

ABUSIVE SUPERVISION AND LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE:
AN ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDINAL, EMOTIONAL
AND BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES



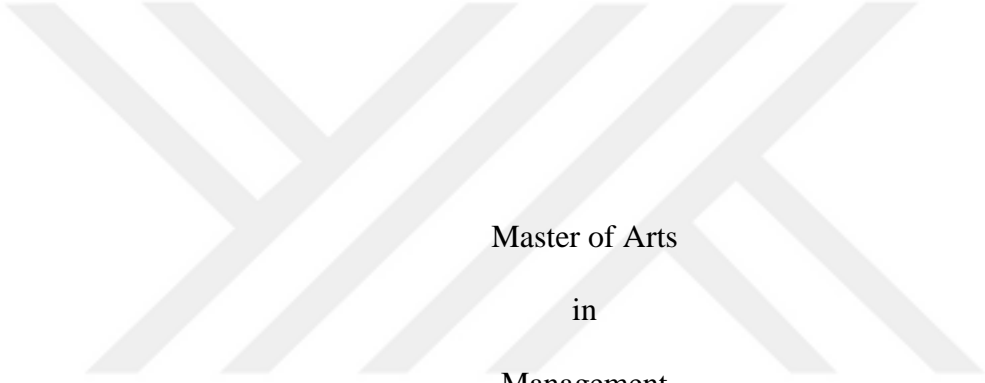
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BOĐAZIĐI UNIVERSITY

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ABUSIVE SUPERVISION AND LEADER–MEMBER EXCHANGE:
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AND BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES

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Abusive Supervision and Leader–Member Exchange:
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ABSTRACT

Abusive Supervision and Leader–Member Exchange: An Analysis of Attitudinal, Emotional and Behavioral Outcomes

The study aims to investigate abusive supervision in the broader context of a supervisor-subordinate relationship. Abusive supervision, such as lying and ridiculing, are detrimental to the employees. However, these behaviors occur in a dyadic and exchange-based relationship between the employee and supervisor – as leader-member exchanges. Little research conducted on both leader-member exchange (LMX) and abusive supervision has produced inconclusive results. This thesis proposes that abusive supervision is a negative antecedent of LMX and outcomes may occur through decreased LMX. Online survey-based two-phased data collection was conducted to test the hypotheses of the study. Participants were contracted through e-mailings or social media ads. Time lag was 1 month. Well established surveys were used. The final sample of 268 respondents was analyzed with mediation analysis of LMX between abusive supervision and outcomes. Full mediation was found for emotional exhaustion, perceived organizational support, and supervisor-directed organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Both direct and indirect effects (partial mediation) were found for organization-directed OCB, interpersonal OCB, and interactional justice. LMX was insignificant with interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors. As a result, the outcomes are partially or fully mediated by LMX. Results suggest while abusive supervision is harmful, LMX (the broader subordinate-supervisor relationship) also is critical to understand abusive supervision's detrimental outcomes. LMX may emerge as the most significant mediator of abusive supervision with further studies.

ÖZET

İstismarcı Yönetim ve Lider-Üye İlişkisi: Algısal, Duygusal ve Davranışsal Çalışan Tepkileri Üzerine Bir Analiz

Bu çalışma istismarcı yönetimi, daha kapsamlı üst-ast ilişkileri içerisinde incelemeyi hedeflemektedir. Yalan söylemek ve küçük düşürmek gibi davranışları içeren istismarcı yönetim çalışanlar için oldukça zararlıdır. Ancak bu davranışlar, lider-üye ilişkisi gibi, çalışan ve yönetici arasındaki ikili ve karşılıklı mübadele içeren ilişkiler içerisinde gerçekleşmektedir. Lider üye ilişkisi ve istismarcı yönetim üzerine yapılan az sayıda çalışma net sonuçlar üretmemiştir. Bu tez, istismarcı yönetimin, kötü lider-üye ilişkilerine sebep olduğunu ve çalışan tepkilerinin bu kötüleşen lider-üye ilişkileri aracılığıyla olduğunu önermektedir. Hipotezlerin testleri için iki aşamalı ve online data toplanmıştır. Katılımcılara e-mail ve sosyal medya reklamları aracılığıyla ulaşılmıştır. Anketin iki aşaması arasında 1 ay ara verilmiştir ve daha önceki çalışmalarda geçerliliği kanıtlanmış ölçekler kullanılmıştır. 268 katılımcıdan oluşan son örnekleme, lider-üye ilişkisinin istismarcı yönetim ve çalışan tepkileri ilişkilerinde aracılık (mediator) rolü test edilmiştir. Duygusal tükenme, algılanan örgütsel destek ve yöneticiye yönelik örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarında, lider üye ilişkisinin tam aracılık (full mediator) rolü bulunmuştur. Organizasyona ve diğer kişilere yönelik örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarında ve ilişkisel adalet algılarında kısmi aracılık (partial mediator) rolü bulunmuştur. Lider-üye ilişkisinin diğer kişilere olan verimlilik karşıtı davranışlara etkisi bulunmamıştır. Sonuç olarak, istismarcı yönetimin çalışan tepkilerinin neredeyse tamamında lider-üye ilişkisinin tam veya kısmi aracı rolü bulunmuştur. Sonuçlar, istismarcı yönetimin zararlarını tekrar vurgulamakla beraber, lider-üye ilişkisini (ve yönetici ile çalışan arasındaki kapsamlı

ilişkinin) incelemenin, istismarcı yönetimin sonuçlarını anlamak için önemli olduğunu göstermiştir. Lider-üye ilişkilerinin, gelecek çalışmalarda istismarcı yönetimin en önemli aracı değişkeni olarak ortaya çıkması olasıdır.



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ABBREVIATIONS

ABS	Abusive Supervision
CWB	Counterproductive Work Behaviors
CWB-I	Interpersonal Counterproductive Work Behaviors
CWB-O	Organizational Counterproductive Work Behaviors
EE	Emotional Exhaustion
IJ	Interactional Justice
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OCB-I	Interpersonal Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OCB-O	Organization-directed Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OCB-S	Supervisor-directed Organizational Citizenship Behavior
POS	Perceived Organizational Justice

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

An employee's relationship with his/her own supervisor is one of the most critical relationships in the workplace. In fact, Gallup's study of more than 80,000 managers showed that "employees don't leave their companies; they leave their managers and supervisors" (Gallup, 1999: para. 1). Unfortunately, not all managers are good and kinds of destructive ways of leading are prevalent in workplaces with negative effects on both employees and organizations (Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

While researchers long ignored this dark side of leadership, claiming it as an "oxymoron" because leadership can only be a positive construct (Howell & Avolio, 1992), later it was recognized this is a distinct construct that warrants further investigation (Tepper, 2000). So far various names with different conceptualization have been given to these managers such as petty tyrants (Ashforth, 1994), toxic leaders (Lipman-Blumen, 2006; Schmidt, 2008), destructive leaders (Einarsen, Aasland, Skogstad, 2007; Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013); but one phenomenon have stood amongst others in the last two decades with more than 200 publications: abusive supervision (Tepper, Simon, & Park, 2017).

Abusive supervision is the "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000:178). Examples of abusive supervision behaviors are invading privacy, being rude, ridiculing, telling employee's thoughts or feelings are stupid, breaking promises and reminding past mistakes (Tepper, 2000).

Abusive supervision's consequences have been vastly investigated (Martinko, Harvey, & Brees, 2013). It has been estimated that abusive supervision costs at least 23.8 billion dollars per year in the US (Tepper, 2007) and it is almost universally harmful with negative effects on employee attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction, commitment, turnover intentions), employee well-being (e.g. depression, anxiety, emotional exhaustion), employee behaviors (e.g. deviance or avoiding contact), justice perceptions (e.g. distributive, procedural and interactional), performance (e.g. OCB, engagement, voice) and family related outcomes (e.g. family undermining and family-to-work conflict) (Zhang & Liao, 2015). Given these detrimental consequences to the employees, their organizations and even employees' families; another stream of abusive supervision has investigated the underlying processes from abusive supervision to consequences. While researchers have found possible mediators such as affective commitment, interactional justice, need satisfaction, perceived organizational support, emotional exhaustion, the extant research still lacks a complete, or generalizable picture of underlying processes (Tepper et al., 2017; Michel, Newness, Duniewicz, 2016).

One important but neglected area of abusive supervision research is how it is positioned with other leadership models. This is important because one's relationship with the immediate supervisor cannot be fully understood without considering the ranging leadership behaviors such as task orientation, empowerment, participative because there will be interplay amongst them; however, only a small body of research exists in this area (Tepper et al., 2017). Investigating abusive supervision in the relationship context, therefore, can be helpful in this domain (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012). Researchers have used leader-member exchange (LMX) to consider the broad relationship quality between supervisor-subordinate (Lian et al.,

2012; Martinko, Harvey, Sikora, & Douglas, 2011; Martinko, Sikora, & Harvey, 2012; Xu, Loi, & Lam, 2015; Decoster, Camps, & Stouten, 2014). This direction enhanced our understanding of how they both interact; however, these results were mixed, hence warranting further examination. For example, it was proposed that abusive supervision and LMX may be confounding variables that the scales are measuring the same thing as a result of factor analysis (Martinko et al., 2011, 2013). Even with the assumption of these two phenomena being conceptually different, researchers have made different claims about how LMX and abusive supervision work together. For example, grounding on “mixed relationships” approach where both positive and negative aspects can occur in the same relationship (such as a mother’s yelling and reminding past mistakes to her son while generally being in a very supportive relationship), some researchers found support that LMX moderates various relationships between abusive supervision and work outcomes (e.g. Lian et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2015). On the other hand, grounding on “social exchange” between supervisor and subordinate, some researchers found support as LMX being a mediator between abusive supervision and various outcomes where abusive supervision induces poor exchange and harm the overall relationship (e.g. Xu et al., 2012; Decoster et al., 2014).

Given these inconsistent results and Tepper et al. (2017)’s calls on abusive supervision’s examination with broader leadership concepts; this study aims to provide both theoretical and empirical examination to the question at hand “How do abusive supervision and LMX together affect employee outcomes?”. Firstly, relevant literature and work will be reviewed; and later a comprehensive empirical study of abusive supervision and LMX to three groups of employee outcomes: attitudes (interactional justice and perceived organizational support), emotions (emotional

exhaustion) and behaviors (organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors) will be presented.

This study's contributions to extant knowledge are two-fold. First, it aims to help to understand the theoretical positioning of abusive supervision and LMX. It can advance abusive supervision theory with identifying the boundary conditions of abusive supervision and how these two important phenomena concurrently affect workplace outcomes. Secondly, it attempts to solve at least some of the inconsistencies in the previous findings through a comprehensive empirical analysis some of which attempts to replicate previous results or extend them.

CHAPTER 2

ABUSIVE SUPERVISION LITERATURE REVIEW

Abusive supervision has been introduced by Tepper (2000) and has become a hot area in organizational research. In this section, abusive supervision literature is being summarized. Firstly, the context of abusive supervision in the broader destructive leadership, secondly the antecedents, thirdly the consequences and lastly the moderators are discussed.

2.1. Destructive leadership and abusive supervision

Before reviewing the abusive supervision literature, it would be beneficial to briefly review the broader research stream, destructive leadership, as it provides context to abusive supervision. Destructive leadership has been investigated under different names, such as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), toxic leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2006), petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997), or under the same name of “destructive leadership” but with different conceptualizations (e.g. Shaw, Erickson, & Harvey, 2011; Thoroughgood, Padilla, Hunter, & Tate, 2012), or under different contexts, either in army (e.g. Steele, 2011; Williams, 2005; Reed, 2004), civilian, or both (Schmidt, 2008).

One of the first definitions came from Whicker (1996:66), defining destructive leaders as “maladjusted, malcontent, often malevolent, malicious people who succeed by tearing others down with a deep-seated but well-disguised sense of personal inadequacy, a focus on selfish values”. Later Flynn (1999: para.1) defined them as “the manager who bullies, threatens, yells, with mood swings affecting the climate of the office”. Even though these definitions focused on behaviors and its

effects on employees, Wilson-Starks (2003:2) used the more organization-based definition “...an approach that harms people, and eventually the company as well – through the poisoning of enthusiasm, creativity, autonomy, and innovative expression”. These leaders were also a point of interest for U.S. army and they also defined destructive leaders as “not one specific behavior that deems one toxic but cumulative effect of demotivational behavior on unit morale and climate over time, including lack of concern for the well-being of subordinates, a personality or interpersonal technique that negatively affects organizational climate and a conviction by subordinates that the leader is motivated primarily by self-interest” (Reed, 2004:67).

Different conceptualization attempts were made, for example Einarsen et al. (2007:2), defining it “systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organization by undermining and /or sabotaging the organization’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates”. Shaw et al. (2011) using a consistent definition developed Destructive Leadership Questionnaire. In their conceptualization, destructive leadership constituted several sets of behaviors such as Autocratic Behavior, Poor Communication, and Unable to Effectively Deal with Subordinates, Poor Ethics/Integrity and much more. Steele (2011) defined them as leaders who promote themselves at the expense of the subordinates without an intent to harm – but leaved out the anti-organizational behaviors. Thoroughgood, Tate, Sawyer, and Jacobs (2012) defined them voluntary behaviors perceived as harmful and deviant to the employees and organizations, including physical. This definition includes constructs as “Sexual Harassment” or “Unethical Behavior” while other definitions do not include. Overall, these conceptualizations’ difference can be

summarized as whether destructive leadership is in perception or in actual behavior, is it intentional or not, is it physical, verbal, or non-verbal, or should we include outcomes (see Schyns & Schilling, 2013 for a detailed discussion).

Krasikova et al. (2013) recognized this lack of unified definition and proposed a theoretical framework to capture the complete picture for the various studies as well as identify characteristic features of destructive leadership and distinguish it from the related yet distinct concepts (such as counterproductive work behaviors). They defined it as destructive leadership as either leaders' destructive goals (conflicting goals with the organization) or destructive leadership style in the process of leading (harmful methods of influencing followers). Their theory proposed that destructive leadership is constituted of volitional behaviors, excluding items do not involve leading others and distinct from ineffective leadership.

Abusive supervision fits into this picture as the destructive leadership style. However, this is an ex-post classification because, in the last 20 years where the dark side of leadership research stream gained momentum, abusive supervision has been the only construct that has gained real attraction from researchers as evidenced with more than 200 publications of abusive supervision (Tepper et al., 2017) in contrast to relatively low number of other constructs' publications (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). While researchers continue to investigate other constructs, such as organizational psychopaths (Boddy, 2011;2014), one major reason can be the lack of agreement on the question of "what is destructive?". The definition of "destructive" can change between people, organizations, industries, and countries. However, the specific acts that constitute abusive supervision can be said to be relatively universally negative construct (Mackey, Frieder, Brees, & Martinko, 2017), or at least, can be agreed intuitively by most people, as these behaviors are such as "lying", "ridiculing",

“ignoring”. Therefore, it can be expected that abusive supervision will be the main research venue for researchers in the following years.

2.2. Antecedents of abusive supervision

Given the importance of understanding abusive supervision, examining the antecedents of abusive supervision is a must (Martinko et al., 2013). In this section, the most recent empirical meta-analysis and qualitative review of the antecedents of abusive supervision are synthesized and presented. Abusive supervision’s antecedents can be categorized as social learning, identity threat and self-regulation impairment perspectives where there are supervisor-level, organization-level and subordinate related antecedents (Zhang & Bednall, 2016; Tepper et al., 2017).

2.2.1. Identity threat

Identity threat is “...the notion that supervisors may be more likely to abuse their direct reports when they experience threats to their identity as a leader, their sense of power or control, or their competence to effectively fulfill their responsibilities” (Tepper et al., 2017:139). Identity threats can come from above (supervisors’ supervisors), below (subordinates) and within (supervisor related characteristics) (Tepper et al., 2017). Identity threats from above (or on an equal level) mainly trigger emotional stressors; in turn, affect supervisors to act abusive (Hoobler & Hu, 2013). For example, the trickle-down model of abusive supervision (Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012) states when supervisors are abused by their own supervisors, they can become abusive themselves to their own subordinates. This is further supported by research grounded on displaced aggression theory where a party displaces its aggression to a secondary party (Dollard, Miller,

Doob, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939; Hoobler & Brass, 2006). Additionally, Harris, Harvey, & Kacmar (2011) extended this proposition showing supervisors, who themselves experiencing co-worker conflict, can become more abusive to their subordinates. Consistently, supervisors' justice perception breaches or psychological contract breaches can yield emotional strain, in turn, triggering abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007). Given these are emotional processes, positive and negative affectivity of supervisors will also have effects on these relationships (Zhang & Bednall, 2016). In its essence, this evidence shows when supervisors experience stressors, these stressors, in turn, can yield reactions, that some of them can be towards to subordinate in form of abusive supervision.

Subordinates may also be provoking abusive reactions from supervisors, which is grounded on victim precipitation and moral exclusion theory where some individuals are more prone to perceive abusive treatment as a result of their perception of weakness by others or the perception that they deserve unfair treatment (Tepper et al., 2017). Employees showing low political skill or having more demographic dissimilarity can be more prone to abusive supervision (Zhang & Bendall, 2016). Gender may affect as it was shown that people consider abusive supervision to be more acceptable and deserving to when acted towards a low-performing woman employee than a low-performing male employee (Arman & Gencay, in preparation). It was proposed that employees who are high on negative affectivity are more prone to experience abusive supervision (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). However, another explanation is noteworthy to mention here. Abusive supervision is inherently a subordinate perception (Martinko et al., 2013) where the perceptions can be distorted by biases and personalities (Brees, Martinko, & Harvey, 2016). In fact, studies show that attribution style, hostile attribution style,

negative affect, trait anger, entitlement, and employee conscientiousness affect the perception of abusive supervision (Martinko, et al. 2011; Brees et al., 2016; Camps, Stouten, & Euwema, 2016). Therefore, the perception and measurement of abusive supervision may not be fully capturing the real-world behavior of abusive supervision. However, no matter the abusive supervision perception increases by perception distortion through subordinate characteristics, or actual behavior provoked by a subordinate, the harmful detrimental effects still exist.

The identity threats can also come from inside for example in form of Machiavellianism, supervisor power, need for power; however, this line of research is largely scarce (Tepper et al., 2017).

2.2.2. Social learning

While identity threats and emotional process perspectives are both intuitive and empirically supported, learning is another process that can trigger a supervisor to act abusively. For example, consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), where individuals learn which behaviors and attitudes are correct in which context, both workplace role models and familial role models can act as the antecedents of abusive supervision (Tepper et al., 2017). Supervisors may choose a leadership style imitating their supervisors (Weiss, 1977) and these leadership styles that, furthermore, may be more destructively oriented that manifest hostile behaviors, which in turn, perceived as abusive supervision (Zhang & Bednall, 2016).

Furthermore, aggressive organizational norms, hostile organizational climates and other possible contextual factors of the workplace can give ground for the existence of abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007; Tepper et al., 2017). Lastly, cultural characteristics such as power distance and traditionalism may affect abusive

supervision because they both show the employees' acceptance of unequal power and authority distribution in the organization (Zhang & Bednall, 2016).

2.2.3. Self-regulation impairment

Finally, self-regulation impairment may trigger abusive supervision, grounded on ego-depletion theory when self-regulatory functions are exhausted and in turn caused regulatory failure, which further leads to self-destructive behaviors such as aggression (Tepper et al., 2017). For example, when supervisors experience time-constrained stressful work (Burton, Hoobler, & Scheuer, 2012) or have too much challenging tasks (Mawritz, Folger, & Latham, 2014), or drain of too much of their self-resources (Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016), doing surface acting (Yam, Fehr, Keng-Highberger, Klotz, & Reynolds, 2016), or experiencing sleep-deprivation (Barnes, Lucianetti, Bhave, & Christian, 2015); supervisors may get more abusive due to self-regulation impairment (Tepper et al., 2017).

2.2.4. Meta-analysis results

In sum, Zhang and Bednall conducted an empirical meta-analysis of more than 70 studies examining the antecedents of abusive supervision. They presented evidence that abusive supervision is associated with supervisors' justice perception breaches (interactional and procedural), having negative experiences, stress, and their display of authoritarian, ethical, supportive and transformational leadership styles.

Furthermore, abusive supervision is associated with supervisors' emotional intelligence, organizational sanctions and norms, subordinates' negative affectivity, power distance, narcissism, agreeableness, and age. However, supervisors' negative affect, power, Machiavellianism, or most of the subordinate characteristics (e.g.

stability, political skill, neuroticism)'s confidence intervals included zero hence were not supported (2016). This line of research is further developing, and it is significantly extending the theory of abusive supervision.

2.3. Consequences of abusive supervision

Research on abusive supervision's consequences has reached its saturation point (Martinko et al., 2013). Even though there is yet no integrated framework on these consequences (Tepper et al., 2017) and there are methodological issues needs to be addressed (Mackey et al., 2017), the empirically tested consequences are well established. In this section, consequences of abusive supervision are categorized as subordinate attitudes, well-being, justice perceptions, behaviors, performance and family-related outcomes (Zhang & Liao, 2015).

2.3.1. Attitudes

Grounded on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), subordinates get displeased of their exchanges with the supervisors, the findings on subordinate attitudes have been consistent (Zhang & Liao, 2015; Martinko et al., 2013). The findings show that abusive supervision is negatively associated with job satisfaction (Bowling & Michel, 2011; Lin et al., 2013; Breaux, Perrewé, Hall, Frink, & Hochwarter, 2008), family satisfaction (Carlson, Ferguson, Perrewé, & Whitten, 2011; Tepper, 2000), perceived organizational support (Haar, Fluiter, & Brougham, 2016), affective commitment (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah., 2007; Duffy & Ferrier, 2003) and positively with turnover intentions (Haar, Fluiter, & Brougham, 2016).

2.3.2. Well-being

Abusive supervisors harm the well-being of the subordinates (Martinko et al., 2013), and according to the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), this harm is due to the stress caused by the abusive supervisors' threats or removal of resources in workplaces (Zhang & Liao, 2015). This line of research suggests the symptoms of victims (subordinates) bear resemblance to the post-traumatic stress disorders' symptoms (Tepper et al., 2017).

Extant research shows abusive supervision is associated with depression (Tepper et al., 2007; Alexander, 2011), emotional exhaustion (Aryee, Sun, Chen, & Debrah, 2008; Breaux et al., 2008), negative affectivity (Biron, 2010; Burton et al., 2012), self-regulation impairment (Thau & Mitchell, 2010), anxiety (Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2007), anger (Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011), affective well-being (Kernan, Watson, Chen & Kim, 2011) and organizational self-esteem (Farh & Chen, 2014). Furthermore, abusive supervision has been found to relate to health problems such as insomnia (Rafferty, Restubog, & Jimmieson, 2010), problem drinking (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006) and other unhealthy symptoms (Zhang & Liao, 2015; Mackey et al., 2017).

2.3.3. Justice perceptions

Abusive supervision was first proposed as a justice breach (Tepper, 2000) where abusive supervision reduces employees' justice perceptions based on organizational justice and fairness theory (Mackey et al., 2017). Justice perception has been one of the most commonly studied outcomes (Martinko et al., 2013). Abusive supervision is negatively associated with interactional justice (Aryee et al., 2007; Burton & Hoobler, 2011), interpersonal justice (Lian et al., 2012), procedural justice (Tepper,

2000; Zellars, Tepper, Duffy, 2002), distributive justice (Burris, Detert, Chiaburu, 2008; Thau & Mitchell, 2010), and supervision interactional justice (Hoobler & Hu, 2013; Rafferty et al., 2010).

2.3.4. Behaviors

Drawing upon the frustration-aggression hypothesis (Dollard et al., 1939) and emotion-stressor model (Spector & Fox, 2005); the strain and negative emotions caused by abusive supervision may lead to various subordinate behaviors, either directly to supervisor (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2012) or to organization (Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008), or displaced to other coworkers (Gencay & Acar, 2017). In effect, employees who are abused show various kinds of deviant behaviors in workplaces.

Abusive supervision is positively associated with interpersonal deviance (Alexander, 2011; Lian et al., 2012), organizational deviance (Biron, 2010; Tepper et al., 2008), supervisor-directed deviance (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2012), counterproductive work behaviors (Chu, 2014; Ogunfowara, 2013) and instigated workplace incivility (Gencay & Acar, 2017). Furthermore, abusive supervision negatively affects communication or subordinates may attempt to ignore their supervisors to reduce their interactions (Zhang & Liao, 2015).

2.3.5. Performance

Drawing on social exchange theory, subordinates may intentionally decrease their performance if they believe to be treated unfairly (Zhang & Liao, 2015). Abusive supervision negatively affects both in-role and extra-role performance (Mackey et

al., 2017) while sometimes it may be hard to objectively measure the performance (Tepper et al., 2017).

Extant research shows abusive supervision is negatively associated with supervisor-rated (Xu et al., 2012; Decoster et al., 2014) performance and employee rated effort (Harris et al., 2011), organizational citizenship behaviors (Gregory et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2011; Kacmar et al., 2013), voice and engagement (Zhang & Liao, 2015).

2.3.6. Family outcomes

Abusive supervision has been found to extend from workplaces to the family lives of employees due to its spill-over effect (Martinko et al., 2013). Theory of displaced aggression (Dollard et al., 1939) suggests that people would displace their tension toward non-harm-doers (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017) because they may think the other people are weaker or are afraid of further retaliation (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

While this line of research has been relatively scarce (Zhang & Liao, 2015), two main outcomes have found. Firstly, abused subordinates reported higher levels of work-family conflict than those not abused (Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012; Wu, Kwan, Liu, & Resick, 2012). Secondly, abusive supervision perceptions are positively associated with family undermining behaviors (Hoobler & Brass, 2006).

2.4. Moderators of abusive supervision

While abusive supervision's links with detrimental consequences are quite consistent, they are found to vary in their magnitude with the other factors,

moderators (Zhang & Liao, 2005). Moderators are important for theory as they help the researchers understand the boundary conditions, especially where and when (Busse, Kach, & Wagner, 2017) abusive supervision is harmful. These moderators can be categorized as subordinate-related, supervisor-related and work context related moderators (Martinko et al., 2013).

2.4.1. Subordinate-related moderators

Abusive supervision is a perception where subordinate related factors may affect how the employees will react upon, either behavioral or attitudinal (Martinko et al., 2013). For example, who or what the employee attributes abusive supervision to affect how they show reactions. In a study by Burton, Taylor, and Barber (2014), they showed that when employees think the causes of abusive supervision treatment are themselves (attributing internally), they are less likely to show indirect aggression at their supervisors and more likely to show OCB towards them. On the other hand, if they consider the cause of abusive supervision are the supervisors (attributing externally), they are more likely to show both direct and indirect aggression at their supervisor and less likely to show OCB towards them. Furthermore, Bowling and Michel showed when abuse is attributed to the organization, organization-directed retaliation tends to increase as well (2011).

Tepper et al. found that organizational deviance is higher when the employee has higher levels of turnover intentions or perceives that deviance is acceptable by other co-workers (2008). Furthermore, other personal characteristics such as narcissism, the locus of control and emotional intelligence have been shown to moderate the effects of abusive supervision (Burton & Hoobler, 2011; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2012).

On the other hand, culture, especially power distance has emerged as an important moderator on cross-cultural abusive supervision research as employees in high power distance countries are less likely to go against supervisors' behaviors (Zhang & Liao, 2015). Power distance refers to "the degree to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally" (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012:516). Power distance influences the expectations of employees regarding their supervisors (Ensari & Murphy, 2003). For example, Lian et al. (2012) found subordinates with a high level of power distance received abusive supervision less unfair; and Wang, Mao, Wu, and Liu (2012) showed power distance moderated the relationship between abusive supervision and interactional justice.

Lastly, the demographic characteristics have been suggested to moderate some of the factors, but the meta-analysis by Zhang and Liao found that only age, organization control and time spent with the supervisor consistently moderate the links between abusive supervision and various outcomes (2015). In sum, different employees cope with stressful situations differently (Hershcovis, Cameron, Gervais, & Bozeman, 2017) and this reflects itself in the abusive supervision research.

2.4.2. Supervisor-related moderators

Supervisor related factors may moderate the relationship between abusive supervision and its consequences such as the supervisor's characteristics and other behavior (Tepper, 2007). However, research on this area has been scant with a few studies investigated LMX as a supervisor related moderator (Martinko et al., 2013). LMX has been found to moderate the relationships between abusive supervision and need satisfaction (Lian et al., 2012) as well as abusive supervision and well-being (Hobman, Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2009). However, concurrent examinations of

LMX in this domain have yielded mixed results as LMX has been found to mediate, not moderate, the relationship between abusive supervision and various outcomes (e.g. Xu et al., 2012). Moreover, Martinko et al. (2013) suggest that LMX is not fully a supervisor characteristic, rather it is a perception regarding the relationship with the supervisor and may be confounding with abusive supervision. These inconsistencies will be explained in a later section.

2.4.3. Work context related moderators

Tepper (2007) suggests that work context may moderate the links between abusive supervision and its consequences. However, research on situational moderators has been largely neglected (Martinko et al., 2013). Extant research shows abusive supervision was related with emotional exhaustion in mechanistic rather than organic work structures (Aryee et al., 2008) and hostility in the workplace can enhance the negative effects of abusive supervision (Mawritz et al., 2012). Co-worker support has been suggested as a moderator but has been found as either enhancing the effects (Wu & Hu, 2009) or buffering the effects (Hobman et al., 2009); therefore, yielding inconsistent results.

2.5. Limitations and conclusions

More than 200 papers in print have shown that abusive supervision is almost universally detrimental to the subordinates and there is progress on the why supervisors act abusive and boundary conditions of its detrimental effects. Given these negative effects, abusive supervision still gets a lot of attention from various researchers. On the other hand, even though these investigations have been done from various angles, unfortunately, the findings seem to be “piecemealed” and not

integrative (Tepper et al., 2017). In this section, some of the major issues are briefly discussed.

Firstly, sometimes disjointed and empirically driven nature of abusive supervision research (Tepper, 2007) is partly due to the little theoretical guidance (Mackey et al., 2017). While initially grounded on justice theory (Tepper, 2000), the researchers used several other theories in their investigations such as displaced aggression theory (e.g. Hoobler & Brass, 2006), self-determination theory (e.g. Lian et al., 2012), affective events theory (e.g. Michel et al., 2016) and organizational support theory (Shoss, Restubog, Eisenberger, & Zagenczyk, 2013). While the investigated models become more sophisticated in the last years (Tepper et al., 2017), usage of multiple different theories on the underlying mechanisms by researchers has made reaching a unified theory more difficult. In their meta-analytical review, consistent with recent conceptual work in the literature, Mackey et al. (2017) suggested researchers test justice theory and social exchange theories in their hypothesis development. In their suggestion, the perceptions of abusive supervision emerge from supervisory justice and later recurring negative social exchanges in the subordinate-supervisor dyad enhances the sustained abusive supervision perception (Klaussner, 2014; Mackey et al., 2017).

Secondly, the issue of causality is prominent, and the possibility of reverse causality cannot be ignored due to theoretical and statistical reasons (Martinko et al., 2013; Zhang & Liao, 2015). This is because most of the research relies on cross-sectional data collection, where the experimentation is scarce (Mackey et al., 2017). This is a natural outcome of the research domain because it is sensitive and experimentations on it may not be fully ethical. Yet, some researchers brought vignette-based experimentations (e.g. Brees et al., 2016; Walter, Lam, van der Vegt,

Huang, & Miao et al., 2015; Arman & Gencay, in preparation) but these investigations are prone to problems with ecological validity or lack of certainty in revealing actual behavior (Tepper et al., 2017).

Thirdly, perceptual nature of abusive supervision may be problematic in its validation because it cannot be fully assessed how much abusive supervision perceptions are valid proxies for actual behavior (Mackey et al., 2017; Martinko et al., 2013). As Tepper (2000) acknowledges the subjectivity of abusive supervision, and it is affected by supervisor behavior, subordinate characteristics and contextual factors (Zhang & Bednall, 2016). This is further supported by the evidence that abusive vision perceptions may be distorted by personality (Brees et al., 2016). Therefore, further research is necessary on the link between the actual behavior and perception of abusive supervision.

Lastly, abusive supervision does not occur isolated from the broad relationship of the supervisor-subordinate dyad; therefore, it should be considered and positioned within more comprehensive leadership models to understand its dynamics as a leader can choose a variety of behavioral approaches while acting abusively (Tepper et al., 2017) and these can influence how employees will attribute the cause to (Martinko et al., 2012) or whether the behaviors will be perceived as abusive in that context (Tepper, 2007).

CHAPTER 3

THE PROBLEM OF LMX AND ABUSIVE SUPERVISION

As stated before, abusive supervision does not occur isolated from the broader relationship of the supervisor-subordinate dyad but only a few studies investigated with this consideration (Tepper et al., 2017). One major theme so far has been the leader-member exchange (LMX) as it denotes the quality of the relationship of the dyad (Decoster et al., 2014).

LMX can be defined as a relationship based, the dyadic theory of leadership where the quality of the relationship is emphasized with the assumption that leaders influence their subordinates through the relationship quality they develop, such as trust, liking, professional respect and loyalty (Erdogan & Bauer, 2015; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Abusive supervision also shares some similarities with LMX as it is also a dyadic and sustained relationship between the subordinate and supervisor (Martinko et al., 2012). However, conceptual and empirical work on the two constructs has yielded inconsistent findings. These inconsistencies can be summarized as whether LMX and abusive supervision are confounded (1); and whether LMX is a mediator or moderator for abusive supervision's consequences (2) (e.g. Martinko et al., 2012, 2013; Xu et al., 2015; Lian et al., 2012).

This section is organized as follows. Firstly, a summary of leader-member exchange literature is given, then the extant literature on LMX and abusive supervision and their issues will be discussed, lastly, this study's resolutions and theoretical proposition will be made.

3.1. Summary of leader-member exchange theory

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory is one that in a mature stage given its more than a thousand articles in press (Bauer & Erdogan, 2015). LMX evolved as a relationship-based approach to leadership as alternate to the traditional leadership theories that focused on leaders' characteristics or situational factors (Gerstner & Day, 1997). When first introduced, it was groundbreaking because it focused on the leaders' differentiated relationships with each follower; in contrast to the assumption that a leaders' relationships with all followers are same (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012).

Naturally, LMX research evolved changing its focus with time. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) describes that the first stage was the finding evidence on different leader-member relationships within the work units where supervisors either form high-quality exchanges (in-groups) on high levels of trust, respect and obligation with their subordinates, or low-quality exchanges (out-groups) with the reverse conditions exist. At the second stage, these findings fueled investigations on the relationships and outcomes where antecedents and consequences of LMX have been investigated (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). At the third and fourth stages, the focus shifted on the description of dyadic partnership building and later exploration on the expansion of dyadic partnerships to the group and network levels; however, these investigations remained theoretical (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

High LMX relationships are beneficial for managers because members are more likely to have a commitment to the managers and to their tasks, hence becoming invaluable resources for the managers. However, this comes at a cost for the managers because high LMX relationships emerge certain obligations for managers such as providing necessary attention to the subordinates and remain

responsive to their needs. On the other hand, low LMX relationships stay more transactional where employees do formal requirements in their job descriptions and receive formal benefits such as salary (Yukl, 2013). In the bottom line, low LMX relationships are more economic exchange based such as on employment contracts while high LMX relationships more in social nature with mutual obligation and reciprocity (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Therefore, the formation of high LMX relationships is a dyadic process where both sides contribute to (Bauer & Erdogan, 2015). Hence, both follower and leader specific variables affect the LMX.

As LMX emerges with a mutual contribution, follower characteristics are particularly important. Hence, LMX researchers posited follower's competence, personality, attribution style, and emotional status as antecedents of high LMX relationships (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Early LMX researchers such as Liden and Graen (1980) asserted that supervisors are more likely to form high-quality relationships with a subordinate whom they think as competent and motivated for greater responsibility. Later research showed not only the competence perceptions but also the members' dependability is important for high LMX (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Similarly, other personality factors influence LMX formation. Extravert subordinates can be seen more likely to pursue high LMX; agreeable people may be better in cooperation and helping behavior; therefore, initiating better social exchanges, thus, forming better LMX relationships; or neurotic people may have problems in forming long-term relationships and as a result forming low LMX relationships (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Philips & Bedeian, 1994; Grazino, Habashi, Sheese, & Tobin, 2007; Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles, & Walker, 2007). Lastly, positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA) have been found to impact the LMX because both affect how people perceive events in a better

or worse way (Watson & Clark, 1984; Hochwarter, 2003; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Dulebohn et al., 2012). However, performance becomes a more stable factor in LMX after the initial formation stages of LMX (Yukl, 2013).

Considering the power difference between leader and follower, they exert more control and their behaviors influence LMX formation differently. Dulebohn et al. (2012) summarize that leader's contingent rewards, expectations of the follower, personality and transformational leadership style affect how they form LMX relationships with the followers. Contingent behaviors include feedback, rewards, and recognition and work on clarifying what is expected by the leader and the rewards if these expectations are met (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). Followers received these kinds of behaviors may feel a sense of obligation, and in turn, experience high LMX relationships with them (Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). Similarly, leaders' expectations of the follower success are important on leaders' decision to show contingent behaviors or to form a high LMX relationship with the follower (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Transformational leadership behaviors, on the other hand, establishes a work environment ready for high LMX relationships (Dulebohn et al., 2012) where followers are inspired and motivated, in turn, leading to form high LMX relationships (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Lastly, similar to the followers, the personality of a leader affects the formation of high LMX relationships. For example, more agreeable or extrovert leaders are more likely to form high LMX relationships (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Lastly, there are interpersonal relationship variables such as perceived similarity, leader affect, liking and trust as well as follower ingratiation, self-promotion and assertiveness (Dulebohn et al., 2012). These findings are similar to

those of social psychology, for example, that similar people tend to like each other (Bryne, 1971).

As a result, several variables from both followers and leaders affect how the LMX relationship forms. How the LMX was formed is important because it affects how the supervisor-subordinate relationship will continue at the workplace. For example, a subordinate with high LMX relationship with the supervisor will enjoy benefits such as more support, honest communication, and persuasion-and-consultation-based influence methods (Yukl, 2013). As a result, employee outcomes get affected through quite different ways.

The research on the consequences of LMX is extensive (Bauer & Erdogan, 2015). According to Dulebohn (2012), vastly investigated LMX consequences are job performance, OCB, satisfaction with supervisor, pay and job, organizational commitment, procedural and distributive justice, psychological empowerment, the perception of politics, turnover, role ambiguity and role conflict. Overall, high LMX employees exhibit more desired behaviors at the workplace and show greater career success (Erdogan & Bauer, 2015).

In conclusion, while LMX theory has been beneficial to understand how the dyadic relationship between subordinate and supervisors form and function, it still has some weaknesses from conceptual or methodological points (Yukl, 2013). For example, there have been inconsistencies in the definition of LMX that researchers used in their research and this leads to a challenge for synthesizing the extant research fully (Sheer, 2015). Moreover, several different measurements with a ranging number of items and conceptualizations have been used in the LMX research, which in turn, leads to questioning its content validity (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). On top of these problems, the

changing nature of work and organizations also generate new questions to answer for LMX researchers. In many contemporary organizations, employees report to more than one manager, which is contrasting to the traditional understanding of LMX, where employees have only one manager that controls resources for them (Erdogan & Bauer, 2015). In the multi-manager cases, findings show that the situation creates “social comparison” processes where employees contrast their relationship with one leader and another (Vidyardhi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh, 2010).

To this point, the central motive of LMX studies has been to show the positive consequences of LMX. However, negative reciprocity norms can also exist in leader-member relationships, such as abusive supervision (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003) and even high LMX relationships may be dysfunctional to the followers and their organizations (Othman, Ee, & Shi, 2010; Ballinger, Lehman, & Schoorman, 2010). This is a major limitation of LMX theory as research with this perspective has been scarce and calls for further research on understanding the downsides of high-quality relationships (Erdogan & Bauer, 2015). Further elaborations on this will be made in the following section.

3.2. The extant work on LMX and abusive supervision

LMX and abusive supervision have only been recently investigated simultaneously and only a handful of papers have been published in major outlets. This body of research investigated the role of LMX and abusive supervision on several variables such as intrinsic motivation (Meng, Tan, & Li, 2017), organizational citizenship behaviors (Decoster et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012), justice and basic need satisfaction (Lian et al., 2012), emotional exhaustion (Xu et al., 2015). While the results almost always showed statistically significant results with the criterion variables, the

nomological position of LMX and abusive supervision has been inconsistent. The review of the current work shows there are three main issues with LMX and abusive supervision research. In this section, these issues will be presented while reviewing the relevant work. The proposed resolutions of these issues will be presented at the end of this chapter.

Issue 1 is whether LMX and abusive supervision are confounded? This issue first emerged when Martinko et al. (2011) were investigating how attribution styles affect the perceptions of abusive supervision and whether this relationship will be mediated by LMX. Their post hoc analysis, for checking whether the common method bias altered their results, showed significant changes in their results. Considering that big of a change could not be fully attributed to common method bias, they checked whether LMX and abusive supervision statistically confound or not (Martinko et al., 2011). A statistical confound happens “when a third variable explains the relationship between an independent and a dependent variable” (MacKinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000:2). In this case, this may be interpreted as a third variable share a significant portion of the variance with both LMX and abusive supervision. Martinko et al. statistically tested the confound, through checking whether the measure items are statistically overlapped, and as a result of their explanatory factor analysis, LMX and abusive supervision items were found to be significantly cross-loaded with opposite directions (2011).

This issue was further reiterated in Martinko et al.’s (2012) theoretical paper on attribution style, LMX, and abusive supervision. In this paper, authors built on the LMX’s developed or negotiated role over time (Dienesch & Liden, 1986) and proposed that perceptions of abusive supervision are a subset of perceptions of LMX (Martinko et al., 2012). Lastly, Martinko et al.’s qualitative review of abusive

supervision also suggested LMX and abusive supervision measures may be measuring the same thing and should be further investigated (2013).

While the confounding claim is uncommon in the other relevant work (e.g. Lian et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2012), they have inconsistencies on LMX's nomological positioning with abusive supervision and its relationship with work outcomes. For example, Lian et al. (2012) position LMX as a moderator between abusive supervision and basic need satisfaction; finding a moderated mediation with workplace deviance. On the other hand, Xu et al. (2012) considered LMX as a mediator between abusive supervision and OCBs.

Issue 2 is whether LMX is a mediator between abusive supervision and work outcomes? A body of work considered LMX as a mediator between abusive supervision and several outcomes, such as with OCB (Decoster et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012) and motivation (Meng et al., 2017). This idea is mostly rooted on social exchange theory and reciprocity concept (Blau, 1964) where abusive supervision behaviors occur as negative exchanges in the relationship between supervisor and the subordinate, which in turn, leading to reciprocated negative behaviors in forms of work outcomes (Decoster et al., 2014).

The quality of these exchanges between supervisor and subordinate is denoted as LMX (Graen, 1976). LMX construct captures ongoing social exchange between supervisor and subordinate where both sides mutually build the relationship with both sides contributing to the social exchange (Xu et al., 2012) and abusive supervision may harm this exchange through triggering negative reciprocity norms (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). Therefore, the authors' position LMX as the mediator, where the abusive supervision harms first, then the decreased LMX leads to some work outcomes. In other words, it can be summarized as this: abusive supervision

harms the relationship between the leader and subordinate and this deteriorated relationship further leads to work outcomes.

This proposition intuitively makes sense, moreover, it has empirical support. Xu et al. investigated the mediating role of LMX between abusive supervision and organizational citizenship behaviors, grounding on social exchange theory (2012). Their proposition was that two major theories had been used in the abusive supervision research, but these theories' underlying theme was the social exchange between subordinate and supervisor. The first one is the justice theory stating that when employees feel negative behaviors from supervisors, they also feel the lack of interactional justice and, in turn, employees react in different ways to reduce equality (Greenberg, 1987; Tepper, 2000). The second one is the reactance theory where abusive supervision threatens the sense of autonomy that individuals seek to maintain, and employees react to regain this sense of autonomy (Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Zellars et al, 2002). According to Xu et al. (2012), the common theme in these theories is the social exchange between supervisor and subordinate, where employees will behave positively to the good exchange and negatively to the bad exchange with the supervisor. The researchers investigated whether abusive supervision leads to decreased interpersonal and/or organizational directed OCB through LMX where employees may displace their reactions to people or organization other than the supervisor, such as in displaced aggression (Gencay & Acar, 2017; Hoobler & Brass, 2006). They found that LMX not only mediates these relationships between abusive supervision and interpersonal and organizational directed OCBs but also it mediates the link between abusive supervision and in-role performance (Xu et al., 2012). This study was originally conducted in China and in the following years, Decoster et al. (2015) attempted to replicate the same study in the European context where they

successfully replicated the mediating role of LMX in OCBs but not for the performance.

Building on similar theoretical underpinnings, Meng et al. (2017) investigated LMX with abusive supervision in the relationship between academic supervisors and postgraduate research students in China on whether LMX mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and intrinsic motivation. Their results indicate LMX fully mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and intrinsic motivation (Meng et al., 2017).

More recently, researchers studied perceptions of supervisor remorse in the supervisor-subordinate relationships with abusive supervision and found that perceptions of supervisor remorse reduces turnover intentions and organization-based self-esteem but this happens indirectly through interactional justice and LMX (Haggard & Park, 2018). This study follows a similar logic with the previous research, grounded on social exchange, where supervisor behaviors reduce the likelihood of forming high LMX relationships (Haggard & Park, 2018). Similarly, LMX has also been found to mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and knowledge sharing in South Korean companies (Choi, Kim, & Yun, 2018).

To sum up, these findings support LMX as the mediator between abusive supervision and work outcomes, mostly grounded on social exchange theory. However, there are also moderator-role findings which will be explained below.

Issue 3 is whether LMX is a moderator between abusive supervision and work outcomes? LMX as a moderator in the relationships between abusive supervision and work outcomes was first introduced by Lian et al. (2012) when investigating the relationship between abusive supervision and workplace deviance through basic need satisfaction; while also considering procedural justice, interactional justice and organizational social exchange. Their propositions were founded upon mixed relationships where even the best relationships may contain specific bad behaviors (Lian et al., 2012). For example, in a mother-child relationship, the mother may yell to the child, while the overall relationship may not be bad. While this is a natural, not a professional relationship; the research on paternalistic leadership also posits a fatherly leader figure who exploits the employees exists in the workplaces (Aycan, 2006). Moreover, positive and negative, in fact, may not exist in a continuum where they are in the opposite sides; instead, positive and negative may be distinct (Lian et al., 2012; Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2017). As a result, abusive supervision may coexist in high LMX relationships. In these cases, abusive behaviors will be given more attention by the employees as they may feel the danger of exclusion or worry that something wrong is happening with their supervisor. However, this case will be reversed in low LMX situations where the subordinate will care less about the supervisor's abusive behaviors (Lian et al., 2012). In conclusion, they positioned LMX as a moderator between abusive supervision and basic need satisfaction, where abusive supervision will harm it more when LMX is high and will harm less when LMX is low (Lian et al., 2012). Their results showed that LMX moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and basic need satisfaction and basic need satisfaction further mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and

organizational deviance, hence a moderated mediation exists. They also investigated procedural and interactional justice as well as the organizational social exchange between abusive supervision and organizational deviance but could not find any moderating effect of LMX (Lian et al., 2012). Further investigation on their regression tables also shows LMX does not fully mediate the abusive supervision's effect on procedural and interactional justice and organizational social exchange. They concluded that high levels of LMX does not buffer but magnify the negative effects of abusive supervision in employees, hence playing a moderating role (Lian et al., 2012).

Another study proposed abusive supervision is associated with employee silence through emotional exhaustion and this mediation is moderated by LMX (Xu et al., 2015). They also built on mixed relationships of (Lian et al., 2012) as well as research on mixed messages (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Xu et al., 2015). They also state that when abusive supervision occurs in high LMX cases, these relationships create inconsistent informational cues about the supervisors, which then, lead to the unpredictable workplace depriving employees' resources (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2012; Xu et al., 2015; Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). Assuming LMX and abusive supervision are distinct concepts, the coexistence of high LMX and abusive behaviors are, again, expected to magnify the negative consequences of abusive supervision. Their results show abusive supervision leads to employee silence through emotional exhaustion and this relationship is moderated by LMX. Again, their regression results show LMX does not mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion. (Xu et al., 2015).

3.3. The problems, resolutions, and propositions

These three issues discussed above presents two important questions for abusive supervision research. In this section, the importance of these questions will be discussed, and this study's resolutions and propositions will be presented.

3.3.1. The problems

Firstly, are abusive supervision and LMX different or the same things? The two constructs now have major bodies of research behind them. If they are the same or they are significantly confounded, the researchers may need to attempt to converge the two kinds of literature to gain a better understanding of supervisor and subordinate relationships. This is a particularly challenging task because both LMX and abusive supervision research streams greatly suffer from non-convergence within them due to the usage of different theoretical underpinnings, different use of measurement methods, lack of clarity in the conceptualizations (for LMX) and lack of a unified theory that can hold the empirical findings together. In other words, neither LMX nor abusive supervision research has well-converged literature. Yet, this case may not be a bad thing. The reason why any of these bodies of literature cannot converge within may be due to the lack of the other's integration. In other words, it is possible that researchers may not be fully understanding LMX without the help of abusive behaviors exhibited by the supervisor (abusive supervision); or abusive supervision without the understanding of the broader relationship between supervisor and subordinate (LMX). This possible confound has been presented and discussed before (Martinko et al., 2011;2012;2013); however, these discussions were limited as calls for further investigations. To the researchers' knowledge, no further investigation has been made.

The second question assumes the answer to the first question as this: LMX and abusive supervision are two distinct constructs. This answer naturally brings the following question: then how do they interact? Conceptually, is LMX harmed by the abusive supervision behaviors? Or can a relationship be both high LMX and abusive? If yes, does LMX buffer or magnify the negative effects of abusive supervision?

Studying LMX and abusive supervision together is important because leadership process is essentially a multi-domain process, where the follower, the leader, and their relationship influence outcomes; and even though one domain research generates information (such as abusive supervision for the leader, LMX for the relationship); overlooking other domains reduces the generalizability of the findings (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Simultaneous investigations of LMX (the relationship) and abusive supervision (the leader) addresses the multi-domain nature of the leadership process. The work on the relationship between these two domains is scarce. The extant work considered two possible ways of their relationship: mediation and moderation. In mediation cases, LMX usually fully mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and work outcome; or, still has a significant effect on the criterion variable. Given the abusive supervision's lack of unified knowledge on underlying processes, in which abusive supervision leads to work outcomes, (see Chapter 2 for further details) and LMX's strong results, LMX may emerge as one of the strongest mediators of abusive supervision. In the extreme case, most of the work outcomes of abusive supervision may be a result of deteriorated LMX relationship. On the other hand, LMX's moderation cases may shed light on the boundary conditions of abusive supervision: who, where and when (Busse et al., 2017). Boundary conditions of abusive supervision are not well known

(Michel et al., 2016; Zhang & Liao, 2016). Therefore, LMX may play an important role as a moderator, buffering or magnifying the effects of abusive supervision, strengthening our understanding of the boundary conditions and increasing generalizability of the findings. What can be more interesting is to understand in what circumstances LMX moderates and in what other circumstance LMX mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and work outcomes. However, this level of understanding can only be reached after several rounds of coinvestigations on abusive supervision and LMX.

As a result, researchers should be motivated to tackle the LMX and abusive supervision issue because, in any way, it has important implications on our understanding of leadership process and what is going on between subordinate and supervisor.

3.3.2. The proposed resolutions

In this section, this study's proposed resolutions on the problems above are presented. These resolutions are proposed after a review of relevant literature.

Proposed resolution 1 is that the LMX and abusive supervision are two distinct constructs. As stated before, this possible confound and its empirical evidence were presented by several studies by the same authors (Martinko et al., 2011;2012;2013). However, other published research did not replicate this finding. Even though confirmatory factor analysis is not conclusive evidence for discriminant validity, Lian et al. (2012) and Xu et al. (2012) showed the two-factor models where LMX and abusive supervision are separated showed better fit than combined one-factor models (Haggard & Park, 2018). Other studies also did not report confound of LMX and abusive supervision (e.g. Decoster et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2015; Meng et

al., 2017, Choi et al., 2018). One possible reason may be the use of different scales (Haggard & Park, 2018). Martinko et al. (2011) use six items from Tepper (2000) for abusive supervision and LDM-MDM 12-item scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) for LMX. On the other hand, Lian et al. (2012) and Xu et al. (2012) use full 15-item scales of abusive supervision as well as 7-item LMX7 scale (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Yet, there are also other studies that use the same scale and did not report confound between constructs (Decoster et al., 2015; Haggard & Park, 2018). Using the same LMX scale with Martinko et al. (2011) and conducting explanatory factor analysis with oblique rotation, Haggard and Park found the empirical overlap to be minimal between LMX and abusive supervision (2018).

Given Martinko et al. (2011, 2012, 2013)'s claims come from a single post hoc analysis and other researchers could not reach the same conclusion in their work (e.g. Haggard & Park, 2018; Xu et al., 2012; Lian et al., 2012), it is proposed here that both constructs are distinct and there may be another factor that leads to the confounding conclusion in Martinko (2011) such as sampling or the way they conduct the survey.

Proposed resolution 2 is that LMX mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and work outcomes. To reiterate, abusive supervision is the perceptions of supervisors' sustained hostile verbal and non-verbal behavior (Tepper, 2000) while LMX is the quality of social exchange between supervisor and subordinate (Haggard & Park, 2018). LMX relationships, essentially, develop over time with the repetition of reciprocal exchanges until this cycle is broken (Yukl, 2013). For example, in the early relationship formation stage, parties mutually test each other on whether they can trust each other or not (Erdogan & Bauer, 2015; Dienesch & Liden, 1986). After initial interactions, a repeated cycle of interactions containing leader and

member attributions and behaviors continue throughout the relationship (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

The central tenet of LMX as a moderator proposition is that employees may feel both a high level of support (high LMX) and abuse from their supervisors at the same time (Lian et al., 2012). In this line of thought, employees feel mixed messages or cognitive dissonance when experiencing both high LMX and abuse at the same, therefore, these effects magnify the outcomes of abusive supervision (Xu et al., 2015). However, conceptually abusive supervision should harm the relationship between subordinate and supervisor. Even though LMX relationships tend to be stable and the employees may be more forgiving the negative behaviors if they have high LMX relationships (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993; Erdogan & Bauer, 2015), the repeated cycle of interactions between the leader and member continue to be evaluated by the employee (Dienesch & Liden, 1986) and these negative exchanges introduced by abusive supervision to the LMX relationship (Martinko et al., 2011) will harm the relationship. As a result, since LMX is the quality of this social exchange; abusive supervision and its initiated negative exchanges should decrease the LMX quality between subordinate and supervisor.

Social exchange theory and its applications in LMX predicts that a good exchange by the leader is reciprocated with a good exchange by the subordinate; and a bad exchange will be reciprocated with a bad exchange (Cropanzano et al., 2017). As abusive supervision introduces negative exchanges to the relationship between supervisor and subordinate, abusive supervision will be reciprocated by employees in various forms (e.g. attitudinal, emotional and behavioral work outcomes). As a result, it is proposed here that the deteriorated LMX relationships by the abusive supervision will act as the mediator to the work outcomes (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn,

2003; Cropanzano et al., 2017). LMX's positioning as a mediator was supported by the majority of papers. Table 1 summarizes how the relevant papers positioned LMX and abusive supervision together and whether they could find support for their positioning. LMX was positioned as a mediator for intrinsic motivation (supported, Meng et al., 2017), interpersonal and organizational OCB (supported, Decoster et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012), knowledge sharing (supported, Choi et al., 2018), perceived supervisor remorse (supported, Haggard & Park, 2018) and performance (mixed results, Decoster et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012). The rest of the papers proposed LMX as the moderator for emotional exhaustion (supported, Xu et al., 2015), basic need satisfaction (supported, Lian et al., 2012), moral disengagement (supported, Valle, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Harting, 2018), interactional justice, procedural justice and organizational social exchange (not supported, Lian et al., 2012). As a result, LMX was, in the majority, proposed and got supported as a mediator.

3.3.3. The propositions

In conclusion, this study formally proposes the following statements:

Proposition 1: Abusive supervision and LMX are two distinct constructs.

Proposition 2: LMX mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and work outcomes.

Table 1. The Summary of Relevant Work and Their Positioning of LMX with Abusive Supervision. S denotes supported positioning, NS denotes not-supported positioning.

Study	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent Variable
Meng et al., 2017	S		Intrinsic Motivation
Decoster et al., 2014	S		Interpersonal OCB
Decoster et al., 2014	S		Organizational OCB
Decoster et al., 2014	NS		Performance
Xu et al., 2015		S	Emotional Exhaustion
Lian et al., 2012		S	Basic Need Satisfaction
Lian et al., 2012		NS	Interactional Justice
Lian et al., 2012		NS	Procedural Justice
Lian et al., 2012		NS	Organizational Social Exchange
Xu et al., 2012	S		Interpersonal OCB
Xu et al., 2012	S		Organizational OCB
Xu et al., 2012	S		Performance
Choi et al., 2018	S		Knowledge Sharing
Valle et al., 2018		S	Moral Disengagement
Haggard & Park, 2018	S		Perceived Supervisor Remorse

CHAPTER 4

THE PRESENT STUDY

The previous chapter calls for empirical studies for the propositions made. In this chapter, the study's purpose, theoretical underpinnings and its method are discussed.

4.1. Purpose of the study

This study aims to provide a comprehensive test for Proposition 1 and Proposition 2. Specifically, the study aims to provide support on the discriminant validity of abusive supervision and LMX and attempts to replicate some of the previous findings on the mediating role of LMX between abusive supervision on several work outcomes. Furthermore, the study extends the previous findings with considering additional variables which were not previously considered, or, variables which were originally considered with a moderation role of LMX. As abusive supervision has attitudinal, behavioral and emotional outcomes (Zhang & Liao, 2015), the study investigates variables from each of these categories. Emotional exhaustion will be considered for emotional outcomes, perceived organizational support and interactional justice will be considered for attitudinal outcomes, and organizational citizenship behaviors toward the supervisor, organization, and others as well as counterproductive work behaviors will be considered for the behavioral outcomes. It is expected that the study will contribute to the support of the propositions made before and enhance our understanding of LMX and abusive supervision.

4.2. Theoretical underpinnings

This study assumes LMX and abusive supervision constructs are distinct; in contrast to the confound claim found in Martinko et al. (2011,2012,2013). The reasoning was explained in Chapter 3.3 and will not be reiterated here again.

This study is grounded on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) where sequential transactions make up a continuing social exchange where parties share resources with each other in reciprocity processes (Mitchell, Cropanzano, & Quisenberry, 2012; Cropanzano et al., 2017). These interactions can either be positive or negative and in conclusion, positive actions initiate further positive reactions whereas negative actions further initiate negative reactions in the reciprocity process (Cropanzano et al., 2017).

Abusive supervision includes behaviors such as lying, ridiculing and reminding the past mistakes to the subordinate (Tepper, 2000), which introduces negative exchanges to the supervisor and subordinate relationship (Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009). LMX relationships have expectations on both sides. Employees generally expect to be treated fairly and with a sense of dignity, and this is a consistent antecedent of high LMX relationships (Erdogan & Bauer, 2015). Abusive supervision introduces negative social exchanges that reduce the LMX quality of the relationship between subordinate and supervisor, such as frustration in the employee (Ashforth, 1997; Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005; Gencay & Acar, 2017). This relationship has been empirically supported by various research with relatively high negative correlations (e.g. Martinko et al., 2011; Lian et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2012; Decoster et al., 2015; Haggard & Park, 2018).

Abusive supervision has emotional, attitudinal and behavioral consequences and in this study, LMX is hypothesized to mediate the links between abusive supervision and the work outcomes.

4.2.1. Emotional outcomes

Emotional exhaustion refers to “feeling of energy depletion that results from extreme psychological demands” (Han, Harms, Bai, 2017:24). When employees feel vulnerable and without the necessary resources to cope with the situations, they tend to be emotionally exhausted (Xu et al., 2015). One of the most important relationships in the workplace is with the immediate supervisors (Yukl, 2013) as they also provide employees support to cope with challenging situations. For example, leadership styles may help decreasing the exhaustion the employees feel (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006). However, abusive supervisors also create work relationships that are draining employees emotionally (Hoobler & Burton, 2006). In this case, the leaders’ support is lost when subordinates are dealing with the situation (Aryee et al., 2008). The extant research repeatedly shows abusive supervision’s positive relationship with emotional exhaustion (e.g. Whitman, Halbesleben, & Holmes IV; 2014; Han et al., 2017; Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007).

Abusive supervision will invoke negative reciprocity norms to the exchange. These negative exchanges may be the source of energy depletion in the employee as low LMX is associated with high emotional exhaustion (Lai, Chow, & Loi, 2016). Furthermore, when the supervision acts abusive, the employees are likely to lose an important support mechanism to cope with the situation (Aryee et al., 2008). It is proposed here that both will harm the LMX relationship between subordinate and

supervisor, and that harmed relationship will induce emotional exhaustion in the employee. Therefore, the following hypotheses are made:

Hypothesis 1a. Abusive supervision is positively associated with emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 1b. LMX will mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion.

4.2.2. Attitudinal outcomes

Abusive supervision is hypothesized to affect interactional justice and perceived organizational support attitudes in this study.

Interactional justice refers to the quality of the supervisors' interpersonal treatment of the subordinate (Aryee et al., 2007) or the fairness of interactions in the relationship (Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006). Abusive supervision is inherently a justice violation because the subordinates are likely to feel that these treatments are not fair (Tepper, 2000). Its relationship with interactional justice has been heavily researched in more than 10 studies, resulting in consistent findings of negative relationships (Zhang & Liao, 2015).

As interactional justice usually operates at a one-on-one level between the supervisor and the subordinate, it is naturally related to the LMX relationship between them (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002). High LMX relationships consist of trust between supervisor and subordinate and these supervisors are expected to behave fairly. Abusive supervision consists of behaviors that are reverse to fair, and when they introduced to the exchange, LMX will be harmed. LMX and interactional justice perceptions are positively associated (Erdogan et al., 2006). In conclusion, it

is proposed that when abusive supervision is introduced to the exchange, it will harm the LMX, which in turn, will decrease the interactional justice perceptions of the employee. Therefore, the following hypotheses are made:

Hypothesis 2a. Abusive supervision is negatively associated with interactional justice.

Hypothesis 2b. LMX will mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and interactional justice.

There is a positive relationship between supervisors' favorable treatment and perceived organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013). Naturally, a high LMX tends to increase perceived organizational support (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996), as well as high abusive supervision, tends to decrease perceived organizational support (Mackey et al., 2017). The reason supervisory behavior is related with organizational support is that employees attribute supervisory behaviors to the organizations (Martinko et al., 2013) and blame the organizations for not taking corrective actions (Shoss et al., 2013).

Therefore, the relationship quality between the supervisor and subordinate affects how much organizational support the subordinate will feel. Since this relationship quality is the LMX, and abusive supervision harms the LMX through negative exchange it introduces; it is proposed that LMX will mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and perceived organizational support. Thus, the following hypotheses are made.

Hypothesis 3a. Abusive supervision is negatively associated with perceived organizational support.

Hypothesis 3b. LMX will mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and perceived organizational support.

4.2.3. Behavioral outcomes

Cropanzano et al. (2017) classify two types of actions in social exchange theory, one is the initiating actions and other is the target responses. Both types of actions can be active, passive, desirable or undesirable. Abusive supervision is a kind of active and undesirable initiating action. Therefore, as the social exchange theory predicts, an undesirable target response will emerge by the subordinate. However, these responses to abusive supervision can be both active or passive, where active suggests increasing negative behaviors such as counterproductive work behaviors and passive suggests decreasing positive behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Cropanzano et al., 2017).

Furthermore, these target responses may be either directed to the source of the exchange (supervisor) or they can be displaced. There is evidence of direct retaliation to supervisors such as supervisory deviance (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007); however, the extant research also shows that the victims of abusive supervision displace their aggression to organizations, to others in the workplace and even to their families (Mackey et al., 2017; Zhang & Liao, 2015). This displacement happens due to organizational obstacles preventing retaliation (Cropanzano et al., 2017) or the power differential between the subordinate and supervisor (Hoobler & Brass, 2006).

Abusive supervision's relationship with counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) have been consistently found

by researchers (Martinko et al., 2013; Tepper, 2007). Taking a social exchange perspective, the exchange between supervisor and subordinate results in these target responses. An active target response would be to increase counterproductive work behaviors while a passive target response would be to decrease organizational citizenship behaviors (Cropanzano et al., 2017). LMX has been consistently found to be positively associated with OCB (Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012). The reverse is expected as an active response. In sum, it is proposed that a deteriorated LMX relationship (because of these negative exchanges due to abusive supervision) will result in these target responses. Therefore, the following hypotheses are made.

Hypothesis 4a. Abusive supervision is negatively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors (organization-directed, interpersonal, supervisor-directed) and positively associated with counterproductive work behaviors (organization-directed and interpersonal).

Hypothesis 4b. LMX will mediate the relationship of abusive supervision with organizational citizenship behaviors (organization-directed, interpersonal, supervisor-directed) as well as with counterproductive work behaviors (organization and interpersonal).

The final model can be seen in the Figure 1.

4.3. Method

The hypotheses were tested through data collected from the employees. The data collection was conducted through online surveys. This method was chosen because of the nature of the subject; abusive supervision may be sensitive information to share without maintaining the absolute anonymity of the respondents.

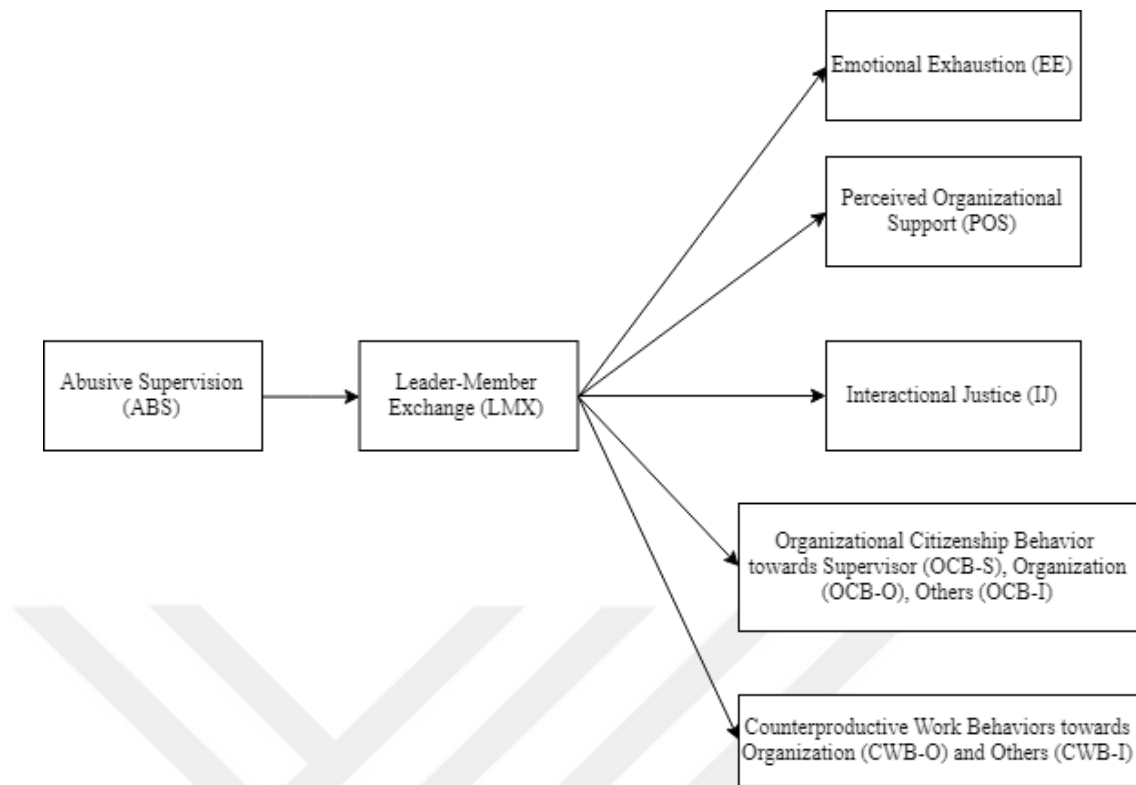


Figure 1. The proposed model

The survey was conducted in two waves with a one-month time lag to abate the concerns for common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The online survey was conducted by using Qualtrics, a leading survey platform. Participants were recruited from either professional e-mail lists or Facebook advertisements. Using social media as a data collection tool has been underutilized in social sciences but enable researchers to reach a large and diverse participant pool (Kosinski, Matz, Gosling, Popov, & Stillwell, 2015). Invitation to participate in the study included the purpose of the study as well as the consent form. After consent is given, the participants were asked some questions to understand if their qualifications fit the purpose of the study. To be eligible to participate in the study, participants had to be actively working full time in a company they had no ownership in and had to have a supervisor whom they directly report to. Only after

all these conditions were met, the actual survey was presented. At the beginning and at the end of the survey, the participants had been prompted the information that the questionnaire consisted of two parts and a follow up would be made one month later if they chose to participate. At the end of the survey, participants were asked again whether they wished to participate in the second study and contact information (e-mail) was asked only after they show interest in participation. The anonymity of the e-mail addresses was ensured. E-mail addresses were used for sending the second survey as well as matching responses of the first phase with the second phase. Later, the e-mail addresses were removed from the data and Qualtrics data was completely deleted.

At Time 1, 438 valid responses were collected. About one month later, the second survey was sent. Out of them, 263 responded with an attrition rate of 60 %. A week after each invitation, one reminder e-mail was sent. No monetary award was offered to participants; however, they were told that an executive summary of this study's results could be sent to them later. 142 participants e-mailed the researchers asking the results.

Several quality checks were conducted after the responses are recorded. A question of "if you see this question, please answer likely" is placed in the questionnaire. The IP addresses were checked against the multiple responding from one participant, as well as the time to finish the questionnaire were checked against random answering patterns. Lastly, in addition to the time lag, the marker variable technique (Lindell & Whitney, 2001) was used for common method bias. Marker variable technique includes presenting respondents a measure for a theoretically unrelated variable and then controlling for this variable in the main analyses.

4.3.1. Sample demographics

The average age of participants was 31.84 (SD=7.85) ranging from 19 to 60. Fifty-five percent of them were female and 45 % were male. The average tenure was 47 months (SD=54.71) ranging from 1 month to 317 months. The average tenure with the supervisor was 29.1 months (SD=34.32). More than 60 % of the respondents were working at organizations that have more than 500 people. About 90 % of them had at least a four-year university degree. More than 57 % of them were at specialist level and 24 % of them were middle managers. No industry dominated in the sample and a wide variety of industries and sectors existed in the sample.

4.3.2. Measures

At Time 1, the following measures were used.

Abusive supervision: Tepper's (2000) original 15-item abusive supervision scale was used. The translation and validation of the survey were done by Göncü Köse and Metin (2017). A sample item is "My supervisor ridicules me". A 5-point Likert scale was used, ranging from "I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me" to "He/she uses this behavior very often with me". The internal reliability was 0.93 in this sample.

Leader-Member Exchange: LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984) was used, translated and validated by Başbay & Arman (in preparation). A sample item is "How well does he/she understand your problems and needs?". A 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" was used. The internal reliability was 0.90 in this sample. This scale was chosen because meta-analyses show that LMX7 is the soundest measure to assess LMX (Gerstner & Day, 1997) and

there are no statistically significant differences in the results depending on which measure was used (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Interactional Justice: The 4-item interactional justice subscale of organizational justice scale by Colquitt (2001) was used, translated by Şahin and Taşkaya (2010). A 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Never” to “Always” was used. A sample item is “Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?”. The internal reliability was 0.86 in this sample.

Emotional Exhaustion: Oldenburg Burnout Inventory’s 8-item emotional exhaustion subscale was used (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005), translated by Şeker (2011). A 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree” was used. A sample item is “There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work”. The internal reliability was 0.87 in this sample.

Perceived Organizational Support: Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa’s 8-item Perceived Organizational Support measure (1986) was used, translated by Azaklı (2014). A 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree” was used. A sample item is “The organization strongly considers my goals and values”. The internal reliability was 0.93 in this sample.

At Time 2, the following measures were used.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Organization-directed and Interpersonal): Spector, Bauer and Fox’s (2010) 10-item Organizational Citizenship Behavior Checklist was used, translated by Arkan (2016). The measure consists of 5 items for organization-directed OCB (OCB-O) and 5 items for interpersonal OCB (OCB-I). A sample item for OCB-O is “Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time” and for OCB-I is “Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker”. The 5-point Likert scale ranged from “Never” to “Every day”. The

internal reliabilities of OCB-O and OCB-I subscales were 0.76 and 0.77, respectively.

Supervisor-directed Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: Rupp and Cropanzano (2002)'s 5-item scale was used, translated by Alabak (2016). A sample item is "I help my supervisor when s/he has a heavy workload". The 5-point Likert scale was used, ranging from "Never" to "Always". The internal reliability was 0.83 in this sample.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors (Organization-directed & Interpersonal): Spector et al. (2010) 10-item Counterproductive Work Behaviors Checklist was used, translated by Behrem (2017). The measure consists of 5 items for organization-directed CWB (CWB-O) and 5 items for interpersonal CWB (CWB-I). A sample item for CWB-O is "Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies" and for CWB-I is "Ignored someone at work". The 5-point Likert scale ranged from "Never" to "Every day". The internal reliability of CWB-I was 0.71, and the internal CWB-O's internal reliability was 0.51. As CWB-O's reliability did not exceed 0.70, it was not used.

Marker variable: As suggested by Lindell and Whitney (2001), a marker variable was also used in data collection to abate common method bias concerns. Previously used in abusive supervision research, a 3-item measure of personal preferences for name brand or generic products was used to estimate the common method bias (Brees et al., 2016), translated by Arman and Gencay (in preparation).

Control variables: Age, gender, the gender of the supervisor, the tenure in the workplace and tenure with the supervisor, organizational size, education level, the sector, position level and negative affectivity (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) were asked as control variables. All scales can be found in the Appendix.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS

The hypotheses were tested with regular Baron and Kenny (1986) regression tests as well as Hayes's PROCESS Macro's mediation model (Hayes, 2013). PROCESS uses bootstrapping the sample to 5000 at 95 % confidence level and tests the relationships with least squares path analysis. Bootstrapping is beneficial because they can handle non-normal distributions better with more statistical power and less Type 1 error (Michel et al., 2016).

Although several proactive measures have been taken for common method bias, an additional analysis for checking its presence was conducted. Harman's single factor test constitutes an unrotated factor analysis; and at the end, if one component emerges explaining the variance of more than %50, it signals that common method bias exists in the sample (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In the study's sample, the biggest component explained around %20 the variance, hence stayed well below the threshold.

An explanatory factor analysis was conducted to investigate whether abusive supervision and LMX are empirically distinct constructs. An EFA with principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was conducted. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0.87 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($p < 0.001$); supporting a meaningful factor analysis. Both abusive supervision and LMX loaded on different factors, showing support that abusive supervision and LMX are empirically distinct.

All of our scales, except organizational-directed CWB (CWB-O) scale, showed adequate internal reliability to be used in our analyses. CWB-O's internal reliability was measured as 0.51; therefore, it was excluded from our analyses. A correlation table of the variables can be seen in Table 2, with the internal reliabilities of the scales on the diagonal.

LMX and abusive supervision had a significant negative correlation ($r = -0.63, p < 0.001$). This shows that as abusive supervision increases, LMX tends to decrease. Additionally, both LMX and abusive supervision had significant correlations with outcomes. Abusive supervision was negatively correlated with interactional justice ($r = -0.78, p < 0.001$), perceived organizational support ($r = -0.43, p < 0.001$) and supervisor-directed OCB ($r = -0.19, p < 0.05$). Abusive supervision was positively correlated with emotional exhaustion ($r = 0.31, p < 0.001$), interpersonal CWB ($r = 0.14, p < 0.05$) and surprisingly interpersonal OCB ($r = 0.19, p < 0.05$). Contrary to expectations, abusive supervision's relationship with organization-directed OCB was insignificant ($r = 0.04, p > 0.05$). On the other hand, LMX usually had similar correlations albeit in the reverse direction. LMX was positively correlated with interactional justice ($r = 0.73, p < 0.001$), perceived organizational support ($r = 0.57, p < 0.001$), supervisor-directed OCB ($r = 0.40, p < 0.001$) and organization-directed OCB ($r = 0.13, p < 0.05$). LMX had negative a correlation with emotional exhaustion ($r = -0.40; p < 0.001$). LMX's relationship with interpersonal OCB and CWB were insignificant.

Before testing the hypotheses, control variables' effect on the criterion variables were checked. Position level, education level, age, organization size and tenure with supervisor were found significantly affecting the results. Hence, they were included in the rest of the regressions.

Table 2. Correlation Table

	M	SD	ABS	LMX	IJ	EXH	POS	OCB-I	OCB-O	OCB-S	CWB-I
ABS	1.69	0.70	<i>(0.93)</i>								
LMX	3.24	0.94	-0.63***	<i>(0.90)</i>							
IJ	3.82	0.88	-0.78***	0.73***	<i>(0.86)</i>						
EXH	3.21	0.81	0.31***	-0.40***	-0.38***	<i>(0.87)</i>					
POS	2.87	0.94	-0.43***	0.57***	0.52***	-0.38***	<i>(0.93)</i>				
OCB-I	3.74	0.71	0.19*	0.05	-0.07	-0.04	0.09	<i>(0.77)</i>			
OCB-O	3.07	0.80	0.04	0.13*	0.02	0.08	0.21***	0.50***	<i>(0.76)</i>		
OCB-S	3.57	0.83	-0.19**	0.40***	0.26***	-0.11	0.25***	0.41***	0.55***	<i>(0.83)</i>	
CWB-I	1.26	0.38	0.14*	-0.05	-0.08	0.09	-0.00	0.07	0.06	0.05	<i>(0.71)</i>

N=262 Alpha reliabilities appear on diagonal and in italic.

M mean. SD standard deviation. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

The regression between abusive supervision and LMX can be in Table 3, which will also be used in the later mediation analyses.

Table 3. Regression Between Abusive Supervision and LMX *** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Intercept	2.19***	0.38	0.00	4.37***	0.34	0.00
Position Level	0.28**	0.09	0.21	0.20**	0.07	0.15
Education	0.10	0.07	0.09	0.04	0.06	0.03
Organizational Size	0.06	0.04	0.08	0.01	0.03	0.02
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.04	-0.01*	0.01	-0.11
Tenure with Supervisor	0.00	0.00	-0.04	0.00*	0.00	0.12
Abusive Supervision				-0.85***	0.07	-0.64
<i>R</i> ²		.06*			.44***	
<i>F</i> for change in <i>R</i> ²					168.36***	

For hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4, a series of mediation analyses were conducted with Baron and Kenny (1986)'s regression analysis. Additionally, Hayes (2013) MACRO, a bootstrapped mediation analysis, was used to estimate the indirect effect (through the mediator), direct effect and total effect separately as well as Sobel tests. In all regressions, three-step hierarchical regression was used. At first step (model 1), the control variables are entered. At the second step, abusive supervision is entered (model 2). At the third step, LMX is entered (model 3). If abusive supervision becomes insignificant at model 3, LMX is interpreted as full mediator. If both abusive supervision and LMX stay significant at model 3, the partial mediation may occur if the effect of abusive supervision is significantly decreased; and this is

checked with a Sobel test to determine if LMX can be deemed a partial mediator. All regression tables can be seen below.

Hypothesis 1a states that abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion are positively associated and hypothesis 1b states that LMX mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion. Table 4 shows that in model 2, the regression results show that abusive supervision was positively associated with emotional exhaustion (model 2, $\beta=0.29$, $p<0.001$), supporting hypothesis 1a. When LMX was entered in the model 3 ($\beta=-0.27$, $p<0.001$), abusive supervision's effect became insignificant ($\beta=0.11$, $p>0.05$). In the bootstrapped analysis of mediation, the indirect and direct effects of abusive supervision were estimated in model 3. The indirect effect of abusive supervision through LMX on emotional exhaustion was 0.22 (lower bound: 0.10, upper bound: 0.34, 95 % CI); while direct effect was insignificant (0.11, $p>0.05$). Further Sobel test was significant ($p<0.001$). These findings support the LMX's full mediation and the hypothesis 1b.

Hypothesis 2a states that abusive supervision and interactional justice are negatively associated and hypothesis 2b states that LMX mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and interactional justice. Table 5 shows that in model 2, the regression results show that abusive supervision was negatively associated with interactional justice (model 2, $\beta=-0.62$, $p<0.001$), supporting hypothesis 2a. When LMX was entered in model 3 ($\beta=0.41$, $p<0.001$), abusive supervision's effect still stayed significant ($\beta=-0.62$, $p<0.001$). In the bootstrapped analysis of mediation, the indirect and direct effects of abusive supervision were estimated in model 3. The indirect effect of abusive supervision through LMX on interactional justice was -0.33 (lower bound: -0.41, upper bound: -0.26, % 95 CI); while the direct effect was also significant (-0.63, $p<0.001$). However, Sobel test was significant ($p<0.0001$). These

findings show that LMX acts as a partial mediator between abusive supervision and interactional justice, partially supporting Hypothesis 2b. In other words, abusive supervision has both a direct and indirect effect on interactional justice.

Hypothesis 3a states that abusive supervision and perceived organizational support are negatively associated and hypothesis 3b states that LMX mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and perceived organizational support.

Table 6 shows that in model 2, the regression results show that abusive supervision was negatively associated with perceived organizational support (model 2, $\beta=-0.42$, $p<0.001$), supporting hypothesis 3a. When LMX was entered in the model 3 ($\beta=0.49$, $p<0.001$), abusive supervision's effect became insignificant ($\beta=-0.10$, $p>0.05$). In the bootstrapped analysis of mediation, the indirect and direct effects of abusive supervision were estimated in model 3. The indirect effect of abusive supervision through LMX on the perceived organizational support was -0.44 (lower bound: -0.58 , upper bound: -0.30 , 95 % CI); while the direct effect was insignificant (-0.12 , $p>0.05$). Further Sobel test was significant ($p<0.0001$). These findings support the LMX's full mediation and the hypothesis 3b.

Hypothesis 4a stated that abusive supervision is negatively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors and positively associated with counterproductive work behaviors. Hypothesis 4b stated that LMX would mediate these relationships of abusive supervision with both OCBs and CWBs. A series of tests were conducted for each OCB and CWB.

As shown in Table 7, for interpersonal OCB, abusive supervision surprisingly had a positive effect ($\beta=0.18$, $p<0.01$) in model 2, rejecting hypothesis 4a. When LMX was entered in the model 3 ($\beta=0.22$, $p<0.01$), abusive supervision still stayed significant ($\beta=0.33$, $p<0.01$). In the bootstrapped analysis of mediation, the indirect

and direct effects of abusive supervision were estimated in model 3. The indirect effect of abusive supervision through LMX on interpersonal OCB was -0.14 (lower bound: -0.25, upper bound: -0.04, %95 CI); while the direct effect was also significant (0.36, $p < 0.001$). Further Sobel test was significant ($p < 0.01$). Even though expected direction of the relationship between abusive supervision and interpersonal OCB was negative and the reverse was found; these findings show that LMX acts as a partial mediator between abusive supervision and interpersonal OCB, partially supporting Hypothesis 4b.

As shown in Table 8, for organizational OCB, abusive supervision had no effect ($\beta = 0.04$, $p > 0.05$) in model 2, rejecting hypothesis 4a. However, when LMX was entered to the equation in the model 3, both abusive supervision ($\beta = 0.19$, $p < 0.05$) and LMX ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$) become significant. The fact that abusive supervision was insignificant in Model 2 but became significant in Model 3 when entered with LMX warrants further inspection. Since there is no total relationship between abusive supervision and organizational OCB, the mediation was not supported, rejecting hypothesis 4b.

As shown in Table 9, for supervisor-directed OCB, abusive supervision had a negative effect ($\beta = -0.19$, $p < 0.01$) in model 2, supporting hypothesis 4a. When LMX was entered in model 3 ($\beta = 0.41$, $p < 0.001$), abusive supervision became insignificant ($\beta = 0.07$, $p > 0.05$). The indirect effect of abusive supervision through LMX on supervisor-directed OCB was -0.32 (lower bound: -0.45, upper bound: -0.20, 95 % CI); while the direct effect was insignificant (0.13, $p > 0.05$). Further Sobel test was significant ($p < 0.0001$). These findings support LMX's role of full mediator between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed OCB, supporting Hypothesis 4b.

Lastly, As shown in Table 10, for interpersonal CWB, abusive supervision had a positive effect ($\beta=0.15$, $p<0.05$) in model 2, supporting hypothesis 4a. However, when LMX entered model 3, LMX had no effect ($\beta=0.05$, $p>0.05$) and abusive supervision still had a positive effect ($\beta=0.19$, $p>0.05$). The indirect effect of abusive supervision through LMX on interpersonal CWB was -0.02 (lower bound: -0.09, upper bound: 0.05, 95 % CI, containing zero); while the direct effect was also significant (0.11, $p<0.05$). Further, Sobel test was insignificant ($p>0.05$), hence mediating role of LMX between abusive supervision and interpersonal CWB was not supported, rejecting Hypothesis 4b.

Table 11 shows the bootstrapped mediation analyses of the hypotheses. To sum up the results, the hypotheses regarding the abusive supervision's effect on outcomes and the mediating role of LMX are generally supported. Results indicate that abusive supervision and LMX are two negatively related distinct constructs. Abusive supervision's relationships with emotional exhaustion (H1b), perceived organizational support (H3b), and supervisor-directed organizational citizenship behavior (H4b) was fully mediated by LMX. Abusive supervision had both direct and indirect effects through LMX (partial mediation) on interactional justice (H2b) and interpersonal OCB (H4b).

Abusive supervision had no relationship with organization-directed OCB (rejecting H4a). Since there is no relationship that LMX can mediate, the mediation hypothesis was also rejected for organization-directed OCB (H4b). Abusive supervision was positively associated with interpersonal CWB (H4a) but since LMX had no effect on interpersonal CWB, the mediating role was not supported (H4b).

Table 4. Regression Results for Emotional Exhaustion *** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Intercept	4.52***	0.32	0.00	3.68***	0.35	0.00	4.70***	0.44	0.00
Position Level	-0.29***	0.08	0.25	-0.25***	0.07	-0.22	-0.21**	0.07	-0.18
Education	-0.09	0.06	0.09	-0.06	0.06	-0.06	-0.05	0.06	-0.05
Organizational Size	-0.09*	0.04	0.14	-0.07*	0.04	-0.12	-0.07	0.04	-0.11
Age	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.01
Tenure with Supervisor	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	-0.05	0.00	0.00	-0.01
Abusive Supervision				0.33***	0.07	0.29	0.13	0.09	0.11
LMX							-0.23***	0.06	-0.27
<i>R</i> ²	.10***			.17**				.21***	
<i>F</i> for change in <i>R</i> ²				24.43***				13.49***	

Table 5. Regression Results for Interactional Justice *** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Intercept	3.05***	0.34	0.00	5.47***	0.25	0.00	3.79***	0.28	0.00
Position Level	0.27**	0.08	0.22	0.18***	0.05	0.15	0.11*	0.05	0.08
Education	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.00	0.04	0.00	-0.02	0.04	-0.02
Organizational Size	0.05	0.04	0.07	0.00	0.03	-0.01	-0.01	0.02	-0.01
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.01	-0.01*	0.00	-0.09	-0.01	0.00	-0.05
Tenure with Supervisor	-0.01***	0.00	-0.30	0.00**	0.00	-0.12	0.00***	0.00	-0.17
Abusive Supervision				-	0.05	-0.76	-0.62***	0.05	-0.50
				0.95***					
LMX							0.39***	0.04	0.41
R^2		.12***			.63***			.73***	
<i>F</i> for change in R^2					508.87***			93.17***	

Table 6. Regression Results of Perceived Organizational Support *** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>
Intercept	2.06***	0.38	0.00	3.48***	0.40	0.00	1.32**	0.47	0.00
Position Level	0.31***	0.09	0.23	0.26**	0.09	0.19	0.16*	0.08	0.12
Education	0.04	0.07	0.04	0.00	0.07	0.00	-0.02	0.06	-0.02
Organizational Size	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.00	0.04	0.00	-0.01	0.04	-0.01
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.06	0.00	0.01	0.00
Tenure with Supervisor	0.00	0.00	-0.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.06
Abusive Supervision				-					
				0.56***	0.08	-0.42	-0.13	0.09	-0.10
LMX							0.49***	0.07	0.49
R^2		.05*			.21***			.35***	
F for change in R^2					61.32***			31.82***	

Table 7. Regression Results of Interpersonal OCB *** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>
Intercept	3.66***	0.29	0	3.19***	0.33	0	2.44***	0.41	0
Position Level	0.19**	0.07	0.19	0.21**	0.07	0.21	0.18*	0.07	0.17
Education	-0.07	0.05	-0.08	-0.06	0.05	-0.07	-0.07	0.05	-0.08
Organizational Size	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.03
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.07	0.00	0.01	-0.05	0.00	0.01	-0.03
Tenure with Supervisor	0.00	0.00	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.04
Abusive Supervision				0.18**	0.06	0.18	0.33***	0.08	0.33
LMX							0.17**	0.06	0.22
<i>R</i> ²		.06*			.09***			.12***	
<i>F</i> for change in <i>R</i> ²					8.80**			8.25**	

Table 8. Regression Results of Organizational OCB *** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Intercept	2.72***	0.33	0.00	2.60***	0.33	0	1.76***	0.48	0
Position Level	0.13	0.08	0.12	0.14	0.07	0.12	0.10	0.08	0.09
Education	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	-0.01	0.05	-0.01	-0.02	0.06	-0.02
Organizational Size	0.00	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.01
Age	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.04
Tenure with Supervisor	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.03
Abusive Supervision				0.05	0.06	0.04	0.21*	0.09	0.19
LMX							0.19**	0.07	0.23
<i>R</i> ²		.03			.03			.06*	
<i>F</i> for change in <i>R</i> ²					0.42			7.77**	

Table 9. Regression Results of Supervisor-Directed OCB *** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Intercept	2.95***	0.33	0	3.53***	0.38	0	1.93***	0.46	0
Position Level	0.32***	0.08	0.27	0.30***	0.08	0.25	0.23**	0.08	0.19
Education	-0.06	0.06	-0.06	-0.08	0.06	-0.08	-0.10	0.06	-0.09
Organizational Size	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.04	0.02
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.01	-0.03	0.00	0.01	0.01
Tenure with Supervisor	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.03
Abusive Supervision				-0.23**	0.07	-0.19	0.08	0.09	0.07
LMX							0.37***	0.07	0.41
R^2		.08***			.12***			.21***	
F for change in R^2					11.04**			17.60***	

Table 10. Regression Results of Interpersonal CWB *** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Intercept	1.27***	0.15	0.00	1.06***	0.18	0.00	0.97***	0.23	0.00
Position Level	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.03
Education	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.04
Organizational Size	0.03	0.02	0.10	0.03	0.02	0.12	0.03	0.02	0.12
Age	-0.01*	0.00	-0.16	-0.01*	0.00	-0.15	-0.01*	0.00	-0.14
Tenure with Supervisor	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Abusive Supervision				0.08*	0.03	0.15	0.10*	0.04	0.19
LMX							0.02	0.03	0.05
<i>R</i> ²		.03			.06*			.06*	
<i>F</i> for change in <i>R</i> ²					5.89*			0.04	

Table 11. Bootstrapped Mediation Analyses of LMX *** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Dependent Variable	The indirect effect of abusive supervision through LMX	Bootstrapped % 95 confidence interval		The direct effect of abusive supervision	The total effect of abusive supervision	Sobel test
		Lower	Higher			
Emotional Exhaustion	0.22	0.10	0.34	0.11	0.32***	p < 0.001
Interactional Justice	-0.33	-0.41	-0.26	-0.63***	-0.96***	p < 0.0001
Perceived Organizational Support	-0.44	-0.58	-0.30	-0.12	-0.55***	p < 0.0001
Interpersonal OCB	-0.14	-0.25	-0.04	0.36***	0.21**	p < 0.01
Organizational OCB	-0.18	-0.30	-0.42	0.20***	0.02	p < 0.01
Supervisor-directed OCB	-0.32	-0.45	-0.20	0.13	-0.19*	p < 0.0001
Interpersonal CWB	-0.02	-0.09	0.05	0.11*	0.09**	ns

Furthermore, several tests for robustness of the results were conducted. For common method bias, marker variable technique was employed, but the entrance of the marker variable in the analyses did not change any results, showing support for that common method bias did not alter our findings. Other control variables, too, did not change our results. The possibility of the LMX as a moderator was also checked but the results did not support moderation.

However, this study, like any study, is not without any limitations. Firstly, the causality should be carefully interpreted due to the cross-sectional nature of the data. Secondly, the data came from a single source. However, this had to be done because of the sensitive nature of the subject; abusive supervision. As there were no institutions supporting this study (which all organizations the researchers offered rejected), the questionnaire had to be sent directly to the subordinates. As the survey asks on the supervisor interpersonal behaviors and attitudes in the organizations, the researchers worried that the participants would not like to share the survey with others if asked. However, in these kinds of sensitive research, the meta-analyses showed that self-report data is more accurate than others reported data (Mitchell, Vogel, & Folger, 2012; Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012).

Thirdly, common method bias can still be a concern due to the cross-sectional single-source study. However, all possible proactive measures have been taken. As Podsakoff et al. (2003) suggested, there was a temporal separation of measurement, the anonymity of the responses was repeatedly highlighted, well-established measure items were used, and marker variable technique was employed. Moreover, the statistical tests conducted to measure the presence of common method variance showed that it does not affect the results. Fourthly, the sample size may be low and future studies should test these relationships with bigger samples. Lastly, the study

was conducted in Turkey, which has a unique cultural context (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2013) and the results should be interpreted accordingly.



CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The study provides several points for discussion. First, abusive supervision is a phenomenon in which employees tend to suffer from its consequences. This study reiterated some of its negative consequences such as increased emotional exhaustion and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors and decreased interactional justice and perceived organizational support perceptions. Furthermore, abusive supervision tends to harm the quality of exchange between supervisor-subordinate dyads. Given that this relationship is very important for the subordinates and the organization, abusive supervisors harm their organizations at several levels.

However, there were some peculiar findings with both organization-directed and interpersonal OCBs. Abusive supervision has usually been found negatively correlated with all kinds of OCBs (Zhang & Liao, 2015) but in this study, abusive supervision's relationship with organization-directed OCB was insignificant. When LMX is entered with abusive supervision; abusive supervision's relationship with organization-directed OCB become significant and positive. Yet, this might be due to inconsistent mediation (MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007; Kenny, 2018) where abusive supervision's indirect effect on organization-directed OCB through LMX suppresses the abusive supervision's effect on organization-directed OCB, resulting in an insignificant total effect. Moreover, abusive supervision and interpersonal OCB had a small but positive relationship. One possible explanation may be that people coming together in response to a common enemy (the abusive supervisor) (Schmidt, 2008) and help each other by showing more interpersonal OCB behaviors such as "lending a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem" (Spector et al.,

2010). On the other hand, there is another plausible explanation. It has been recognized that employees do not always present citizenship behaviors because they are “good soldiers”; they may also present these behaviors as self-serving impression management techniques (Bolino, 1999), being “good actors” instead of “good soldiers” (Grant & Mayer, 2009). With these motives, people may have aimed to show more citizenship behaviors to each other to ensure others and the supervisors have good impressions for them; even though they experience abusive behaviors from their supervisors. Citizenship behaviors towards the organization were not affected by supervisors; however, people still withdrew their supervisor-directed OCBs as a result of abusive supervision, but this effect was still small. As expected, abusive supervision also had a small but positive association with interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors. A future study should attempt to replicate these findings while extending it by considering impression management motives and perceived job mobility as intervening variables.

One issue this study investigated was that whether LMX and abusive supervision were confounding variables. As stated before, the confounding proposition was made by Martinko et al. (2011; 2012;2013) where they claimed abusive supervision is a subset of LMX as a result of one post-ad-hoc analysis in the study by Martinko et al. (2011). In this study, it was suggested that abusive supervision and LMX are similar but distinct constructs because LMX is the quality of the relationship between supervisor and subordinate while abusive supervision is the specific behaviors of supervisor directed to the subordinate. This study’s empirical findings (and its factor analysis) also supported the divergent validity of abusive supervision from LMX. This finding was in line with the other work that used both constructs in their studies (e.g. Decoster et al., 2014; Haggard & Park,

2018). As a result, treating abusive supervision and LMX as distinct constructs are more appropriate both conceptually and empirically.

Even though they are distinct constructs, LMX and abusive supervision are inevitably related, as evidenced with the strong negative correlation they have. In this study, LMX was proposed to act as the mediator between abusive supervision and work outcomes. In other words, abusive supervision was proposed as a negative antecedent for LMX relationships. The findings generally supported this positioning. LMX fully mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion, perceived organizational support and supervisor-directed OCB. Indirect effect (partial mediation) was found for interactional justice and interpersonal OCB. These findings support that LMX plays an important role in the abusive supervision's consequences. This signals the importance of the overall relationship between the subordinate and supervision rather than a specific set of behaviors. Abusive supervision behaviors are behaviors such as lying, ridiculing directed to the subordinate. However, these behaviors are not isolated from the dyadic and complex relationship of the supervisor-subordinate. These relationships are likely to have more aspects than these behaviors.

In general, abusive supervision seems to be working in a way that harms the overall relationship quality, which in turn, leading to work outcomes. However, in some cases, abusive supervision had both direct and indirect effect (through LMX) to outcomes such as interactional justice and interpersonal OCB. Contrary to the outcomes mentioned above, LMX did not fully mediate these relationships. This lack of full mediation shows there is an additional mechanism in play in these cases. Anyhow, these findings still support the importance of the supervisor-subordinate relationship and its deterioration in the context of abusive supervision.

These findings have two major implications for research on abusive supervision. First, given the consistent findings on the LMX's mediation role and studies showing high correlations between abusive supervision and LMX, some of the abusive supervision's consequences may, in fact, be the consequences of decreased LMX relationships. According to the meta-analyses, both LMX and abusive supervision have similar but reverse relationships with the same constructs, such as affective commitment ($\bar{r}_{\text{LMX}} = 0.36$, $\bar{r}_{\text{Abusive Supervision}} = -0.30$), turnover intentions ($\bar{r}_{\text{LMX}} = -0.34$, $\bar{r}_{\text{Abusive Supervision}} = 0.30$) and job satisfaction ($\bar{r}_{\text{LMX}} = 0.42$, $\bar{r}_{\text{Abusive Supervision}} = -0.35$) (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Zhang & Liao, 2015). The researchers have been investigating the underlying processes in which abusive supervision leads to consequences, but these findings have been overly piecemealed (Tepper et al., 2017). The interesting fact is that while several individual level or organizational level mediators have been investigated by researchers, LMX seems to be regularly omitted. However, both this study and the other handful of studies show that LMX may emerge as one of the most important mediators in the abusive supervision domain. Future research should investigate the role of LMX as the mediator with several other work outcomes to explain how abusive supervision is leading to negative consequences. In other words, abusive supervision should be investigated in the context of broader supervisor and subordinate relationships, in line with the future research direction given by Tepper et al. (2017).

Moving forward, the study calls for more multi-domain investigations for abusive supervision, not limited with LMX. Leadership process, in its nature, is a multi-domain one where the leader, the follower and their relationship simultaneously contribute to the process (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This study may be one example where abusive supervision is placed in a leader, LMX is placed in

the relationship and the work outcomes are placed in followers and elements from all three exist in the study. Several other qualities of leaders or followers may affect how abusive supervision unfolds itself in different kinds of relationships. This approach will inevitably contribute to extant literature with more rounded information on abusive supervision, especially for answering the questions for when and how it affects the subordinates. Initially, a more nuanced approach can be conducting qualitative studies with in-depth interviews with dyads to explore the full nature of their relationships. Later, the findings can be supported with quantitative analyses.

Additionally, one area that researchers may find interesting to investigate is how abusive supervision and LMX change over time. They have been found negatively correlated in all studies and in this study, abusive supervision is proposed as a negative antecedent of LMX. However, the process in which abusive supervision leads to deteriorated LMX is unknown. Moreover, abusive supervision's effect on LMX may change depending on the relationship development stage the dyad is in such as stages of a stranger, acquaintance or maturity (Graen & Uhl Bien, 1995). In an early stage, such as where the supervisor and subordinate recently started working together, abusive behaviors may hinder the development of high-quality LMX relationships. On the other hand, what happens if the supervisor starts acting abusively when they have formed high LMX relationships? More interestingly, are there high LMX relationships where sustained abusive supervisory behaviors exist and why this occurs? One similar area is the paternalistic leadership, which is culturally endorsed in Turkey. These leaders may also be exploitative paternalistic showing authority but lacking benevolence and integrity (Aycan, 2006; Mansur, Sobral, & Goldszmidt, 2017). A longitudinal study would be most

interesting in understanding the full relationship between abusive supervision and LMX.

Lastly, this study's limitations posit some additional venues for future research. Even though the hypotheses were built on theory, causality should be interpreted carefully in cross-sectional studies. For interpreting causality, more experimental or quasi-experimental studies should be conducted on abusive supervision and LMX. The data came from a single source in this study and future research should look for ways to collect data for some of more observable data (possibly OCBs and CWBs) from other sources. The study was conducted in Turkey with its unique culture (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2013) and further studies should attempt to replicate these findings in other cultural contexts.

CHAPTER 7

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study has a few points for practitioners as well. Firstly, organizations should be actively aware of abusive supervision because it greatly affects the relationship quality between supervisor and subordinate and this relationship usually affects the employees' fate in the organization. This study highlights the importance of subordinate and supervisor relationships. How the supervisors form relationships are even more important than ever because the newer generations of employees' expectations from their managers are also changing. A then-chief human resource executive and then-chief financial officer of a mid-sized bank in Turkey stated in the official company blog that "the nature of managing employees has shifted from 'managers' downward commanding the employees' to 'managers' working together with them as a team while hierarchy is relaxed'" (Hazirolu, n.d., own translation). Naturally, organizations should be more interested now in how its managers are founding relationships with their subordinates. This is essential because managers' actions towards employees are usually perceived as the organizations' actions by the employees. As found in this study, an abused subordinate would feel less organization support, justice, and more emotional exhaustion. If they are qualified employees, they are likely to leave the organization as they can find other jobs where they are treated fairly. Hence the organizations would suffer human resource loss.

Second, the organizations should have a stance against abusive supervision and this should come from the top management. Yet, verbal statements are not likely to be successful. If an organization truly wishes that its managers are not abusive, they should provide an organizational culture and context where abusive supervision

is deemed unacceptable and actions are taken when they are faced. Organizations usually employ external research companies to measure several indicators, such as job satisfaction of the employees. They can also use surveys that aim to identify the management styles of the leaders as well as several attributes such as trust. Even though these companies' measures have often not been academically validated, they may signal the problematic work groups in the organizations where the organizations can act.

Lastly, interventions should be made when faced with abusive supervision or problematic supervisor and subordinate relationships. This can be in form of workshops or one-on-one coaching. It should be noted that abusive supervision is essentially a perception formed by the subordinate. Supervisors may have good intentions while causing ill-advised perceptions to form due to miscommunications. Therefore, supervisors need to be made aware that this perception should be actively managed. One good way of doing this is having trust-based open communications with the subordinates. Overall, this should be an organizational matter with top management support where organizations have schemes to follow and intervene if necessary, in the abusive supervision cases.

To conclude, abusive supervision is a critical issue which both academics and practitioners should focus their attention on. Even though there is very good progress on understanding the consequences of abusive supervision, a multi-domain approach where the overall relationship between supervisor and subordinate is suggested in this study. Hopefully, further research will unfold the full picture of the relationship between supervisors and subordinates. The author believes that, ultimately, this understanding will yield answers on how to turn around abusive supervisors, or even block them emerging in organizations.

APPENDIX
QUESTIONNAIRES

ABUSIVE SUPERVISION SCALE (Tepper, 2000; Göncü Köse & Metin, 2017)

Doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizi düşündüğünüzde, aşağıda yer alan her bir tanımla ilgili görüşünüzü verilen 5 basamaklı ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.
(Thinking of your current supervisor, using the scale below, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.)

1	2	3	4	5
Bana bu şekilde davrandığını hiç hatırlamıyorum <i>(I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me)</i>	Bana nadiren bu şekilde davranır <i>(He/she very seldom uses this behavior with me)</i>	Bana zaman zaman bu şekilde davranır <i>(He/she occassionally uses this behavior with me.)</i>	Bana sıklıkla bu şekilde davranır <i>(He/she uses this behavior moderately often with me)</i>	Bana genelde/çok sık bu şekilde davranır <i>(He/she uses this behavior very often with me)</i>

1. Benimle alay eder. *(They make fun of me.)*
2. Fikirlerimin ve hislerimin saçma olduğunu söyler.
(Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid.)
3. Bazen beni görmezden gelir. *(Gives me silent treatment)*
4. Başkalarının önünde beni küçümser.
(Puts me down in front of others.)
5. Mahremiyetimi ihlal eder. *(Invades my privacy.)*
6. Geçmişte yaptığım hatalarımı ve başarısızlıklarımı yüzüme vurur.
(They bring up my past mistakes and failures.)
7. Çok çaba gerektiren işlerde hakkımı teslim etmez.
(Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort.)
8. Kendisini utanç verici bir durumdan kurtarmak için suçu bana atar.
(Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment.)

9. Verdiđi sözleri tutmaz. (*Breaks promises he/she makes.*)
10. Başka bir sebepten dolayı sinirlendiđinde, öfkesini benden çıkarır. (*Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason.*)
11. Benim hakkımda başkalarına olumsuz yorumlarda bulunur. (*Makes negative comments about me to others.*)
12. Bana kaba davranır. (*Is rude to me.*)
13. Çalışma arkadaşlarımla etkileşim içinde olmama izin vermez. (*Does not allow me to interact with my coworkers.*)
14. Yetersiz olduğumu söyler. (*Tells me I'm incompetent.*)
15. Bana yalan söyler. (*Lies to me.*)

LMX7 SCALE (Graen & Scandura, 1995; Başbay & Arman, 2018)

Lütfen bir önceki sorudaki cevap verdiğiniz yöneticiyi düşünerek cevaplamaya devam edin.

(Please continue answering, considering the supervisor in the previous question)

1	2	3	4	5
Hiç katılmıyorum	Biraz katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
<i>(Strongly disagree)</i>	<i>(Somewhat Disagree)</i>	<i>(Neither agree nor disagree)</i>	<i>(Somewhat Agree)</i>	<i>(Strongly agree)</i>

1. Yöneticimin yaptığım işten ne kadar memnun olduğunu ve onun gözündeki konumumu bilirim.
(I usually know where I stand with him/her and how satisfied he/she is with what I do.)
2. Yöneticim benim sorun ve ihtiyaçlarımı anlar.
(He/she understands my job problems and needs.)
3. Yöneticim benim potansiyelimin farkındadır.
(He/she recognizes my potential.)
4. Yöneticim pozisyonunun getirdiği yetki hangi seviyede olursa olsun, gücünü benim işteki sorunlarımı çözmek için kullanmaya eğilimlidir.
(Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, he/she would use his/her power to help me solve problems in my work.)
5. Yöneticime pozisyonunun getirdiği yetki hangi seviyede olursa olsun, gerçekten ihtiyacım olduğunda kendi zararı pahasına beni zor durumdan kurtaracağı konusunda güvenirim.
(Regardless of the amount of formal authority he/she has, he/she would "bail me out" at his/her expense.)
6. Yöneticime, kendisinin bulunmadığı bir ortamda bile onun kararlarını savunacak kadar güvenirim.
(I have enough confidence in him/her that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so.)
7. Yöneticim ile verimli bir iş ilişkim vardır.
(My working relationship with my immediate supervisor is effective.)

ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE SCALE (Colquitt, 2001; Şahin & Taşkaya, 2010).

Aşağıdaki soruları, önceden cevap verdiğiniz yöneticinin sizin ile ilgili kararlar verirken ki etkileşimlerinizi (maaş, primler, performans değerlendirmesi, terfi, görev verme) düşünerek cevap veriniz.

(The questions below refer to the interactions you have with your supervisor as decision-making procedures (about pay, rewards, evaluations, promotions, assignments, etc.) are implemented.)

1	2	3	4	5
Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
<i>(Never)</i>	<i>(Rarely)</i>	<i>(Sometimes)</i>	<i>(Often)</i>	<i>(Always)</i>

1. Amiriniz size nazik davranıyor mu?
(Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?)
2. Amiriniz size değer veriyor mu?
(Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?)
3. Amiriniz size saygılı davranıyor mu?
(Has (his/her) treated you with respect?)
4. Amiriniz size haksız yorum ve eleştiriler yöneltiyor mu?
(Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?)

OLDENBURG BURNOUT INVENTORY (Demerouti, 2005; Şeker, 2011)

Aşağıdaki ifadelerin size ne ölçüde uyduğunu belirtiniz.

(Using the scale, please indicate the degree of your agreement.)

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
(Strongly disagree)	(Somewhat Disagree)	(Neither agree nor disagree)	(Somewhat Agree)	(Strongly agree)

1. Daha işe gitmeden kendimi yorgun hissettiğim günler oluyor.
(There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.)
2. İş çıkışı rahatlamak ve iyi hissetmek için eskiye nazaran daha fazla zamana ihtiyaç duyuyorum.
(After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.)
3. İşimdeki stresle iyi bir şekilde başa çıkabiliyorum.
(I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.)
4. Çalışırken kendimi sıklıkla duygusal olarak tükenmiş hissediyorum.
(During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.)
5. İşten sonra, boş zaman aktiviteleri için yeterli enerjiye sahip oluyorum.
(After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.)
6. İş çıkışı, kendimi genellikle yıpranmış ve yorgun hissediyorum.
(After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.)
7. Genellikle, iş yükümün üstesinden kolaylıkla gelebiliyorum.
(Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.)
8. Çalışırken kendimi genellikle enerjik hissediyorum.
(When I work, I usually feel energized.)

PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT SCALE (Eisenberger, Huntington,
Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Azaklı, 2014)

Lütfen bu bölümde şu an çalıştığınız iş yerini düşünüp aşağıdaki ifadeleri değerlendiriniz.

(Using the scale below, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements, thinking your current organization.)

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
(Strongly disagree)	(Somewhat disagree)	(Neither agree or disagree)	(Somewhat agree)	(Strongly agree)

1. Çalıştığım kurum, kurumun başarısı için olan katkılara değer verir.
(The organization values my contribution to its well-being.)
2. Gösterdiğim fazladan çabanın bu kurumda hiçbir kıymeti yoktur.
(The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.)
3. Çalıştığım kurum şikayetlerimi ciddiye almaz.
(The organization would ignore any complaints from me.)
4. Çalıştığım kurum benim mutluluğuma gerçekten önem verir.
(The organization really cares about my well-being.)
5. İşimi olabilecek en iyi şekilde yaptığımda bile, çalıştığım kurum bunu fark etmez.
(Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.)
6. Çalıştığım kurum, işteki memnuniyetime önem verir.
(The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.)
7. Çalıştığım kurum benimle çok az ilgilenir.
(The organization shows very little concern for me.)
8. Çalıştığım kurum işteki başarılarımla gurur duyar.
(The organization takes pride in my accomplishments.)

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST (Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010; Schroder, 2011)

Lütfen bu bölümde aşağıdaki ifadelerde geçenleri ne sıklıkla yaptığınızı belirtiniz.
(Please state how often have you done each of the following things?)

1	2	3	4	5
Hiçbir zaman (Never)	Bir iki defa (Once or twice)	Bir ayda bir veya iki kez (Once or twice/month)	Bir haftada bir veya iki kez (Once or twice/week)	Her gün (Every day)

1. Bir iş arkadaşşıma tavsiyede bulunmak, koçluk etmek ya da mentörlük yapmak için zaman ayırdım.
(Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.)
2. Bir iş arkadaşşıma yeni yetenekler kazanmasında yardımcı oldum ya da işe yönelik bilgimi paylaştım.
(Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.)
3. Yeni çalışanlara işe ayak uydurmalarında yardımcı oldum.
(Helped new employees get oriented to the job.)
4. Birisinin iş ile ilgili bir problemini samimice dinledim.
(Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.)
5. Birisinin iş ile ilgili bir problemini samimice dinledim.
(Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.)
6. Yapacak çok fazla işi olan bir iş arkadaşşıma yardım ettim.
(Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.)
7. Ekstra görevler için gönüllü oldum.
(Volunteered for extra work assignments.)
8. Bir proje ya da işi tamamlamak için hafta sonları ya da çalışma saatleri dışındaki başka günlerde çalıştım.
(Worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.)
9. Kendime ait zamanlarda yapılacak toplantılara katılmak ya da iş ile ilgili komitelerde yer almak için gönüllü oldum..
(Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time.)
10. İşimi tamamlamak için yemeğimden ya da diğer aralardan feragat ettim.
(Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.)

SUPERVISOR-DIRECTED ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

SCALE (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2010; Alabak, 2016).

Lütfen aşağıdaki 5 ifadeyi ne sıklıkla yaptığınızı belirtiniz.

(Please state how often have you done each of the following things?)

1	2	3	4	5
Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
<i>(Never)</i>	<i>(Rarely)</i>	<i>(Sometimes)</i>	<i>(Very often)</i>	<i>(Always)</i>

1. Yöneticim olmadığında fazladan sorumluluk almayı kabul ederim.
(Accept added responsibility when my supervisor is absent.)
2. Yöneticime iş yükü fazla olduğunda yardımcı olurum.
(Help my supervisor when s/he has a heavy work load.)
3. Yöneticimin yardım istemediği zamanlarda da ona yardım ederim.
(Assist my supervisor with my work (when not asked).)
4. Yöneticimin işleriyle yakından ilgilenirim.
(Take a personal interest in my supervisor.)
5. Yöneticime işle ilgili bilgileri iletirim.
(Pass along work-related information to my supervisor.)

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