=150 dyads). Results confirm the effects of abusive supervision on work and family outcomes while analyses of contextual and conditional factors are mixed. Confirmatory factor analyses, factor loadings, and model fit statistics are provided and implications for research and practice are discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I	INTRODUCTION1
	Abusive Supervision and Retaliation2
	Unethical Workplace Behaviors3
	Deviant Workplace Behaviors4
	Work-to-Family Spillover6
	Purpose of the Dissertation8
	Summary10
II	LITERATURE REVIEW11
	Abusive Supervision and Unethical Behaviors12
	Retaliation against the Supervisor14
	Retaliation against the Organization16
	Spousal Undermining18
	Moral Courage as a Mediator20
	Leader-Member Exchange as a Moderator24
	Role Quality as a Moderator29
	a. Family Role Quality29
	b. Work Role Quality30
	Controlling for Gender and Negative Affect32
III	METHODS33
	Study 133
	Participants and Procedures33
	Measures35
	Data Analysis39
	Study 240
	Participants and Procedures40
	Measures42
	Data Analysis44
IV	RESULTS45
	Study 145
	Confirmatory Factor Analyses45
	Descriptive Statistics and Correlations47
	Hypotheses Testing49
	Study 251
	Confirmatory Factor Analyses52
	Descriptive Statistics and Correlations52
	Hypotheses Testing55
	Additional Analyses: Structural-Regression Models58
	Results Summary61

V	DISCUSSION	64
	Interpretation of Results	64
	Theoretical and Practical Implications	68
	Limitations and Directions for Future Research	70
	Conclusion	71
	REFERENCES	73
	APPENDICES	86
	VITA.....	117

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
Study 1	
Table 1: Factor Loadings for Full Eight-Factor Confirmatory Model of Abusive Supervision in Study 1.....	87
Table 2: Confirmatory Factor Analyses of the Full Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 1.....	46
Table 3: Means, standard deviations, and pairwise correlations among variables for Study 1	48
Table 4: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Supervisor-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 1.....	93
Table 5: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Organization-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 1.....	95
Table 6: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Spousal Undermining Outcome in Study 1	97
Study 2	
Table 7: Factor Loadings for Full Eight-Factor Confirmatory Model of Abusive Supervision in Study 2.....	99
Table 8: Confirmatory Factor Analyses of the Full Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 2.....	53
Table 9: Means, standard deviations, and pairwise correlations among variables for Study 2	54
Table 10: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Supervisor-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 2.....	105
Table 11: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Organization-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 2.....	107
Table 12: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Spousal Undermining Outcome in Study 2	109

Additional Analyses

Table 13: Structural-Regression Eight-Factor Model of Abusive Supervision for Study 1.....	59
Table 14: Structural-Regression Eight-Factor Model of Abusive Supervision for Study 2.....	60

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Within organizations, leaders are typically assigned to supervisory positions, and through the use of power, leaders have the potential to influence the behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs of their subordinates. When used appropriately, such power and influence can enhance the functioning of organizations. When used inappropriately, however, a leader's power and influence can have a detrimental effect on organizations and its members. For a variety of reasons, leaders can use their power to mistreat their subordinates. For example, some individuals enjoy having power over others and engage in hostile behaviors such as manipulation and criticism to maintain a sense of domination and authority (Tepper, 2007). Accordingly, researchers have already recognized some of the negative effects of such abuses of power that are described below. Namely, through the measurement of abusive supervision, which is defined as the "subordinates perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). Abusive supervision is an unfortunate and costly problem for organizations, with an estimated 16% of Americans experiencing supervisor abuse resulting in an estimated annual organizational cost of \$23.8 billion (Namie & Namie, 2000; Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). Research efforts that have investigated abusive supervision have already discovered a variety of antecedents, consequences, and boundary conditions of employees' perceptions of supervisor abuse. The current study expands this area of research by examining the boundary conditions of how perceptions of supervisor abuse are related to negative outcomes. Specific outcomes of abusive supervision that have been found to be particularly problematic include retaliatory behaviors aimed against the source of abuse,

that is, the supervisor (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), retaliatory behaviors aimed against the organization as a whole (Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004); and negative spillover into the family domain (Restobug, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011). In the following section, the main concepts and contributions of the current study are introduced. Namely, (1) the relationship between abusive supervision and retaliatory behaviors; (2) the nature of unethical behaviors in the workplace; (3) the conceptualization of unethical workplace behaviors as deviant or counter-productive work behaviors, and (4) the potential negative spillover from work to family.

Abusive Supervision and Retaliation

When employees are abused by their supervisors, it is typically presumed that they cannot directly retaliate against the actual sources of abuse. Many researchers have demonstrated that by retaliating against the abusive supervisor or the organization as a whole may have subsequent negative consequences for the victims of the abuse. For example, Aquino, Tripp, and Bies (2006) found that directly confronting an abusive supervisor can lead to loss of rewards and punishment (e.g., pay, benefits, quality of workplace relationships). Similarly, victims of supervisor abuse retaliating against the organization by, for example, reducing their work effort, stealing, being consistently late, or committing sabotage, may lead to further punishment or even loss of employment (Tepper et al., 2009). Researchers have found, however, that victims of abusive supervision do indeed retaliate; directly against the supervisor as well as against the organization in a variety situations, industries, and cultures (e.g., Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005; Tepper, 2007, Tepper et al., 2009).

The specific factors that influence victims to choose the target(s) of their retaliatory behavior are, however, still unclear in the current literature on abusive supervision. In a recent study, Lian et al., (2014) used a self-control model to describe how victims of abusive supervision decide whether or not to retaliate directly against their abusive supervisors. The authors found that individuals who are high in the capacity to control their reactions are more likely to override their aggressive impulses and tend to retaliate less against their supervisors than individuals with low self-control. The current study contributes to this line of research by describing additional boundary conditions that may influence against whom or what victims of abusive supervision decide to retaliate against. Specifically, the current study investigated how moral decision-making capacity (i.e., moral courage) can help explain the abusive supervision-retaliation process. Abusive supervision and most retaliatory behaviors can be considered as deliberately harmful acts and thereby, are unethical. As such, individuals' moral decision capacity was examined as an explanatory factor of unethical workplace behaviors.

Unethical Workplace Behaviors

There is a growing interest in ethics and social responsibility in scholarly journals of ethical behavior, management, and industrial/organizational psychology. According to Giancalone and Promislo (2009), research on ethics in the workplace is divided among different disciplines such as strategy and public policy, organizational behavior, human resources management, and industrial/organizational psychology. For example, researchers in corporate strategy have focused on the role of stakeholders (Harting, Harmeling, & Venkataraman, 2006) and corporate citizenship (Waddock, 2004) in demonstrating organization-wide ethical image, public perceptions, and societal impact;

whereas researchers in human resources management have focused on workplace safety conditions and controversial issues such as drug testing (e.g., Ariss, 2003; Greenwood, Holland, & Choong, 2006). Researchers in organizational behavior and industrial/organizational psychology, on the other hand, have focused mainly on domain-specific unethical behaviors such as theft (Greenberg, 2002), incivility (Pearson, Anderson, & Wegner, 2001), and abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000). The challenge in organizational research, according to Giancalone and Promislo (2009), is to provide a conceptual framework for understanding ethical and unethical behaviors in the workplace and its effects on physical and psychological well-being. The current study contributes to organizational research by proposing and testing a process-based model of how abusive supervision is related to ethical decision-making capacity and how individuals' capacity to make ethical decisions is manifested through moral courage. Moral courage, in turn, is argued to be associated with whether or not individuals decide to retaliate against the sources of abuse (i.e., the supervisor or the organization) by performing deviant workplace behaviors.

Deviant Workplace Behaviors

Research on unethical workplace behaviors in the area of industrial/organizational psychology and similar disciplines has focused on specific acts such as lying, stealing, bullying, taking long breaks, and interpersonal mistreatment (e.g., coworker disputes or abusive supervision). Such behaviors have been previously (and continue to be) described as deviant or counter-productive work behaviors. According to Robinson and Bennett (1995), this type of behavior falls under a broad spectrum of undesired, unethical, and sometimes illegal activities that have tremendous consequences for individuals and

organizations. Many researchers have documented the antecedents of deviant workplace behaviors that include, among others, abusive supervision (e.g., Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Suela et al., 2013). Abusive supervision can contribute to creating a hostile climate that may perpetuate aggressive or withdrawal behaviors (Cropanzano et al., 1997). When victims of abusive supervision are behaving aggressively by berating their coworkers or withdrawing by reducing their work effort, they are typically attempting to restore equality or cope with the source of stress. Social stressors in the form of interpersonal conflict have been found to be one of the major and most common sources of stress in the workplace (Hahn, 2000; Spector, Dwyer, & Jex, 1988). According to Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006), conflicts between co-workers and conflicts in supervisor-subordinate relationships have been found to be particularly stressful and associated with feelings of frustration, anger, and helplessness, which are emotions associated with deviant workplace behaviors. When employees are abused by their supervisors, they often feel particularly helpless and alienated because they may have difficulties rectifying the situation and may blame the organization for allowing the abuse to occur (Marcus-Newhall, Pederson, Carlson, & Miller, 2000). Building on the foundations of occupational stress research, the current study investigated how a social stressor like abusive supervision is related to deviant workplace behaviors by diminishing individuals' capacity for moral decision-making, or moral courage. Further, the current study contributes to literature on workplace stress and deviant behaviors by exploring boundary conditions such as the perceived quality of subordinate-supervisor relationships and work and family roles. Although researchers have already established the relationship between abusive supervision and deviant workplace behaviors, the possible mediating effect of

moral courage and the boundary conditions of these relationships have only begun to be explored. For example, using a military sample, Hannah et al. (2013) found evidence of the mediating effect of moral courage on the relationship between abusive supervision and unethical behaviors (i.e., mistreatment on non-combatants and intentions of reporting unethical behaviors). Their research called for examining the relationships between abusive supervision, moral courage, and unethical/deviant behaviors in non-military samples. Accordingly, the current study contributes to research on ethical behavior by exploring the relationship between abusive supervision and deviant workplace behaviors through moral courage using two separate working samples spanning a variety of industries. The current study also adds to the literature by exploring additional boundary conditions, deviant workplace behaviors, and the potential negative spillover of stress from work to family.

Work-to-Family Spillover

Many individuals live in complex family settings that include dual-income spouses with children, single-parent workers, and situations under which working family members provide social and financial support to elder or sick relatives (i.e., the sandwich generation). When the domains of work and family become intertwined, there may be spillover between the two domains. The spillover can be positive or negative: Positive spillover occurs when one domain can facilitate performance in the other domain whereas negative spillover occurs when conflict in one domain is associated with conflict in the other (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). The current study focuses solely on negative spillover from work to family. The direction of the spillover is important because earlier researchers did not distinguish between spillover from work-to-family and from family-

to-work and measured work-family facilitation or conflict without considering the direction of the spillover. According to Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrin (1996), the separate directions of conflict spillover from family-to-work and work-to-family domains are conceptually distinct and as such, should be measured separately. Results from later meta-analytic work provided support for the two separate directions of conflict (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). The authors found that although there was substantial overlap between both directions of work-family conflict, they found enough evidence in previously published studies to make a substantial case that researchers should measure the directions separately. The notion of negative work-family spillover stems from research in work-family conflict (WFC), that is, the extent to which the work and family domains produce inter-role conflict that can be divided into three dimensions: Time, strain, and behavior. (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Time-based WFC occurs when time devoted to one role interferes with responsibilities in the other role. Strain-based WFC conflict occurs when stress reactions spillover from one role to the other. And behavior-based conflict occurs when individuals have difficulties adjusting their behaviors between the responsibilities of work and family. The current study utilized spousal undermining as a conceptualization of negative behavioral work-to-family spillover and a potential outcome of abusive supervision.

In the literature on abusive supervision, Tepper (2000) originally conceptualized abusive supervision as a work stressor that may detract individuals from devoting the appropriate amount of time and energy to their familial obligations. Many researchers have since established a strong link between abusive supervision and WFC (see Tepper, 2007 for a review). Within these studies, there is also support for the link between

abusive supervision and negative work-to-family conflict spillover, specifically (Restubog, Scott, and Zagenczyk, 2011; Wu, Kwan, Liu, & Resick 2011). For example, Wu et al. (2011) found that boundary strength at home—that is the extent to which individuals separate or segment their work and family roles—was an important moderator of the relationship between abusive supervision and work-to-family conflict spillover. Individuals with high boundary strength reported experiencing lower spillover than individuals with low boundary strength. The authors argued that being able to separate both work and family domains allowed individuals to compartmentalize their reactions to abusive supervisors and reduce its negative impact on their family lives. The current study follows work-family research by expanding our understanding of the importance of work and family role quality in the relationship between abusive supervision and negative work-to-family conflict spillover. Specifically, the role of moral courage is explored and perceptions of family role quality were examined as a potential buffer to the relationship between abusive supervision and spousal undermining that is a form of behavioral work-to-family spillover.

Purpose of the Dissertation

Building on the current literature on supervisor-employee relationships, the present study investigated the processes involved in how perceptions of abusive supervision can lead to unethical/deviant workplace behaviors. The vast literature on abusive supervision has drawn upon a variety of theories such as justice theories, social learning theory, self-determination theory, and stress theories (detailed examples are provided in the literature review). For the purpose of the current study, however, a newly proposed theory developed by Promislo, Giacalone, and Jurkiewicz (2013); that is Ethical

Impact Theory (EIT) is examined. According to EIT, unethical behaviors in the workplace can lead to diminished physical and/or psychological well-being. The processes involved in the relationship between ethical behaviors and well-being include stress responses, stress coping mechanisms, and individuals' ability to behave morally. Past research has demonstrated that ethics and moral behavior are related to important work-related outcomes. For example, Viswesvaran, Deshpande, and Joseph (1998) found that leadership support for ethics is related to job satisfaction. Avey, Palanski, and Walumbwa (2011) demonstrated that ethical leadership is negatively related to employee, group, and organizational deviance. Ethical leaders act as role models, set ethical standards, and promote organizational goal achievement through the influence of social responsibility (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009). The current study, however, focuses on the consequences of perceived unethical leader behavior and how victims of unethical behavior perpetuate further unethical behavior in the workplace. Unethical leadership has been described by a variety of leader behaviors such as intimidation, belittling, bullying, manipulation, and particularly, abuse (e.g., Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Tepper, 2000). Unethical behaviors conducted by employees who perceive abuse by their supervisors can include aggression towards leaders, co-workers, displaced aggression towards family members, and counter-productive work behaviors (Tepper, 2000).

The current study examines how perceptions of supervisor abuse influence ethical decision-making (i.e., by undermining moral courage) and how individuals engage in unethical behaviors aimed at various targets; in order to inform researchers and organizational leaders on how to detect (i.e., in hopes of alleviating), the detrimental

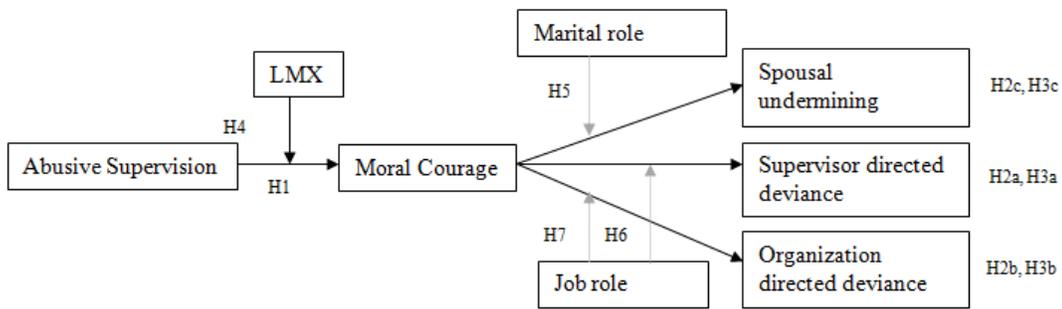
effects of abuse. One of the major practical implications this study investigated is how employers can acknowledge the detrimental effects of abusive supervision and take steps to reduce incidences of retaliatory behaviors aimed towards individuals and organizations, as well as the negative spillover into the family domain. By addressing abusive supervision proactively, rather than reactively, organizations can help prevent the negative consequences of abusive supervision on their employees, managers, and their respective family members. According to the Occupational Health and Safety Administration (OSHA), organizations have the responsibility to provide safe and healthy working conditions to their employees. Jenkins (1996) argued that an integral part of the duty imposed on organizations is the reduction of all varieties of workplace aggression and violence. Abusive supervision, specifically, falls under the category of a subtle, non-physical form of workplace aggression (Tepper, 2000). Considering the estimated costs of abusive supervision to organizations mentioned above, the negative psychological consequences on individuals, and the potential spillover effects, it is imperative that organizational researchers help managers and executives build proactive and preventative strategies to address the problem of abusive supervision and reduce or prevent unethical workplace behaviors.

Summary

Grounded in the theoretical frameworks of EIT, it is argued that (1) perceptions of supervisor abuse are associated with unethical behaviors; (2) the relationship between perceived abusive supervision and unethical behaviors is mediated by individuals' capacity for ethical-decision making (i.e., moral courage); (3) the relationship between perceived abusive supervision and moral courage is moderated by the quality of

supervisor-follower relationships; and (4) the relationship between moral courage and unethical behaviors (i.e., those aimed towards supervisors, the organization, and/or spouses) is moderated by the quality of roles within work and the family contexts. This moderation-mediation model is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Proposed moderation-mediation model of abusive supervision and unethical behaviors



Note: LMX = Leader-Member Exchange, H =Hypothesis

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter I will review the literature on unethical behaviors including abusive supervision and retaliatory behaviors as a consequence of such abuse in order to lead to the hypotheses that were tested in the present dissertation. I will begin with a discussion of abusive supervision and retaliatory behaviors such as supervisor-directed and organization-directed deviance and spousal undermining to provide the background of the study. Next, I will review the literature on moral courage to explain its mediating effect on the relationship between abusive supervision and retaliatory behaviors. Then, I

will discuss the moderating effect of leader-member exchange and role quality to explain the moderated-mediation model of this study.

Abusive Supervision and Unethical Behaviors

In accordance with EIT, supervisor abuse and retaliation as a consequence of abuse fall under a wider range of unethical behaviors in the workplace. Unethical behavior such as hostility resulting from interactional injustice in the workplace can have important detrimental physiological and psychological consequences such as job-induced stress (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004) that is linked to depression (Nield, 1996) and anxiety (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). The following section describes the antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision and the various ways that abused employees retaliate against their supervisors or the organization, and how abusive supervision can result in displaced aggression towards family members such as spousal undermining.

Tepper's (2000) definition of abusive supervision is characterized by three important features: First, abusive supervision is a subordinate's subjective evaluation of a supervisor's behavior. The subjectivity of this evaluation implies that individual and contextual factors can influence perceptions of abusive supervision. Second, abusive supervision refers to perceptions of sustained abusive behavior, rather than occasional or incidental hostility. For example, a supervisor that berates a subordinate for being late one day would not be considered an abusive supervisor unless the abusive behavior became constant across different situations. Third, the abusive behavior of supervisors must be intentional rather than indifferent to be considered abusive supervision. For example, reasons that supervisors mistreat their subordinates could include eliciting higher performance or punishing undesired behavior in order to make an exemplary

statement to other subordinates. These three features of Tepper's definition separate the concept of abusive supervision from other forms of supervisors' aggressive behaviors such as petty tyranny and workplace bullying. Although petty tyranny shares similar conceptual definitions with abusive supervision, petty tyranny is a broader concept that includes non-hostile behaviors such as discouraging initiative, that is, discouraging subordinates to participate in decision making or giving subordinates more authority (Ashforth, 1997). The concept of workplace bullying focuses on hostile behaviors, but these behaviors are not specifically tied to supervisor bullying and include coworkers and peers as sources of hostility (Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999). As such, abusive supervision can be considered a unique concept that specifies the source of abuse and focuses solely on hostile non-physical behaviors, allowing for distinctive antecedents and outcomes.

Specific examples of abusive supervision include nonphysical acts such as berating, lying, undermining, sarcasm, invading privacy, taking credit for others' achievements, and blaming employees for others' mistakes. Antecedents of perceived abusive supervision have been documented and include experiencing a psychological contract breach and feeling procedural injustice (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006), as well as individual characteristics such as supervisors' authoritarianism (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007). Research on the consequences of abusive supervision is extensive and includes negative work attitudes such as reduced job commitment and satisfaction (Duffy & Ferrier, 2003; Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004), poor health outcomes such as psychological distress and emotional exhaustion (Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007; Yagil, 2006), as well as behavioral

outcomes such as reduced job performance, problem drinking, and aggression directed towards family members, supervisors, co-workers, and organizations (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006; Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007; Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Although behavioral outcomes have already been documented, few studies have explored the conditions that determine specific outcomes. In one such study, Bowling and Michel (2011) found that, on the basis of the principle of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), victims of abuse retaliate against their supervisors or the organization depending on their perceptions of the attribution of abuse (e.g., self-directed, supervisor-directed, or organization-directed). The current study adds to this line of research by focusing on the conditions that determine how victims of abuse perpetuate unethical behaviors aimed at various targets. Unethical behaviors include aggressive and deviant acts and these are characterized in the current study as supervisor-directed deviance, organization-directed deviance, and behavioral work-to-family conflict manifested as spousal undermining. Deviance stemming from retaliation is a particularly important part of research on unethical behavior and aggressiveness in the workplace because retaliation involves the desire to purposefully harm or punish an offender for previous transgressions (Averill, 1982).

Retaliation against the Supervisor

Supervisor-directed deviance falls under the umbrella of workplace deviance, defined by Robinson and Bennett (1995) as intentional inappropriate behaviors aimed at damaging organizations and its members. These inappropriate behaviors can be subdivided into two categories of deviance: organizational and interpersonal. Organizational deviance includes deviant behaviors targeting the organization (e.g.,

taking long breaks) that is discussed in the next section; interpersonal deviance, on the other hand, consists of deviant behaviors targeting individuals (e.g., verbal abuse). Interpersonal deviance can be further subdivided into deviant behaviors targeting supervisors or other individuals (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Research on supervisor-directed deviance and aggression has focused mainly on subordinates' interpersonal mistreatment by their supervisors (e.g., Folger & Baron, 1996). Mistreatment and interpersonal provocation have been suggested to be among the most important causes of human aggression in the workplace (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Mistreatment can be viewed as a form of injustice, and when subordinates feel they have been treated unfairly, they may be motivated to re-establish a sense of justice and fairness by aggressive retaliation (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989). According to theories of justice, individuals make judgments on various aspects of organizational fairness, including procedural, distributive, and importantly, interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001). Interactional justice refers to employees' perceptions of being treated with dignity and respect rather than prejudice, favoritism, or inappropriate remarks. Experiences of interactional injustice are considered deeply interpersonal and have been found to be related to employees demonstrating supervisor-directed aggression (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999). In response to abusive supervision, subordinates may seek to exact revenge against the supervisor. Bies and Tripp (1996) found that individuals tend to seek revenge against the agents that harm them. In terms of supervisor-directed retaliation, Inness, Barling, and Turner (2005) reported that, after controlling for demographic variables and a history of aggressive behavior, abusive supervision was positively related to hostile behaviors against the abusive supervisor. Dupre, Inness, Connelly, Barling, and Hopton (2006) also

found that abusive supervision was related to supervisor-directed aggression and that this relationship was stronger when subordinates reported financial reasons for working rather than personal fulfillment. The aggressive reaction towards the source of abuse is consistent with the notion that mistreatment induces anger reactions and a desire for retribution (Folger, 1993). In another similar study, Jones (2009) found that perceptions of interpersonal justice were associated with desires for retaliation against the supervisor, which in turn were associated with counter-productive behaviors aimed at the supervisor whereas perceptions of procedural justice were associated with retaliatory behaviors aimed towards the organization.

Retaliation against the Organization

Because supervisors possess control over desirable resources such as salaries, benefits, and promotions, subordinates may be reluctant to retaliate against their supervisors because of fear of increased subsequent repercussions (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2007). As such, subordinates may displace their anger toward more convenient targets such as the organization. Miller (1941) argued that when employees are provoked by their supervisor, they are unlikely to fight back out of fear of further punishment. Researchers have explored the conditions under which abusive supervision leads to direct (i.e., against the perpetrator) and indirect (i.e., against other targets) aggression. For example, Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) found that the relationship between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed deviance was stronger when individuals held higher negative reciprocity (e.g., 'quid pro quo') beliefs but these beliefs did not affect displaced aggression against the organization or against other individuals (i.e., coworkers or family members). Tepper et al. (2009) found that

supervisor-directed deviance was more likely to occur than organizational-directed deviance when individuals' intentions to quit were high.

According to Robinson and Bennett (1995), organization-directed deviance is defined as voluntary acts that are meant to undermine the organization, such as taking long breaks, stealing, and sabotaging work activities. Several studies have documented that subordinates retaliate against their organizations as a way to get even with organizational authorities for mistreatment in the workplace (e.g., Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). Abusive supervision contributes to creating uncomfortable work environments and there are several reasons why subordinates respond with unethical behaviors aimed at damaging the organization. For example, uncomfortable work environments have been found to be related to withdrawal behaviors, such as absenteeism, tardiness, and production deviance (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 1997). Social exchange theory provides a rationale for why employees resort to unethical and deviant acts aimed towards organizations (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). The theory explains interpersonal relationships in terms of exchanges of resources governed by a principle of reciprocity (Blau, 1964). According to social exchange theory, the impulse to strike back, or retaliate, derives from poor exchange relationships, or negative reciprocity (Blau, 1964).

Abusive supervision violates the implicit understanding and obligations that are expected in the relationship between individuals and organizations. The violation of the so-called psychological contract can influence individuals to respond to interpersonal mistreatment by blaming and targeting the organization as whole. Targeting the organization is a form of displaced aggression that can occur when the source of harm is

unavailable or when victims of abuse fear further retaliation from the source of harm (Dollard et al., 1939). Because supervisors hold the power over important resources (e.g., rewards, feedback) victims of abusive supervision may fear confronting their hostile supervisor because they may subsequently be ostracized or terminated (Ulh-Bien & Carsten, 2007). Subordinates may also blame the organization for allowing an abusive supervisor to be in a position of power and for violating its duty to protect them against the potential of personal harm at work (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000). The fear of subsequent counter-retaliation from supervisors and the belief that the organization failed to protect an employee from an abusive supervisor may therefore lead to retaliation against the organization. Retaliation against the organization, however, can also be self-defeating. For example, Lian, Ferris, and Brown (2012) suggested that deviant behaviors such as leaving work early or coming in late can foster resentment from coworkers who have to work harder in order to make up for the loss of production. As such, although individuals may feel they are satisfying the need to retaliate against an indirect source of abuse, they are thwarting their own needs for relatedness with their coworkers (i.e., a major proponent of social-determination theory; Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Spousal Undermining

Although most of the literature on the effects of abusive supervision focuses on organizational outcomes, the consequences of abuse on family life has started to gain attention. In Tepper's (2000) original formulation of abusive supervision, an important outcome of abuse is work-family conflict. Prior research in work-family conflict has shown that work-related emotional distress can lead to increased work-to-family conflict (e.g., Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997). Work-to-family conflict, in turn, has been

associated with relationship tension between marital or romantic partners (Carlson, Ferguson, Perrewé, & Whitten, 2011). Expanding this notion, Hoobler and Brass (2006) found that victims of abusive supervision are likely to displace their aggression towards family members because spouses, children, and other relatives are more innocent and vulnerable than their direct supervisors. This displacement of aggression is consistent with experimental findings by Peterson, Gonzales, and Miller (2000) who found that when provoked, participants had a tendency to display harsh behaviors towards an innocent confederate rather than the source of provocation. Displaced aggression towards family members is often manifested by spousal/partner undermining that refers to increased arguing between spouses, and negative mood states and diminished self-worth for the victim of the undermining (Paykel et al., 1969; Jones & Fletcher, 1993). For example, in relation to abusive supervision, Restubog et al. (2011) found that when individuals experienced psychological distress resulting from abuse, they displaced their frustration away from the source of abuse and undermined their spouses through insults and criticism.

Spousal undermining can occur for the same reasons individuals choose to retaliate against their organization rather than their supervisors; that is, individuals may fear the potential negative consequences (e.g., termination) of retaliating against the source of abuse. Retaliating against the organization rather than the supervisor, however, can have the same potential negative consequences. Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, and Whitten (2012) suggested that individuals engage in surface acting at work in order to avoid the negative consequences of retaliation against their supervisors or the organization. Surface acting refers to suppressing emotions in order to avoid further

abuse from hostile supervisors (Miller, 1941). For example, employees may pretend to be calm and show false positive emotions in order to maintain social norms of emotional display, avoid ridicule from coworkers, and/or further abuse from their supervisor.

According to Carlson et al. (2012), these surface acting behaviors create a vicious circle that deplete individuals' coping resources and explain the relationship between abusive supervision and job burnout, and this relationship also exacerbates work-family conflict.

Moral Courage as a Mediator

One of the principle goals of the current study is to advance understanding of the psychological mechanisms through which abusive supervision leads to retaliatory unethical behaviors. Researchers have established that individual factors such as ethical values are related to employee deviance. Peterson (2002), for example, referred to ethical values as employee perceptions of ethically permissible modes of conduct and found that low ethical values were associated with behaviors such as falsely calling in sick and padding expense reports. In another study, Wimbush, Shepard, and Markham (1997) concluded that perceived ethical values were related to a variety of unethical behaviors such as lying and stealing. Within the framework of Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), one determinant of moral agency is moral courage (Bandura, 2002). Moral agency, in general, refers to individuals' capacity to behave with a sense of right and wrong. According to Bandura (2002), moral agency is a meta-construct that relates to our perceived capacity for moral reasoning and moral courage is defined as a necessity for individuals to resist the temptation to behave unethically when facing a potential threat or risk. Moral courage has been operationalized as a dynamic rather than static human phenomenon and as such it has been argued that moral courage can be malleable and subject to contextual

influences such as leadership (Hannah, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2011). Moral courage can also be considered unique in comparison to conceptually similar constructs such as voice behavior. Voice behavior is defined as a change-oriented behavior aimed towards challenging the status quo and providing constructive solutions, despite any potential risks related to ‘speaking up’ in an organization (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995). Voice is also typically associated with organizational citizenship and extra-role behaviors such as helping whereas moral courage focuses on individuals’ ability for moral decision-making while incorporating the element of personal risk.

In terms of abusive leader behaviors, abusive supervision creates a hostile and fearful work environment that can undermine individuals’ capacity to behave ethically. Hannah et al. (2013) found that moral courage mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and unethical behavior. Specifically, Hannah and colleagues argued that abusive supervision has a negative effect on followers’ moral courage which, in turn, can lead to the mistreatment of individuals and other unethical behaviors such as lying, cheating, and stealing. These findings are in-line with SCT which advocates that moral courage can guide moral reasoning through individuals’ internal standards for moral and ethical behavior. Under conditions of abusive supervision, however, individuals may fear to follow their ethical principles (e.g., confronting the abusive supervisor) and repeated failures to do so can provide followers with a recurring reality test of their moral courage. The constant reality test may then lead to a more realistic or less idealized self-evaluation of moral courage, and therefore it is expected that abusive supervision can undermine followers’ moral courage.

Hypothesis 1: Abusive supervision is negatively related to followers' self-perceptions of moral courage (a-path).

Moral courage is especially necessary for individuals to act within moral norms when there is threat of personal risk (Putman, 2010; Trevino, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006). For example, when followers are abused by their supervisors certain forms of retaliation can present important risks. As mentioned previously, retaliating against the source of abuse such as the supervisor or the organization can lead to disciplinary actions or even termination of employment (Hoobler & Brass, 2006). Also, work-family conflict and specifically work-to-family conflict has been found to be associated with negative physiological and psychological consequences (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011). As such, spousal undermining can be understood to be an unethical behavior and a potential risk to one's general well-being. Individuals are typically motivated to avoid behaviors that represent a risk to their well-being and behave in-line with their moral and ethical values (Blasi, 1983). On the basis of Kohlberg's (1969) original cognitive moral development theory, ethical behavior is strongly dependent on moral reasoning. Moral reasoning, in turn, is characterized by the development of a moral self, described as "a complex system of self-defining moral attributes involving moral beliefs, orientations, dispositions, and cognitive and affective capacities that engage regulatory focus towards moral behavior" (Jennings, Mitchell, & Hannah, in press, p. 4). The complexity of the moral self can explain how individuals' self-perceptions of moral courage are dynamic and determine the ability to act ethically in conditions under which well-being and/or self-esteem are threatened. When moral courage is weakened, however, individuals' capacity to behave ethically is undermined and they may engage in

unethical retaliatory behaviors against sources of abuse such as supervisors or the organization, or displace their anger towards innocent targets such as their spouses, despite any potential risks.

Hypothesis 2a: Moral courage is negatively related to organizational deviance directed at the supervisor (b1-path).

Hypothesis 2b: Moral courage is negatively related to organizational deviance directed at the organization (b2-path).

Hypothesis 2c: Moral courage is negatively related to spousal undermining (b3-path).

As mentioned, retaliatory behaviors and displaced aggression represent moral imperatives to regain a sense of justice and counter potential threats to self-esteem that may undermine individuals' best interest. For example, in an experimental study, Turillo, Folger, Lavelle, Umphress, and Gee (2002) found that individuals sacrificed financial gain for the opportunity to exact revenge against unfair interpersonal treatment. Similarly, under conditions of abusive supervision, when self-perceptions of moral courage are undermined, individuals may sacrifice their well-being in order to regain a sense of justice by engaging in risky retaliatory behaviors and displaced aggression towards their spouses. In line with Hannah et al. (2013) who explained that abusive supervision can negatively impact individuals' moral self-regulation, it is expected that moral courage will mediate the relationships between abusive supervision and organizational deviance directed towards supervisors and the organization, and displaced aggression towards spouses manifested by spousal undermining.

Hypothesis 3a: There is a positive indirect relationship between abusive supervision and organizational deviance (directed at the supervisor) mediated by moral courage.

Hypothesis 3b: There is a positive indirect relationship between abusive supervision and organizational deviance (directed at the organization) mediated by moral courage.

Hypothesis 3c: There is a positive indirect relationship between abusive supervision and spousal undermining mediated by moral courage.

Leader-Member Exchange as a Moderator

Leader-member exchange (LMX) represents the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship and has its roots in the vertical dyad linkage approach formulated by Dansereau et al. (1975). The dyad linkage approach argues that leaders do not treat all employees the same and unique relationships are formed between each employee and his or her supervisor. High quality LMX relationships are characterized by subordinates' feeling liked, respected, and trusted. These positive feelings are typically associated with loyalty and trust aimed towards their supervisors as well as commitment towards the organization. Supervisors in high quality LMX relationships are understood to be supportive, satisfied with subordinates' work, understanding of work needs, and willing to help subordinates solve work-related problems (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Notably, the complexity of the LMX construct implies that LMX can be understood from different perspectives and levels of analysis and it is critical for researchers to explain their specific approach to LMX (Gooty, Serban, Thomas, Gavin, & Yammarino, 2012). For example, the quality of supervisor-subordinate relationship can be understood at the

individual-level (e.g., supervisor or subordinate perceptions), at the dyad-level, or at the workgroup level (e.g., LMX differentiation). The term LMX can also be used for “subordinate perceptions of their LMX with leader, subordinate perceptions of the relationship, supervisor perceptions of their LMX with a subordinate, and supervisor perceptions of the relationship” (Gooty et al., 2012, p. 1093). Although the current study reviews LMX studies at multiple levels in order to provide a general understanding of supervisor-subordinate relationships, the focus and measurement of LMX occurred at the individual-level, namely subordinate perceptions of the relationship.

Previous research on LMX has shown that high LMX relationships mitigate the negative effects of mistreatment at work by providing relief and resources to cope with the mistreatment (Hobfoll, 1989). There are studies on LMX, however, that demonstrate there can be positive as well as negative interpersonal behaviors in high quality relationships (e.g., Fincham & Linfield, 1997). Most research on the relational context of abusive supervision suggests that this type of abuse indicates poor relationships between supervisors and subordinates (e.g., Martinko, Harvey, Sikora & Douglas, 2011). Abusive supervision, however, can also occur in high-quality supervisor-subordinate relationships. Just as aggressive interpersonal behavior can occur in supportive relationships such as between spouses or other family members, abusive supervision has been found to occur in high LMX relationships. According to Tepper and Henle (2011) abusive supervision is represented by specific supervisory behaviors that may not reflect an ongoing relationship; LMX, however, represents the overall quality of a supervisor-subordinate relationship that is developed over a long period of time. So, although an individual may have a generally positive attitude towards his or her supervisor, it is possible that this

supervisor occasionally engages in hostile behaviors. For example, although a supervisor can be seen as helpful or understanding of work needs, they can occasionally also take credit for someone else's work (Hobman, Restubog, Bordla, & Tang 2009).

Dysfunctional behaviors have also been discussed in the context of mentoring relationships. For example, Ghosh, Dierkes, and Falletta (2011) propose that negative mentoring behaviors include distancing and manipulation. Distancing behavior occurs when mentors pay little attention or ignores their protégé's development and manipulation occurs when mentors abuse their power to achieve personal gain. These negative mentor behaviors have been argued to lead to patterns of increases and/or decreases in uncivil behavior referred to as incivility spirals. The consequences of negative mentoring relationships and incivility spirals include negative emotions such as anger and frustration (Glasø, Vie, Holmdal, & Einarsen, 2010), affect-driven behavior such as retaliation (Ghosh, Dierkes, & Falletta, 2011), and redefinition of organizational norms (e.g., decrease in mutual respect, increase in aggressive climates) (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Ghosh et al. (2011) suggest that incivility spirals should be considered a form of deviant workplace behavior that can occur in mentoring relationships. In such highly important relationships as in the supervisor-subordinate relationship, the literature suggests it is especially critical to monitor mentoring behaviors.

Lian et al. (2012) suggested that negative treatment by supervisors can have a stronger impact when it occurs in the context of a supportive relationship rather than a non-supportive relationship. Drawing from self-determination theory which states that well-being is dependent on the satisfaction of fundamental human needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000); Lian et al. (2012) found that the impact of abusive supervision was exacerbated

when it occurred in the context of high LMX. Specifically, their results suggest that conflicts that occurred in highly supportive relationships had a detrimental effect on psychological well-being through its negative effect on need satisfaction that is described next.

According to self-determination theory, humans possess three fundamental needs that, when left unsatisfied, can have detrimental effects on well-being: the need for competence refers to the desire for success at challenging tasks and the procurement of valued outcomes (Skinner, 1995); the need for relatedness refers to the desire to feel a sense of mutual respect and interconnection among individuals (Baumeister & Leary, 1995); and the need for autonomy refers to the desire for control over how tasks are managed and how behavior is initiated (Ryan & Connell, 1989). When these fundamental needs are satisfied, individuals tend to have improved psychological adjustment, feel more engaged at work, and perform well (Deci et al., 2001; Greguras & Diefendorf, 2009). In contrast, when satisfaction of these needs is threatened, individuals' self-regulation and coping mechanisms are disrupted (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which may lead to aggressive behaviors (Shields, Ryan, & Cicchetti, 2001). For example, Aquino and Thau (2009) found that abusive supervision had a negative impact on psychological well-being because abused individuals experienced dissatisfaction in terms of belongingness, worthiness, and autonomy. Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002) found that supervisor support exacerbated the effects of abusive supervision in that, when subordinates perceived high supportive relationships with their supervisors, subsequent abuse was related to diminished control, loss of trust, and lowered coping resources.

The strength of the impact of abusive behavior in supportive relationships is determined by the fact that abusive behavior is surprising, rare, and unexpected (Fiske, 1980). In contrast, abusive behavior is more expected and less rare and surprising in low LMX relationships than in high LMX relationships. Also, because supervisors are an important source of resources and support, subordinates may feel particularly deprived of essential needs if their supervisor suddenly becomes abusive. When these essential needs are threatened in supportive relationships, especially when patterns such as incivility spirals emerge, individuals may feel particularly less willing to directly or indirectly (e.g., through organizational means) confront their abusers, further undermining their ethical principles and moral courage to rectify the situation.

Consistent with previous findings suggesting that supervisors' abusive behavior has a strong impact on victims' well-being and deviant behaviors when the abuse is accompanied with supervisors' supportive behavior, it is expected that the effect of abusive supervision on unethical retaliatory behaviors are exacerbated in high LMX supervisor-subordinate relationships. In accordance with Lian et al. (2012), psychological well-being is compromised when interpersonal conflicts occur in highly supportive relationships. Because individuals are motivated to maintain positive states of well-being, circumstances of high LMX relationships may exacerbate the effect of abusive supervision on moral courage and victims of abuse will desire to restore a sense of well-being by seeking revenge against sources of abuse or by displacing their anger towards other targets (e.g., the spouse). The expected effect is supported by findings from Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002) who explained that abusive supervision in highly supportive relationships between supervisors and subordinates is associated with lowered coping

resources. When coping resources are diminished, individuals have a high difficulty to self-regulate their moral selves and behave ethically (Jennings et al., in press). As such, it was hypothesized that LMX moderates the mediated relationship between abusive supervision and organizational deviance directed towards the supervisor.

Hypothesis 4: Leader-member exchange (LMX) moderates the indirect relationship between abusive supervision and organizational deviance (directed at the supervisor) through moral courage, such that the mediated effect is stronger when LMX is high (first stage moderation-mediation).

Role Quality as a Moderator

In the following section, I will describe how individuals' perceived quality of their family and work roles can have an impact on their behavior. Specifically, I will explain how positive perceptions of family and work roles can have a buffering effect on the desire to commit deviant acts aimed at supervisors and organizations, or undermining spouses, which are commonly associated with abusive supervision and decreased moral courage.

a. Family Role Quality. Previous studies have suggested that individuals' subjective experience at work or at home can permeate from one domain to the other and impact the dynamics in that domain (e.g., Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989). Experiences in either the work or home domain have been found in various studies to moderate the relationship between experiences in the other domain and psychological distress (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1992). The interaction between experiences in both work and non-work domains and distress helps determine how individuals cope with having multiple roles such as being employed full-time, being a spouse, a parent, and/or taking

care of older adults. For example, the dynamics of home life such as having an argument with a spouse or with a child have been found to have significant effects on work stress the following day (Bolger et al., 1989).

In terms of the moderating effect of role quality on multiple role domains and psychological distress, the rewarding aspects of one role has been found to have a positive effect on the overall role quality of another role and reduced psychological distress. Barnett, Marshall, and Pleck (1992), for example, found that when spousal experiences were positive, the relationship between job experiences and psychological distress was non-significant whereas when spousal experiences were negative, the relationship between job experiences and distress was exacerbated. Accordingly, it is expected that when marital role quality is high, individuals that perceive abuse from their supervisors will be less likely to experience this work-to-family behavioral conflict and as such, less likely to undermine their spouses.

Hypothesis 5: Marital role quality moderates the indirect relationship between abusive supervision and spousal undermining through moral courage such that the mediated relationship between abusive supervision and spousal undermining is weaker when marital role quality is high (second stage moderation-mediation).

b. Work Role Quality. There is an exhaustive stream of research that supports the idea that unique aspects of work roles can either have a positive or negative impact on psychological well-being. For example, it is well known that, using the Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model, core job dimensions such as task identity, task variety, autonomy, feedback, and task significance lead to critical psychological states (e.g., experienced meaningfulness, felt responsibility, knowledge of results) which

in turn lead to positive outcomes such as improved performance, job satisfaction, and decreased absenteeism, depending on the level of growth need strength. It is also well known that a deficiency in these job characteristics and role states (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload) can be important work stressors that contribute to physiological and psychological strains (see Jex & Beehr, 1991, for a review).

Interpersonal relationships in the workplace among supervisors and coworkers can also have serious psychological consequences. Supportive relationships can lead to positive outcomes whereas poor working relationships can lead to a variety of strains (e.g., Chen & Spector, 1991; Cooper & Marshall, 1978). Social support, in the form of relationships with supervisors, coworkers, or spouses/family members, however, has also been considered as a moderator or buffer in this stressor-strain relationship (e.g., Barnett, 1994; Kahn & Byosiere, 1992). In sum, job characteristics, role states, and interpersonal relationships, that encompass overall work role quality, have all been thoroughly examined in the work stress-strain relationship.

Work role quality, as conceptualized by Barnett, Marshall, Raudenbush, and Brennan (1993) includes rewarding and distressing aspects of the work role and includes job characteristics as well as the quality of interpersonal relationships. Barnett and colleagues developed a scale to measure this overall concept of work role quality and found that work role quality had a negative relationship with psychological distress. Subsequent studies found additional support for the relationship between work role quality and psychological distress by using a variety of samples and research designs (e.g., longitudinal) and focused on gender differences (Barnett, 1994; Barnett, Raudenbush, Brennan, Pleck, & Marshall, 1995). The effects of work role quality,

however, have yet to be examined in the context of work stressors such as abusive supervision and its outcomes. In terms of abusive supervision, work role quality, like social support and family role quality, is expected to buffer the relationship between the stressor (i.e., abuse) and negative outcomes (i.e., retaliatory behavior against the supervisor and the organization).

Hypothesis 6: Job role quality moderates the indirect relationship between abusive supervision and organizational deviance (directed at the supervisor) through moral courage such that the mediated effect of abusive supervision on supervisor-directed deviance is weaker when job role quality is high (second stage moderation-mediation).

Hypothesis 7: Job role quality moderates the indirect relationship between abusive supervision and organizational deviance (directed towards the organization) through moral courage such that the mediated effect of abusive supervision on organization-directed deviance is weaker when job role quality is high (second stage moderation-mediation).

Controlling for Gender and Negative Affect

Previous studies have suggested there are important gender differences for work-family dynamics (e.g., Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Kirchmeyer, 1992). The studies suggest men are more experienced in handling work stress whereas women are more experienced in handling dual-roles and coping with family stress and as such, men are more vulnerable to work-family spillover. Barnett (1994), however, argued that most studies that have demonstrated significant gender differences used uneven samples in which, for example, men were employed full-time and the women were employed part-

time. Schedule disparity, according to Barnett, can provide women more resources to cope with dual-role stressors and other aspects such as schedule flexibility and role quality that can account the gender differences. Role quality, specifically, was argued to explain the relationship between work and family spillover beyond gender differences. When accounting for the rewarding and constraining aspects of both work and family roles, Barnett found no gender differences in full-time employed dual-earner couples. As such, gender was controlled for but no gender differences were expected.

CHAPTER III: METHODS

Study 1

Study 1 is an investigation of all the variables used in this dissertation using data collected by self-report surveys. The analyses include a confirmatory factor analysis and a comparison of the eight-factor model with models with fewer than eight factors. The analysis also includes a test of the moderated-mediation model described in Figure 1. Specifically, the mediating effect of moral courage on the relationship between abusive supervision and unethical behaviors was tested; the moderating effect of LMX on the relationship between abusive supervision and moral courage was tested, and; the moderating effect of role quality on the relationship between abusive supervision and unethical behaviors, that is mediated by moral courage and moderated by LMX, was tested.

Participants and Procedures

For Study 1, participants were recruited using Amazon's Mechanical Turk, which has shown to provide diverse samples and reliable data (see Buhrmester, Kwang, &

Gosling, 2011). The method can provide large pools of participants that are demographically diverse from a variety of industries, organizations, and occupations. All participants were informed of the confidentiality of their responses and that they may withdraw from the study at any time. In order to be eligible, participants were required to be 18 years of age or older, have been working for same organization for at least two years, have been working under the same supervisor for at least two months, and be in a spousal relationship. Participants meeting these requirements followed an online link to the survey that verified their eligibility and obtained their consent to participate.

Three hundred and twenty one individuals came for participation of which 240 met the eligibility requirements and completed the survey. After screening the data for response bias and missing data, the final sample consisted of 200 individuals who were paid \$1 compensation for their participation in the study. The inclusion criteria required participants to answer all questions and answer correctly to at least three out of five verification conditions for response bias. Forty participants did not meet the inclusion criteria (33 failed to complete at least 90% of the survey and seven failed the verification conditions). The verification conditions included repeated items (e.g., “How long have you been working under the same supervisor”) that were presented at the beginning and at the end of the survey and instructed response items such as “Please select the answer strongly disagree”. These strategies have been shown to improve the quality of data by identifying cases of careless responding (Meade & Craig, 2012). The 200 participants that met the inclusion criteria reported their age within the range of 19 – 68 years ($M=34.42$, $SD=9.86$). There were 113 males (56.5%) and 87 females (43.5%) who reported to be predominantly White (82.0%), followed by Hispanic (8.0%), African

American (4.0%), Asian/Pacific Islander (4.0%), and two percent reported their ethnic background as “other”. The average reported organizational tenure was 5.42 years (SD=4.59) and participants reported to have been working under the same supervisor for an average of 3.70 years (SD=3.21). The participants reported to be working in a variety of industries including health care and social assistance (13.5%), educational services (10.5%), professional, scientific, and technical services (11.0%), information (8.5%), finance and insurance (8.0%), retail trade (7.0%) government (6.5%), and administrative and support services (6.0%). One hundred and seven participants (53.5%) reported having children and of those with child dependants, the average was 1.92 children (SD=0.96).

Measures

In order to ensure construct validity in data interpretation, reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s alpha; α) and average inter-item correlations (IICs) were determined for all measures. All the constructs were measured using previously validated measures. These measures are described below along with the number of items and examples, the number and type of anchor points used, and their respective reliability estimates.

Abusive supervision. Employee perceptions of abusive supervision were measured using Tepper’s (2000) 15-item scale. Participants rated the abusiveness of their supervisors on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me*) to 5 (*He/she uses this behavior very often with me*).

Examples of items include “My immediate supervisor breaks promises he/she makes” and “My immediate supervisor tells me I’m incompetent” (Study 1: $\alpha = 0.94$, IIC = 0.51).

Moral courage. Moral courage was assessed using the Hannah et al. (2011) three-item scale. Participants rated their levels of moral courage on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Example of items include “I will...always state my views about an ethical issue to my leaders” and “I will...go against the group’s decision whenever it violates my ethical standards” (Study 1: $\alpha = 0.88$, IIC = 0.71).

Supervisor-directed deviance. Retaliation against the supervisor was assessed using an adapted 10-item scale following the organizational deviance measures developed by Mitchell and Ambrose (2007). The adapted scale asks participants to report how often they engage in deviant behaviors aimed at their supervisor using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*). Examples of items include “Refused to talk to my supervisor” and “Gossiped about my supervisor” (Study 1: $\alpha = 0.85$, IIC = 0.36).

Organization-directed deviance. Retaliation against the organization was assessed using a scale derived from Bennett and Robinson’s (2000) organizational deviance scale. Participants indicated how often they have engaged in deviant behaviors aimed towards their organization on 12 items using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*). Examples of items include “I worked on personal matters instead of working for my employer” and “Came in late to work without permission” (Study 1: $\alpha = 0.83$, IIC = 0.29).

Spousal undermining. Spousal undermining was assessed using a five-item measure used by Restubog et al. (2011) that was adapted to previous undermining scales by replacing the referent (changing “supervisor” to “spouse/partner”) (e.g., Duffy et al.,

2002). Participants rated the extent to which they feel they undermined their partner using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*I cannot remember using this behavior towards him/her*) to 5 (*I always uses this behavior towards him/her*). Examples of items include “Criticizes him/her” and “Give him/her the silent treatment” (Study 1: $\alpha = 0.91$, IIC = 0.67).

Leader-member exchange (LMX). Subordinate perception of the quality of their relationship with their supervisor was assessed using the seven-item LMX-7 scale (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). Participants were asked to rate the quality of the relationship using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*completely*). Example items include “How well do you feel that your immediate supervisor understands your problems and needs” and “Do you know how satisfied your immediate supervisor is with what you do” (Study 1: $\alpha = 0.91$, IIC = 0.59).

Work role quality. Work role quality was assessed using Barnett’s (1993) job role quality measure (rewards and concerns). Because the focus of the study is on the positive aspects of role quality, the 32 items focusing on rewarding aspects of the work role were used. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which items are rewarding for them using a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*extremely*). Examples of items include “Being able to make decisions on your own” and “Having hours that fit your needs” (Study 1: $\alpha = 0.96$, IIC = 0.43).

Family role quality. Family role quality was assessed using part of Barnett’s (1993) measure of marital role quality (rewards and concerns). As with work role quality, only the items measuring rewarding aspects of the family role ($K = 26$) were used. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which items are rewarding for them

using a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*extremely*). Examples of items include “Your partner’s backing you up in what you do” and “Your partner being proud of you” (Study 1: $\alpha = 0.96$, IIC = 0.48).

Control variables. In line with previous research on abusive supervision, the effects of age, gender, number of children, organizational tenure, and negative affect were controlled for. Age was controlled because of evidence that older individuals tend to demonstrate more restraint in expressing emotional reactions (Carstensen, 1992). Gender was controlled for because of evidence that men and women respond differently to anger-provoking situations (Berkowitz, 1993). Number of children was controlled because of it has been associated with work-family conflict (e.g., Frone, Barnes, & Farrell, 1994). Organizational tenure and affect were controlled because they have been found to be associated with aggressive behaviors at work (e.g., Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Robinson & O’Leary-Kelly, 1998). Age, gender, organizational tenure, and number of children were measured as descriptive variables while affect was measured using the 10 item from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1998) that reflect negative affect traits. Participants used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*) to indicate the extent to which they felt “afraid”, “distressed”, “jittery”, and “upset” during the past month (Study 1: $\alpha = 0.92$, IIC = 0.53). Although these control variables were considered in the analyses, some control variables (e.g., negative affect) may have been removed if they did not have a substantial influence on the results. Chen and Spector (2000) made the compelling argument that controlling for variables such as negative affect may obscure the biasing or substantive role of such variables on the main variables of interest.

Notably, some respondents may have felt uncomfortable sharing information regarding sensitive issues such as abusive behaviors of their supervisors or undermining behaviors towards their spouses. Because compensation may have been a motivating factor, however, participants may have completed the survey while suppressing their reporting of abusive supervision or spousal undermining. As such, the occurrence of abusive supervision in the current study ($M = 1.51$) was compared to previous studies using the same response scales in which participation was not based on compensation or rewards: Tepper (2000; $M = 1.38$) and Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy (2002; $M = 1.70$). No significant differences were found. Similarly, the occurrence of spousal undermining in the current study ($M = 1.99$) was compared to that in Restubog et al. (2011; $M = 2.17$) and in Westman and Vinokur (1998; $M = 1.90$) and no significant differences were found; providing some support against suppressed reporting.

Data Analysis

To account for potential problems of multicollinearity, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted to ensure the distinctiveness of all study variables and determine best model fit. Using Mplus data analysis software, the full eight-factor model was evaluated and compared to other models with fewer combined variables that were highly correlated; That is, the eight-factor model was compared to seven, six, five, and four factor models For example, the eight-factor model was compared to alternative models that combined abusive supervision and LMX items, models that combined spousal undermining and deviance items, and models that combined role quality items.

To test the hypotheses, regression analyses were performed to determine the predictive value of abusive supervision on the mediator (i.e., moral courage; Hypothesis

1), and the mediator on all of the outcome variables (i.e., supervisor-directed deviance, organization-directed deviance, and spousal undermining; Hypotheses 2a to 2c). In addition to tests for mediation effects on the outcome variables (Hypotheses 3a to 3c) which tests direct effects separately, the analyses used the joint significance test of effects proposed by MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002). The joint significance test incorporates indirect effects and has been shown to provide a better balance of Type 1 errors and statistical power than the traditional Baron and Kenny (1986) approach. Finally, to test for moderation-mediation effects (Hypotheses 4 to 7), a statistical approach conceptualized by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) was used which allows for tests of indirect effects for assessing moderated-mediation. Specifically, the method estimates the conditional indirect effect of a single independent variable (e.g., abusive supervision) on each outcome variable separately (e.g., supervisor-directed deviance) through a single mediator variable (i.e., moral courage), and conditional on a moderator of the a-path (i.e., the abusive supervision to moral courage path, moderated by LMX) and b-paths (i.e., the moral courage to supervisor-directed, organization-directed deviance, and spousal undermining paths, moderated by work or family role quality). The process can also be referred to as first (a-path) and second (b-path) stage moderation, as described by Edwards and Lambert (2007) that also reduces the likelihood of Type 1 error.

Study 2

Participants and Procedures

To provide a thorough examination of study variables and account for potential inherent limitations of study measurement and design, Study 1 was replicated using a

second sample. Specifically, common method variance (CMV) and generalizability issues have been found to be among the most commonly reported limitations in organizational research surveys (Brutus, Gill, & Duniewicz, 2012). To reduce the effect of CMV and improve the generalizability of results, the second sample consisted of married couples that provided ‘other’ rather than ‘self’ accounts of spousal undermining. For the second sample, participants were recruited by asking undergraduate students in two psychology courses at a large urban university in South Florida to provide surveys to their parents or relatives. The location of the study is also notable because of the unique demographical diversity of the South Florida, which holds a large Hispanic community that allows for both replication and additional generalizability of the study findings with an ethnically diverse sample. Similarly to the first study, the conditions of participation required that individuals be at least 18 years of age, be employed at the same organization for at least two years, have been working under the same supervisor for at least two months, and be in a committed relationship with a spouse. Self-report and spousal (other report) data were collected; participants were asked to provide unique identity codes on the questionnaire to allow for individuals to match their responses with their spouse, and were asked to provide a valid email address to verify the veracity of their participants and to discourage ineligible students from completing the surveys themselves.

A total of 375 individuals completed the survey questionnaires. After screening the data for response bias (12 cases), missing data (44 cases), and correct spouse matching (31 cases), data from 288 participants representing 144 couples were included for the analyses. The students that recruited each couple were awarded one extra course credit per couple up to two credits. In addition, twenty individuals were contacted via

email to ensure they did in fact participate in the study. As in the first study, the inclusion criteria required participants to answer all questions and answer correctly to at least three out of five instructed response items.

For the 144 working participants, the reported age range was 20 – 65 years ($M=40.43$, $SD=12.96$). There were 83 males (57.6%) and 61 females (42.4%) who reported to be predominantly Hispanic (73.6%), followed by White (15.3%), African American (4.9%), Asian/Pacific Islander (3.5%), and 2.8% reported their ethnic background as “other”. The average reported organizational tenure was 8.96 years ($SD=7.92$) and participants reported to have been working under the same supervisor for an average of 5.85 years ($SD=6.35$). The participants reported to be working in a variety of industries including health care (16.0%), management (7.6%), information (7%), wholesale trade (7%), finance and insurance (6.9%), educational services (6.9%), and government (6.9%). The majority of participants (69.4%) reported having children and of those, had an average of 2.17 children ($SD=0.80$).

For the 144 spouses, the reported age range was 18 – 64 years ($M=40.01$, $SD=11.91$). There were 59 males (41.0%) and 85 females (59.0%) who reported to be predominantly Hispanic (73.6%), followed by White (18.8%), Asian/Pacific Islander (4.2%), African American (1.4%), and 1.4% reported their ethnic background as “other”. Notably, two couples were matched as same-sex couples.

Measures

As in Study 1, in order to ensure construct validity in data interpretation, reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s alpha; α) and average inter-item correlations (IICs) were determined for all measures. All the constructs were measured using the same

previously validated measures that were used in Study 1, except for spousal undermining which was adapted for the current study ('other' rather than 'self' report). The measured constructs are summarized below.

Abusive supervision. Employee perceptions of abusive supervision was measured using Tepper's (2000) 15-item scale (Study 2: $\alpha = 0.96$, IIC = 0.62).

Moral courage. Moral courage was assessed using the Hannah et al. (2011) three-item scale (Study 2: $\alpha = 0.89$, IIC = 0.73).

Supervisor-directed deviance. Retaliation against the supervisor was assessed using the adapted 10-item scale based on the organizational deviance measures developed by Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) (Study 2: $\alpha = 0.88$, IIC = 0.42).

Organization-directed deviance. Retaliation against the organization was assessed using the scale based on Bennett and Robinson's (2000) organizational deviance scale (Study 2: $\alpha = 0.89$, IIC = 0.40).

Spousal undermining. Spousal undermining (other report) was assessed using the original five-item measure used by Restubog et al. (2011) (note that Study 1 adapted this scale for 'self' report). Participants rated the extent to which they feel they were undermined by their spouse using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*I cannot remember him/her using this behavior towards me*) to 5 (*He/She always uses this behavior towards me*). Examples of items include "Criticizes me" and "Gives me the silent treatment" (Study 2: $\alpha = 0.91$, IIC = 0.67).

Leader-member exchange (LMX). Subordinate perception of the quality of their relationship with their supervisor was assessed using the seven-item LMX-7 scale (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994) (Study 2: $\alpha = 0.91$, IIC = 0.59).

Work role quality. Work role quality was assessed using Barnett's (1993) 32 item job role quality measure (Study 2: $\alpha = 0.97$, IIC = 0.50).

Family role quality. Family role quality was assessed using Barnett's (1993) 26 item marital role quality measure (Study 2: $\alpha = 0.96$, IIC = 0.48).

Control variables. As in Study 1 and in line with previous research on abusive supervision, the effects of age, gender, number of children, organizational tenure, and negative affect (Study 2: $\alpha = 0.89$, IIC = 0.45) were controlled for. In terms of suppressed reporting, the occurrence of abusive supervision in the study 2 ($M = 1.66$) was comparable to study 1 results ($M = 1.51$) and previous studies such as Tepper (2000; $M = 1.38$) and Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy (2002; $M = 1.70$). The occurrence of spousal undermining ($M = 2.18$) was also comparable to study 1 results ($M = 1.99$) and previous studies such as Restubog et al. (2011; $M = 2.17$) and in Westman and Vinokur (1998; $M = 1.90$). As such, both Studies 1 and 2 provided evidence against suppressed reporting.

Data Analysis

The same data analyses procedures from Study 1 were performed in Study 2. Specifically, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were first conducted to ensure the distinctiveness of all study variables and determine best model fit. The eight-factor model was evaluated and compared to the same alternative models used in Study 1.

To test the hypotheses in Study 2, the same mediation and moderated-mediation models that were used in Study 1 were analyzed. Specifically, direct and indirect effects and interactions were estimated for both a-path and b-path variables along with the conditional indirect effects for both moderators on the indirect effect of abusive supervision on all outcome variables through moral courage.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

Study 1

The results of the first study include: [1] Confirmatory factor analyses to ensure appropriate item discrimination and to compare the model fit of the hypothesized model to simpler alternative models; [2] descriptive statistics and correlation analyses; and hypotheses testing using both a [3a] mediation model that illustrates direct and indirect paths and a [3b] moderated-mediation model using the approach recommended by Preacher et al. (2007) to determine conditional indirect effects.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Before testing the study hypotheses, a set of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) were conducted to evaluate the discriminant validity of the variables. The hypothesized measurement model was first evaluated using all indicators on the eight model factors and the factor loadings are summarized in Table 1 in the appendix. Notably, the fit indices such as the comparative fit index (CFI) should be interpreted with caution because low inter-item correlations can account for lower-than-desired fit indices. The full model had acceptable fit with the observed data $\chi^2(5865, N = 200) = 12428.47, p < .001$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .63; Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = .63; and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .08. The standardized path estimates of the indicators (ranging between .32 and .90) were all statistically significant ($p < .05$). The measurement model was also compared to alternative models with fewer variables. As shown in Table 2, the eight factor model had the best fit and results of chi-square tests demonstrate that simplifying the model did not improve model fit. The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1974) was also examined across the models to

Table 2

Confirmatory Factor Analyses of the Full Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 1

Model	X^2	df	X^2/df	X^2diff	AIC	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Model 1: represents the eight independent factors.	12428.47	5865	2.12		45999.04	0.63	0.63	0.08	0.08
Model 2: combined supervisor and organization directed deviance.	12595.30	5870	2.15	166.83***	46155.87	0.62	0.62	0.08	0.08
Model 3: combined supervisor and organization directed deviance; and combined LMX and WRQ.	13225.99	5874	2.25	630.69***	46778.57	0.59	0.58	0.08	0.09
Model 4: combined supervisor and organization directed deviance and spousal undermining into F1, FRQ and WRQ into F2, abusive supervision into F3, moral courage into F4, and FRQ into F5.	15518.62	5870	2.64	2292.63***	49079.20	0.46	0.45	0.09	0.13
Model 5: combined abusive supervision and LMX into F1, supervisor and organization directed deviance and spousal undermining into F2, FRQ and WRQ into F3, and moral courage into F4.	15935.93	5873	2.71	417.31***	49490.51	0.44	0.42	0.09	0.13

Note: *** $p < .001$; AIC = Akaike information criterion; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standard root mean square residual; F = factor. X^2diff = Difference between more complex model and simpler model (i.e., one less factor); control = affect; critical value $p < .001$ $X^2(7) = 24.32$

examine which model had the best support. The AIC was previously used in studies in order to determine in which model the data demonstrate the best fit in models (e.g., Michel, Pace, Edun, Sawhney, & Thomas, 2014). The AIC for the baseline (i.e., eight-factor model) was 45,999.04 in comparison to the seven-factor model = 46,155.87; the six-factor model = 46,778.57; the five-factor model = 49,079.20; and the four-factor model = 49,490.51; indicating the eight-factor fit the data best.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 3 summarizes the descriptive statistics, means, standard deviations, and correlations among the main study variables. In terms of the sample descriptive variables, age was significantly related with spousal undermining ($r = .16, p < .05$) and family role quality ($r = -.19, p < .01$). Gender was related to supervisor-directed deviance ($r = -.14, p < .05$). A one-way between-subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare the effect of gender on supervisor-directed deviance. There was a significant effect of gender on supervisor-directed deviance, $F(1, 198) = 4.15, p = .04$ indicating that females ($M = 1.27, SD = 0.38$) reported engaging in supervisor-directed deviance significantly less than men ($M = 1.39, SD = 0.48$). There were no notable significant correlations between tenure in the organization, tenure with the same supervisor, and number of children with the eight main study variables. For ethnicity, one-way between-subjects ANOVAs were conducted to compare the effects of ethnicity on the eight main study variables. There was a significant effect of ethnicity on abusive supervision, $F(4, 195) = 2.43, p = .05$, moral courage, $F(4, 195) = 3.25, p = .02$, and work role quality, $F(4, 195) = 2.87, p = .02$. Post-hoc tests, using Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) revealed that Hispanics ($M = 1.20, SD = 0.25$) reported significantly lower abusive supervision than Caucasians (1.58,

Table 3

Means, standard deviations, and pairwise correlations among variables for Study 1

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Abusive supervision	1.51	0.65	(.94, .51)							
2 Moral courage	5.48	1.05	-.13	(.88, .71)						
3 Sup. directed dev.	1.34	0.44	.54**	-.26**	(.85, .36)					
4 Org. directed dev.	1.72	0.53	.29**	-.23**	.54**	(.83, .29)				
5 Spousal undermining	1.99	1.07	.42**	-.17*	.58**	.38**	(.91, .67)			
6 LMX	3.51	0.89	-.64**	.25**	-.36**	-.20**	-.27**	(.91, .59)		
7 Work role quality	2.73	0.63	-.32**	.22**	-.15*	-.25**	-.15*	.56**	(.96, .43)	
8 Family role quality	3.27	0.57	-.07	.24**	-.10	-.14	-.23**	.16*	.34**	(.96, .48)

Note: * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$: LMX = Leader Member Exchange; Cronbach alpha reliability estimates and average inter-item correlations are on the diagonal; N = 200.

SD = 0.69); Hispanics (M = 5.98, SD = 0.91) also reported significantly higher moral courage than Caucasians (M = 5.42, SD = 1.01); and African Americans (M = 3.11, SD = 0.42) reported higher work role quality than Caucasians (M = 2.68, SD = 0.56). These comparisons, however, should be interpreted with caution because of small sample sizes for Hispanics (N = 16) and African Americans (N = 8).

Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses testing involved a variety of statistical procedure including pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients to determine relationships between variables (Hypotheses 1 and 2a-2c), illustrated in Table 3. Mediation analyses to determine direct and indirect effects and moderated-mediation analyses on the a-path (i.e., abusive supervision to moral courage) and b-paths (e.g., moral courage to organization-directed deviance) are illustrated in Table 4 for supervisor-directed deviance, Table 5 for organization-directed deviance, and Table 6 for spousal undermining (see appendix).

Hypotheses 1 and 2a-2c predicted relationships between the a-path and b-path variables, respectively. The relationship between abusive supervision and moral courage was not statistically significance ($r = -.13, p = .06$); providing no support for Hypothesis 1. Moral courage was significantly related to supervisor-directed deviance ($r = -.26, p < .01$), organization-directed deviance ($r = -.23, p < .01$), and spousal undermining ($r = -.17, p < .05$), providing support for Hypotheses 2a-2c. Abusive supervision also demonstrated a significant relationship with supervisor-directed deviance ($r = .54, p < .01$), organization-directed deviance ($r = .29, p < .01$), and spousal undermining ($r = .42, p < .01$). Hypotheses 3a-3c predicted an indirect effect between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed deviance, organization-directed deviance, and spousal undermining,

respectively, through moral courage. These hypotheses were partially supported. Specifically, there was no significant direct effect of abusive supervision on moral courage (a effect = $-.21$, $p = .06$) and there was no significant direct effect of moral courage on spousal undermining ($b3$ effect = $-.11$, $p = .07$). There was a significant direct effect of moral courage on supervisor-directed deviance ($b1$ effect = $-.08$, $p < .001$) and organization-directed deviance ($b2$ effect = $-.10$, $p < .001$); and a significant indirect effect through moral courage on supervisor-directed deviance ($indirect$ effect = $.02$, $CI_{95} = .00, .06$). The indirect effects of abusive supervision on organization-directed deviance and spousal undermining, through moral courage, were not significant. Hypothesis 4 predicted that LMX would moderate the indirect effects from abusive supervision to supervisor-directed deviance, such that the indirect effect is stronger when LMX is high. These hypotheses were supported with a significant interaction term on the abusive supervision to moral courage a-path (effect = $-.49$, $p < .001$). Hypothesis 5 predicted that family role quality would moderate the indirect effects from hypothesis 3c, such that the indirect effect is weaker when family role quality is high. This hypothesis was not supported with a non-significant interaction term on the moral courage to spousal undermining b-path (interaction effect = $-.09$, $p = .41$). Hypotheses 6 and 7 predicted that work role quality would moderate the indirect effects from hypotheses 3a and 3b, respectively, such that the indirect effects are weaker when work role quality is high. These hypotheses were not supported. The interaction term on the moral courage to supervisor-directed deviance indirect b-path (interaction effect = $.01$, $p = .70$) and to organization-directed deviance indirect b-path (interaction effect = $-.02$, $p = .63$) were non-significant. Hence, the results did not provide support for Hypotheses 6 and 7.

Comparisons between the mediation and moderated-mediation models indicate that LMX as a moderator provided an additional 12% variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .12$) in moral courage; that work role quality (WRQ) as a moderator provided an additional 1% variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .01$) in supervisor-directed deviance; an additional 2% variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .02$) in organization-directed deviance; and that family role quality (FRQ) as a moderator provided an additional 4% variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .04$) in spousal undermining. These moderating indirect effects are demonstrated through changes in the level of LMX, WRQ and FRQ. For example, in the case of supervisor-directed deviance, low LMX/low WRQ (*indirect effect* = -.01, $CI_{.95} = -.05, .02$), mean LMX/mean WRQ (*indirect effect* = .03, $CI_{.95} = -.01, .11$), and high LMX/high WRQ (*indirect effect* = .06, $CI_{.95} = .00, .21$). In the case of organization-directed deviance, low LMX/low WRQ (*indirect effect* = -.01, $CI_{.95} = -.06, .02$), mean LMX/mean WRQ (*indirect effect* = .03, $CI_{.95} = -.00, .13$), and high LMX/high WRQ (*indirect effect* = .08, $CI_{.95} = .00, .29$). In the case of spousal undermining, however, conditional indirect effects were all non-significant. Collectively, these results suggest that the indirect effect between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed and organization-directed deviance is conditional upon LMX and WRQ, such that higher levels of LMX increase the indirect effect while higher levels of WRQ decrease the indirect effect.

Study 2

Similar to Study 1, the results of the second study include: [1] Confirmatory factor analyses to ensure appropriate item discrimination, to compare the model fit of the hypothesized model to simpler alternative models; [2] descriptive statistics and correlation analyses; and hypotheses testing using both a [3a] mediation model that

illustrates direct and indirect paths and a [3b] moderated-mediation model using the approach recommended by Preacher et al. (2007) to determine conditional indirect effects.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Before testing the study hypotheses, a set of CFAs were conducted to evaluate the discriminant validity of the variables. The hypothesized measurement model was evaluated using all indicators on the eight model factors and the factor loadings are summarized in Table 7 in the appendix. As in Study 1, fit indices should be interpreted with caution considering that low inter-item correlations can account for less-than-desired fit indices. This model had acceptable fit with the observed data: $\chi^2 (5857, N = 144) = 13057.55, p < .001$; CFI = .56; TLI = .55; RMSEA = .09; and SRMR = .08. The standardized path estimates of the indicators (ranging between .33 and .92) were all statistically significant ($p < .05$). This measurement model was also compared to alternative smaller models. As shown in Table 8, the eight factor model had the best fit and results of chi-square difference tests and examining the AIC values indicate that simplifying the model did not improve model fit. The AIC values showed the following results: the eight factor model = 31,712.44; seven factor model = 31,821.38; six factor model = 32,122.92; five factor model = 34,303.19; and the four factor model = 34,745.47.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 9 summarizes the descriptive statistics, means, standard deviations, and correlations among descriptive and main study variables. In terms of the sample descriptive variables, the age and gender of workers and their respective spouses were not

Table 8

Confirmatory Factor Analyses of the Full Measurement Model and Alternative Models in Study 2

Model	X^2	Df	X^2/df	X^2diff	AIC	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Model 1: represents the eight independent factors.	13057.55	5857	2.23		31712.44	0.56	0.55	0.09	0.08
Model 2: combined supervisor and organization directed deviance.	13169.73	5864	2.25	112.18***	31821.38	0.55	0.54	0.09	0.08
Model 3: combined supervisor and organization directed deviance; and combined LMX and WRQ.	13483.27	5870	2.30	313.54***	32122.92	0.53	0.52	0.10	0.08
Model 4: combined supervisor and organization directed deviance and spousal undermining into F1, FRQ and WRQ into F2, abusive supervision into F3, moral courage into F4, and FRQ into F5.	15673.54	5875	2.67	2190.27***	34303.19	0.40	0.38	0.11	0.13
Model 5: combined abusive supervision and LMX into F1, supervisor and organization directed deviance and spousal undermining into F2, FRQ and WRQ into F3, and moral courage into F4.	16123.82	5879	2.74	450.28***	34745.47	0.37	0.36	0.11	0.15

Note: *** $p < .001$; AIC = Akaike information criterion; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standard root mean square residual; F = factor. X^2diff = Difference between more complex model and simpler model (i.e., one less factor); control = affect; critical value $p < .001$ $X^2(7) = 24.32$

Table 9

Means, standard deviations, and pairwise correlations among variables for Study 2

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Abusive supervision	1.66	0.83	(.96, .62)							
2 Moral courage	5.80	1.19	-.33**	(.89, .73)						
3 Sup. directed dev.	1.28	0.44	.42**	-.30**	(.88, .42)					
4 Org. directed dev.	1.43	0.46	.36**	-.40**	.71**	(.89, .40)				
5 Spousal undermining	2.18	1.18	.19*	-.11	.25**	.19*	(.91, .67)			
6 LMX	3.67	0.88	-.49**	.44**	-.33**	-.28**	-.10	(.91, .59)		
7 Work role quality	3.08	0.60	-.34**	.42**	-.37**	-.38**	-.08	.64**	(.97, .50)	
8 Family role quality	3.37	0.56	-.16	.20*	-.26**	-.27**	-.31**	.21*	.28**	(.96, .48)

Note: * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$: LMX = Leader Member Exchange; Cronbach alpha reliability estimates and average inter-item correlations are on the diagonal; $N = 144$.

significantly related to any study variables. For the working participants, tenure within the organization was not significantly related to any study variables but tenure with the same supervisor, however, was related to organization-directed deviance ($r = -.18, p < .05$) and work role quality ($r = .26, p < .01$). The number of children was significantly related to abusive supervision ($r = -.28, p < .01$), supervisor-directed deviance ($r = -.26, p < .05$), and LMX ($r = .23, p < .05$). For ethnicity, one-way between-subjects ANOVAs were conducted to compare the effects of ethnicity on the eight main study variables. There was a significant effect of ethnicity on LMX, $F(4, 139) = 5.27, p = .001$ and work role quality, $F(4, 139) = 2.67, p = .04$. Post-hoc LSD tests revealed that Hispanics ($M = 3.52, SD = 0.88$) and African Americans ($M = 3.35, SD = 0.85$) reported significantly lower LMX than Caucasians ($4.28, SD = 0.68$). Hispanics ($M = 3.01, SD = 0.62$) also reported lower work role quality than Caucasians ($M = 3.32, SD = 0.49$). These comparisons, however, should be interpreted with caution because of small sample sizes for Caucasians ($N = 22$) and African Americans ($N = 7$).

Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses testing involved the same statistical procedures as in Study 1 including correlations (Hypotheses 1 and 2a-2c), illustrated in Table 9; mediation and moderated-mediation analyses on the a-path (i.e., abusive supervision to moral courage) and b-paths (i.e., moral courage to supervisor-directed deviance, organization-directed deviance, and spousal undermining, illustrated in Tables 10, 11, and 12, respectively, in the appendix).

Hypotheses 1 and 2a-2c predicted relationships between the a-path and b-path variables, respectively. The relationship between abusive supervision and moral courage was

statistical significant ($r = -.33, p < .01$), providing support for Hypothesis 1. Moral courage was significantly related to supervisor-directed deviance ($r = -.30, p < .01$), organization-directed deviance ($r = -.40, p < .01$), but not spousal undermining ($r = -.11, p = .16$), providing support for Hypotheses 2a and 2b but not Hypothesis 2c. Abusive supervision also demonstrated a significant relationship with supervisor-directed deviance ($r = .42, p < .01$), organization-directed deviance ($r = .36, p < .01$), and spousal undermining ($r = .19, p < .05$). Hypotheses 3a-3c predicted an indirect effect between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed deviance, organization-directed deviance, and spousal undermining, respectively, through moral courage. Results provide support for the indirect effect of abusive supervision on supervisor-directed deviance (H3a) and organization-directed deviance (H3b) but not for spousal undermining (H3c). Specifically, there was a significant direct effect of abusive supervision on moral courage ($a\ effect = -.47, p < .001$), moral courage to supervisor-directed deviance direct effect ($b1\ effect = -.06, p < .05$) and moral courage to organization-directed deviance direct effect ($b2\ effect = -.12, p < .001$); and significant indirect effects through moral courage on supervisor-directed deviance ($indirect\ effect = .03, CI_{.95} = .00, .08$) and organization-directed deviance ($indirect\ effect = .06, CI_{.95} = .02, .13$). Both the direct effect of moral courage to spousal undermining ($b3\ effect = -.05, p = .56$) and the indirect effect through moral courage on spousal undermining ($indirect\ effect = .02, CI_{.95} = -.03, .14$) were not statistically significant. Hypothesis 4 predicted that LMX would moderate the indirect effects from abusive supervision to supervisor-directed deviance, such that the indirect effect is stronger when LMX is high. Hypothesis 4 was not supported with a non-significant interaction term on the abusive supervision to moral courage a-path ($effect = -$

.26, $p = .06$). Hypothesis 5 predicted that family role quality would moderate the indirect effects from hypothesis 3c, such that the indirect effect is weaker when family role quality is high. This hypothesis was not supported with a non-significant interaction term on the moral courage to spousal undermining b-path (*interaction effect* = .06, $p = .69$). Hypotheses 6 and 7 predicted that work role quality would moderate the indirect effects from hypotheses 3a and 3b, respectively, such that the indirect effects are weaker when work role quality is high. These hypotheses were partially supported. The interaction term on the moral courage to supervisor-directed deviance b-path was non-significant (*interaction effect* = .09, $p = .12$) while the interaction term on the moral courage to organization-directed deviance b-path was significant (*interaction effect* = .17, $p < .001$). Hence, there was no evidence for Hypothesis 6 while Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Comparisons between the mediation and moderated-mediation models indicate that LMX as a moderator provided an additional 12% variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .12$) in moral courage; that WRQ as a moderator provided an additional 2% variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .02$) in supervisor-directed deviance and an additional 6% variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .06$) in organization-directed deviance; and that FRQ as a moderator provided an additional 8% variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .08$) in spousal undermining. These moderating indirect effects are demonstrated through changes in the level of LMX, WRQ, and FRQ. For example, in the case of supervisor-directed deviance, low LMX/low WRQ (*indirect effect* = .01, $CI_{.95} = -.01, .06$), mean LMX/mean WRQ (*indirect effect* = .01, $CI_{.95} = -.01, .04$), and high LMX/high WRQ (*indirect effect* = -.02, $CI_{.95} = -.09, .02$). In the case of organization-directed deviance, low LMX/low WRQ (*indirect effect* = .02, $CI_{.95} = -.03, .08$), mean LMX/mean WRQ (*indirect effect* = .02, $CI_{.95} = -.00, .07$) and high LMX/high

WRQ (*indirect effect* = -.03, $CI_{.95}$ = -.10, .05). In the case of spousal undermining, conditional indirect effects were all non-significant. Hence, these results suggest that the indirect effect between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed and organization-directed deviance is partly conditional upon levels of LMX and WRQ.

Additional Analyses: Structural-Regression Models

In order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the data, structural-regression models were analyzed using Mplus data software. Structural-regression models allow for the examination of model fit statistics for moderation and mediation analyses while accounting for all variable indicators. For Study 1, CFI = 0.63; TLI = 0.62; RMSEA = 0.08; and SRMR = 0.08. For Study 2, CFI = 0.56; TLI = 0.55; RMSEA = 0.09; and SRMR = 0.09. The factor loadings for indicators are summarized in Table 1 for Study 1 and Table 7 for Study 2. The eight factor moderated-mediation structural-regression models are summarized in Table 13 for Study 1 and Table 14 for Study 2.

Results of the structural-regression models provide additional support for the data in Study 1 and Study 2. For example, results of Study 1 demonstrated a non-significant relationship between abusive supervision and moral courage (Hypothesis 1) whereas this relationship was significant in Study 2. When taking into consideration all indicators, the relationship between abusive supervision and moral courage was again non-significant in Study 1 and significant in Study 2, providing additional support to the data analyses. In terms of the outcome variables, the structural-regression models of Study 1 and Study 2 provide additional support for the direct and indirect effects of abusive supervision on supervisor-directed deviance and organization-directed deviance (through moral courage; moderated by LMX and WRQ; Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 3a, 3b, 4a, 4b, 6, and 7), and

Table 13

Structural-Regression Eight-Factor Model of Abusive Supervision for Study 1

Direct Effects	Unstandardized		SE	Standardized		SE
<i>Moral Courage as DV (a-path)</i>						
Abusive Supervision	0.05		0.15	0.04		0.11
Abusive Supervision*LMX	0.27	**	0.11	0.28	**	0.11
<i>Supervisor-Directed Deviance as DV (b2-path)</i>						
Moral Courage	-0.14	**	0.05	-0.19	**	0.07
Moral Courage*Work Role Quality	0.05		0.05	0.06		0.06
Abusive Supervision	0.60	***	0.07	0.60	***	0.06
<i>Organization-Directed Deviance as DV (b1-path)</i>						
Moral Courage	-0.15	**	0.06	-0.20	**	0.08
Moral Courage*Work Role Quality	-0.20	**	0.06	-0.23	***	0.07
Abusive Supervision	0.20	**	0.08	0.20	**	0.08
<i>Spousal Undermining as DV (b3-path)</i>						
Moral Courage	-0.10		0.09	-0.08		0.07
Moral Courage*Family Role Quality	-0.29	**	0.10	-0.16	**	0.06
Abusive Supervision	0.67	***	0.12	0.41	***	0.06

Notes: *** $p < .001$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$; Comparative fit index (CFI = 0.63); Tucker-Lewis index (TLI = 0.62); Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = 0.08); Standard root mean square residual (SRMR = 0.08); N = 200.

Table 14

Structural-Regression Eight-Factor Model of Abusive Supervision for Study 2

Direct Effects	Unstandardized		SE	Standardized		SE
<i>Moral Courage as DV (a path)</i>						
Abusive Supervision	-0.21		0.13	-0.15		0.09
Abusive Supervision*LMX	0.52	***	0.12	0.43	***	0.09
<i>Supervisor-Directed Deviance as DV (b2 path)</i>						
Moral Courage	-0.07		0.04	-0.16		0.10
Moral Courage*Work Role Quality	-0.13	*	0.06	-0.19	*	0.09
Abusive Supervision	0.15	**	0.05	0.28	***	0.09
<i>Organization-Directed Deviance as DV (b1 path)</i>						
Moral Courage	-0.10	**	0.03	-0.30	***	0.09
Moral Courage*Work Role Quality	-0.12	**	0.05	-0.23	**	0.09
Abusive Supervision	0.09	*	0.04	0.20	*	0.09
<i>Spousal Undermining as DV (b3 path)</i>						
Moral Courage	0.01		0.11	0.01		0.11
Moral Courage*Family Role Quality	-0.58	***	0.18	-0.30	***	0.09
Abusive Supervision	0.28		0.15	0.19	*	0.10

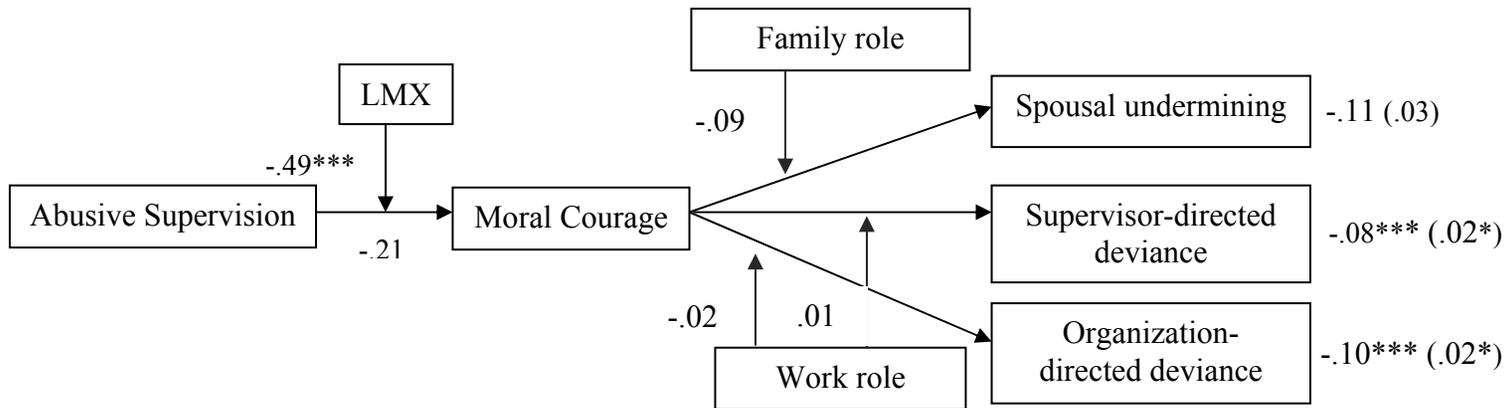
Notes: *** $p < .001$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$; Comparative fit index (CFI = 0.56); Tucker-Lewis index (TLI = 0.55); Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = 0.09); Standard root mean square residual (SRMR = 0.09); N = 144 couples.

inconsistent results for the spousal undermining outcome, as in Study 1 and Study 2 (Hypotheses 2c, 3c, 4c, 5). Specifically, when comparing the two samples measurement models and structural-regression models, results demonstrate the following: the relationship between abusive supervision and moral courage was only significant in the measurement model of study 2. Moral courage had a significant negative effect on supervisor-directed deviance in all the analyses except for the structural-regression model in Study 2. Moral courage had a significant negative effect on organization-directed deviance in all the analyses. Moral courage did not have a significant effect on spousal undermining across all analyses. The interaction between abusive supervision and LMX (a-path) on outcome variables was not consistently significant across all analyses. The interaction between WRQ and supervisor-directed deviance (b-path) was not significant across all analyses except in the structural-regression model in Study 2. The interaction between WRQ and organization-directed deviance (b-path) was significant across all analyses except in the measurement model in Study 1. The interaction between FRQ and spousal undermining was not significant in the measurement models but it was significant in the structural-regression models.

Results Summary

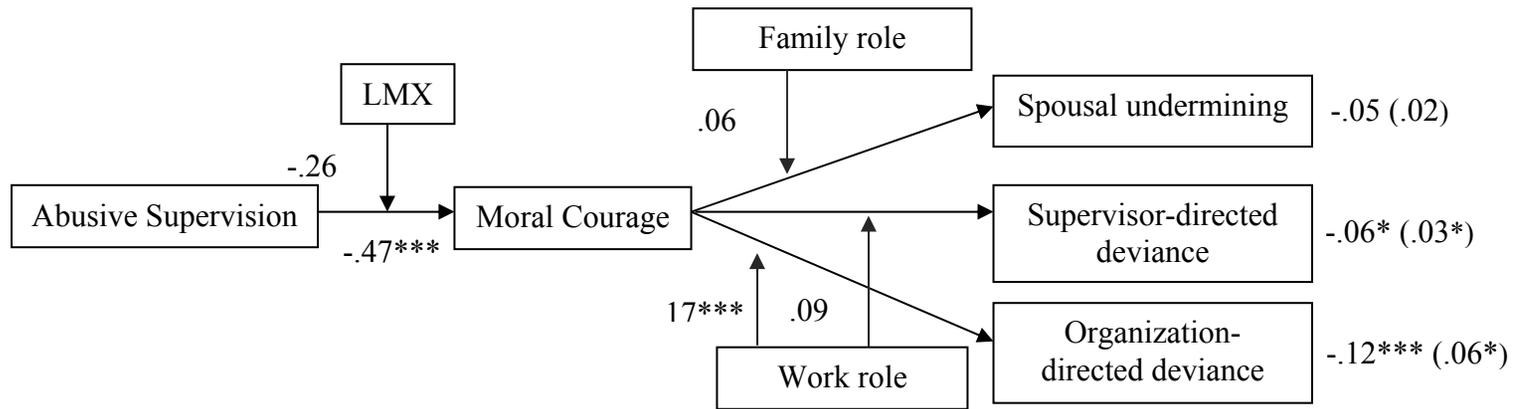
Results are demonstrated visually in Figure 2 and Figure 3 for both respective studies. Notably, in line with Chen and Spector (2000), the control variables (e.g., negative affect, age, tenure, etc.) were removed from consideration because they did not have a substantial influence on the data. Overall, the results of my dissertation provide some evidence to the effects of abusive supervision on outcome variables and the

Figure 2: Moderation-mediation model of abusive supervision in Study 1



Notes: All path coefficients are non-standardized. Paths in parentheses represent indirect paths from abusive supervision (through moral courage); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange.

Figure 3: Moderation-mediation model of abusive supervision in Study 2



Notes: All path coefficients are non-standardized. Paths in parentheses represent indirect paths from abusive supervision (through moral courage); *p < .05, **p<.01, ***p<.001; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange.

moderating, mediating, and moderated-mediation factors that help explain these effects. Mainly, the effect of moral courage on supervisor-directed and organization-directed deviance is rather clear. Results for spousal undermining, however, were inconsistent. The direct relationship between abusive supervision and moral courage, however, was not always significant. Also, the direct relationship between moral courage and spousal undermining was not significant in most analyses. Collectively, these analyses help confirm that abusive supervision and moral courage have an important effect on individuals' reporting of supervisor-directed and organization-directed deviance. Inconsistent results, however, indicate that the relationship of abusive supervision and moral courage on spousal undermining is not clear. Third, results indicate these direct and indirect effects may be impacted by the interaction of LMX, family role quality, and work role quality. For supervisor-directed deviance and organization-directed deviance outcomes, the moderating effects of LMX and work role quality were mainly significant and consistent, but, for spousal undermining, results were mixed.

Overall, the results in this paper confirm previous literature on the effects of abusive supervision on outcome variables and demonstrate that conditional factors such as LMX and role quality may also have an important part in explaining deviant behavior at work and at home. However, some of these potential mediators and moderators may not be statistically relevant on certain outcomes (e.g., spousal undermining).

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

Interpretation of Results

The two studies in this dissertation examined very important underlying explanatory processes related to perceptions of abusive supervision on retaliatory

behaviors such as supervisor-directed and organization-directed deviance, as well as behavioral spillover in the form of spousal undermining. These processes incorporate the quality of leader-employee relations, moral courage, and work and family role quality. Both Study 1 and Study 2 examined the proposed model in different configurations of samples. In Study 1, the sample consisted of a majority of White participants and included self-reported workplace and family outcomes. Study 2 extended to the results of Study 1 by using a majority of Hispanic participants and by collecting data from couples (i.e., adding ‘other’ reports of spousal undermining). Results of these two studies help clarify how abusive supervision is related to work and family outcomes through the mediating effect of moral courage and the moderating effects of LMX and work and family role quality. Collectively, this dissertation helps extend ethical impact theory and associated theories, such as social cognitive theory, and adds to a growing body of research examining the conditions under which abusive supervision leads to retaliatory deviant workplace behaviors and work-to-family spillover in the form of spousal undermining.

Both Study 1 and Study 2 tested the moderated-mediation model of abusive supervision using two different analyses: [1] an eight-factor model using all constructs with typical averaged constructs; and [2] a full structural-regression model incorporating all indicators. In both studies, the full eight-factor models demonstrated the best model fit statistics and both types of analyses generally pointed to similar conclusions. That is, the primary findings of this dissertation include three primary findings. First, abusive supervision is positively related to workplace deviance directed towards supervisors, workplace deviance directed towards the organization, and work-to-family spillover in

the form of spousal undermining. Second, moral courage mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and the three outcome variables (deviance directed at the supervisor, workplace deviance directed towards the organization, and work-to-family spillover in the form of spousal undermining), such that higher levels of abusive supervision is related to lower levels of moral courage, which in turn is related to these outcomes. Third, this mediated relationship is conditional upon LMX and work role quality. Specifically, LMX moderated the mediated relationship between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed deviance through moral courage; and work role quality moderated the mediated relationships between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed and organization-directed deviance, that were moderated by LMX. However, some relationships in the model were inconsistent, such as the direct effect of abusive supervision on moral courage, and the mediated, moderated, and moderated-mediated effects on spousal undermining.

The direct effect of abusive supervision on moral courage was inconsistent. In Study 1 the negative relationship between abusive supervision and moral courage was not significant, while in Study 2 the negative effect of abusive supervision on moral courage was significant. These results provide mixed support for previous findings arguing that abusive supervision undermines moral courage that is related to negative workplace outcomes (e.g., Hannah et al., 2013). One possible explanation for these mixed results is that there are other conditional or mitigating variables that explain the effects of abusive supervision on moral courage. For example, as explained by Hannah et al. (2011), leadership can have an important effect on changes in individuals' self-perceptions of moral courage, so there may be important time-sensitive effects of leadership on moral

courage such as changes in LMX. Team-based and other employees' perspectives of abusive supervision or team-based supervisor-employee relationships such as LMX differentiation may also have an important effect on how leader behaviors impact moral courage. For example, Neall and Tuckey (2014) recently discussed the importance of examining the effects of witnessing abusive supervision on a variety of workplace attitudes and outcomes. It is possible that other boundary factors must be considered to explain the relationship between abusive supervision and moral courage. Another possible explanation is that there are few studies examining moral courage and using a three-item scale to measure this construct may not fully capture the breadth of this type of courage. Hence, there is a need for more studies examining the dimensions of moral courage and moral behavior in the workplace and the development of more exhaustive measurements.

In terms of spousal undermining, in Study 1 and Study 2, there was no significant direct effect of moral courage on spousal undermining and no significant indirect effect of abusive supervision on spousal undermining through moral courage. In addition, the moderating effect of family role quality on the relationship with spousal undermining was not significant in both studies. As such, the results of this dissertation provide no support to previous studies that demonstrated the positive relationship between abusive supervision and spousal undermining (e.g., Restubog et al., 2011). For the direct and indirect effects on spousal undermining, these inconsistent results may be due to a difference between self (Study 1) and other (Study 2) reporting. For example, victims of abusive supervision may be particularly sensitive to how they react and be more likely to report subtle forms of spousal undermining. For example, Neves (2014) found that

victims of abusive supervision, under certain conditions, become particularly vulnerable and sensitive. Meanwhile, spouses who are in a relationship with a victim of abusive supervision may trivialize such subtle undermining behaviors and be less likely to report they are being abused.

Another possible explanation for the inconsistency in results is ethnic distribution of the two samples. In Study 2, the majority of participants were Hispanic that may bring to mind different cultural work and family dynamics and behavioral expectations. For example, there may be differences in how individuals from different ethnic backgrounds set boundaries between work and family. According to boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000), certain individuals are more capable of separating work and family domains that can lead to a decrease in work-to-family and family-to-work conflict. Further, individual differences and preferences can influence how individuals integrate or segment their work and family roles (Kreiner et al., 2009). For example, Wu et al. (2011) found that Chinese victims of abusive supervision with high boundary strength experienced low work-family conflict. To date, there are no studies that have examined the differences between self and other reports of retaliatory behaviors to abusive supervision; or the cultural differences in work-to-family spillover as a consequence to abusive supervision that may be important avenues for future research.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

This research has several important theoretical and practical implications. In terms of theoretical implications, the findings of this dissertation are mainly aligned with core proponents of ethical impact theory (Promislo et. al., 2010) and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). Ethical impact theory describes how unethical behavior is

associated with lowered psychological well-being that could be ascribed to disruptions in moral agency. Similarly, social cognitive theory describes how self-standards and self-regulation for moral behavior determines moral agency. These two theories also emphasize how individuals such as leaders impose conditions that can influence subordinates' moral behavior. Because the conditions imposed by leaders on subordinates are understood to impact subordinates' decisions in engaging in moral behavior (e.g., Brown et al., 2005; Hanna et al., 2013), the findings in this dissertation contribute to the literature by demonstrating how leader behaviors influence subordinates' ethical decision-making processes through moral courage. Specifically, these findings provide support for process-based theories of unethical behaviors and deviance aimed towards supervisors, organizations, and family members by incorporating perceptions of leader-subordinate relationships and work and family role quality. This is an important contribution because although past researchers have found significant relationships between abusive supervision and workplace deviance (e.g., Tepper, 2007, Hoobler & Brass, 2006, Inness et. al., 2005), few studies have explored the influence of moral courage on unethical behaviors in organizational research. This dissertation extends the few studies that explored the mediating effect of moral courage on abusive supervision and deviant behavior (e.g., Hanna et al., 2013) by demonstrating the effect of LMX and work and family role quality as contextual variables that help explain this process.

In terms of practical implications, the findings of this dissertation explain the effects of the mistreatment of subordinates on moral courage. Given the direct negative effects of deficits in moral courage on supervisor-directed deviance, organization-directed deviance, and spousal undermining, the indirect negative effects of abusive

supervision on these outcomes, and the important negative consequences of these outcomes for organizations, reducing the occurrence of such behavior can have a tremendous practical impact. Reducing deviant behavior and spousal undermining should be a concern for any organization, not only because of the associated costs (see Tepper, 2007), but also because of its trickle-down negative effect on individuals, on society, and ultimately, on humanity. Organizations should therefore be vigilant in identifying abusive supervisors and either correcting their behavior through training or removing them from the organization. Also, organizations can help foster moral courage in subordinates by implementing zero-tolerance policies and by encouraging organization-wide standards for confronting or reporting abusive supervisors.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

As in most organizational studies, a few limitations of the chosen research designs should be noted. First the main use of self-reported measures implies that common-method bias may have potentially influenced the results. However, this problem should have been reduced in Study 2 by incorporating self and other reports to provide greater assurance in the study inferences, at least for spousal undermining. Also, according to Evans (1985), although common-method variance can reduce the size of interactions, it should not generate false interactions. Future research could nonetheless incorporate additional other reports of the study variables by, for example, incorporating coworkers who witnessed the abuse as potential study participants or dual-working couples within the same organization. Also, future research could employ a multi-wave study design to reduce common-method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Second, the cross-sectional nature of the study design prevents any causal inferences. Although this limitation has

been found to be one of the most common in organizational survey research (Brutus, Gill, & Duniewicz, 2010), future research could collect data at multiple observations (e.g., Maxwell & Cole, 2007) or utilize a true longitudinal design. Third, there are many competing models and variables associated with abusive supervision that were not measured in these two studies. For example, predictors of abusive supervision such as fairness constructs (e.g., procedural justice) and breaches in psychological contracts as well as potential moderators and mediators such as negative affect, aggressive dispositions, individual differences, cultural comparisons, and group-level analyses (e.g., LMX differentiation) could generate a more comprehensive model of abusive supervision. Indeed, during the 2013 Annual Academy of Management Conference in Houston, TX, Bennett Tepper called for a large multi-model comparative study in order to bring together competing and complimentary models of abuse supervision in order to develop this comprehensive understanding of abusive supervision.¹

Conclusion

Abusive supervision seems to have a detrimental effect on subordinates' ethical decision-making and increase deviant behaviors aimed towards organization members and may also spill-over into the family domain. Such unethical behaviors by supervisors amplify subordinates' subsequent unethical intentions and behaviors that have tremendous negative consequences for individuals and their families as well as organizations. The results of this dissertation should help researchers and practitioners to

¹ Tepper argued that competing models should be tested in a large-scale study to provide statistical support for the nomological network of the antecedents and consequences of supervisor abuse (Mitchell, 2013).

have an improved understanding of the processes and conditional factors involved in the negative impacts of abusive supervision.

REFERENCES

- Agervold, M. & Mikkelsen, E. G. (2004). Relationship between bullying, psychosocial work environment and individual stress reactions. *Work & Stress, 18*, 336-351.
- Akaike, H. (1974). A new look at statistical model identification. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control, 19*, 716-723.
- Amstad, F. T., Meier, L. L., Fasel, U., Elfering, A., & Semmer, N. K. (2011). A meta-analysis of work–family conflict and various outcomes with a special emphasis on cross-domain versus matching-domain relations. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 16*, 151-169.
- Anderson, C. A. & Bushman, B. J. (2002). Human aggression. *Annual Review of Psychology, 53*, 27-51.
- Andersson, L. M. & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review, 24*, 452-471.
- Ariss, S. S. (2003). Employee involvement to improve safety in the workplace: An ethical imperative. *Mid-American Journal of Business, 18*, 9-16.
- Ashforth, B. E. (1997). Petty tyranny in organizations: A preliminary examination of antecedents and consequences. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 14*, 126-140.
- Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., & Fugate, M. (2000). All in a day's work: boundaries and micro role transitions. *Academy of Management Review, 25*, 472-491.
- Aquino, K., Galperin, B. L., & Bennett, R. J. (2004). Social status and aggressiveness as moderators of the relationship between interactional justice and workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34*, 1001-1029.
- Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2001). How employees respond to personal offense: The effects of blame attribution, victim status, and offender status on revenge and reconciliation in the workplace. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 52-59.
- Aryee, S., Chen, Z. X., Sun, L., & Debrah, Y. A. (2007). Antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision: Test of a trickle-down model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 191-201.
- Averill, J. R. (1982). *Anger and aggression: An essay on emotion*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.

- Avey, J. B., Palanski, M. E., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2011). When leadership goes unnoticed: The moderating role of follower self-esteem on the relationship between ethical leadership and follower behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics, 98*, 573-582.
- Bamberger, P. A. & Bacharach, S. B. (2006). Abusive supervision and subordinate problem drinking: Taking resistance, stress, and subordinate personality into account. *Human Relations, 59*, 1-30.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (2002). Selective moral disengagement in the exercise of moral agency. *Journal of Moral Education, 31*, 101-119.
- Barnett, R. C. (1994). Home-to-work spillover revisited: A study of full-time employed women in dual-earner couples. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 56*, 647-656.
- Barnett, R. C., Marshall, N. L., & Pleck, J. H. (1992). Men's multiple roles and their relationship to men's psychological distress. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 54*, 358-367.
- Barnett, R. C., Marshall, N. L., Raudenbush, S. W., & Brennan, R. T. (1993). Gender and the relationship between job experiences and psychological distress: A study of dual-earner couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64*, 794-806.
- Barnett, R. C., Raudenbush, S. W., Brennan, R. T., Pleck, J. H., & Marshall, N. L. (1995). Change in job and marital experiences and change in psychological distress: A longitudinal study of dual-earner couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69*, 839-850.
- Baron, R. A., Neuman, J. H., & Geddes, D. (1999). Social and personal determinants of workplace aggression: Evidence for the impact of perceived injustice and the Type A behavior pattern. *Aggressive Behavior, 25*, 281-296.
- Baron, R. M. & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1173-1182.
- Baumeister, R. F. & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachment as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*, 497-529.
- Bennett, R. J. & Robinson, S. L. (2000). The development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 349-360.

- Berkowitz, L. (1993). *Aggression: Its causes, consequences, and control*. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.
- Bies, R. J. & Tripp, T. M. (1996). Beyond distrust: Getting even and the need for revenge. In R. M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations* (pp. 246-260). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Blasi, A. (1983). Moral cognition and moral action: A theoretical perspective. *Developmental Review, 3*, 178-210.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Bolger, N., DeLongis, A., Kessler, R. C., & Wethington, E. (1989). The contagion of distress across multiple roles. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 51*, 175-183.
- Bowling, N. A. & Michel, J. S. (2011). Why do you treat me badly? The role of attributions regarding the cause of abuse in subordinates' responses to abusive supervision. *Work & Stress, 25*, 309-320.
- Brown, M. E., Trevino, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 97*, 117-134.
- Bruk-Lee, V., & Spector, P. E. (2006). The social-stressors-counterproductive work behavior link: Are conflicts with supervisors and coworkers the same? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*, 145-156.
- Brutus, S., Gill, H., & Duniewicz, K. (2010). State of science in industrial and organizational psychology: A review of self-reported limitations. *Personnel Psychology, 63*, 907-936.
- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk A New Source of Inexpensive, Yet High-Quality, Data?. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6*, 3-5.
- Carlson, D., Ferguson, M., Hunter, E., & Whitten, D. (2012). Abusive supervision and work-family conflict: The path through emotional labor and burnout. *Leadership Quarterly, 23*, 849-859.
- Carlson, D., Ferguson, M., Perrewé, P. P., & Whitten, D. (2011). The fallout of abusive supervision: An examination of subordinates and their partners. *Personnel Psychology, 64*, 937-961.

- Carstensen, L. L. (1992). Social and emotional patterns in adulthood: Support for socio-emotional selectivity theory. *Psychology and Aging, 7*, 331-338.
- Chen, P. Y. & Spector, P. E. (1991). Negative affectivity as the underlying cause of correlations between stressors and strains. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*, 398-407.
- Chen, P. Y. & Spector, P. E. (2000). Why negative affectivity should not be controlled in job stress research: don't throw out the baby with the bath water. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*, 79-95.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 386-400.
- Cooper, C. L. & Marshall, J. (1978). Sources of managerial and white collar stress. In C. L. Cooper and R. Payne (eds.). *Stress at work*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Cropanzano, R. & Folger, R. (1989). Referent cognitions and task decision autonomy: Beyond equity theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 293-299.
- De Hoogh, A. H. B. & Den Hartog, D. N. (2008). Ethical and despotic leadership, relationships with leader's social responsibility, top management effectiveness and subordinates' optimism: A multi-method study. *Leadership Quarterly, 19*, 297-311.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry, 4*, 227-268.
- Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Gagne, M., Leone, D. R., Usunov, J., & Kornazheva, B. P. (2001). Need satisfaction, motivation, and well-being in the work organizations of a former eastern bloc country: A cross-cultural study of self-determination. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27*, 930-942.
- Dollard, J., Doob, L. W., Miller, N. E., Mowrer, O. H., & Sears, R. R. (1939). *Frustration and aggression*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Duffy, M. K. & Ferrier, W. J. (2003). Birds of a feather...? How supervisor-subordinate dissimilarity moderates the influence of supervisor behaviors on workplace attitudes. *Group and Organizational Management, 28*, 217-248.
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*, 331-351.

- Dupre, K. E., Inness, M., Connelly, C. E., Barling, J., & Hopton, C. (2006). Workplace aggression in teenage part-time employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 987-997.
- Edwards, J. R. & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods, 12*, 1-22.
- Einarsen, S., Aasland, M. S., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behavior: A definition and conceptual model. *Leadership Quarterly, 18*, 207-216.
- Evans, M. G. (1985). A monte-carlo study of the effects of correlated method variance in moderated multiple regression analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 36*, 305-323.
- Fincham, F. D. & Linfield, K. J. (1997). A new look at marital quality: Can spouses feel positive and negative about their marriage? *Journal of Family Psychology, 11*, 489-502.
- Fiske, S. T. (1980). Attention and weight in person perception: The impact of negative and extreme behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38*, 889-906.
- Folger, R. (1993). Reactions to mistreatment at work: In J. K. Murnighan (Ed.) *Social psychology in organizations: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 161-183), Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Folger, R. & Baron, R. A. (1996). Violence and hostility at work: A model of reactions to perceived injustice. In G. VandenBos & E. Q. Bulatao (Eds.), *Violence on the job: Identifying risks and developing solutions* (pp. 51-85), Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Frone, M. R., Barnes, G. M., & Farrell, M. P. (1994). Relationship of work-family conflict to substance use among employed mothers: The role of negative affect. *Journal of Marriage & The Family, 56*, 1019-1030.
- Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*, 65-78.
- Frone, M. R., Yardley, J. K., & Markel, K. S. (1997). Developing and testing an integrative model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 50*, 145-167.

- Ghosh, R., Dierkes, S., & Falletta, S. (2011). Incivility spiral in mentoring relationships: Reconceptualizing negative mentoring as deviant workplace behavior. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 13*, 22-39.
- Giacalone, R. A., & Promislo, M. D. (2010). Unethical and unwell: Decrements in well-being and unethical activity at work. *Journal of Business Ethics, 91*, 275-297.
- Glasø, L., Vie, T. L., Holmdal, G. R., & Einarsen, S. (2010). An application of affective events theory to workplace bullying: The role of emotions, trait anxiety, and trait anger. *European Psychologist, 1*, 1-11.
- Gooty, J., Serban, A., Thomas, J. S., Gavin, M. B., & Yammarino, F. J. (2012). Use and misuse of levels of analysis in leadership research: An illustrative review of leader-member exchange. *Leadership Quarterly, 23*, 1080-1103.
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review, 25*, 161-178.
- Grandey, A. A., Kern, J., & Frone, M. (2007). Verbal abuse from outsiders versus insiders: Comparing frequency, impact on emotional exhaustion, and the role of emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*, 63-79.
- Greenberg, J. (2002). Who stole the money, and when? Individual and situational determinants of employee theft. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 89*, 985-1003.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review, 10*, 76-88.
- Greenwood, M. R., Holland, P., & Choong, K. (2006). Re-evaluating drug testing: Questions of moral and symbolic control. In J. R. Deckop (ed.), *Human Resource Management Ethics*. Information Age Publishing: Greenwich, CT, pp. 161-180.
- Greguras, G. J. & Diefendorff, J. M. (2009). Different fits satisfy different needs: Linking person-environment fit to employee commitment and performance using self-determination theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 465-477.
- Grestner, C. R. & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*, 827-844.
- Grzywacz, J. G. & Marks, N. F. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*, 111-126.

- Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16, 250-279.
- Hahn, S. E. (2000). The effects of locus of control on daily exposure, coping, and reactivity to work interpersonal stressors: A diary study. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29, 729-748.
- Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2011). Relationships between authentic leadership, moral courage, and ethical and pro-social behaviors. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 21, 555-578.
- Hannah, S. T., Schaubroeck, J. M., Peng, A. C., Lord, R. G., Trevino, L. K., Kozlowski, S. W., Avolio, B. J., Dimotakis, N., & Doty, J. (2013). Joint influences of individual and work unit abusive supervision on ethical intentions and behaviors: A moderated mediation model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98, 579-592.
- Harting, T. R., Harmeling, S. S., & Venkataraman, S. (2006). Innovative stakeholder relations: When ethics pays (and when it doesn't). *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 16, 43-68.
- Harris, K. J., Kacmar, M., & Zivnuska, S. (2007). An investigation of abusive supervision as a predictor of performance and the meaning of work as a moderator of the relationship. *Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 252-263.
- Herscovis, S. M., Turner, N., Barling, J., Arnold, K. A., Dupre, K. E., Inness, M., et al. (2007). Predicting workplace aggression: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 228-238.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44, 513-524.
- Hobman, E. V., Restubog, S. L. D., Bordla, P., & Tang, R. L. (2009). Abusive supervision in advising relationships: Investigating the role of social support. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 58, 233-256.
- Hoel, H., Rayner, C., & Cooper, C. L. (1999). Workplace bullying. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, Vol. 14, 195-230. London: Wiley.
- Hoobler, J. M. & Brass, D. J. (2006). Abusive supervision and family undermining as displaced aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 1125-1133.
- Inness, M., Barling, J., & Turner, N. (2005). Understanding supervisor-targeted aggression: A within-person, between-jobs design. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 731-739.

- Jenkins, E. L. (1996). Workplace homicide: Industries and occupations at high risk. *Occupational Medicine, 11*, 219-225.
- Jennings, P. L., Mitchell, M. S., & Hannah, S. T. (in press). The moral self: A review and integration of the literature. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*.
- Jex, S. M. & Beehr, T. A. (1991). Emerging theoretical and methodological issues in the study of work-related stress. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 9*, 311-365.
- Jones, D. A. (2009). Getting even with one's supervisor and one's organization: Relationships among types of injustice, desires for revenge, and counterproductive work behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30*, 525-542.
- Jones, E. & Fletcher, B. (1993). An empirical study of occupational stress transmission in working couples. *Human Relations, 46*, 881-902.
- Kahn, R. L. & Byosiore, P. (1992). Stress in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette and L. M. Hough (eds.). *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology: vol. 3*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychology Press.
- Kirchmeyer, C. (1992). Perceptions of nonwork-to-work spillover: Challenging the common view of conflict-ridden domain relationships. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 13*, 231-249.
- Kohlberg, L. (1969). Stage and sequence. The cognitive developmental approach to socialization. In D. Goslin (Ed.), *Handbook of socialization theory* (pp. 347-480). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Kreiner, G. E., Hollensbe, E. C., & Sheep, M. L. (2009). Balancing borders and bridges: negotiating the work-home interface via boundary work tactics. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*, 704-730.
- Lazarus, R. S. & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Lian, H., Ferris, L. D., & Brown, D. J. (2012). Does taking the good with the bad make things worse? How abusive supervision and leader-member exchange interact to impact need satisfaction and organizational deviance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 117*, 41-52.

- Little, T. D., Cunningham, W. A., Shahar, G., & Widaman, K. F. (2002). To parcel or not to parcel: Exploring the question, weighing the merits. *Structural Equation Modeling, 9*, 151-173.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. (2002). A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects. *Psychological Methods, 7*, 83-104.
- Marcus-Newhall, A., Pederson, W. C., Carlson, M., & Miller, N. (2000). Displaced aggression is alive and well: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78*, 670-689.
- Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., Sikora, D., & Douglas, S. C. (2011). Perceptions of abusive supervision: The role of subordinates' attribution styles. *Leadership Quarterly, 22*, 751-764.
- Maxwell, S. E. & Cole, D. A. (2007). Bias in cross-sectional analyses of longitudinal mediation. *Psychological Methods, 12*, 23-44.
- Meade, A. W. & Craig, S. B. (2012). Identifying careless responses in survey data. *Psychological Methods, 17*, 437-455.
- Mesmer-Magnus, J. R. & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Convergence between measures of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict: A meta-analytic examination. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67*, 215-232.
- Mikkelsen, E. G. & Einarsen, S. (2001). Bullying in Danish work-life: Prevalence and health correlates. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 10*, 393-413.
- Miller, N. E. (1941) The frustration-aggression hypothesis. *Psychological Review, 48*, 337-442.
- Mitchell, M. S. (2013). *Theoretical and empirical developments on the consequences of abusive supervision*. Symposium presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Orlando, FL.
- Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2007). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs, *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 1159-1168.
- Namie, G. & Namie, R. (2000). *The bully at work*. Naperville, IL: Sourcebooks.

- Neall, A. & Tuckey, M. (2014). A methodological review of research on the antecedents and consequences of workplace harassment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *87*, 225-257.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*, 400-410.
- Neves, P. (2014). Taking it out on survivors: Submissive employees, downsizing, and abusive supervision. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *87*, 507-534.
- Niedl, K. (1996). Mobbing and well-being: Economic and personnel development implications. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *5*, 239-249.
- Paykel, E. S., Myers, J. K., Dieneli, M. N., Klerman, G. L., Linderthal, G. A., & Pepper, M. P. (1969). Life events and depression: A controlled study. *Archives of General Psychology*, *21*, 753-757.
- Pearson, C. M., Anderson, L. M., & Wegner, J. W. (2001). When workers flout convention: A study of workplace incivility. *Human Relations*, *54*, 1387-1419.
- Pederson, W. C., Gonzales, C., & Miller, N. (2000). The moderating effect of trivial triggering provocation on displaced aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *78*, 913-927.
- Peterson, D. K. (2002). Deviant workplace behavior and the organization's ethical climate. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *17*, 47-53.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social sciences research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *65*, 539-569.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Assessing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *42*, 185-227.
- Promislo, M. D., Giacalone, R. A., & Jurkiewicz, C. L. (2010). Ethical impact theory (EIT): Unethical work behavior and well-being. In R. A. Giacalone & M. D. Promislo (Eds.), *Handbook of unethical work behavior* (pp. 3-20). Armonk, NY: ME Sharpe.

- Putman, D. (2010). Philosophical roots of the concept of courage. In C. Pury & S. Lopez (Eds.), *The psychology of courage: Modern research on an ancient virtue* (pp. 9-22). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Restubog, S., Scott, K., & Zagencyk, T. (2011). When distress hits home: The role of contextual factors and psychological distress in predicting employees' responses to abusive supervision. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*, 713-729.
- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*, 555-572.
- Robinson, S. L. & O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*, 658-672.
- Ryan, R. M. & Connell, J. P. (1989). Perceived locus of causality and internalization: Examining reasons for acting in two domains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*, 749-761.
- Scandura, T. A. & Schriesheim, C. A. (1994). Leader-member exchange and supervisor career mentoring as complimentary constructs in leadership research. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*, 1588-1602.
- Shields, A., Ryan, R. M., & Cicchetti, D. (2001). Narrative representations of caregivers and emotion dysregulation as predictors of maltreated children's rejection by peers. *Developmental Psychology, 37*, 321-337.
- Skinner, E. A. (1995). *Perceived control, motivation, and coping*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Spector, P. E., Dwyer, D. J., & Jex, S. M. (1988). Relation of job stressors to affective, health, and performance outcomes: A comparison of multiple data sources. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 73*, 11-19.
- Sulea, C., Fine, S., Fischmann, G., Sava, F. A., & Dumitru, C. (2013). Abusive supervision and counterproductive work behaviors: The moderating effects of personality. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 12*, 196-200.
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 178-190.
- Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 33*, 261-289.

- Tepper, B. J., Carr, J. C., Breaux, D. M., Geider, S., Hu, C., & Hua, W. (2009). Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *109*, 156-167.
- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., Henle, C. A., & Lambert, L. (2006). Procedural injustice, victim precipitation, and abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, *59*, 101-123.
- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., Hoobler, J., & Ensley, M. D. (2004). Moderators of the relationship between coworkers' organizational citizenship behavior and fellow employees' attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*, 455-465.
- Tepper, B. J. & Henle, C. A. (2011). A case of recognizing distinctions among constructs that capture interpersonal mistreatment in work organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*, 487-498.
- Trevino, L. K., Weaver, G. R., & Reynolds, S. J. (2006). Behavioral ethics in organizations: A review. *Journal of Management*, *32*, 261-289.
- Turillo, C. J., Folger, R., Lavelle, J. J., Umphress, E. E., & Gee, J. O. (2002). Is virtue its own reward? Self-sacrificial decisions for the sake of fairness. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *89*, 839-865.
- Ullrich-Bien, M. & Carsten, M. K. (2007). Being ethical when the boss is not. *Organizational Dynamics*, *36*, 187-201.
- Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & McLean Parks, J. (1995). Extra-role behaviors: In pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (A bridge over muddied waters. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *17*, 215-330.
- Viswesvaran, C., Deshpande, S. P., & Joseph, J. (1998). Job satisfaction as a function of top management support for ethical behavior: A study of Indian managers. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *17*, 365-371.
- Waddock, S. (2004). Creating corporate accountability: Foundational principles to make corporate citizenship real. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *50*, 313-327.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*, 1063-1070.
- Westman, M. & Vinokir, A. D. (1998). Unraveling the relationship of distress levels within couples: Common stressors, empathic reactions, or crossover via social interaction? *Human Relations*, *51*, 137-156.

- Wimbush, J. C., Shepard, J. M., & Markham, S. E. (1997). An empirical examination of the relationship between ethical climate and ethical behavior from multiple levels of analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics, 16*, 1705-1716.
- Wu, L., Kwan, H. K., Liu, J., & Resick, C. J. (2011). Work-to-family spillover effects of abusive supervision. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 27*, 714-731.
- Yagil, D. (2006). The relationship of abusive and supportive workplace supervision to employee burnout and upward influence tactics. *Journal of Emotional Abuse, 6*, 49-65.
- Zellars, K. L., Tepper, B. J., & Duffy, M. K. (2002). Abusive supervision and subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 1068-1076.

APPENDICES

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. TABLES

Table 1: Factor Loadings for Full Eight-Factor Confirmatory Model of Abusive Supervision in Study 1..... 87

Table 4: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Supervisor-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 1..... 93

Table 5: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Organization-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 1..... 95

Table 6: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Spousal Undermining Outcome in Study 1 97

Table 7: Factor Loadings for Full Eight-Factor Confirmatory Model of Abusive Supervision in Study 2..... 99

Table 10: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Supervisor-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 2..... 105

Table 11: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Organization-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 2..... 107

Table 12: Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Spousal Undermining Outcome in Study 2 109

2. LIST OF MEASURES..... 111

Table 1

Factor Loadings for Full Eight-Factor Confirmatory Model of Abusive Supervision in Study 1

Item	Unstandardized	S.E.	Standardized	S.E.
<i>Abusive Supervision (5-point scale). "Rate the frequency that you have experienced each of these behaviors" from 1="I cannot remember him/her using this behavior with me" to 5="He/she uses this behavior often with me."</i>				
1. My boss ridicules me	1.00	0.00	0.78	0.03
2. My boss tells me my thought or feelings are stupid	0.74	0.06	0.76	0.03
3. My boss gives me the silent treatment	1.04	0.10	0.72	0.04
4. My boss puts me down in front of others	0.96	0.07	0.83	0.03
5. My boss invades my privacy	0.93	0.09	0.67	0.04
6. My boss reminds me of my past mistakes and failures	1.10	0.10	0.73	0.04
7. My boss doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort	1.32	0.13	0.70	0.04
8. My boss blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment	1.09	0.10	0.75	0.03
9. My boss breaks promises he/she makes	0.93	0.11	0.59	0.05
10. My boss expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason	1.04	0.11	0.63	0.05
11. My boss makes negative comments about me to others	1.17	0.09	0.81	0.03
12. My boss is rude to me	1.27	0.10	0.80	0.03
13. My boss does not allow me to interact with my co-workers	0.39	0.06	0.42	0.06
14. My boss tells me I'm incompetent	0.40	0.05	0.55	0.05
15. My boss lies to me	1.17	0.10	0.76	0.03
<i>Moral Courage (7-point scale). "Rate how frequently you have engaged in these behavior" from 1="never" to 5="always"</i>				

1. I possess the moral courage to correct my behavior	1.00	0.00	0.85	0.03
2. I adhere to regulations, even when faced with peer pressure to do otherwise	1.02	0.08	0.80	0.03
3. I demonstrate courage to do the right thing, even at personal cost	1.11	0.08	0.88	0.03

Supervisor directed Deviance (5-point scale) "Rate how frequently you have engaged in these behaviors" from 1="never" to 5="always"

1. Made fun of my supervisor at work	1.00	0.00	0.71	0.04
2. Played a mean prank on my supervisor	0.46	0.06	0.57	0.05
3. Made an obscene comment or gesture toward my supervisor	0.64	0.07	0.68	0.04
4. Acted rudely toward my supervisor	0.79	0.08	0.80	0.03
5. Gossiped about my supervisor	0.82	0.10	0.59	0.05
6. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark against my supervisor	0.17	0.03	0.41	0.06
7. Publically embarrassed my supervisor	0.33	0.04	0.65	0.05
8. Swore at my supervisor	0.51	0.07	0.60	0.05
9. Refused to talk to my supervisor	0.53	0.06	0.63	0.05
10. Said something hurtful to my supervisor at work	0.46	0.05	0.70	0.04

Org. directed Deviance (5-point scale) "Rate how frequently you have engaged in these behaviors" from 1="never" to 5="always"

1. Taken property from work without permission	1.00	0.00	0.62	0.05
2. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	1.31	0.21	0.53	0.06
3. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses	0.49	0.09	0.44	0.06
4. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	1.51	0.21	0.64	0.05

5. Came in late to work without permission	1.18	0.20	0.51	0.06
6. Littered your work environment	0.73	0.13	0.45	0.06
7. Neglected to follow your boss's instructions	1.39	0.18	0.70	0.05
8. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	1.80	0.23	0.72	0.04
9. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	0.54	0.11	0.39	0.07
10. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job	1.32	0.18	0.66	0.05
11. Put little effort into your work	1.09	0.17	0.57	0.05
12. Dragged out work in order to get overtime	0.63	0.15	0.32	0.07

Spousal Undermining (7-point scale). "Rate the extent to which you have engaged in these behaviors toward your spouse" from 1="I cannot remember using this behavior toward him/her" to 5="I always use this behavior toward him/her"

1. Acted in an unpleasant or angry manner toward him/her	1.00	0.00	0.87	0.02
2. Gave a critical remark on his/her ideas	1.03	0.07	0.84	0.03
3. Criticized him/her	1.10	0.07	0.90	0.02
4. Insulted him/her	0.68	0.05	0.79	0.03
5. Gave him/her the silent treatment	0.79	0.08	0.64	0.04

Leader-Member Exchange (5-point scales ranging in type and anchor points)

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader and do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with you?	1.00	0.00	0.67	0.04
2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?	1.39	0.14	0.76	0.03
3. How well does your leader (follower) recognize your potential?	1.43	0.14	0.80	0.03
4. [...] what are the chances that your leader use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	1,27	0.13	0.80	0.03

5. [...] what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out" at his or her expense?	1.17	0.14	0.67	0.04
6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.	1.39	0.13	0.86	0.02
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?	1.33	0.12	0.88	0.02

Work Role Quality (4-point scale). "Rate the extent to which the following questions are rewarding aspects of your job role" from 1="not at all" to 4="extremely"

1. Challenging or stimulating work	1.00	0.00	0.68	0.04
2. Liking your co-workers	0.77	0.10	0.55	0.05
3. The income	0.62	0.11	0.41	0.06
4. Being able to work on your own	0.58	0.10	0.42	0.06
5. The job security	0.70	0.10	0.50	0.06
6. The recognition you get	1.14	0.13	0.74	0.03
7. Doing work you consider significant	1.25	0.12	0.78	0.03
8. Your supervisor's respect for your abilities	1.33	0.13	0.80	0.03
9. Being needed by others	1.03	0.11	0.68	0.04
10. Being able to set your own work schedule	0.74	0.13	0.42	0.06
11. Your work contributing to the good of a larger community	1.17	0.12	0.70	0.04
12. Having a variety of tasks	1.04	0.11	0.71	0.04
13. Having hours that fit your needs	0.59	0.11	0.39	0.06
14. Being able to work as part of a team or group	0.83	0.11	0.55	0.05
15. Your job being flexible enough that you can respond to nonwork situations	0.72	0.11	0.49	0.05
16. Liking your supervisor	1.07	0.12	0.69	0.04

17. Making good money compared with other people in your field	0.64	0.11	0.41	0.06
18. Being able to make decisions on your own	0.95	0.11	0.68	0.04
19. You supervisor's concern about the welfare of those under him or her	1.08	0.11	0.71	0.04
20. The sense of accomplishment and competence you get from doing your job	1.25	0.12	0.80	0.03
21. Having the authority you need to get your job done	1.12	0.11	0.77	0.03
22. Having friendly co-workers	0.72	0.10	0.54	0.05
23. The job's fitting your skills	0.91	0.11	0.64	0.04
24. The appreciation you get	1.23	0.11	0.82	0.03
25. The opportunities for advancement	1.02	0.12	0.63	0.04
26. The freedom to decide how you do your work	0.80	0.10	0.60	0.05
27. Your supervisor paying attention to what you have to say	1.16	0.12	0.76	0.03
28. Having an impact on other people's lives	1.19	0.12	0.73	0.04
29. The opportunities for learning new things	1.17	0.11	0.76	0.03
30. Helping others	1.15	0.12	0.75	0.03
31. Having supportive co-workers	0.94	0.11	0.63	0.04
32. The benefits your job offers, for example, paid sick leave	0.65	0.12	0.40	0.06

Family Role Quality (4-point scale). "Rate the extent to which the following questions are rewarding aspects of your family role" from 1="not at all" to 4="extremely"

1. Having a partner who is easy to get along with	1.00	0.00	0.73	0.04
2. Your partner's doing (his or her) fair share at home	1.03	0.12	0.60	0.05
3. The physical affection	1.03	0.10	0.70	0.04
4. Your partner being proud of you	1.19	0.10	0.80	0.03

5. Your partner's financial contributions to the household	0.74	0.13	0.41	0.06
6. Your partner's appreciation of you	1.25	0.10	0.84	0.02
7. Your partner actively encouraging you	1.17	0.11	0.78	0.03
8. Your sexual relationship	0.95	0.12	0.56	0.05
9. Your partner's contribution of (his or her) fair share to the family's finances	0.79	0.12	0.46	0.06
10. Good communication	1.23	0.10	0.83	0.02
11. Socializing as a couple	1.13	0.13	0.63	0.04
12. Your partner's backing you up in what you want to do	1.03	0.10	0.73	0.03
13. Your partner's concern for members of your family, such as your parents, brothers or sisters, etc.	1.02	0.13	0.58	0.05
14. Your partner's finding you physically attractive	0.94	0.10	0.68	0.04
15. Enjoying the same activities	1.08	0.11	0.69	0.04
16. Having a partner who really talks to you	1.32	0.11	0.86	0.02
17. The ability of you and your partner to work out conflicts	1.12	0.10	0.81	0.03
18. Having a partner who is a good friend	1.19	0.10	0.80	0.03
19. Doing things together for fun	1.21	0.10	0.85	0.02
20. Your partner doing (his or her) share to make the relationship work	0.97	0.09	0.78	0.03
21. Your partner liking you as a person	1.08	0.10	0.78	0.03
22. Being able to disagree without threatening the relationship	0.94	0.13	0.48	0.06
23. Your relationship with your partner's family	1.29	0.11	0.81	0.03
24. Having a partner who is a good listener	1.07	0.11	0.70	0.04
25. Your partner giving you constructive criticism when you need it	1.01	0.11	0.63	0.04
26. Having a lot in common with your partner	0.99	0.09	0.77	0.03

Table 4

Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Supervisor-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 1

Mediation Model					
	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
Direct Effects					
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	5.80	0.19	30.91	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	-0.21	0.11	-1.87	0.06	.02
<i>Supervisor-Directed Deviance as DV</i>					
Constant	1.25	0.16	7.92	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.35	0.04	8.67	0.00	
Moral Courage	-0.08	0.02	-3.20	0.00	.32***
Indirect Effects					
Abusive Supervision on Supervisor-Directed Deviance	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.06	
Moderated-Mediation Model					
	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
Direct Effects					
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	2.24	0.71	3.15	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	1.38	0.35	4.00	0.00	
LMX	1.02	0.20	5.19	0.00	
Abusive Supervision*LMX	-0.49	0.12	-4.16	0.00	.14***

Supervisor-Directed Deviance as DV

Constant	1.32	0.53	2.51	0.01	
Abusive Supervision	0.36	0.04	8.55	0.00	
Moral Courage	-0.12	0.10	-1.25	0.21	
Work Role Quality	-0.02	0.18	-0.13	0.90	
Moral Courage*Work Role Quality	0.01	0.03	0.39	0.70	.33***

Conditional Indirect Effects

Abusive Supervision on Supervisor-Directed Deviance

	Norms	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Low LMX	Low WRQ	-0.01	0.02	-0.05	0.02
Low LMX	Mean WRQ	-0.01	0.02	-0.04	0.03
Low LMX	High WRQ	-0.01	0.01	-0.04	0.02
Mean LMX	Low WRQ	0.03	0.03	-0.01	0.14
Mean LMX	Mean WRQ	0.03	0.03	-0.01	0.11
Mean LMX	High WRQ	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.11
High LMX	Low WRQ	0.07	0.08	0.01	0.21
High LMX	Mean WRQ	0.07	0.07	0.01	0.19
High LMX	High WRQ	0.06	0.06	0.00	0.21

*Note: N = 200. DV = Dependent variable. SE = Standard Error. LLCI = Bias corrected lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = bias corrected upper limit confidence interval. LMX = Leader member exchange. WRQ = Job role quality. Boot = 2000 bootstrap samples. Effect size estimates are unstandardized coefficients. Moderator values are the mean plus/minus one standard deviation. *** p < .001*

Table 5

Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Organization-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 1

Mediation Model					
Direct Effects	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	5.80	0.19	30.91	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	-0.21	0.11	-1.87	0.06	.02
<i>Organization-Directed Deviance as DV</i>					
Constant	1.92	0.21	8.95	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.22	0.05	3.99	0.00	
Moral Courage	-0.10	0.03	-2.87	0.00	.12***
Indirect Effects					
Abusive Supervision on Organization-Directed Deviance	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.08	
Moderated-Mediation Model					
Direct Effects	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	2.24	0.71	3.15	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	1.38	0.35	4.00	0.00	
LMX	1.02	0.20	5.19	0.00	
Abusive Supervision*LMX	-0.49	0.12	-4.16	0.00	.14***
<i>Organization-Directed Deviance as DV</i>					
Constant	1.91	0.71	2.68	0.01	
Abusive Supervision	0.18	0.06	3.17	0.00	

Moral Courage	-0.02	0.13	-0.19	0.85	
Work Role Quality	0.00	0.25	-0.02	0.99	
Moral Courage*Work Role Quality	-0.02	0.04	-0.48	0.63	.14***

Conditional Indirect Effects

Abusive Supervision on Organization-Directed Deviance

	Norms	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Low LMX	Low WRQ	-0.01	0.02	-0.06	0.02
Low LMX	Mean WRQ	-0.01	0.02	-0.04	0.03
Low LMX	High WRQ	-0.01	0.02	-0.05	0.03
Mean LMX	Low WRQ	0.02	0.03	-0.00	0.14
Mean LMX	Mean WRQ	0.03	0.04	-0.00	0.13
Mean LMX	High WRQ	0.03	0.05	-0.00	0.17
High LMX	Low WRQ	0.05	0.06	-0.01	0.23
High LMX	Mean WRQ	0.07	0.06	0.00	0.21
High LMX	High WRQ	0.08	0.08	0.00	0.29

Note: $N = 200$. DV = Dependent variable. SE = Standard Error. LLCI = Bias corrected lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = bias corrected upper limit confidence interval. LMX = Leader member exchange. WRQ = Work role quality. Boot = 2000 bootstrap samples. Effect size estimates are unstandardized coefficients. Moderator values are the mean plus/minus one standard deviation. *** $p < .001$

Table 6
Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Spousal Undermining Outcome in Study 1

Mediation Model					
Direct Effects	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	5.80	0.19	30.91	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	-0.21	0.11	-1.87	0.06	.02
<i>Spousal Undermining as DV</i>					
Constant	1.63	0.42	3.90	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.67	0.11	6.31	0.00	
Moral Courage	-0.11	0.07	-1.82	0.07	.19***
Indirect Effects					
Abusive Supervision on Spousal Undermining	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
	0.03	0.03	-0.00	0.10	
Moderated-Mediation Model					
Direct Effects	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	2.24	0.71	3.15	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	1.38	0.35	4.00	0.00	
LMX	1.02	0.20	5.19	0.00	
Abusive Supervision*LMX	-0.49	0.12	-4.16	0.00	.14***
<i>Spousal Undermining as DV</i>					
Constant	0.97	1.95	0.50	0.62	

Abusive Supervision	0.66	0.11	6.23	0.00	
Moral Courage	0.21	0.35	0.59	0.56	
Family Role Quality	0.15	0.60	0.25	0.81	
Moral Courage*Family Role Quality	-0.09	0.11	-0.83	0.41	.23***

Conditional Indirect Effects

Abusive Supervision on Spousal Undermining

	Norms	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Low LMX	Low FRQ	0.00	0.02	-0.07	0.02
Low LMX	Mean FRQ	-0.01	0.02	-0.06	0.01
Low LMX	High FRQ	-0.01	0.03	-0.08	0.02
Mean LMX	Low FRQ	0.01	0.04	-0.05	0.14
Mean LMX	Mean FRQ	0.03	0.04	-0.01	0.17
Mean LMX	High FRQ	0.05	0.06	-0.01	0.24
High LMX	Low FRQ	0.03	0.09	-0.12	0.24
High LMX	Mean FRQ	0.07	0.07	-0.02	0.28
High LMX	High FRQ	0.10	0.11	-0.03	0.42

Note: $N = 200$. DV = Dependent variable. SE = Standard Error. LLCI = Bias corrected lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = bias corrected upper limit confidence interval. LMX = Leader member exchange. FRQ = Family role quality. Spousal Undermining reported by spouse. Boot = 2000 bootstrap samples. Effect size estimates are unstandardized coefficients. Moderator values are the mean plus/minus one standard deviation. *** $p < .001$

Table 7

Factor Loadings for Full Eight-Factor Confirmatory Model of Abusive Supervision in Study 2

Item	Unstandardized	SE	Standardized	SE
<i>Abusive Supervision (5-point scale). "Rate the frequency that you have experienced each of these behaviors" from 1="I cannot remember him/her using this behavior with me" to 5="He/she uses this behavior often with me."</i>				
1. My boss ridicules me	1.00	0.00	0.80	0.03
2. My boss tells me my thought or feelings are stupid	0.94	0.08	0.82	0.03
3. My boss gives me the silent treatment	1.06	0.09	0.83	0.03
4. My boss puts me down in front of others	1.09	0.10	0.82	0.03
5. My boss invades my privacy	1.10	0.10	0.79	0.03
6. My boss reminds me of my past mistakes and failures	1.14	0.10	0.80	0.03
7. My boss doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort	1.07	0.12	0.69	0.05
8. My boss blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment	1.10	0.10	0.79	0.03
9. My boss breaks promises he/she makes	0.99	0.11	0.69	0.05
10. My boss expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason	1.07	0.11	0.74	0.04
11. My boss makes negative comments about me to others	1.03	0.09	0.80	0.03
12. My boss is rude to me	1.29	0.10	0.87	0.02
13. My boss does not allow me to interact with my co-workers	1.07	0.09	0.82	0.03
14. My boss tells me I'm incompetent	0.96	0.09	0.78	0.04
15. My boss lies to me	0.95	0.10	0.74	0.04
<i>Moral Courage (7-point scale). "Rate how frequently you have engaged in these behavior" from 1="never" to 5="always"</i>				

1. I possess the moral courage to correct my behavior	1.00	0.00	0.84	0.04
2. I adhere to regulations, even when faced with peer pressure to do otherwise	0.97	0.09	0.80	0.04
3. I demonstrate courage to do the right thing, even at personal cost	0.98	0.09	0.87	0.03

Supervisor Directed Deviance (5-point scale) "Rate how frequently you have engaged in these behaviors" from 1="never" to 5="always"

1. Made fun of my supervisor at work	1.00	0.00	0.41	0.07
2. Played a mean prank on my supervisor	0.62	0.15	0.49	0.07
3. Made an obscene comment or gesture toward my supervisor	1.13	0.24	0.69	0.05
4. Acted rudely toward my supervisor	1.22	0.25	0.85	0.03
5. Gossiped about my supervisor	1.21	0.29	0.50	0.07
6. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark against my supervisor	1.16	0.24	0.83	0.03
7. Publically embarrassed my supervisor	0.96	0.21	0.76	0.04
8. Swore at my supervisor	1.37	0.30	0.72	0.05
9. Refused to talk to my supervisor	1.27	0.27	0.75	0.04
10. Said something hurtful to my supervisor at work	0.91	0.20	0.73	0.04

Org. Directed Deviance (5-point scale) "Rate how frequently you have engaged in these behaviors" from 1="never" to 5="always"

1. Taken property from work without permission	1.00	0.00	0.58	0.06
2. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	1.34	0.24	0.56	0.06
3. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses	0.95	0.16	0.63	0.06

4. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	1.47	0.24	0.62	0.06
5. Came in late to work without permission	1.67	0.26	0.67	0.06
6. Littered your work environment	1.42	0.22	0.71	0.05
7. Neglected to follow your boss's instructions	1.30	0.21	0.64	0.05
8. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	1.47	0.23	0.66	0.05
9. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	1.14	0.21	0.53	0.07
10. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job	1.01	0.16	0.69	0.05
11. Put little effort into your work	1.28	0.20	0.66	0.05
12. Dragged out work in order to get overtime	1.00	0.16	0.67	0.05

Spousal Undermining (7-point scale). "Rate the extent to which you have engaged in these behaviors toward your spouse" from 1="I cannot remember using this behavior toward him/her" to 5="I always use this behavior toward him/her"

1. Acted in an unpleasant or angry manner toward him/her	1.00	0.00	0.77	0.04
2. Gave a critical remark on his/her ideas	1.11	0.10	0.87	0.03
3. Criticized him/her	1.20	0.10	0.92	0.02
4. Insulted him/her	0.88	0.08	0.82	0.03
5. Gave him/her the silent treatment	0.80	0.10	0.63	0.06

Leader-Member Exchange (5-point scales ranging in type and anchor points)

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader and do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with you?	1.00	0.00	0.69	0.05
2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?	1.35	0.15	0.83	0.03
3. How well does your leader recognize your potential?	1.12	0.13	0.79	0.04
4. [...] what are the chances that your leader use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	1.10	0.13	0.80	0.03

5. [...] what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out" at his or her expense?	0.99	0.14	0.63	0.05
6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.	1.25	0.15	0.82	0.03
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?	1.15	0.12	0.84	0.03

Work Role Quality (4-point scale). "Rate the extent to which the following questions are rewarding aspects of your job role" from 1="not at all" to 4="extremely"

1. Challenging or stimulating work	1.00	0.00	0.54	0.06
2. Liking your co-workers	0.76	0.16	0.47	0.07
3. The income	1.18	0.20	0.62	0.05
4. Being able to work on your own	1.17	0.20	0.63	0.05
5. The job security	1.38	0.21	0.72	0.04
6. The recognition you get	1.50	0.23	0.76	0.04
7. Doing work you consider significant	1.31	0.20	0.73	0.04
8. Your supervisor's respect for your abilities	1.42	0.22	0.75	0.04
9. Being needed by others	0.90	0.16	0.56	0.06
10. Being able to set your own work schedule	1.17	0.22	0.53	0.06
11. Your work contributing to the good of a larger community	1.12	0.20	0.59	0.06
12. Having a variety of tasks	1.07	0.19	0.59	0.06
13. Having hours that fit your needs	1.14	0.20	0.59	0.06
14. Being able to work as part of a team or group	1.18	0.20	0.62	0.05
15. Your job being flexible enough that you can respond to nonwork situations	1.14	0.21	0.56	0.06
16. Liking your supervisor	1.33	0.21	0.70	0.04

17. Making good money compared with other people in your field	1.15	0.20	0.60	0.06
18. Being able to make decisions on your own	1.34	0.20	0.74	0.04
19. You supervisor's concern about the welfare of those under him or her	1.43	0.22	0.72	0.04
20. The sense of accomplishment and competence you get from doing your job	1.31	0.20	0.76	0.04
21. Having the authority you need to get your job done	1.32	0.20	0.73	0.04
22. Having friendly co-workers	0.93	0.17	0.56	0.06
23. The job's fitting your skills	1.25	0.20	0.68	0.05
24. The appreciation you get	1.44	0.22	0.77	0.04
25. The opportunities for advancement	1.49	0.23	0.75	0.04
26. The freedom to decide how you do your work	1.55	0.23	0.79	0.03
27. Your supervisor paying attention to what you have to say	1.50	0.22	0.77	0.04
28. Having an impact on other people's lives	1.28	0.21	0.66	0.05
29. The opportunities for learning new things	1.33	0.20	0.71	0.04
30. Helping others	1.09	0.18	0.65	0.05
31. Having supportive co-workers	0.95	0.17	0.58	0.06
32. The benefits your job offers, for example, paid sick leave	1.31	0.22	0.65	0.05

Family Role Quality (4-point scale). "Rate the extent to which the following questions are rewarding aspects of your family role" from 1="not at all" to 4="extremely"

1. Having a partner who is easy to get along with	1.00	0.00	0.64	0.05
2. Your partner's doing (his or her) fair share at home	0.92	0.14	0.60	0.06
3. The physical affection	1.20	0.15	0.75	0.04
4. Your partner being proud of you	1.02	0.14	0.70	0.04

5. Your partner's financial contributions to the household	0.62	0.16	0.33	0.08
6. Your partner's appreciation of you	0.98	0.13	0.70	0.04
7. Your partner actively encouraging you	0.96	0.13	0.73	0.04
8. Your sexual relationship	1.27	0.17	0.72	0.04
9. Your partner's contribution of (his or her) fair share to the family's finances	0.83	0.16	0.47	0.07
10. Good communication	1.32	0.16	0.81	0.03
11. Socializing as a couple	1.16	0.15	0.75	0.04
12. Your partner's backing you up in what you want to do	0.99	0.14	0.69	0.05
13. Your partner's concern for members of your family, such as your parents, brothers or sisters, etc.	0.79	0.12	0.58	0.06
14. Your partner's finding you physically attractive	1.13	0.14	0.77	0.04
15. Enjoying the same activities	1.13	0.16	0.67	0.05
16. Having a partner who really talks to you	1.37	0.16	0.81	0.03
17. The ability of you and your partner to work out conflicts	1.31	0.15	0.84	0.03
18. Having a partner who is a good friend	1.14	0.14	0.76	0.04
19. Doing things together for fun	1.26	0.15	0.80	0.03
20. Your partner doing (his or her) share to make the relationship work	1.24	0.14	0.85	0.03
21. Your partner liking you as a person	1.06	0.13	0.76	0.04
22. Being able to disagree without threatening the relationship	1.23	0.15	0.82	0.03
23. Your relationship with your partner's family	1.00	0.16	0.58	0.06
24. Having a partner who is a good listener	1.28	0.16	0.76	0.04
25. Your partner giving you constructive criticism when you need it	1.21	0.15	0.75	0.04
26. Having a lot in common with your partner	1.09	0.14	0.74	0.04

Table 10

Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Supervisor-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 2

Mediation Model					
	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
Direct Effects					
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	6.58	0.21	31.37	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	-0.47	0.11	-4.17	0.00	.11***
<i>Supervisor-Directed Deviance as DV</i>					
Constant	1.34	0.21	6.42	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.19	0.04	4.52	0.00	
Moral Courage	-0.06	0.03	-2.18	0.03	.20***
Indirect Effects					
Abusive Supervision on Supervisor-Directed Deviance	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.08	
Moderated-Mediation Model					
	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
Direct Effects					
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	2.88	0.96	3.00	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.63	0.46	1.36	0.17	
LMX	0.92	0.26	3.60	0.00	
Abusive Supervision*LMX	-0.26	0.14	-1.90	0.06	.23***
<i>Supervisor-Directed Deviance as DV</i>					

Constant	3.13	0.95	3.29	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.17	0.04	3.95	0.00	
Moral Courage	-0.28	0.16	-1.74	0.08	
Work Role Quality	-0.67	0.33	-2.00	0.05	
Moral Courage*Work Role Quality	0.09	0.06	1.54	0.12	.25***

Conditional Indirect Effects

Abusive Supervision on Supervisor-Directed Deviance

	Norms	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Low LMX	Low WRQ	0.01	0.02	-0.01	0.06
Low LMX	Mean WRQ	0.00	0.01	-0.00	0.03
Low LMX	High WRQ	-0.00	0.01	-0.04	0.01
Mean LMX	Low WRQ	0.02	0.02	-0.00	0.08
Mean LMX	Mean WRQ	0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.04
Mean LMX	High WRQ	-0.01	0.02	-0.06	0.01
High LMX	Low WRQ	0.04	0.03	-0.01	0.13
High LMX	Mean WRQ	0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.05
High LMX	High WRQ	-0.02	0.03	-0.09	0.02

*Note: N = 144 dyads. DV = Dependent variable. SE = Standard Error. LLCI = Bias corrected lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = bias corrected upper limit confidence interval. LMX = Leader member exchange. WRQ = Job role quality. Boot = 2000 bootstrap samples. Effect size estimates are unstandardized coefficients. Moderator values are the mean plus/minus one standard deviation. *** p < .001*

Table 11

Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Organization-Directed Deviance Outcome in Study 2

Mediation Model					
	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
Direct Effects					
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	6.58	0.21	31.37	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	-0.47	0.11	-4.17	0.00	.11***
<i>Organization-Directed Deviance as DV</i>					
Constant	1.89	0.22	8.79	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.14	0.04	3.29	0.00	
Moral Courage	-0.12	0.03	-3.95	0.00	.22***
Indirect Effects					
Abusive Supervision on Organizational-Directed Deviance	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
	0.06	0.03	0.02	0.13	
Moderated-Mediation Model					
	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
Direct Effects					
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	2.88	0.96	3.00	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.63	0.46	1.36	0.17	
LMX	0.92	0.26	3.60	0.00	
Abusive Supervision*LMX	-0.26	0.14	-1.90	0.06	.23***
<i>Organization-Directed Deviance as DV</i>					

Constant	5.01	0.96	5.19	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.12	0.04	2.89	0.00	
Moral Courage	-0.58	0.17	-3.48	0.00	
Work Role Quality	-1.14	0.34	-3.37	0.00	
Moral Courage*Work Role Quality	0.17	0.06	2.97	0.00	.29***

Conditional Indirect Effects

Abusive Supervision on Organization-Directed Deviance

	Norms	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Low LMX	Low WRQ	0.02	0.03	-0.03	0.08
Low LMX	Mean WRQ	0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.04
Low LMX	High WRQ	-0.00	0.01	-0.05	0.01
Mean LMX	Low WRQ	0.05	0.03	0.01	0.13
Mean LMX	Mean WRQ	0.02	0.02	-0.00	0.07
Mean LMX	High WRQ	-0.02	0.02	-0.06	0.03
High LMX	Low WRQ	0.09	0.04	0.03	0.21
High LMX	Mean WRQ	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.11
High LMX	High WRQ	-0.03	0.04	-0.10	0.05

Note: $N = 200$. DV = Dependent variable. SE = Standard Error. LLCI = Bias corrected lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = bias corrected upper limit confidence interval. LMX = Leader member exchange. WRQ = Work role quality. Boot = 2000 bootstrap samples. Effect size estimates are unstandardized coefficients. Moderator values are the mean plus/minus one standard deviation. *** $p < .001$

Table 12
Mediation and Moderated-Mediation for Spousal Undermining Outcome in Study 2

Mediation Model					
Direct Effects	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	6.58	0.21	31.37	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	-0.47	0.11	-4.17	0.00	.11***
<i>Spousal Undermining as DV</i>					
Constant	2.07	0.61	3.37	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.24	0.12	1.96	0.05	
Moral Courage	-0.05	0.09	-0.59	0.56	.04
Indirect Effects					
Abusive Supervision on Spousal Undermining	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
	0.02	0.04	-0.03	0.14	
Moderated-Mediation Model					
Direct Effects	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Model R²</i>
<i>Moral Courage as DV</i>					
Constant	2.88	0.96	3.00	0.00	
Abusive Supervision	0.63	0.46	1.36	0.17	
LMX	0.92	0.26	3.60	0.00	
Abusive Supervision*LMX	-0.26	0.14	-1.90	0.06	.23***
<i>Supervisor-Directed Deviance as DV</i>					
Constant	5.12	3.11	1.65	0.10	
Abusive Supervision	0.20	0.12	1.64	0.10	

Moral Courage	-0.21	0.53	-0.40	0.69	
Family Role Quality	-0.96	0.90	-1.07	0.29	
Moral Courage*Family Role Quality	0.06	0.15	0.40	0.69	.12***

Conditional Indirect Effects

Abusive Supervision on Spousal Undermining

	Norms	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Low LMX	Low FRQ	0.00	0.03	-0.04	0.10
Low LMX	Mean FRQ	0.00	0.01	-0.03	0.04
Low LMX	High FRQ	-0.00	0.01	-0.05	0.01
Mean LMX	Low FRQ	0.02	0.06	-0.09	0.16
Mean LMX	Mean FRQ	0.00	0.03	-0.05	0.07
Mean LMX	High FRQ	-0.01	0.03	-0.07	0.04
High LMX	Low FRQ	0.02	0.10	-0.15	0.24
High LMX	Mean FRQ	0.00	0.05	-0.08	0.11
High LMX	High FRQ	-0.02	0.05	-0.11	0.07

*Note: N = 144 dyads. DV = Dependent variable. SE = Standard Error. LLCI = Bias corrected lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = bias corrected upper limit confidence interval. LMX = Leader member exchange. FRQ = Family role quality. Spousal Undermining reported by spouse. Boot = 2000 bootstrap samples. Effect size estimates are unstandardized coefficients. Moderator values are the mean plus/minus one standard deviation. *** $p < .001$ ** $< .01$*

LIST OF MEASURES

Abusive Supervision (Tepper, 2000)

Instructions: Using the following five---point response scale, please rate the frequency that you have experiences each of these behaviors.

- 1 = I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me
- 2 = He /she very seldom uses this behavior with me
- 3 = He /she occasionally uses this behavior with me
- 4 = He /she uses this behavior moderately with me
- 5 = He /she uses this behavior very often with me

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

Moral Courage (Hannah, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2011)

Instructions: Using the following seven-point response scale, please rate how frequently you have engaged in each of these behaviors.

- 1 = Never 2 3 4 5 6 7= Always

1. I possess the moral courage to correct my behavior
2. I adhere to regulations, even when faced with peer pressure to do otherwise
3. I demonstrate courage to do the right thing, even at personal cost

Organization Directed Deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000)

Instructions: Using the following five-point response scale, please rate how frequently you have engaged in each of these behaviors.

- 1 = Never 2 3 4 5 = Daily

1. Taken property from work without permission
2. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working
3. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses
4. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace
5. Came in late to work without permission
6. Littered your work environment
7. Neglected to follow your boss's instructions
8. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked
9. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person
10. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job
11. Put little effort into your work
12. Dragged out work in order to get overtime

Supervisor Directed Deviance (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007)

Instructions: Using the following five-point response scale, please rate how frequently you have engaged in each of these behaviors.

1 = Never 2 3 4 5 = Always

1. Made fun of my supervisor at work
2. Played a mean prank on my supervisor
3. Made an obscene comment or gesture toward my supervisor
4. Acted rudely toward my supervisor
5. Gossiped about my supervisor
6. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark against my supervisor
7. Publically embarrassed my supervisor
8. Swore at my supervisor
9. Refused to talk to my supervisor
10. Said something hurtful to my supervisor at work

Spousal Undermining (Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011)

Instructions: Using the following seven-point response scale, please rate the extent to which your spouse has engaged in each of these behaviors.

1 = He/she cannot remember using this behavior towards me

2 3 4 5 6

7 = He/she always use this behavior towards me

1. Acted in an unpleasant or angry manner towards me
2. Gave a critical remark on my ideas
3. Criticized me
4. Insulted me

5. Gave me the silent treatment

Leader-Member Exchange: LMX-7 (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994)

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items that ask you to describe your relationship with your supervisor. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by choosing one of the responses that appear below the item.

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader . . . [and] do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?

1=Rarely 2=Occasionally 3=Sometimes 4=Fairly often 5=Very often

2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?

1=Not a bit 2=A little 3=A fair amount 4=Quite a bit 5=A great deal

3. How well does your leader (follower) recognize your potential?

1=Not at all 2=A little 3=Moderately 4=Mostly 5=Fully

4. Regardless of how much formal authority your leader has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?

1=None 2=Small 3=Moderate 4=High 5=Very high

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he or she would “bail you out” at his or her expense?

1=None 2=Small 3=Moderate 4=High 5=Very high

6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Neutral 4=Agree 5=Strongly agree

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

1=Extremely ineffective 2=Worse than average 3=Average 4=Better than average 5=Extremely effective

Work Role Quality (Barnett, Marshall, Raudenbush, & Brennan, 1993)

Instructions: Using the following four-point response scale, please rate the extent to which the following questions are rewarding aspects of your work role.

1=not at all 2 3 4=extremely

1. Challenging or stimulating work
2. Liking your co-workers
3. The income
4. Being able to work on your own
5. The job security
6. The recognition you get
7. Doing work you consider significant
8. Your supervisor's respect for your abilities
9. Being needed by others
10. Being able to set your own work schedule
11. Your work contributing to the good of a larger community
12. Having a variety of tasks
13. Having hours that fit your needs
14. Being able to work as part of a team or group
15. Your job being flexible enough that you can respond to nonwork situations
16. Liking your supervisor
17. Making good money compared with other people in your field
18. Being able to make decisions on your own
19. Your supervisor's concern about the welfare of those under him or her
20. The sense of accomplishment and competence you get from doing your job
21. Having the authority you need to get your job done
22. Having friendly co-workers
23. The job's fitting your skills
24. The appreciation you get
25. The opportunities for advancement
26. The freedom to decide how you do your work
27. Your supervisor paying attention to what you have to say
28. Having an impact on other people's lives
29. The opportunity for learning new things
30. Helping others
31. Having supportive co-workers
32. The benefits your job offers, for example, paid sick leave

Family Role Quality (Barnett, Marshall, Raudenbush, & Brennan, 1993)

Instructions: Using the following four-point response scale, please rate the extent to which the following questions are rewarding aspects of your family role.

1=not at all 2 3 4=extremely

1. Having a partner who is easy to get along with
2. Your partner's doing (his or her) fair share at home
3. The physical affection
4. Your partner being proud of you
5. Your partner's financial contributions to the household
6. Your partner's appreciation of you
7. Your partner actively encouraging you
8. Your sexual relationship
9. Your partner's contribution of (his or her) fair share to the family's finances
10. Good communication
11. Socializing as a couple
12. Your partner's backing you up in what you want to do
13. Your partner's concern for members of your family, such as your parents, brothers or sisters, etc.
14. Your partner's finding you physically attractive
15. Enjoying the same activities
16. Having a partner who really talks to you
17. The ability of you and your partner to work out conflicts
18. Having a partner who is a good friend
19. Doing things together for fun
20. Your partner doing (his or her) share to make the relationship work
21. Your partner liking you as a person
22. Being able to disagree without threatening the relationship
23. Your relationship with your partner's family
24. Having a partner who is a good listener
25. Your partner giving you constructive criticism when you need it
26. Having a lot in common with your partner

Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)

Instructions: This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read or listen to each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way **in the last year**. Use the following scale for your answers.

1=very slightly or not at all 2=a little 3= moderately 4=quite a bit 5=extremely

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

- 9. Jittery
- 10. Afraid

Demographic Questions

How old are you?

What is your gender? (M/F)

Which of the following best describes your racial/ethnic background? (Black/African American, White/Caucasian, Hispanic, Asian American/Pacific Islander, Native American, Other)

Are you currently employed full-time? (Y/N)

Are you currently married or living as married? (Y/N)

How long have you been employed in your current job (in years)?

How long have you been working under your current supervisor (in years)?

Do you have children (Y/N)?

How many children do you have?

In which industry do you work in?

VITA

KRZYSZTOF (KRIS) DUNIEWICZ

Born, Warsaw, Poland

- 1999-2004 B.A. Sociology
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec
- 2004-2007 B.A. (Honours) Psychology
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec
- 2009-2013 M.S. Industrial/Organizational Psychology (2013)
Florida International University
Miami, Florida

PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

- Michel, J., Duniewicz, K., & Newness, K. (2013). How abusive supervision affects workplace deviance: The impact of negative affect and aggression. Presented at Academy of Management Meeting, Orlando, FL.
- Duniewicz, K. & Michel, J. (2013). State of our toolbox: A meta-analysis of reliability measurement precision. Presented at the 28th Annual SIOP Conference, Houston, TX.
- Brutus, S. & Duniewicz, K. (2012). The many heels of Achilles: An analysis of self-reported limitations in leadership research. *Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 202-212.
- Brutus, S., Gill, H., & Duniewicz, K., (2010). State of science in industrial-organizational psychology: A review of self-reported limitations. *Personnel Psychology*, 63, 907-936.
- Brutus, S., Gill, H., & Duniewicz, K. (2010). State of science in industrial-organizational psychology: A review of self-reported limitations. Presented at the 25th Annual SIOP Conference. Atlanta, GA.
- Brutus, S., & Duniewicz, K. (2007). An analysis of self-reported limitations in leadership research. Presented at the Canadian Psychological Association (CPA) Annual Convention. Ottawa, ON.