

ABSTRACT

MCGINNIS, JENNIFER TRICIA LINDBERG. *Leaders Behaving Badly: Antecedents and Consequences of Abuse.* (Under the direction of S. Bartholomew Craig.)

Although the leadership field has been preoccupied with identifying the leader traits and behaviors that evoke positive employee work attitudes and behaviors and maximize effectiveness (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002), the field has become increasingly interested in understanding the “dark side” of leader behavior. However, this research is still in its infancy. The current study increases our understanding of one class of negative leader behavior, abusive supervision, by examining supervisor personality as an antecedent of abusive supervision, along with several individual-level and organization-level consequences.

An archival database was obtained from a leadership training and development consulting firm for the current study. Participants were focal managers ($N = 121$) who participated in a leadership development program. The managers completed a personality measure prior to the program. In addition, the managers’ subordinates ($N = 779$) completed a customized, qualitative 360-degree assessment instrument that asked for examples of the focal managers’ use of “bad leadership” behaviors and both their reactions to and the consequences (i.e., impacts) of these behaviors.

A preliminary content analysis was conducted on the 360-degree data for 10 managers to develop the initial coding scheme. After this analysis, a content analysis was conducted on the 360-degree data for all 121 managers, resulting in 45 behavior categories and 59 reaction/impact categories. Next, 10 subject matter experts (SMEs) provided their

ratings of abusive supervision and destructive leadership for the behavior categories. Eight behaviors were rated as abusive supervision; the same eight behaviors and an additional 16 behaviors were rated as destructive leadership, and 20 other behaviors were rated as non-destructive leadership.

In total, 1,814 examples of bad leadership were provided; 501 (23.38%) were categorized as both abusive supervision and destructive leadership, 767 (35.8%) were categorized as destructive leadership only, and 875 (40.83%) were categorized as non-destructive leadership. Incivility ($f = 75$; 61.98% of managers) was the most common abusive supervisory behavior, followed by losing composure ($f = 59$; 48.76% of managers), lack of professionalism ($f = 42$; 34.71% of managers), and criticizing others ($f = 36$; 29.75% of managers).

Forty-six reaction categories were associated with the eight abusive behaviors, and only two reaction categories were associated with subordinates' responses to all eight of these behaviors: (1) damage to manager's reputation or credibility; and (2) damage to manager—employee work relationships. The most common reactions *across* the abusive supervisory behaviors included: (1) feeling unappreciated, not valued, unworthy; marginalized (12.91%); (2) damage to manager's reputation or credibility (12.69%); (3) damage to manager—employee work relationships (7.77%); (4) discomfort (6.46%); (5) apathy (6.02%); and (6) embarrassment (5.36%). Likewise, 59 impact categories were associated with the eight abusive behaviors, and only two impact categories were associated with subordinates' responses to all eight of these behaviors: (1) decreased employee morale; and (2) decreased employee performance or results. The most common impacts *across* the

abusive supervisory behaviors included: (1) damage to manager's reputation or credibility (12.92%); (2) decreased employee morale (7.03%); (3) damage to work relationships (6.91%); (4) damage to manager—employee work relationships (6.52%); and (5) avoidance of or decreased communication with manager (5.24%). Subordinates' reactions to and the impacts of these eight behaviors were also examined *within* each abusive supervisory behavior.

Finally, after creating nine cluster profiles of the eight abusive supervisory behaviors, a discriminant function analysis revealed that cluster membership could not be predicted on the basis of the managers' personality characteristics (i.e., openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness). The implications of this research for future empirical research and organizational practice were discussed.

Leaders Behaving Badly: Antecedents and Consequences of Abuse

by
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A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
North Carolina State University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

Raleigh, North Carolina

2010

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DEDICATION

This body of work is dedicated in loving memory to Justin Walter Lee Straus, whose courageous six-year-long battle with chordoma was a constant reminder to me to never give up, no matter how challenging this research became. Justin, although your physical life on this Earth was too short, your message of perseverance will forever live in the hearts and minds of those who knew and loved you. Thank you for reminding me that the challenges I encountered while completing this project were insignificant compared to the battle that you so bravely fought.

BIOGRAPHY

Jennifer Tricia Lindberg McGinnis was born in Bloomsburg, PA and graduated from North Mecklenburg High School in Huntersville, NC in 1999. She began her undergraduate studies at Peace College in Raleigh, NC in the fall of that year and graduated summa cum laude in 2003 with Bachelor of Art degrees in Psychology and Leadership Studies and a minor in Human Resources.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

On September 18, 2007, Dr. Randy Pausch, professor of Computer Science, Human Computer Interaction, and Design at Carnegie Mellon University, delivered what would be his last lecture entitled “Really Achieving Your Childhood Dreams.” During this lecture, he said, “But remember, the brick walls are there for a reason. The brick walls are not there to keep us out. The brick walls are there to give us a chance to show how badly we want something. Because the brick walls are there to stop the people who don’t want it badly enough.” As a seasoned graduate student trying to finish her dissertation, this message resonated with me; there was no doubt that I wanted my Ph.D. badly enough. However, and perhaps more importantly, I was surrounded by a network of colleagues, faculty, family, and friends who wanted this for me just as badly. Thus, it is here that I acknowledge and honor them for helping me break through those brick walls and see every challenge as an opportunity.

I would like to begin by thanking my advisor and committee chair, Bart Craig, for his constant encouragement, mentoring, and support. To say that you made my graduate school experience an enjoyable one would be an understatement; I am honored that I will forever hold the title of being your first advisee. I would also like to thank my committee members, Lori Foster Thompson, Bob Pond, and Mark Wilson, for their feedback and input.

I am indebted to Holly Latty-Mann of The Leadership Trust[®] for giving me access to the data for this research and to the managers who granted me permission to include their data in this research. I would also like to thank Heather Kellum for her assistance and

willingness to answer my questions and provide me with important information throughout this process.

There was a small community of individuals who assisted with this research by generously donating their time and talents. Thank you to Paul Park and Veronica Mendez for assisting with data entry and to Ann Bingham for lending her statistical prowess. I am also grateful to Leah Bowling, Justin Brown, Allyson Frick, Alexandra Mullins, Gabriel Pappalardo, and Brittany Powell for serving as coders during the content analysis phase of this research. Finally, thank you to Becca Baker, Amy DuVernet, John Fleenor, William Gentry, Emily Johnson, Eric Kail, Robert Kaiser, Mike Sanders, and Jane Vignovic for serving as subject matter experts and providing your ratings of abusive supervision and destructive leadership during a critical phase of this research. Your contributions and insights were valuable, and I am extremely appreciative.

I am fortunate to have a wonderful network of colleagues and friends who supported me during this process and were always willing to lend an ear and offer their advice. Thank you to my colleagues and mentors, Kathy Corley, Heather Lee, and Felicia Mainella, for their advice and friendship. I could not have finished this journey without the three of you. Thank you also to Clara Hess and Jane Vignovic for the late-night chats during those moments when I wanted to give up. And finally, thank you to Reanna Harman for her help and friendship during graduate school and while I was conducting this research. You were instrumental in helping me conduct the preliminary content analysis for this research, but more importantly, you have been a loving and reliable friend on whom I can always count. I entered graduate school with the intentions of receiving a Ph.D., but I am also leaving with a

lifelong friend. Many thanks go out to Ashley, Beth, Carrie, Caroline, Jessica, Jillian, and Melissa for always providing a reprieve and moments that made me laugh until I was blue in the face. Last, but certainly not least, thank you to my best friend, Kyla Bubb, for always being a phone call away and for all the prayers I know you sent my way.

Finally, words cannot express how grateful I am to my parents, Pat and John Lindberg, for their unending love and support. You taught me the value of education and developed my thirst for knowledge. Most importantly, you believed in me and supported me in all of my academic endeavors. I love you both, and I am very thankful to have parents like you. My final acknowledgement is for my husband, Matt. Dear, thank you for supporting us financially while I was a full-time graduate student and for understanding when my nights and weekends were filled with work instead of time spent with you. I look forward to finding the new normal with you in our post-graduate school life together. Thank you for always being the greatest fan of my life.

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Literature Review

In the past, the leadership field has been preoccupied with identifying the leader traits and behaviors that evoke positive employee work attitudes and behaviors and maximize effectiveness through their *presence* (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002). This “bright side” approach is also evident in a plethora of leadership theories (e.g., path-goal theory, House, 1996; transformational leadership theory, Bass, 1985). More recently, the field of leadership has become interested in understanding the “dark side” of leader behavior that affects both leader and organizational effectiveness through its *absence* (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; McCall & Lombardo, 1983). This dark side approach holds that a full understanding of leadership processes requires consideration of negative or undesirable traits and behaviors, along with the positive characteristics that were studied traditionally. Although much has been written about effective leadership, research that focuses on the dark side of leadership is still in its infancy. As a result, the terminology and description of this type of leader behavior is disjointed, making further explication of these constructs and their relationship to organizational outcomes difficult. The current study increases our understanding of one class of negative or maladaptive leader behavior, abusive supervision, by examining supervisor personality as an antecedent of abusive supervision, along with several individual-level and organization-level consequences.

Abusive Supervision

Recent theoretical and empirical contributions to the leadership literature propose that some supervisors engage in behaviors that can be characterized as generalized hierarchical abuse (Rospenda, 2002; Rospenda, Richman, Ehmke, & Zlapoter, 2005; Rospenda, Richman,

Wislar, & Flaherty, 2000; Wislar, Richman, Fendrich, & Flaherty, 2002), petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1987, 1994, 1997), victimization (Aquino, 2000), workplace bullying (Hoel & Cooper, 2001; Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999), supervisor aggression (Schat, Desmarais, & Kelloway, 2006), supervisor undermining (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), negative mentoring (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000), or abusive supervision (Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994; Tepper, 2000). Abusive supervision “refers to subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). Behavioral manifestations of abusive supervision may include loud and angry tantrums, rudeness, inconsiderate actions, coercion, intimidation by use of threats of job loss, withholding needed information, aggressive eye contact, the silent treatment, and humiliating or ridiculing someone in front of others (Bies, 2001; Bies & Tripp, 1998; Keashly, 1998; Tepper, 2000). Although abusive supervision constitutes a low base-rate phenomenon, it affects an estimated 13.6% of U.S. workers (Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006) and costs U.S. corporations an estimated \$23.8 billion annually (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006).

Several observations can be made about abusive supervision based on this definition. First, according to this definition, abusive supervision is characterized by subordinates’ *subjective* assessments of their interactions with their supervisors. These assessments are influenced by subordinate characteristics (e.g., demographic characteristics and personality) and the context in which the assessments are made (Tepper, 2007). Second, abusive supervision entails sustained or enduring behavioral displays that will likely continue until (1) the target (i.e., the recipient of the agent’s behavior) terminates the relationship, (2) the

agent (i.e., the enactor of the behavior) terminates the relationship, or (3) the agent modifies his or her behavior (Jezl, Molidor, & Wright, 1996; Shepard & Campbell, 1992; Tepper, 2000, 2007). Third, abusive supervision refers to behaviors that reflect both indifference (e.g., speaking rudely to subordinates in order to obtain a desired level of performance) and willful hostility (e.g., publicly belittling subordinates in order to hurt their feelings). Fourth, supervisors perpetrate abusive behavior to achieve an intended outcome, but this outcome may not necessarily be to cause harm (Tepper, 2000, 2007). Finally, abusive supervision may not be considered deviant if it conforms to organizational policies and normative behavior (Tepper, 2000).

Abusive supervision is similar to, yet conceptually and operationally distinct from, related constructs in the organizational research literature (e.g., generalized hierarchical abuse, petty tyranny, workplace victimization, workplace bullying, supervisor aggression, supervisor undermining, and negative mentoring; Tepper, 2000). Despite some conceptual and operational overlap between abusive supervision and these constructs, meaningful distinctions exist between them, according to Tepper (2007). For example, in contrast to abusive supervision, workplace victimization and workplace bullying are not necessarily directed downward from supervisors to their subordinates and can also be directed laterally (subordinate on subordinate) or upwardly (subordinate on supervisor), though the current empirical research on this topic suggests that downward victimization (supervisor on subordinate) is the most prevalent form (Tepper, 2007). In addition, constructs such as generalized hierarchical abuse, workplace victimization, and supervisor aggression include physical hostility, which contrasts sharply with the definition of abusive supervision provided

by Tepper (2000). Thus, although the abusive supervision construct is similar to other constructs in the research literature, it warrants both theoretical and empirical attention as a distinct phenomenon. The current study is important because it addresses a gap in the theoretical literature on this topic by distinguishing abusive supervision from the general topic of “bad leadership,” which includes managerial incompetence. In addition, the current study increases our understanding of abusive supervision by examining the dimensionality of this construct and the frequency of certain other bad leadership behaviors, in addition to abusive supervision.

Antecedents of Abusive Supervision

Currently, there is a paucity of research on the antecedents of abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007). To date, only three empirical investigations, one unpublished, have been conducted on the antecedents of abusive supervision, and these studies have framed abusive supervision as displaced aggression, hostility that is directed against “safe” targets when retaliation against the source of one’s frustration is not feasible or possible (Bushman, Bonacci, Pedersen, Vasquez, & Miller, 2005; Pedersen, Gonzales, & Miller, 2000). In a cross-sectional study of 373 Air National Guard supervisor-subordinate dyads, Tepper et al. (2006) found that supervisors’ depression mediated the relation between the supervisors’ own procedural injustice experiences (i.e., disrespectful or unfair organizational allocation processes; Thibaut & Walker, 1975) and the abusive supervision they displayed toward their subordinates. This mediation effect emerged only when subordinates were high in negative affectivity, a dispositional tendency to experience negative thoughts and emotions (Watson & Clark, 1984). Supervisors who experienced procedural injustice displaced their resentment

against targets other than the provoking agent (i.e., the organization), perhaps out of fears of retaliation or further mistreatment. Further, these supervisors were more likely to displace their resentment against high-negative affectivity subordinates who perhaps appeared unwilling or unable to defend themselves against the abuse.

In an additional study of 210 supervisor, subordinate, and family member triads, Hoobler and Brass (2006) examined supervisors' experiences with psychological contract breach (i.e., violations of employees' beliefs about what they feel they are entitled to, based on implicit or explicit promises made by the employer; Robinson, 1996; Rousseau, 1995) as an antecedent of abusive supervision. The authors found that supervisors who experienced psychological contract violations by the organizations in which they were employed were more abusive toward their subordinates. This effect was moderated by the supervisors' hostile attribution bias, a dispositional tendency to project hostile intent onto others' behavior (Adams & John, 1997). Supervisors' experiences with psychological contract breach, in combination with their tendency to perceive frustrating events as purposeful, prompted the supervisors to display abusive behavior toward controllable and less powerful targets (i.e., subordinates).

In a recent study of 178 Chinese telecommunication employees and their supervisors, Aryee, Chen, Sun, and Debrah (2007) examined supervisors' experiences with interactional injustice (i.e., the unfairness of the interpersonal treatment an employee receives from his or her supervisor; Bies & Moag, 1986; Folger & Bies, 1989) and authoritarian leadership style (i.e., leader behavior that asserts absolute authority and control over subordinates and demands their unquestionable obedience; Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, & Farh, 2004) as

antecedents of abusive supervision. Aryee et al. found that both interactional injustice and authoritarian leadership style were positively related to abusive supervision. The relation between supervisors' experiences with interactional injustice and abusive supervision was moderated by authoritarian leadership style; the effect was stronger for supervisors who demonstrated high rather than low authoritarian leadership style. According to Aryee et al., the supervisors' experiences with interactional injustice evoked frustration and resentment that were displaced against targets other than the source of the injustice.

In summary, previous research on abusive supervision has found that antecedents such as supervisors' interactional and procedural injustice experiences, psychological contract violations, and authoritarian leadership style are positively related to abusive supervisory behavior. In addition, other variables have been found to mediate (e.g., supervisor depression) and moderate (e.g., supervisors' negative affectivity and supervisors' hostile attribution bias) the relations between these antecedents and abusive supervision. Despite these findings, the empirical literature on the antecedents of abusive supervision is very limited, which highlights the importance of the current study. To date, no empirical research has been conducted on supervisor personality as an antecedent of abusive supervision. The current study is significant because it addresses a gap in the empirical literature on abusive supervision by examining the relation between supervisor personality and the use of certain abusive supervisory behaviors. As such, the current study has important implications for increasing our understanding of the characteristics of supervisors that may result in their propensity to engage in certain abusive supervisory behaviors.

Consequences of Abusive Supervision

Most of the empirical research on abusive supervision, albeit limited, has focused on its consequences. This research is organized around the following six themes: (1) work-related attitudes; (2) resistance behavior; (3) aggressive and deviant behavior; (4) performance consequences; (5) psychological well-being; and (6) family well-being. A review of the literature for each theme is presented below.

Subordinates' work-related attitudes. Previous research on the consequences of abusive supervision suggests that abusive supervision is related to a variety of subordinates' work-related attitudes. In three empirical studies, abusive supervision was negatively related to subordinates' job satisfaction (Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004; Schat, Desmarais, & Kelloway, 2006). In a survey-based study involving residents of a medium-sized Midwestern city, it was found that subordinates who perceived their supervisors as more abusive reported significantly lower job satisfaction. This effect was fully mediated by organizational justice perceptions (Tepper, 2000). Tepper et al. (2004) utilized a longitudinal study design to examine the moderating effect of abusive supervision on the relation between subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), behaviors that have the potential to positively impact the organization or its members (e.g., Organ, 1988), and their fellow employees' job satisfaction. They found evidence to support a moderating effect; when abusive supervision was high, subordinates' OCB was negatively related to their fellow employees' job satisfaction. Similarly, a cross-sectional study of 478 Canadian college students revealed a negative relation between supervisor aggression and employees' job satisfaction (Schat, Desmarais, et al., 2006).

In addition to job satisfaction, previous research (e.g., Duffy et al., 2002; Schat, Desmarais, et al., 2006; Tepper, 2000) has found evidence to support an association between abusive supervision and subordinates' commitment to the organization. Using a sample from the national police force in the Republic of Slovenia, Duffy et al. found that both supervisor and subordinate undermining were negatively related to a broad conceptualization of organizational commitment. Schat, Desmarais, et al. corroborated these findings. In another study, Tepper utilized Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment and found that subordinates who perceived their supervisors as more abusive reported significantly greater continuance commitment (i.e., the result of accumulated investments or side bets), lower normative commitment (i.e., the receipt of benefits that activate a need to reciprocate), and lower affective commitment (i.e., personal involvement and identification with the target). These effects were fully mediated by organizational justice perceptions.

Subordinates' resistance behavior. In addition to its effects on subordinates' job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the findings from two studies provide support for the hypothesis that exposure to abusive supervision may evoke subordinates' resistance behavior (Tepper, 2007). Employing a longitudinal study design, Tepper, Duffy, and Shaw (2001) found that abusive supervision was positively related to subordinates' dysfunctional resistance (i.e., the refusal to perform supervisors' requests). This relation was attenuated for subordinates who were high in conscientiousness (responsible, dependable, organized, persistent, and achievement-oriented) and agreeableness (good-natured, cooperative, and trusting). In a related study, Bamberger and Bacharach (2006) utilized multi-source data

(i.e., data collected from supervisors and their subordinates) for 1,473 blue-collar workers employed in over 55 work units and found a positive relation between abusive supervision and subordinates' problem drinking. This effect was attenuated for subordinates who were high in conscientiousness and agreeableness. Taken together, the findings from these studies suggest that although abusive supervision can have deleterious effects on subordinates' resistance behavior, these effects can be ameliorated if subordinates are high in both conscientiousness and agreeableness.

Subordinates' aggressive and deviant behavior. In his recent qualitative review of the literature on abusive supervision, Tepper (2007) located five published and two unpublished studies that have examined the relation between abusive supervision and subordinates' aggressive behavior. Schat, Desmarais, et al. (2006) found that the positive relation between abusive supervision and subordinates' aggression toward their subordinates was mediated by the subordinates' level of irritation. In a study of 105 moonlighters (i.e., employed adults who work two jobs, each with a different supervisor), the findings supported a positive relation between abusive supervision and subordinates' supervisor-targeted aggression (Inness, Barling, and Turner, 2005). This relation was moderated by the subordinates' history of aggression; there was a stronger association between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed aggression when the subordinate had a history of being more aggressive. Finally, using a sample of 119 teenage part-time employees, Dupre, Inness, Connelly, Barling, and Hopton (2006) replicated Inness et al.'s (2005) findings and found that the relation between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed aggression was

stronger when employees reported higher financial reasons and lower personal fulfillment reasons for working.

Findings from two additional studies suggest that a link may exist between abusive supervision and deviant organizational behavior, voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization and/or its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). For example, previous research (i.e., Duffy et al., 2002) found a positive relation between supervisor undermining and subordinates' performance of counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs), defined as "intentional behavior on the part of an organization member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests" (Gruys & Sackett, 2003, p. 30). CWBs can be categorized in a two-dimensional space as minor vs. serious and interpersonal vs. organizational to create four types of deviant workplace behavior (i.e., production deviance, property deviance, political deviance, and personal aggression; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Similarly, a recent study conducted by Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) examined the relations between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed (e.g., gossiping about one's supervisor), interpersonal (e.g., saying hurtful things about others at work), and organization-directed (e.g., stealing from the organization) deviance and found that abusive supervision was positively related to all three forms of deviance. Furthermore, the relation between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed deviance was moderated by subordinates' negative reciprocity beliefs; there was a stronger association among subordinates with a negative reciprocity orientation, the tendency for an individual to return negative treatment for negative treatment (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Two currently unpublished studies have also examined the relation between abusive supervision and subordinates' aggressive or deviant behavior. In their cross-sectional study of 211 working adults, Schaubhut, Adams, and Jex (2004) found that abusive supervision was positively related to subordinates' performance of both interpersonal and organizational deviance, and this effect was moderated by the subordinates' self-esteem. For subordinates with low self-esteem, there was no relation between abusive supervision and their performance of deviant behaviors. In contrast, subordinates with high self-esteem demonstrated a positive relation between abusive supervision and deviance, suggesting that abusive supervision is more threatening to the self-image of someone with high self-esteem, as compared to the self-image of someone with low self-esteem. Similarly, in a series of three studies, Thau and Mitchell (2006) found a positive association between abusive supervision and subordinates' organization-directed deviance. Interestingly, these relationships were stronger when subordinates were higher in validation seeking, the dispositional motivation to prove and maintain one's self-worth.

Subordinates' performance contributions. To date, only a few studies have examined the association between abusive supervision and subordinates' performance contributions. Using a sample of 373 Air National Guard members and their military supervisors, Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy (2002) found that abusive supervision was negatively associated with subordinates' OCB. Moreover, this effect was moderated by subordinates' OCB role definitions and was mediated by subordinates' experiences with procedural justice. The relation between abusive supervision and OCB was stronger for subordinates who defined OCB as extra-role, as opposed to in-role. Similarly, Aryee et al. (2007) found that

subordinates' experiences with interactional justice mediated the relation between abusive supervision and subordinates' OCB.

Currently, only one study has examined the relation between abusive supervision and job performance (Tepper, 2007). In their cross-sectional study of 204 supervisor-subordinate dyads employed by an automotive organization, Harris, Kacmar, and Zivnuska (2007) found that abusive supervision was negatively related to formal performance appraisal ratings and supervisor ratings of job performance, but was unrelated to self-ratings of job performance. However, the effect of abusive supervision on all three performance indicators was moderated by the subordinates' perceptions of the meaning of work; the negative relation between abusive supervision and performance was strongest for subordinates reporting a high meaning of work. These findings suggest that subordinates for whom work holds a higher meaning may feel that they have more to lose when their supervisors are abusive. This may result in their attention being diverted away from their daily work activities, thereby causing their job performance to suffer (Harris et al., 2007; Tepper, 2007).

Subordinates' psychological distress. Abusive supervisory behaviors have also been found to negatively influence subordinates' physical and psychological health. In general, abusive supervision has been linked to anxiety (Harris, Kacmar, & Boonathanum, 2005; Tepper, 2000), depression (Tepper, 2000), diminished self-efficacy (Duffy et al., 2002), burnout (Grandey & Kern, 2004; Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007; Tepper, 2000; Yagil, 2006), somatic health complaints (Duffy et al., 2002; Schat, Desmarais, et al., 2006), and job strain (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007). Further, in a series of cross-sectional studies, researchers have identified several moderators of the relation between abusive

supervision and subordinates' psychological distress. In previous research, supportive supervisory behavior (Duffy et al., 2002) and subordinates' use of regulative communication (i.e., strategically avoiding contact with the supervisor; Tepper & Lockhart, 2005) tended to exacerbate the relation between abusive supervision and subordinates' distress. In contrast, subordinates' use of direct communication tactics (i.e., pointing out perceived injustices; Tepper & Lockhart, 2005), ingratiation (i.e., the use of flattery and related tactics to influence others' attitudes and behavior; Harvey et al., 2007), being high in positive affectivity (Harvey et al., 2007), and being in a high-power position (Grandey & Kern, 2004) tended to neutralize or buffer the negative effects of abusive supervision.

Family well-being. Preliminary findings from two research studies suggest that the deleterious effects of abusive supervision can extend to employees' lives outside of work (Tepper, 2007). Tepper (2000) found that abusive supervision was negatively related to subordinates' life satisfaction and positively related to their work-family conflict. In addition, Hoobler and Brass (2006) found evidence to support a positive association between abusive supervision and family undermining, defined as "actions that directly undermine and diminish the family member or partner's sense of self-worth" (Hoobler & Brass, 2006, p. 1126). The authors concluded that subordinates who experienced abusive supervision in the workplace were more likely to displace their aggression at the expense of targets that were less powerful than their supervisors, their family members.

To summarize, the consequences of abusive supervision have received much more empirical attention than its antecedents. Although a wide range of consequences (e.g., subordinates' job-related attitudes, resistance behavior, and deviant behavior) and mediating

(e.g., organizational justice perceptions) and moderating variables (e.g., subordinates' conscientiousness, agreeableness, and self-esteem) have been identified in previous research, additional research on subordinates' reactions to and the consequences of abusive supervision is warranted. Much like the research on the antecedents of abusive supervision, previous research on its consequences has utilized a unidimensional operationalization of the abusive supervision construct, which has made it unclear how certain abusive supervisory behaviors can result in specific consequences. Thus, the current study addresses the limitations of previous research in this area by increasing our understanding of the *specific* consequences associated with *certain* abusive supervisory behaviors. More specifically, the current study links both individual- and organization-level consequences to certain abusive supervisory behaviors.

Research Questions

Although there is a growing literature that examines abusive supervision and although abusive supervision has been shown to be related to characteristics of the agent and the target, more construct development and empirical research on its antecedents and consequences is needed. In addition, no previous research has attempted to create a typology of abusive supervisory behaviors as has been done for other CWBs. As such, the purpose of the current study was to investigate the types of abusive supervisory behaviors in which leaders engage, subordinates' reactions to these behaviors, and some individual- and organization-level consequences of abusive supervision. In addition, the current study examined leaders' personality characteristics as predictors of patterns of abusive supervisory behavior. The first research question this study addresses is:

Question 1: When prompted to give an example of bad leadership, what proportion of the examples will be of abusive supervisory behavior?

According to Tepper (2007), most of the research on abusive supervision has measured abusive supervision using Tepper's (2000) 15-item instrument or some shortened version of it. Unfortunately, this broad, unidimensional operationalization of abusive supervision has limited our understanding of its dimensionality. To ameliorate the problems associated with the treatment of abusive supervision in previous research, Tepper (2007) called for additional research that examines the subdimensions of abusive supervision. Thus, in an effort to address the limitations of previous research and to prompt further development of the abusive supervision construct, the following research questions were examined in the current study:

Question 2a: What is the dimensionality of abusive supervision?

Question 2b: What are the relative frequencies of different abusive supervisory behaviors?

In the past 10 years, there has been a resurgence of research activity with the purpose of examining the role of personality in leadership emergence and effectiveness. Much of this research has utilized the Five Factor Model (FFM) of normal human personality as its guiding framework (see Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Recently, Tepper (2007) suggested that a fruitful avenue for future research would be to examine the relations between the Big Five personality dimensions (i.e., openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) and abusive supervision, suggesting that the personality dimensions of agreeableness (i.e.,

cooperativeness, trust, and tender-mindedness; Costa & McCrae, 1992) and neuroticism (i.e., the trait tendency to experience negative emotions such as anxiety and anger; Costa & McCrae, 1992) may be related to supervisors' propensity to engage in abusive supervision. To date, no empirical research has investigated the relation between personality and abusive supervision; therefore, there is no basis for making a prediction regarding the relations between the Big Five personality dimensions and the display of abusive supervisory behavior. In the current study, four of the Big Five personality dimensions (i.e., openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness) were examined as antecedents of abusive supervision, and I posed the following question:

Question 3: What is the relation between leader personality and the display of abusive supervisory behavior?

In line with previous research on abusive supervision, the current study also examined subordinates' reactions to and the consequences associated with abusive supervision; however, this study addressed the limitations of previous research on abusive supervision by examining the *specific* reactions and consequences that result when supervisors engage in *certain* abusive supervisory behaviors. Thus, the following research questions were proposed:

Question 4a: What is the dimensionality of subordinates' reactions to abusive supervisory behaviors?

Question 4b: What are the relative frequencies of different subordinate reactions to abusive supervisory behaviors?

Question 5a: What is the dimensionality of the consequences that result when leaders engage in abusive supervisory behaviors?

Question 5b: What are the relative frequencies of different consequences that result when leaders engage in abusive supervisory behaviors?

Method

Participants

An archival database was obtained for use in the current study; the data were collected by a leadership training and development consulting firm. The participants in this study were 130 focal managers who were nominated by their employers to participate in one of several five-day leadership development programs (LDPs), which were developed and delivered by the consulting firm between the years of 2000 to 2006. The managers voluntarily enrolled in the LDPs and gave their consent for their data to be used in the future for research purposes. The data used in this study were originally collected for developmental purposes only and were not used for administrative decision making.

The participants responded to a series of both demographic and occupation-related items while completing the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI; Briggs & Myers, 1976; Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Of the participants who reported their gender, 46 (35.4%) were females and 76 (58.5%) were males; eight participants did not report their gender. The managers ranged in age from 25 years to 61 years ($M = 43.55$); eight managers did not report their age. With regard to ethnicity, 109 participants (83.8%) were White and 6 participants (4.6%) were non-White (i.e., Black, Hispanic, or American Indian or Alaskan Native); 15

participants did not report their ethnicity. The majority of the participants had a Bachelor's degree or higher (see Table 1). Finally, the participants selected their career area and field of study from among 14 and 61 options, respectively. Each participant was asked to select the options that most closely matched his or her career area and field of study; the participants' career areas and fields of study are presented in Table 2.

Nine managers were excluded from the study because they indicated that they were not employed for at least 30 hours per week or because they did not respond to the item asking about employment status. These exclusions reduced the total sample size to 121 focal managers; the total number of raters for these managers was 779 and ranged from 2 to 17 per focal manager ($M = 6$).

Procedure

Prior to attending the LDPs, the participating managers completed a customized 360-degree assessment instrument that was developed and distributed by the leadership training and development consulting firm. In addition, they completed the MBTI (Briggs & Myers, 1976; Myers & McCaulley, 1985), the Fundamental Interpersonal Relationship Orientation—Behavior assessment (FIRO-B; Schutz, 1992, 1994), and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS; Edwards, 1959; Helms, 1983). The managers' self responses to the 360-degree assessment instrument were not used in the current study, nor were the FIRO-B and EPPS data.

The focal managers' subordinates (i.e., superiors, peers, and subordinates), customers, vendors, and shareholders also completed the 360-degree assessment instrument to provide the managers with feedback to be delivered during the LDPs. Each subordinate was asked to

provide up to three examples of bad leadership for his or her respective manager. Several family members and close friends of the participating managers also completed the 360-degree assessment instrument; however, given the current study's focus on performance in the work domain, their data were excluded from analysis based on identifying information provided on rater nomination forms used by the consultancy for record-keeping purposes.

Measures

Leader personality. Personality characteristics of the managers were assessed using Form M of the MBTI, a forced-choice, self-report personality inventory that classifies individuals according to an adaptation of Carl Jung's theory of personality types (Briggs & Myers, 1976; Myers & McCaulley, 1985). The MBTI measures four underlying dimensions of personality: Introversion (I) versus Extraversion (E); Sensing (S) versus Intuition (N); Thinking (T) versus Feeling (F); and Perceiving (P) versus Judging (J; see Table 3 for a description of these personality dimensions). The MBTI produces continuous "preference" scores to measure each of the four dimensions of personality; however, individuals are typically assigned to one of 16 categorical types based on their profile of dichotomized preference sources (e.g., an ESTJ would denote an Extraverted, Sensing, Thinking, and Judging type; Harvey, Murry, & Markham, 1995).

Despite its widespread popularity and use in applied organizational settings (e.g., Garden, 1989; Gauld & Sink, 1985; Hartzler & Hartzler, 1982; Kirton, 1976; Pollitt, 1982; Sample & Hoffman, 1986), the MBTI has been criticized for its categorical scoring method and, to some extent, for its psychometric properties (e.g., Carlyn, 1977; Coe, 1992; Comrey, 1983; McCrae & Costa, 1989; Pittenger, 1993; Stricker & Ross, 1964). However, a review

and meta-analysis of a large number of reliability and validity studies determined that the psychometric properties of the continuous scores generated by the MBTI are comparable to those of other, more well-accepted, personality tests (Harvey, 1996). The current study used only the continuous preference scores.

Abusive supervisory behavior, reactions, and consequences. The focal managers' use of bad leadership behaviors, subordinates' reactions to these behaviors, and the consequences of these behaviors were measured using their subordinates' responses to a customized 360-degree assessment instrument, which consisted of three open-ended questions (see Appendix A). 360-degree assessment, which is also referred to as multi-source or multi-rater assessment, is a method of systematically collecting perceptions of a focal leader's performance from a variety of rating sources, such as peers, subordinates, supervisors, and external stakeholders (e.g., customers; Day, 2000; Warech, Smither, Reilly, Millsap, & Reilly, 1998). The 360-degree assessment instrument used in the current study was atypical in that it included only open-ended questions and did not ask subordinates to provide quantitative ratings of the focal managers' effectiveness across a series of performance dimensions.

Although used sparingly by researchers in industrial and organizational (I-O) psychology, qualitative research methods are being used increasingly by researchers in the leadership domain because they offer many advantages, such as richer data and a greater "feel" for the phenomena under study (Bryman, 1989; Insch, Moore, & Murphy, 1997). Indeed, some have argued that qualitative research is the most appropriate method for researching conceptually complex and rich constructs, such as leadership (Alvesson &

Sveningsson, 2003; Bryman, 2004; Conger, 1998). In the current study, content analysis, a qualitative research method that represents a family of procedures used to analyze and study the contents and themes of oral and written communication and allows researchers to classify a unit of analysis into categories (Berelson, 1971; Insch et al., 1997), was used to quantify subordinates' responses to the questions on the 360-degree assessment instrument into frequencies.

Coder Training

Prior to conducting the content analysis of the qualitative 360-degree assessment data, it was necessary to train several coders on how to conduct a content analysis. In the current study, the approach undertaken to train the coders was similar to frame-of-reference (FOR) training. Frequently used in rater training for performance appraisal, FOR training utilizes a social cognitive approach to train raters with regard to performance standards and performance dimensionality in order to increase rating accuracy (Bernardin & Buckley, 1981). The goal of FOR training is to train raters to share and use common conceptualizations or frames-of-reference when evaluating the performance of others (Bernardin & Buckley, 1981; Woehr & Huffcutt, 1994). Typically, FOR training includes four main components: (1) an emphasis on the multidimensionality of performance; (2) definitions of the relevant dimensions of performance; (3) a sample of behavioral incidents representing the performance dimensions; and (4) practice and feedback on evaluating the performance dimensions (Bernardin & Buckley, 1981).

Employing a FOR training strategy, six coders were trained on how to conduct the content analysis, using the data for six focal managers. Of the six coders, four were

undergraduate psychology majors and two were first-year graduate students in an I-O psychology doctoral program; none of the coders had previous experience with content analysis. Each coder was trained separately, thereby gaining one-on-one, individualized attention from the principal investigator (PI).

The coder training occurred over a three-week period. During the first week of training, the PI and each coder independently read and coded the 360-degree assessment data for one manager. A construct development approach was used to enable the coders to gain a greater understanding of how the categories were initially created (see Preliminary Content Analysis below). During weeks two and three of training, the data for two additional managers were independently read and coded each week; however, in contrast to the first week of training, the coders were given the lists of categories created from the preliminary content analysis and asked to use those categories to code the data. At the conclusion of the coder training, the coders received the final coding schemes and were asked to read and independently code the 360-degree assessment data for one additional manager. The PI then met with each coder and provided feedback on the accuracy of his or her coding. The coding disagreements between the PI and each coder were discussed to resolution before proceeding to the next stage of the study.

Analyses and Results

Preliminary Content Analysis

Prior to conducting the coder training and primary content analysis, it was necessary to develop a coding scheme, which comprises the coding “rules,” such as the category names and definitions, classification rules, and the words to be assigned to the categories (Insch et

al., 1997). To develop the coding scheme, a preliminary content analysis was conducted by the PI and a research assistant (RA) who was a doctoral candidate in I-O psychology. The preliminary content analysis included the 360-degree assessment data for 10 managers who were randomly selected to be included in the preliminary content analysis. In total, the number of raters for these managers was 79 and ranged from 2 to 14 per focal manager ($M = 7.9$).

The categories that were identified by the preliminary content analysis were developed using the construct development approach, which is an inductive process that seeks to identify higher-order theoretical constructs (i.e., categories) from qualitative data and allows the categories to emerge from the text (Gephart, 1993). The construct development approach contrasts with the construct measurement approach, which is a deductive process that imposes a preexisting list of categories on the text (Gephart, 1993). In the absence of a prior expectation for the breadth of responses that were provided by the focal managers' subordinates prior to conducting the content analysis, the construct development approach was deemed the most appropriate approach to use in the current study. To conduct the preliminary content analysis, the PI and RA independently coded the qualitative 360-degree assessment data for the 10 managers included in the analysis and created initial lists of categories to represent the subordinates' responses to the three questions on the 360-degree assessment instrument. Using an iterative process, the researchers then met to discuss and refine their lists of categories for each question on the 360-degree assessment instrument.

Upon further examination, it was determined that the categories used to represent the subordinates' responses to the second and third questions on the 360-degree assessment instrument were similar. More specifically, the subordinates of the participating managers used the same or similar language and terminology in their responses to these questions (e.g., decreased employee morale was described as both a reaction to and an impact of the managers' bad leadership behavior). As such, the same list of categories was used for both questions, with two minor exceptions (see Table 4). After conducting the preliminary content analysis, the code numbers, names, and definitions for each category were created; the code numbers were created to facilitate calculating interrater agreement. The qualitative 360-degree assessment data corresponding to the 10 managers who were included in the preliminary content analysis were recoded later in the study, using the final coding scheme, to ensure a uniform process for all data.

Content Analysis

After the coders were trained on the coding scheme developed from the preliminary content analysis, the focal managers' subordinates' responses to the 360-degree assessment instrument were read and independently coded by two researchers over a seven-week period. The PI coded the qualitative 360-degree assessment data for all of the focal managers, while the RAs each coded one-sixth of the data. A separate document that contained coding examples from the preliminary content analysis for all of the categories in the final coding schemes was provided to each coder to refer to while conducting the content analysis. The purpose of this document was to provide each coder with a sample of responses to represent each behavior, reaction, and impact category (Bernardin & Buckley, 1981).

Also, while conducting the content analysis, each coder was instructed to use an “other” category if he or she felt that a category did not currently exist to fully capture the phenomenon being described in a response. After week four of the content analysis when approximately 39% of the manager data files had been coded, the other categories were reviewed by the PI and the coding schemes were revised. At that time, 11 new behavior categories and three new reaction/impact categories were added to the final coding schemes presented in Tables 4-6, respectively. In addition, the definitions of 17 existing behavior categories and 10 existing reaction/impact categories were expanded to better capture the phenomena being described in the subordinates’ responses to the questions on the 360-degree assessment instrument.

After the responses were independently coded, the PI compared her coding to that of each RA and any coding disagreements were identified and entered in a Microsoft® Excel worksheet and initial agreement statistics (see below) were calculated. The PI and each coder then met to resolve their coding disagreements by discussing them to resolution. If they were unable to resolve a specific disagreement, then an additional RA was asked to read and code the passage using the original categories used by the PI and the RA to code the passage of data, with the option of suggesting an alternative category or categories, if necessary. The resolved codes were used in all subsequent analyses. Finally, in order to calculate frequencies for the behavior, reaction, and impact categories, the resolved codes for each focal manager were then entered into QSR NVivo Version 1.3.146, a qualitative data analysis software program.

Interrater Agreement

To assess the degree of consistency between the codes assigned by the two independent coders, interrater agreement was calculated. For these calculations, the unit of analysis was each “coding opportunity,” defined as the intersection of an example provided by the subordinates of the participating focal managers and a specific possible category into which that example could be coded. For example, if a single behavioral example was coded according to a 45-category scheme, then there were 45 opportunities for the two coders to agree or disagree. In the current study, the index used to calculate interrater agreement was percent agreement, using the intercoder agreement formula proposed by Miles and Huberman (1984), which is calculated by dividing the number of coding agreements by the sum of the number of coding agreements and disagreements. Although there is a lack of consensus regarding a cut-off figure representing an acceptable percent agreement statistic, generally a figure of 0.75-0.80 is used, although some consider a value of 0.70 to be adequate (Neuendorf, 2002; Rourke, Anderson, Garrison, & Archer, 2001). In the current study, the mean percent agreement statistic was 0.98 (*Mdn* = 0.98) and ranged from 0.92 to 1.00. Thus, the interrater agreement in the current study achieved the level necessary to continue with the data analysis.

Research Question 1

Research question 1 examined the proportion of the examples provided that were of abusive supervisory behavior when subordinates were prompted to give an example of bad leadership. In order to answer this question, it was first necessary to determine which behaviors were considered abusive and which were considered non-abusive. To accomplish

this task, 10 subject matter experts (SMEs) were asked to read the behavior category names and their corresponding definitions (see Table 5) and rate each behavior as abusive or non-abusive. Each SME was a Master's- or Ph.D.-level I-O psychologist with both applied work experience and research experience in the leadership domain.

The SMEs were asked to provide their ratings of abusive supervision in response to the following prompt:

Read the definition of abusive supervision (AS) provided below. After reading the definition, review each behavior and its corresponding definition below and in the column marked "Rating for AS," enter "Yes" if you consider the behavior to be abusive supervision and "No" if you do not consider the behavior to be abusive supervision.

The definition of abusive supervision that was provided was: "Hostile behavior, either verbal or nonverbal, displayed by a supervisor, leader, or manager toward a subordinate." This definition was adapted from Tepper's (2000, p. 178) definition of abusive supervision and is similar to his definition, with two exceptions; the "sustained display" and "excluding physical contact" portions of Tepper's definition were removed. These portions of Tepper's definition were removed because it was not possible to make inferences about the length of the behavioral display from the behavior category names and their corresponding definitions and, further, none of the behavior categories included physical contact.

In addition to rating each behavior as abusive or non-abusive, 11 SMEs were also asked to provide their ratings of each category as an example of destructive leadership. After the coding scheme in Table 5 was created, it was noted that a wider variety of behaviors

emerged from the data than could be fully captured by the construct of abusive supervision, as it was conceptualized by Tepper (2000). Destructive leadership is a concept that is broader in scope than abusive supervision and includes destructive behavior that is aimed at both subordinates and at the organization (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007). The SMEs were asked to provide their ratings of destructive leadership in response to the following prompt:

Read the definition of destructive leadership (DL) provided below. After reading the definition, review each behavior and its corresponding definition below and in the column marked “Rating for DL,” enter “Yes” if you consider the behavior to be destructive leadership and “No” if you do not consider the behavior to be destructive leadership.

The definition of destructive leadership that was provided was: “The systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, supervisor, 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 the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates” (Einarsen et al., 2007, p. 208).

In order for a behavior to be considered abusive in the current study, at least 70% of the SMEs had to agree (Neuendorf, 2002); the same rule was applied to the SMEs’ ratings of destructive leadership. Based on this rule, eight of the 44 behaviors were categorized as abusive supervision. All eight categories that SMEs classified as abusive supervision were also classified as destructive leadership, which was not surprising given that abusive supervision is conceptually a subset of destructive leadership. The percentage of the SMEs

who agreed that these eight behaviors were abusive ranged from 70% (lack of professionalism; taking credit for others' work; and withholding information) to 100% (losing composure); these values ranged from 72.73% (holding a grudge) to 100% (withholding information) for the SMEs' ratings of destructive leadership on these same eight behaviors. In addition to these eight behaviors, 16 additional behaviors were categorized as destructive leadership. The percentage of the SMEs who agreed that these 16 additional behaviors were destructive leadership ranged from 70% (failing to recognize good performance) to 100% (failing to assume or take responsibility; lack of support; resisting authority; insubordination; and wasting time or resources). The SMEs categorized 20 of the 44 bad leadership behaviors as neither abusive supervision, nor destructive leadership.

In applying the SME-based classifications to the examples provided by the managers' subordinates, 1,814 examples of bad leadership were categorized as abusive supervision, destructive leadership, or other. Of these examples, 501 (23.38%) were categorized as both abusive supervision and destructive leadership, 767 (35.8%) were categorized as destructive leadership only, and 875 (40.83%) were categorized as other. In addition, 140 examples were categorized as "No behavior to code" (see Table 5 for a definition of this category).

Research Questions 2a and 2b

Research question 2a sought to explore the dimensionality of abusive supervision. This question was answered by conducting a preliminary content analysis to develop the coding scheme for the behavior categories, using content analysis to categorize subordinates' responses to the first question on the 360-degree assessment instrument, and obtaining ratings of abusive supervision from 10 SMEs, as described above. The eight behaviors that

were considered abusive by the SMEs were as follows: (1) criticizing others; (2) holding a grudge; (3) incivility; (4) lack of professionalism; (5) losing composure; (6) taking credit for others' work; (7) talking behind people's backs; and (8) withholding information. As mentioned previously, the SMEs also considered these eight behaviors to be destructive leadership.

In conjunction with research question 2a, question 2b examined the relative frequencies of the eight abusive supervisory behaviors, the 16 additional destructive leadership behaviors, and the 20 non-destructive (i.e., not abusive, nor destructive) leadership behaviors. These analyses examined the percentage of raters who provided an example of bad leadership that was coded into each behavior category. The ratings provided by the SMEs were then used to determine if each behavior category was abusive supervisory behavior, destructive leadership, both, or neither. The results of these analyses are presented in Tables 7-9. Of the behaviors that were considered abusive *and* destructive, 61.98% of the managers engaged in incivility, which was the most common, followed by losing composure (48.76%). Other behaviors, such as holding a grudge (9.09%) and taking credit for others' work (4.96%), were engaged in less frequently by the managers, based on their subordinates' reports. In terms of the 16 additional behaviors that were considered destructive leadership, but not abusive supervision, 60.33% of the managers engaged in resisting influence, which was mentioned most frequently by the raters, followed by lack of support (50.41%) and failing to initiate structure (43.80%). Other destructive leadership behaviors, such as failing to maintain confidentiality (9.09%) and territoriality (4.96%), were engaged in less frequently by the managers, according to their subordinates. Finally, the most common non-

destructive leadership behavior was failing to deliver results (57.02%). There were several other non-destructive leadership behaviors that were frequently engaged in by the managers, such as poor communication—medium unspecified (48.76%), micromanaging (46.28%), and poor communication—verbal (43.80%). In contrast, some non-destructive leadership behaviors, such as appearing inauthentic or fake (4.96%) and failing to go above and beyond, doing the minimum (4.96%), were infrequently engaged in by the managers, based on their subordinates' reports.

Research Question 3

Cluster analysis. Research question 3 examined the relation between leader personality and the display of abusive supervisory behavior. This question was first investigated by applying a taxonomic (i.e., person-oriented) approach and conducting a hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis (Ward, 1963; Ward & Hook, 1963), followed by an iterative partitioning (k-means) cluster analysis, to derive the number and types of distinct abusive supervisory behaviors. In these analyses, the managers' relative frequency scores on each of the eight abusive supervisory behaviors constituted their "patterns" of abuse and served as the indicator variables. The managers' relative frequency scores on these eight behaviors were calculated by dividing each manager's raw frequency score on each abusive supervisory behavior by the number of raters for that manager. The clustering was accomplished using the SLEIPNER 2.1 computer program (Bergman & El-Khoury, 2002).

Cluster analysis is a data-reduction technique that can be used to identify homogeneous subgroups within a population (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Borgen & Barnett, 1987); however, unlike factor analysis, cluster analysis does not attempt to account

for or explain variance in latent factors. Instead, it seeks to group persons so as to both minimize the variance within clusters and maximize the variance between clusters based on the degree of similarity between each new data point and the current cluster assignments. Although a variety of pattern similarity indices are available when conducting a cluster analysis, the average squared Euclidean distance (SED) was used in the current study. This pattern similarity index is the most common, and it is sensitive to the three components of pattern similarity: (1) shape (i.e., the pattern of low and high scale scores in a profile); (2) level (i.e., the overall elevation of the profile); and (3) scatter (i.e., the degree of variability of the subscale scores around the profile average; Cronbach & Gleser, 1953; Skinner, 1978).

Given that no person-oriented procedure can classify every individual into a cluster and maintain its parsimony (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984), it was necessary to identify and remove any outlying (residual) cases prior to clustering (Bergman & El-Khoury, 2002; Borgen & Barnett, 1987). This was accomplished using the RESIDUE function in the SLEIPNER program. By default, this procedure requires that each case in the dataset be similar to at least one other case (a “twin”) within an average SED of 0.5 or lower. After running the RESIDUE function with this default setting, 19 cases were removed as outliers; however, the removal of these 19 cases reduced the variance for one of the eight abusive supervisory behaviors to zero, making subsequent analyses involving that variable impossible. As such, it was necessary to increase the average SED required to identify a twin to 1.0 or lower. After increasing the average SED to 1.0, the number of cases that were removed was 10, resulting in a final sample size of 111. It should be noted that as part of the

RESIDUE function, the scores were standardized so that behaviors with more variance would not disproportionately influence the calculation of the similarity indices.

The remaining 111 cases were submitted to a two-phase cluster analysis. In the first phase, a hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis using Ward's (1963) minimum variance method was conducted. This method seeks to find the optimal number of clusters by iteratively combining the two most similar entities, forcing all data points to eventually fuse together into a single cluster at the highest level, while minimizing the error sum of squares (ESS) within clusters. The minimum variance method initially treats each case as an individual case, and then the SED is used to identify the two most similar cases, at which time they are grouped together into a cluster. The SED for the cases is then recalculated through a series of successive pairwise comparisons, and the process continues until all clusters have been fused into one. This method was selected because it minimizes the ESS within clusters, thereby resulting in relatively homogenous clusters. In addition, it tends to result in more distinct and discrete clusters throughout the analysis (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984).

The minimum variance method also provides error values (ESS) for each possible cluster solution, which can be graphed to identify the appropriate number of clusters to retain. This procedure is similar to examining a factor-analytic scree plot. This plot depicts the changes in the ESS as the clusters are joined. A subjective judgment about the number of clusters to retain must then be made by reading the scree plot from right-to-left. When the plot reveals a large increase in the ESS, which is indicative of two dissimilar clusters fusing together, then the number of clusters existing just *before* that increase should be retained. In

the current study, an examination of the ESS plot (see Figure 1) revealed that a nine-cluster solution would both maximize between-cluster variance and minimize within-cluster variance, thereby maximizing within-cluster homogeneity. The initial nine-cluster solution from Ward's (1963) minimum variance method served as the basis for a second iterative partitioning (k-means) cluster analysis, which reevaluated each case's initial cluster assignment and relocated it to a different cluster if the total ESS could be reduced via relocation. This method utilized the RELOCATION function of the SLEIPNER program to make a series of "reassignment" passes through the data based on the number of clusters identified previously. During this process, each cluster's mean was recalculated after each iteration and the procedure continued to iterate until no further reduction of the total ESS was attainable, thereby correcting for "centroid drift" that can occur during the hierarchical agglomeration phase (Borgen & Barnett, 1987). The RELOCATION function resulted in eight managers being reassigned to their initial cluster profiles with an associated increase in the explained ESS from 68.52 to 69.66. In addition, nine means and standard deviations were calculated to represent the average profile of each cluster based on these final assignments (see Table 10 for the standardized means and Table 11 for the unstandardized means).

The homogeneity coefficient (HC) for each cluster was also calculated; the HC is the average SED among all possible pairwise comparisons of managers in each cluster. Given that the managers' scores on the eight abusive supervisory behaviors were standardized prior to the analysis, a higher HC for a cluster is indicative of less similarity among managers within that cluster. In contrast, lower HCs indicate more similarity among managers within

the cluster. In general, HCs less than one are considered evidence of homogenous clusters. In the current study, the HCs were below one for five of the nine clusters, and the remaining four HCs ranged from 1.19 to 1.97.

In order to compare the nine cluster profiles, a line graph depicting each of the (standardized) behavior means across the nine clusters was created and is presented in Figure 2. This graph demonstrates that not only are the cluster profiles different in shape, but they are also different in level. This suggests that there are profiles that vary based on how much a manager engages in each abusive supervisory behavior and there are also different patterns among these behaviors. While some managers appear to engage primarily in one abusive supervisory behavior (e.g., cluster profiles 2, 5, 8, and 9), other managers appear to engage in several abusive supervisory behaviors (e.g., cluster profiles 3 and 6), as perceived by their subordinates.

In addition to examining the graph that compares the nine cluster profiles, it is also worthwhile to examine and describe the nine abusive supervisory behavior cluster profiles individually. Because the standardized scores for the behaviors within each cluster were based on how frequently each behavior was mentioned by raters of a given manager, relative to the number of raters for that manager, higher scores should suggest that the manager engaged in the behavior more often. However, it should be noted that raters did not directly rate behavior frequency.

Cluster profile 1 (see Figure 3). The first profile ($n = 49$, 44.1% of total, $HC = 0.21$) was the most frequent profile by far in the current study. Interestingly, the managers in this profile were slightly below average for all eight abusive supervisory behaviors. Of these

eight behaviors, their mean scores were the highest for holding a grudge and talking behind people's backs. This suggests that these managers have a tendency to engage in all of the abusive supervisory behavior examined here, albeit less frequently than managers in some of the other clusters. Furthermore, their slightly higher mean scores on the two aforementioned behaviors support the notion that if these managers hold grudges toward their subordinates, then they may be more likely to talk about these people behind their backs.

Cluster profile 2 (see Figure 4). In comparison to the other profiles, the focal managers in the second profile ($n = 12$, 10.8% of total, $HC = 0.92$) engaged the most in lack of professionalism. They were also above average on incivility. The fact that several managers engaged in this combination of behaviors is not surprising, given that engaging in inappropriate or unprofessional behaviors (i.e., lack of professionalism) could be considered a form of behaving rudely or uncaringly toward others (i.e., incivility). Further, both of these behaviors are performed publicly in the presence of others, as opposed to behind the scenes or in private. Finally, depending on the context in which these behaviors are performed (e.g., in a one-on-one meeting or in a group meeting), engaging in these behaviors has the potential to affect multiple subordinates' perceptions of a manager, most likely in a negative direction.

Cluster profile 3 (see Figure 5). When compared to the other profiles, the focal managers in the third profile ($n = 12$, 10.8% of total, $HC = 0.76$) engaged the most in taking credit for others' work. It is also noteworthy that the managers in this group were either just at average or below average for the seven other abusive supervisory behaviors. This suggests that the managers in this group tend to primarily take credit for others' work, which could be considered a covert or overt behavior, depending on the manner in which the manager

engages in this behavior. For example, a manager could engage in this behavior in a covert manner (i.e., without the employee's knowledge) if he or she tells a supervisor that an achievement or task should be credited to him or her, instead of the employee. On the other hand, a manager could take credit for his or her employee's work in the context of a large-group presentation, where he or she is responsible for presenting the employee's work. This could create the perception, whether it is intentional or not, that the manager, instead of the employee, should be credited for the work.

Cluster profile 4 (see Figure 6). The managers in the fourth profile ($n = 12$, 10.8% of total, $HC = 0.67$) engaged the most in criticizing others, in comparison to the managers in the other profiles. In addition, they were slightly below average on the other seven abusive supervisory behaviors. In this manner, this profile is similar to the first profile; however, the managers in this profile can be distinguished from those in the first because they were above average on criticizing others. This suggests that these managers have a tendency to engage less frequently in each of the other abusive supervisory behaviors, while also belittling or demeaning employees more frequently.

Cluster profile 5 (see Figure 7). The managers in the fifth profile ($n = 9$, 8.1% of total, $HC = 1.19$) engaged the most in withholding information, in comparison to the managers in the other profiles. It can be argued that withholding information is a covert, yet intentional, behavior because it represents an *active* attempt to conceal important information from others. In addition, they were slightly above average on criticizing others and lack of professionalism and slightly below average on the other five abusive supervisory behaviors.

This pattern is somewhat similar to the fourth profile, in that the managers in this profile engage in one behavior much more frequently than the others.

Cluster profile 6 (see Figure 8). The focal managers in the sixth profile ($n = 7$, 6.3% of total, $HC = 1.79$) were above average on criticizing others, losing composure, and taking credit for others' work. They also engaged the most in incivility, in comparison to the managers in the other profiles. Taken together, it is not surprising that managers in this profile engaged in criticizing others, incivility, and losing composure, as these behaviors are all overt behaviors that are characterized by belittling employees (i.e., criticizing others), behaving rudely or uncaringly toward employees (i.e., incivility), and losing one's temper with or speaking harshly to one's employees (i.e., losing composure). However, it is somewhat surprising that the managers in this profile also engaged in taking credit for others' work, which, as discussed previously, could be considered an overt behavior or a covert, behind-the-scenes behavior. Given that the HC for this profile was well above 1.00, it could be that a smaller number of the seven managers in this group tended to engage in taking credit for others' work, whereas the others did not.

Cluster profile 7 (see Figure 9). When compared to the other profiles, the focal managers in the seventh profile ($n = 4$, 3.6% of total, $HC = 0.97$) engaged the most in losing composure. They were also slightly above average on criticizing others. This suggests that the managers in this group engage in overt behaviors because of their inability to regulate their emotions and control their tempers, particularly in the presence of others. As such, it is not surprising that managers in this group also engage in criticizing others with some

regularity, as it could be argued that inappropriately criticizing one's employees in the presence of others is a form of losing composure.

Cluster profile 8 (see Figure 10). The focal managers in the eight profile ($n = 4$, 3.6% of total, $HC = 1.97$) engaged the most in holding a grudge, in comparison to the managers in the other profiles. They were also above average on incivility, lack of professionalism, and losing composure. This is an interesting pattern of abusive supervisory behaviors, particularly because holding a grudge reflects a manager's internal attitudes towards another person or people in the work environment, whereas the behaviors of incivility, lack of professionalism, and losing composure are more outward and overt. However, it is perhaps possible that managers who hold a grudge toward another employee manifest this behavior through rudeness (i.e., incivility), inappropriate or unprofessional behaviors, such as the use of sarcasm (i.e., lack of professionalism), or becoming easily agitated with or being harsh toward this employee (i.e., losing composure).

Cluster profile 9 (see Figure 11). In comparison to the other profiles, the focal managers in the ninth and final profile ($n = 2$, 1.8% of total, $HC = 1.84$) engaged the most in talking behind people's backs. They were also above average on taking credit for others' work. This is noteworthy because both of these behaviors could be considered covert behaviors that could persist for a period of time without others' awareness that the manager is engaging in these behaviors. For example, employees may not know that their manager is gossiping about them or talking about them behind their backs until others begin to share this information with them. In addition to these two behaviors, managers in the ninth profile were also slightly above average on losing composure.

It should be noted that having to use a higher RESIDUE threshold of 1.0 may have resulted in the low number of cases in this cluster, in addition to the number of cases in both clusters seven and eight. That is, clusters composed of a small number of relatively dissimilar individuals may represent artifacts that would otherwise have been removed as outliers before clustering.

Leader personality. Prior to conducting the discriminant function analysis to examine research question 3, the MBTI personality dimensions were interpreted in terms of the Big Five personality dimensions. The empirical literature on leadership has frequently utilized a FFM framework to describe the relations between personality and leadership-related constructs, such as leader emergence and leader effectiveness (e.g., Judge et al., 2002). Indeed, in his review of the literature on abusive supervision, Tepper (2007) utilized the FFM framework to propose which Big Five personality characteristics might be related to abusive supervision and suggested these relations were worthy of future empirical research. It should be noted that Form M of the MBTI does not include items that can be reliably mapped onto the Big Five personality characteristic of neuroticism (R. J. Harvey, personal communication, March 12, 2008); as such, the current study mapped the MBTI personality dimensions onto only four of the Big Five.

The mapping procedure was accomplished using research by McCrae and Costa (1989) that reinterpreted the MBTI from the perspective of the FFM of personality, using the NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI, Costa & McCrae, 1985). In their study, the authors found a significant negative correlation between MBTI Extroversion-Introversion (in the direction of Introversion) and NEO extraversion. In addition, they found a positive

correlation between MBTI Sensing-Intuition (in the direction of Intuition) and NEO openness to experience. A significant positive correlation was also found between MBTI Thinking-Feeling (in the direction of Feeling) and NEO agreeableness. Finally, a significant negative correlation was found between MBTI Judging-Perceiving (in the direction of Perceiving) and NEO conscientiousness. Thus, in the current study, the focal managers' MBTI Extraversion, Intuition, Feeling, and Judging scores were used as measures of extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, respectively.

Discriminant function analysis. After the managers were classified into the nine abusive supervisory behavior profiles and the MBTI data were mapped onto four of the Big Five, a discriminant function analysis was conducted to assess the extent to which each of these four personality characteristics differentiated between the nine abusive supervisory behavior profiles (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In this analysis, four personality characteristics represented the continuous independent variables that were used to predict the nine patterns of abusive supervisory behavior, which represented the categorical dependent variables (see Table 12 for the intercorrelations between these variables and the observed reliabilities for the four MBTI scales). In discriminant function analysis, a number of discriminant functions are extracted, and this number is equal to either the degrees of freedom for groups ($k - 1$) or the number of predictors, whichever number is smaller (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). As such, in the current study, four discriminant functions were extracted because the number of predictor variables (i.e., four) was less than $k - 1$ groups (i.e., eight). The first discriminant function accounted for 35.8% of the between-group variance, and it was not significant, Wilk's $\lambda = .71$, $\chi^2(32, N = 110) = 35.57$, $p = .30$. The

second discriminant function, which accounted for 28.8% of the between-group variance, was also not significant, Wilk's $\lambda = .80$, $\chi^2(21, N = 110) = 23.02$, $p = .34$. Likewise, accounting for 21.2% of the between-group variance, the third discriminant function was also not significant, Wilk's $\lambda = .88$, $\chi^2(12, N = 110) = 12.82$, $p = .38$. Finally, the fourth discriminant function, which accounted for 14.2% of the between-group variance, was also not significant, Wilk's $\lambda = .95$, $\chi^2(5, N = 110) = 5.18$, $p = .40$. In summary, the results of the discriminant function analysis revealed that the patterns of abusive supervisory behavior could not be predicted on the basis of the managers' personality.

Research Questions 4a and 4b

Research question 4a sought to determine the dimensionality of subordinates' reactions to their managers' abusive supervisory behaviors. This question was answered by conducting a preliminary content analysis to develop the coding scheme for the reaction categories and using content analysis to categorize subordinates' responses to the second question on the 360-degree assessment instrument. In total, 59 reaction categories were included in the content analysis of subordinates' responses to the second question on the 360-degree assessment instrument; however, only 46 of these were associated with the categories that had been classified by the SMEs as abusive supervisory behaviors. Further, only two reaction categories were associated with subordinates' responses to all of these behaviors: (1) damage to manager's reputation or credibility; and (2) damage to manager—employee work relationships. However, an additional 11 reaction categories were associated with subordinates' responses to the majority (i.e., six or seven) of these eight abusive supervisory behaviors. These reaction categories were as follows: (1) apathy; (2) confusion; (3)

confronting the manager; (4) damage to work relationships; (5) decreased employee morale; (6) decreased employee motivation; (7) decreased trust in manager; (8) fear; (9) feeling unappreciated, not valued, unworthy; marginalized; (10) feelings of inequity or unfairness; and (11) frustration.

In conjunction with research question 4a, question 4b examined the frequencies of subordinates' reactions to the eight abusive supervisory behaviors. This analysis was conducted in two ways. First, the frequencies were examined *within* each abusive supervisory behavior category to gain an understanding of which reactions were the most prevalent for each abusive supervisory behavior and to explicate the *specific* reactions that resulted from *certain* abusive supervisory behaviors. The results that are presented in Table 13 display the proportion of subordinates' reactions for each abusive supervisory behavior that were categorized into each reaction category. For example, for the abusive supervisory behavior of taking credit for others' work, over 36% of the total number of subordinates' reactions that were categorized in response to this behavior were in the damage to manager's reputation or credibility and damage to manager—employee work relationships reaction categories. In addition, approximately 28% of subordinates' reactions to the abusive supervisory behavior of lack of professionalism were categorized into these same two reaction categories.

In addition to examining the frequencies of subordinates' reactions *within* each abusive supervisory behavior category, these frequencies were also examined *across* the eight categories to gain an understanding of which reactions were the most prevalent, in general. By far, the most common subordinate reactions across the abusive supervisory

behaviors were feeling unappreciated, not valued, unworthy; marginalized (12.91%) and damage to manager's reputation or credibility (12.69%). Other noteworthy reactions included damage to manager—employee work relationships (7.77%), discomfort (6.46%), apathy (6.02%), and embarrassment (5.36%). The remaining 40 reaction categories that were associated with subordinates' reactions to the managers' abusive supervisory behavior each represented less than 5% of the total number of reactions that were coded during the content analysis.

Research Questions 5a and 5b

Research question 5a sought to determine the dimensionality of the consequences (i.e., impacts) that resulted when leaders engaged in the abusive supervisory behaviors. This question was answered by conducting a preliminary content analysis to develop the coding scheme for the impact categories and using content analysis to categorize subordinates' responses to the third question on the 360-degree assessment instrument. In total, 59 impact categories were included in the content analysis of subordinates' responses to the third question on the 360-degree assessment instrument. As noted previously, 57 of these categories were the same as the reaction categories that were used to categorize subordinates' responses to the second question on the 360-degree assessment instrument. Only 48 of these consequences corresponded to supervisory behavior that was categorized as "abusive." In addition, only two impact categories were associated with subordinates' responses to all of these behaviors: (1) decreased employee morale; and (2) decreased employee performance or results. However, an additional 11 impact categories were associated with subordinates' responses to the majority (i.e., six or seven) of these eight behaviors. These impact

categories were as follows: (1) apathy; (2) avoidance of or decreased communication with manager; (3) confusion; (4) damage to manager's reputation or credibility; (5) damage to reputations—unspecified; (6) damage to work relationships; (7) decreased trust in manager; (8) fear; (9) increased turnover intentions; (10) issue was resolved; and (11) negative impact on organization.

In conjunction with research question 5a, question 5b examined the frequencies of the consequences that resulted when managers engaged in the eight abusive supervisory behaviors. As with research question 4b, this analysis was conducted in two ways. First, the frequencies were examined *within* each abusive supervisory behavior category to gain an understanding of which impacts were the most prevalent for each abusive supervisory behavior and to explicate the *specific* impacts that resulted from *certain* abusive supervisory behaviors. The results that are presented in Table 14 display the proportion of the impacts for each abusive supervisory behavior that were categorized into each impact category. For example, for the abusive supervisory behavior of taking credit for others' work, over 50% of the total number of impacts that were categorized in response to this behavior were in the avoidance of or decreased communication with manager, decreased employee morale, and decreased employee performance or results impact categories. For other abusive supervisory behaviors, such as criticizing others and incivility, a wider variety of impact categories were used to code the consequences of these behaviors.

In addition to examining the frequencies of the impacts *within* each abusive supervisory behavior category, these frequencies were also examined *across* the abusive supervisory behavior categories to enhance our understanding of which impacts were the

most prevalent, in general. Overall, the most common impact across the abusive supervisory behaviors was damage to manager's reputation or credibility (12.92%), which was also found to be one of the most common reaction categories. Other frequently observed impacts included decreased employee morale (7.03%), damage to work relationships (6.91%), damage to manager—employee work relationships (6.52%), and avoidance of or decreased communication with manager (5.24%). Approximately 10% of the subordinates' responses to the third question on the 360-degree assessment instrument were coded as no impact to code, indicating that many raters described impacts that were too ambiguous or vague to code. The remaining 42 impact categories that were used to categorize the consequences of the managers' abusive supervisory behavior each represented less than 5% of the total number of impacts that were coded during the content analysis.

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to increase our understanding of one class of negative or maladaptive leader behavior, abusive supervision. The primary contributions of this study lie in utilizing a multidimensional conceptualization of abusive supervision. In addition, this study is also one of only three empirical investigations (two published and one unpublished) to examine the antecedents of abusive supervision and, further, it is the only study to date to examine supervisor personality as an antecedent of abusive supervision.

Research question 1 enhanced our understanding of what workers consider to be bad leadership by examining the supervisory behaviors that were described in response to the first question on the 360-degree instrument. Overall, it was found that for the raters in the current study, bad leadership primarily meant ineffective or incompetent leadership, but

many of the raters also provided examples that could be considered unethical leadership (i.e., abusive supervision and destructive leadership). This is noteworthy because it provides empirical support for Kellerman's (2004) assertion that bad leadership includes both ineffective leadership (i.e., managerial incompetence) and unethical leadership and furthermore, it increases our understanding of what is meant by bad leadership, from the perspective of the managers' subordinates.

Research questions 2a and 2b, respectively, examined the dimensionality of abusive supervision, along with the relative frequencies of the different abusive supervisory behaviors that were identified in the current study. In this regard, the current study contributes to our understanding of the abusive supervision construct and further, attempts to address one of the limitations of previous empirical work on this topic by utilizing a multidimensional conceptualization of abusive supervision. Of the 44 behavior categories that were coded during the content analysis in this study, only eight of these were considered abusive supervisory behaviors by SMEs. In addition, based on their subordinates' reports, only 23.38% of the participating managers engaged in one or more of these behaviors at least once, which does support the notion that abusive supervision constitutes a low base-rate phenomenon.

In the current study, some interesting corollaries were found between abusive supervision and the broader concept of destructive leadership. The SMEs considered the same eight behaviors that they categorized as abusive supervision to also be destructive leadership; however, 16 additional behaviors were also considered to represent destructive leadership. This finding is in alignment with previous work on this construct, which defines

destructive leadership as broader in scope than abusive supervision (see Einarsen et al., 2007). Based on these findings, future research should also examine the research questions in the current study in the context of destructive leadership.

One final comment on the results from research question 2a pertains to the domain of job performance. The theoretical and empirical literature on job performance distinguishes between task performance (i.e., behaviors that are directly related to the job) and contextual performance (i.e., behaviors that are not directly related to one's core job functions but contribute to organizational outcomes; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). The domain of contextual performance is often further divided into OCBs, behaviors that have the potential to positively impact the organization or its members (e.g., Organ, 1988), and CWBs, behaviors that have the potential to negatively impact the organization or its members (e.g., Sackett & DeVore, 2002). The eight behaviors that were identified as abusive supervision in the current study could easily be considered CWBs. The same assertion could be made for the 16 additional behaviors that were considered destructive leadership, though some could also be categorized in the domain of task performance (e.g., failing to initiate structure) or contextual performance (e.g., displaying a negative attitude). In contrast, the 20 other behaviors that were not considered abusive supervision or destructive leadership would primarily be categorized in the domain of task performance, with some falling in the domain of contextual performance (e.g., failing to go above and beyond, doing the minimum could be considered to be the absence of an OCB). These findings provide strong support for the assertion that managerial incompetence, which would fall mainly in the domain of task performance, is distinct from abusive supervision.

In terms of the relative frequencies of the eight abusive supervisory behaviors, incivility was the most commonly described behavior, followed by losing composure and lack of professionalism. Other abusive behaviors, such as taking credit for others' work and holding a grudge, were less frequently described by the subordinates. These results are noteworthy because some of the most severe behaviors (e.g., losing composure) were frequently observed in this sample of managers. Thus, even though abusive supervision overall is a low base-rate phenomenon, many of the abusive managers are engaging in the more severe forms of this behavior. In addition, several of the most commonly described abusive supervisory behaviors in this sample are public forms of abusive supervision that have the potential to be observed by more than one subordinate simultaneously. As such, a single incident of abusive supervision could have far-reaching and long-term negative consequences for more than one subordinate.

Research question 3 made an attempt to identify patterns of the eight abusive supervisory behaviors and to determine if membership in these profiles could be predicted by supervisor personality. A hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis using Ward's (1963) minimum variance method, followed by an iterative partitioning (k-means) cluster analysis, was conducted and resulted in nine abusive supervisory behavior profiles. Although the HCs were below 1.00 for five of the nine profiles, four HCs were above 1.00. As such, these four cluster profiles should be interpreted with caution, particularly because the managers who were grouped into these profiles may be less similar to one another than is desirable.

In terms of the nine cluster profiles, some interesting findings emerged. In general, the profiles varied based on how often a manager was described by raters as engaging in each

behavior (i.e., level), and in addition, there were different patterns among these behaviors. For several profiles (2, 5, 8, and 9), the managers appeared to engage primarily in one abusive supervisory behavior, whereas the managers in other profiles (e.g., 3 and 6) engaged in several abusive supervisory behaviors. This finding is noteworthy because it suggests some managers may exhibit patterns of more diverse abusive supervisory behaviors with correspondingly more diverse consequences.

Following the cluster analysis, a discriminant function analysis was conducted to determine whether the nine patterns of abusive supervisory behavior could be predicted based on four supervisor personality characteristics. Unfortunately, the current study failed to find support for the idea that the managers' degree of extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness could predict membership in each abusive supervisory behavior profile. These results were surprising, given that previous research has found agents' personality characteristics to be related to their propensity to engage in certain CWBs, though this research did not focus on abusive supervision specifically. For example, meta-analytic evidence suggests that agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability (i.e., neuroticism) are negatively and highly related to both interpersonal and organizational deviance (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). Similarly, Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, and Barrick (2004) determined that more conscientious individuals were less likely to withhold effort and more agreeable employees were less likely to engage in forms of interpersonal deviance. In addition, Lee and Allen (2002) found that employees' negative affectivity was positively and highly related to their hostility. These studies, in addition to others, provide support for the notion that supervisor personality should be related to abusive

supervision. In the current study, the non-significant results for supervisor personality could perhaps indicate an interaction between the raters' personalities and the managers' personalities, thereby obscuring a main effect for supervisor personality. Perhaps the raters' personality characteristics affected their sensitivity to certain abusive supervisory behaviors or their propensity to report them, thereby impacting the frequency of their mention here. Indeed, previous research on workplace victimization (e.g., Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999) does support the notion that the characteristics of targets could influence their tendency to perceive themselves as victims. Thus, future research on this topic should also measure target personality in an effort to examine this explanation of the findings in the current study.

The final research questions examined the dimensionality of subordinates' reactions to their managers' abusive supervisory behavior (research question 4a) and the dimensionality of the consequences that resulted when managers engaged in these behaviors (research question 5a). The relative frequencies of these reactions and impacts were also examined (research questions 4b and 5b, respectively), both *across* and *within* the eight abusive supervisory behaviors. Of the 57 reaction/impact categories that were included in the coding scheme, only 46 and 48 of these were associated with subordinates' reactions to and the impacts of these behaviors, respectively. Interestingly, two of these categories were common for both reactions and impacts, damage to manager's reputation or credibility and damage to manager—employee work relationships. Other reaction/impact categories were commonly coded as either a reaction or an impact, but not both. For example, feeling unappreciated, not valued, unworthy; marginalized was the most common reaction category,

but it was not commonly used as an impact category. On the other hand, decreased employee performance or results was a frequently observed impact category, but it was not commonly observed as a reaction category.

These findings extend previous research on this topic by explicating the reactions and consequences that result *within* each abusive supervisory behavior, as opposed to describing subordinates' reactions to and the consequences of abusive supervision more generally. For example, when managers in this sample engaged in lack of professionalism, their subordinates reported that this behavior resulted in damage to the managers' reputations or credibility 20% of the time. In addition, in terms of the six themes that have dominated the research on the consequences of abusive supervision, evidence for at least three of these themes was found in the current study. First, subordinates' work-related attitudes were described as both reactions and impacts across the eight abusive supervisory behaviors. For example, the category of decreased employee morale was described as both a reaction and an impact and furthermore, decreased employee motivation was described as a reaction. Similar to the theme of subordinates' work-related attitudes, support was also found for the theme of subordinates' psychological distress, as fear was described as both a reaction and an impact. Interestingly, support was also found for the theme of subordinates' performance contributions, primarily as an impact only, as decreased employee performance or results was the second most common impact described in the current study.

Implications

The current study has implications for future theoretical and empirical work on abusive supervision and related constructs. In terms of future theoretical work on abusive

supervision, the current study sheds some light on the abusive supervision construct by utilizing a multidimensional conceptualization of abusive supervision. Thus, I was able to determine the *specific* reactions and impacts that resulted from *certain* abusive supervisory behaviors. Future empirical work in this area should utilize a similar conceptualization to better enable us to understand this construct and its consequences. Additionally, the current study has implications for the definition of abusive supervision, which was proposed by Tepper (2000). Based on the findings from the current study, it could be argued that the “sustained display” (p. 178) portion of Tepper’s definition may be unnecessary, given that a single incidence of this type of behavior appears to have serious negative consequences for subordinates.

In terms of its relevance to organizational practice, the findings from the current study, particularly subordinates’ reactions to these behaviors and the impact of these behaviors on followers and the organization, reinforce the importance of managers’ performance appraisals, particularly in the form of 360-degree assessment and feedback. This study’s findings seem to suggest that a one-time occurrence of an abusive supervisory behavior can have a strong, negative effect on subordinates. As such, organizations should take proactive measures to ensure that managers are not engaging in these behaviors because they can be harmful to other employees and the organization. As future empirical research is conducted on this topic and our understanding of the antecedents of abusive supervision continues to develop, we can perhaps begin to select managers based on the likelihood that they would engage in one or more of these behaviors in the future. The current study did not use the nine cluster profiles to predict a particular outcome (e.g., employee performance);

however, future research on this topic could do so in order to provide additional support for the suggestion that managers who might engage in one or more of these behaviors in the future should not be selected for managerial positions or should be given leadership development training to decrease the likelihood that they would engage in these behaviors in the future.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Several limitations of the current study are noteworthy. First, the sample of managers that was used was nonrandom because these managers either self-selected or were selected by their hiring organizations to attend the LDP. As such, the prevalence (i.e., frequency) conclusions from research question 1 should be interpreted with caution because high- or low-performing managers may have been more likely than average-performing managers to participate in the LDP. Thus, future research is needed to replicate this study's findings, particularly with regard to the frequencies of both the abusive supervisory and destructive leadership behaviors. Additionally, future research on this topic should utilize samples of managers who have not participated in an LDP or received similar management training to reduce any bias due to sampling error.

In addition, although the current study was proposed as a study on abusive supervision, I was unable to assess two key components of Tepper's (2000) definition that differentiate this construct from other related constructs in the leadership literature. First, because an archival database was used, I had limited information about the subordinates of the participating focal managers who provided their responses to the 360-degree assessment instrument. Thus, I was unable to distinguish between rater groups. Tepper's definition of

abusive supervision explicitly requires that this class of behavior be directed toward *subordinates* of the focal manager. At times, a judgment had to be made regarding whether or not data were provided by a subordinate, as opposed to a peer or a superior, of the participating manager. Although rater nomination forms were used whenever available to exclude data that were provided by subordinates in rater groups other than subordinates, some of these data may have been inadvertently included. This may confuse the abusive supervision construct with related constructs, such as workplace victimization and workplace bullying, which are not necessarily directed downward from supervisors to subordinates (Aquino, 2000; Hoel & Cooper, 2001). Second, due to the cross-sectional nature of the database that was used, I was unable to assess the “sustained display” of abusive supervisory behavior (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). However, this is not unlike much of the previous empirical research on abusive supervision (see Tepper, 2007 for a review). Based on these two limitations, future research on this topic should explore the broader, yet related, construct of destructive leadership, as this construct is not as narrowly defined as abusive supervision and can include a wider variety of negative or maladaptive leader behaviors, as well as targets other than subordinates.

Third, it should be noted that in the current study, how frequently the subordinates of the participating focal managers mentioned each behavior category was used to examine how frequently the managers actually engaged in each behavior. Although one might reasonably expect these two things to be related, they are not exactly the same thing, particularly because previous research on constructs related to abusive supervision, such as workplace victimization, indicates that the characteristics of subordinates may make it more likely that

they will perceive themselves as the targets of both indirect (i.e., covert acts such as talking about people behind their backs) and direct victimization (i.e., overt acts such as cursing at a target). For example, Aquino et al. (1999) found that subordinates higher in negative affectivity and lower in self-determination (i.e., the experience of an internal perceived locus of causality; Deci & Ryan, 1985) were more likely to perceive themselves as the targets of both indirect victimization and direct victimization. In addition, the relation between negative affectivity and perceived victimization was stronger for employees situated lower in the organizational hierarchy. The findings from Aquino et al.'s study on workplace victimization, in addition to the findings from similar studies, lend credence to the notion that some subordinates may be more likely than others to perceive managers' abusive supervision.

Finally, although an attempt was made in the current study to map the MBTI personality dimensions onto four of the Big Five, a different measure of the FFM might have produced different results because, as described previously, Form M of the MBTI does not include a measure of neuroticism. In order to fully enhance our understanding of the relations between leader personality and abusive supervisory behavior, it is necessary for future empirical research to examine all five of these personality characteristics simultaneously.

Conclusion

Although research on abusive supervision has increased in recent years, there is still much that we do not know about this construct, particularly regarding its antecedents. Undoubtedly, and as the research on the consequences of abusive supervision demonstrates,

this class of negative or maladaptive leader behavior has serious consequences for subordinates and organizations, in terms of both employee morale and performance. It is my hope that the findings from this study will encourage additional research on this topic that not only improves our understanding of the antecedents and consequences of abusive supervision, but also enhances our understanding of this construct. As the theoretical and empirical literature on this construct continues to develop, I-O psychologists will be better-equipped to help organizations select and develop their managerial staff in ways that will prevent these behaviors from occurring.

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Table 1

Highest Level of Education Completed by Study Participants

Highest level of education completed	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
High school diploma or GED	5	3.8
Trade or technical training	3	2.3
Some college (no degree)	16	12.3
Associate degree	10	7.7
Bachelor's degree	49	37.7
Master's degree	22	16.9
Professional degree (e.g., DDS, JD, MD)	11	8.5
Doctorate	6	4.6

Note. Eight participants did not report their highest level of education completed.

Table 2

Study Participants' Career Areas and Fields of Study

Career area and field of study	<i>N</i>	%
Applied science and technology	4	3.1
Architecture/landscape	1	0.8
Engineering	3	2.3
Mathematics	—	—
Arts and entertainment	2	1.5
Media arts	1	0.8
Performing arts	—	—
Visual arts	1	0.8
Writing/editing	—	—
Business ^a	72	55.4
Customer service	5	3.8
Financial/accounting	6	4.6
Human resources	13	10
Management	29	22.3
Marketing/sales	1	0.8
Operations	4	3.1
Computer/technology	8	6.2
Management information systems	7	5.4
Programming	—	—
R & D management	—	—
Systems design/analysis	1	0.8
Technical support and repair	—	—
Education and training	2	1.5
Administration	—	—
Elementary and special	—	—
High school	—	—

Table 2 Continued

Career area and field of study	<i>N</i>	%
Education and training		
Library/information services	—	—
Postsecondary/adult	2	1.5
Human services	4	3.1
Child/elder care	—	—
Clergy	4	3.1
Counseling	—	—
Social work	—	—
Labor trades and services	6	4.6
Construction	4	3.1
Electrical	2	1.5
Machine operation/repair	—	—
Plumbing	—	—
Legal/government	5	3.8
Civil service	1	0.8
Law/judicial	4	3.1
Military	—	—
Public official	—	—
Public safety	—	—
Manufacturing/processing	6	4.6
Automotive/aeronautic	2	1.5
Food	2	1.5
Oil/gas	—	—
Paper/textile	—	—
Wood/metal	2	1.5
Medicine/health services	6	4.6
Dental	—	—
Laboratory/technician	—	—
Nursing/home health	1	0.8
Physical therapies	—	—

Table 2 Continued

Career area and field of study	<i>N</i>	%
Medicine/health services		
Physician	5	3.8
Veterinary	—	—
Personal services	2	1.5
Food services	2	1.5
Hospitality	—	—
Property maintenance/cleaning	—	—
Travel	—	—
Science and research	3	2.3
Biology	1	0.8
Chemistry/pharmaceutical	2	1.5
Physical	—	—
Social	—	—

Note. No participants selected the Natural Resources and Transportation Operations career areas or their corresponding fields of study. As such, these career areas were omitted from the table.

^aSixteen participants who selected Business as their career area did not report their fields of study.

Table 3

Descriptions of the Personality Dimensions of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

Dimension	Description
Extraversion-Introversion	Refers to individuals' orientation to the world. Extraverts are characterized by their attitudes toward the external environment of people and actions; Introverts are characterized by their attitudes toward the internal environment of thoughts and ideas.
Sensing-Intuition	Refers to the way individuals perceive the world. Sensing types prefer collecting facts or information and focus on the practical realities of situations; Intuitive types prefer to focus on the possibilities in a situation (i.e., the big picture).
Thinking- Feeling	Refers to the way individuals make decisions. Thinking types prefer to make calculated decisions based on careful analysis and cause-and-effect considerations; Feeling types prefer to base their decisions on person-centered (i.e., relationship-oriented) values.
Judging-Perceiving	Refers to whether individuals prefer to use their perceiving functions or their rational functions. Judging types seek organization and closure in day-to-day activities; Perceiving types dislike closure and prefer a flexible, spontaneous lifestyle.

Note. Adapted from "Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator," by I. B. Myers and M. H. McCaulley, 1985, Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Table 4

Coding Schemes for Reaction Only and Impact Only Categories

Code no.	Category name	Definition
1.	No reaction reported ^a	The rater's response to the second question was blank or "None" was typed.
2.	No reaction to code ^a	The rater's response to the second question was too ambiguous or vague to code a reaction.
3.	No impact reported ^b	The rater's response to the third question was blank or "None" was typed.
4.	No impact to code ^b	The rater's response to the third question was too ambiguous or vague to code an impact.

^aThese categories were used to code responses to the second question *only* on the 360-degree assessment instrument. ^bThese categories were used to code responses to the third question *only* on the 360-degree assessment instrument.

Table 5

Coding Scheme for Behavior Categories

Code no.	Category name	Definition
1.	Appearing inauthentic or fake	Being perceived by the rater to be fake, inauthentic, or insincere
2.	Avoiding issues	Avoiding conflict or difficult issues; squelching debate or discussion instead of discussing disagreements openly and to resolution
3.	Criticizing others	Being critical of others; talking down to others; insulting another person's intelligence
4.	Defensiveness	Being unreceptive to constructive criticism or feedback; reacting in a negative or resistant manner when constructive criticism or feedback is provided or when one is proven wrong; taking things too personally
5.	Disorganized	Being untidy; lacking organization, particularly in one's office
6.	Displaying a negative attitude	Complaining; creating a feeling of despair and pessimism; displaying an unpleasant attitude
7.	End run-around	Using a back-door approach to influence decision-making or the outcome of a course of action to circumvent or neutralize others' input; influencing decision-makers to agree with one's position before others have had an opportunity to state their position
8.	Failing to assume or take responsibility	Blaming others for errors and poor performance or results; failing to take responsibility for events that occur within the scope of one's managerial role; making excuses for poor performance; passing the buck
9.	Failing to delegate	Failing to give others appropriate authority and responsibility for decisions and tasks; being unwilling to push decision-making down the hierarchy

Table 5 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
10.	Failing to deliver results	Being unable to build or maintain a team; breaking commitments or promises; failing to accomplish or complete a project or task; failing to achieve goals or results; failing to follow up or follow through; making errors; making poor personnel decisions (e.g., promotion, selection, etc.)
11.	Failing to go above and beyond; doing the minimum	Failing to put forth additional or extra effort beyond what the job requires; meeting, but not exceeding, expectations for performance
12.	Failing to initiate structure	Being unable or unwilling to prioritize; failing to initiate structure in meetings; failing to tell others what is expected of them; failing to identify or provide goals, plans, procedures, and timelines; goofing off or joking around; granting others too much freedom or latitude
13.	Failing to maintain confidentiality	Divulging or sharing information that is considered to be confidential or private
14.	Failing to recognize good performance	Failing to positively reinforce or recognize others for their accomplishments, efforts, or results; giving insincere praise; unfairly reprimanding an employee; withholding praise
15.	Hasty decision-making or task completion	Jumping the gun; rushing to complete assignments or projects without careful planning or a full understanding what is required; making decisions without a full consideration or understanding of potential consequences
16.	Holding a grudge	Being unable or unwilling to get over something that occurred in the past; failing to give others the benefit of the doubt; forming or having a negative opinion of another person and being unwilling to change that opinion
17.	Inattention to detail	Overlooking important details; failing to “read between the lines” to understand others’ concerns and needs

Table 5 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
18.	Incivility ^a	Behaving rudely or uncaringly toward others; being brusque or too candid; belittling or demeaning others; disregarding others' feelings; lacking common courtesy; lateness or tardiness; making jokes at another's expense
19.	Incompetence	Lacking common sense or good judgment; lacking job-relevant experience, expertise, or knowledge
20.	Indecisiveness	Being unable or unwilling to make necessary decisions in a timely manner; flip-flopping between decisions
21.	Lack of assertiveness	Allowing one's authority to be challenged or questioned by others; being too easily influenced, laid back, or quiet; failing to speak up about important issues
22.	Lack of emotional awareness or intelligence	Failing to attune to or understand the emotions of others
23.	Lack of professionalism	Dressing inappropriately or unprofessionally; engaging in behavior that is considered inappropriate to the rater or another person; failing to maintain professional boundaries; using foul or inappropriate language (e.g., profanity) that is offensive to the rater or another person; using sarcasm
24.	Lack of support	Being inaccessible or unavailable to one's subordinates; failing to defend one's employees or unit to others; failing to provide the resources necessary to do the job; failing to give others one's time; not being willing to accept the same responsibilities or engage in the same behaviors that one expects from his or her employees; putting one's own interests before others' interests; seeking outside consult or help when team members are capable of doing the work

Table 5 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
25.	Losing composure	Becoming agitated; being outwardly or overly emotional; being abrupt, tense, or “short” with others; displaying emotional outbursts, such as raising one’s voice, screaming, throwing things, yelling, etc.; losing one’s patience or temper; speaking in a harsh tone
26.	Lying or stretching the truth	Making untruthful statements; representing speculations as facts
27.	Micromanaging	Being too aggressive or pushy; controlling; domineering; interfering in others’ personal issues, problems, or work; supervising too closely
28.	People-pleasing	Attempting to make everyone happy; being overly accommodating to others’ requests; bending over backwards to meet others’ preferences or requests; trying too hard to please others
29.	Playing favorites	Showing favoritism to an individual or group; having different and unfair standards for different people or groups
30.	Poor communication—medium unspecified ^b	Using communication that is regarded as exclusive, ineffective, infrequent, limited, or sparse; failing to make him- or herself understood
31.	Poor communication—verbal	Being unable to read one’s body language; failing to give one’s undivided attention; having poor presentation skills; interrupting others when they are speaking; not actively listening to others when they are speaking; incoherent speech; using inappropriate non-verbal behavior (e.g., eye-rolling)
32.	Poor communication—written	Not checking or replying to electronic forms of communication; not using formal documentation to communicate important information (e.g., company letterhead to communicate a promotion or salary increase)

Table 5 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
33.	Procrastinating	Starting a project or task too late; waiting until the last minute to complete a project or task
34.	Resisting authority; insubordination	Failing to support the organization's objectives; not following company policies or procedures; not following through on the requests of upper management
35.	Resisting influence	Being inflexible, stubborn, too rigid, or unwilling to compromise; being intolerant of others' viewpoints; failing to seek or utilize others' advice, expertise, ideas, input, or suggestions in decision-making; not allowing contradictory ideas or opinions; suggesting that his or her way is the best or only way; using "black and white" reasoning
36.	Taking credit for others' work	Taking personal credit for others' accomplishments, results, or work; failing to point out where someone else deserves credit instead of or in addition to him- or herself
37.	Taking on too much work	Personally committing to work that cannot reasonably be accomplished with available resources; spreading oneself too thin
38.	Talking behind people's backs	Saying negative things to another person about someone else; engaging in gossip; attempting to damage another person's reputation; spreading rumors
39.	Territoriality	Protecting one's own employees at the expense of others in the organization, making interaction with other units difficult; turfism
40.	Tolerating poor employee performance	Displaying leniency with a destructive or poor-performing employee; failing to hold others accountable for their behavior or performance; failing to put a stop to the abusive or offensive behavior of other employees; failing to reprimand an employee

Table 5 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
41.	Unable to see the big picture; lack of strategic focus	Being unable or unwilling to articulate or execute on a vision or strategy for what the organization is trying to accomplish; being too focused on day-to-day operations
42.	Unrealistic expectations	Being a perfectionist; expecting others or their work to be perfect; having unrealistic expectations of others or what can be accomplished in a certain amount of time or with a certain amount of resources
43.	Wasting time or resources	Expending excessive or unnecessary time or resources (e.g., equipment, materials, money); investing time or resources with limited promise for return on one's or the organization's investment
44.	Withholding information	Being secretive; failing to post or notify others of job openings; failing to provide information that would be helpful or useful to others; leaving out important information; lying by omission
45.	No behavior to code ^c	Providing an example of good leadership instead of bad leadership; describing the focal manager's behavior in a manner that is too ambiguous or vague

Note. The categories in this appendix were used to code responses to the first question only on the 360-degree assessment instrument.

^aIncivility refers to a behavior for which there was an ambiguous attempt to harm another individual (i.e., it is not possible to infer if the behavior was intended or unintended to be harmful). From "Tit-for-tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace," by L. M. Andersson and C. M. Pearson, 1999, *Academy of Management Review*, 24, pp. 452-471. ^bThe poor communication—medium unspecified category should be used when the communication medium is ambiguous and the respondent references poor communication, in general. ^cThe no behavior to code category should be used when the respondent provided an example of leadership that would be considered good instead of bad or when the description of the behavior provided is too ambiguous or vague regarding how the focal manager behaved.

Table 6

Coding Scheme for Reaction and Impact Categories

Code no.	Category name	Definition
1.	Anger	Being angry or upset
2.	Apathy	Going through the motions; having an indifferent or “I don’t care” attitude; lacking concern or interest
3.	Avoidance of or decreased communication with manager	Avoiding contact or closing lines of communication with the manager; having a delayed response to the manager’s requests; reluctance to share ideas or opinions with the manager; steering clear of the manager
4.	Avoidance of or decreased communication with others	Avoiding contact or closing lines of communication with others; having a delayed response to others’ requests; reluctance to share ideas or opinions with others; steering clear of others
5.	Burnout for employee	Fatigue experienced by the employee due to excessive or prolonged stress, overwork, or intense activity
6.	Burnout for manager	Fatigue experienced by the manager due to excessive or prolonged stress, overwork, or intense activity
7.	Concern—unspecified	To be concerned, troubled, or worried about another person (e.g., client, subordinate) or thing (e.g., accomplishing a goal or task)
8.	Concern for manager	To be concerned, troubled, or worried about the manager
9.	Confronting a subordinate	A defensive exchange with a subordinate; arguing with, confronting, or “taking on” a subordinate; posturing; raising one’s voice to a subordinate
10.	Confronting the manager	A defensive exchange with the manager; arguing with, confronting, or “taking on” the manager; posturing; raising one’s voice to the manager

Table 6 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
11.	Confusion	A state of chaos or uncertainty; feeling unsure about how to proceed or who to turn to; receiving mixed messages
12.	Damage to client relationships	Creating a barrier between the employee and the client or between the manager and the client; having a difficult tone in the client relationship; reduction of the number of clients or customers or in the volume of business they provide
13.	Damage to manager's family unit	Lack of work-life balance; spending too much time at work at the expense of the manager's family life or personal life
14.	Damage to manager's reputation or credibility	Manager being viewed as having no value to the organization or weak leadership; being disappointed in or let down by the manager; creating a bad or negative impression; decreased respect for manager; discounting the manager; failing to meet others' expectations; questioning whether the manager has what it takes or if he or she handled a situation appropriately
15.	Damage to manager—employee work relationships	Employee feeling like he or she cannot approach or talk to the manager; feeling betrayed, put off, or offended by the manager; feeling like the manager should apologize for his or her behavior; putting up a wall between the manager and employees; reluctance to work with the manager; withdrawing from the manager
16.	Damage to organization's reputation	Creating the impression for outsiders that the organization is dysfunctional, incapable, or unethical
17.	Damage to reputations—unspecified	This category applies to other individuals besides the manager (e.g., subordinates, direct report, upper management). See "Damage to manager's reputation or credibility" for a definition.

Table 6 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
18.	Damage to work relationships	Creating a feeling of status differences or resentment between employees; disharmony or separation between team members; divisiveness; loss of trust between employees; making it difficult for new employees to assimilate; lack of partnership or teamwork; unhealthy competition
19.	Decreased efficiency	A duplication of effort; redundancy in the way tasks are performed; creating extra work; inefficiency; delays or lost time; disorganization; transforming more inputs into fewer outputs; wasted resources (e.g., equipment, materials, money)
20.	Decreased employee morale	A state of general disappointment; feeling defeated, demoralized, discontent, discouraged, disinterested, dissatisfied, or unhappy; reduced enjoyment from or enthusiasm/passion for work or the organization
21.	Decreased employee motivation	Decreasing the amount of effort expended by employee(s); disengagement from work; reduced initiative; withholding contribution, effort, ideas, input, or suggestions
22.	Decreased employee performance or results	Being unable to accomplish anything or much; counterproductive; employee(s) perform at a lower level than before; failing to accomplish essential job functions; social loafing; slowed progress
23.	Decreased personal well-being—unspecified	A negative impact on the short-term or long-term physical or psychological health of the rater or other employees; having difficulty engaging in daily life activities (e.g., eating, sleeping)
24.	Decreased personal well-being for manager	A negative impact on the short-term or long-term physical or psychological health of the manager; having difficulty engaging in daily life activities (e.g., eating, sleeping)
25.	Decreased professional development or advancement	Impeding personal development; decreased opportunity for advancement or growth; increased reliance on manager; lacking feedback about one's performance; lacking professional goals; not feeling challenged or stretched

Table 6 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
26.	Decreased profitability	Decreased or reduced profits
27.	Decreased trust— unspecified	A decrease or reduction in trust from an employee to another; being cautious, skeptical, or suspicious of other individuals; paranoia about the employee's behavior or intentions
28.	Decreased trust in manager	A decrease or reduction in trust from an employee to the manager; being more cautious, skeptical, or suspicious of the manager; paranoia about the manager's behavior or intentions
29.	Decreased quality	A decrease or reduction in the quality of a product or service; an indication that the work output was less beneficial or valuable following the manager's behavior
30.	Discomfort	Feeling uncomfortable or tense
31.	Embarrassment	Feeling embarrassed; feeling picked on or singled out
32.	Fear	Fearing consequences or retribution; feeling afraid, fearful, or intimidated; walking on eggshells
33.	Feeling unappreciated, not valued, unworthy; marginalized	Rater or others feeling like they do not matter or do not warrant the manager's time; feeling belittled, forgotten, hurt, inadequate, incapable, inferior, insignificant, invisible, not good enough, not trusted, replaceable, unimportant, or stupid
34.	Feelings of inequity or unfairness	Rater or others feel like they have been treated unfairly or have been the victim of injustice; the use of different guidelines, requirements, or standards for certain employees; the use of a double standard; the use of the "good ole' boys" network
35.	Frustration	Feeling aggravated, frustrated, or irritated
36.	Gossip	Spreading rumors
37.	Guilt	Feeling guilty; feeling pressured into doing something

Table 6 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
38.	Increased self-reliance	Becoming more self-reliant or less willing to seek assistance, guidance, help, or input from the manager
39.	Increased stress	Feeling frazzled; increased stress for the rater, the manager, or others
40.	Increased turnover intentions	Intentions of leaving the organization, quitting, searching for a new job, or transferring to another department or team—or actually doing so
41.	Increased workload—unspecified	Increase in the amount of work for the rater or others
42.	Increased workload for manager	Increase in the amount of work for the manager
43.	Issue was resolved	Disagreement or issue was resolved
44.	Issue was unresolved	Disagreement or issue was unresolved; the behavior of the manager or others may cause problems in the future
45.	Lack of team growth and development	Team did not grow in size; team did not develop
46.	Limited options or stifled creativity	Limiting the ideas or options that were shared among others; stifling creativity
47.	Loss of power for manager	Decrease in the manager's authority; decrease in the manager's ability to drive change or influence others through his/her positional power; feeling like you can "get around" or undermine the manager
48.	Negative impact on client	Behavior had a negative impact on or caused hardship for the client or customer, though the rater was not specific about this impact

Table 6 Continued

Code no.	Category name	Definition
49.	Negative impact on organization	Behavior had a negative impact on or caused hardship for the organization, though the rater was not specific about this impact; missed opportunities for the organization
50.	Reduced confidence	Behavior led the rater or another person to feel less confident in their abilities or contributions or insecure
51.	Resentment—unspecified	A feeling of resentment toward another person other than one's manager
52.	Resentment toward manager	A feeling of resentment toward one's manager
53.	Surprise	A state of awe, shock, or surprise; disbelief
54.	Sympathy for subordinate	Empathizing with or feeling bad for one's subordinate
55.	Sympathy for manager	Empathizing with or feeling bad for one's manager
56.	Termination; involuntary turnover	One or more individuals were terminated (i.e., involuntary turnover)
57.	Unwillingness to cooperate	Being reluctant or unwilling to cooperate with another person's requests

Note. The categories in this appendix were used to code responses to the second and third questions on the 360-degree assessment instrument.

Table 7

Frequencies and Percentages of Managers Who Engaged in Each Abusive Supervisory Behavior

Abusive supervisory behavior category	<i>f</i>	% of managers
Criticizing others	36	29.75
Holding a grudge	11	9.09
Incivility	75	61.98
Lack of professionalism	42	34.71
Losing composure	59	48.76
Taking credit for others' work	6	4.96
Talking behind people's backs	25	20.66
Withholding information	14	11.57

Note. The frequencies presented in this table represent the number of focal managers ($N = 121$) for whom at least one of their raters provided an example of each abusive supervisory behavior. The percentages presented in this table represent the proportion of focal managers for whom at least one of their raters provided an example of bad leadership that was coded into each abusive supervisory behavior category.

Table 8

*Frequencies and Percentages of Managers Who Engaged in Each Destructive
Leadership Behavior*

Destructive leadership behavior category	<i>f</i>	% of managers
Avoiding issues	39	32.23
Displaying a negative attitude	40	33.01
End run-around	6	4.96
Failing to assume or take responsibility	24	19.84
Failing to initiate structure	53	43.80
Failing to maintain confidentiality	11	9.09
Failing to recognize good performance	19	15.70
Lack of support	61	50.41
Lying or stretching the truth	12	9.92
Playing favorites	23	19.01
Procrastinating	17	14.05
Resisting authority; insubordination	17	14.05
Resisting influence	73	60.33
Territoriality	6	4.96
Tolerating poor employee performance	36	29.75
Wasting time or resources	17	14.05

Note. The frequencies presented in this table represent the number of focal managers ($N = 121$) for whom at least one of their raters provided an example of each destructive leadership behavior. The percentages presented in this table represent the proportion of focal managers for whom at least one of their raters provided an example of bad leadership that was coded into each destructive leadership behavior category.

Table 9

Frequencies and Percentages of Managers Who Engaged in Each Non-Destructive Leadership Behavior

Non-destructive leadership behavior category ^a	<i>f</i>	% of managers
Appearing inauthentic or fake	6	4.96
Defensiveness	32	26.45
Disorganized	3	2.48
Failing to delegate	23	19.01
Failing to deliver results	69	57.02
Failing to go above and beyond; doing the minimum	6	4.96
Hasty decision-making or task completion	30	24.79
Inattention to detail	20	16.53
Incompetence	20	16.53
Indecisiveness	17	14.05
Lack of assertiveness	36	29.75
Lack of emotional awareness or intelligence	9	7.44
Micromanaging	56	46.28
People-pleasing	10	8.26
Poor communication—medium unspecified	59	48.76
Poor communication—verbal	53	43.80
Poor communication—written	8	6.61
Taking on too much work	33	27.27
Unable to see the big picture; lack of strategic focus	10	8.26
Unrealistic expectations	43	35.54

Note. The frequencies presented in this table represent the number of focal managers ($N = 121$) for whom at least one of their raters provided an example of each non-destructive leadership behavior. The percentages presented in this table represent the proportion of focal managers for whom at least one of their raters provided an example of bad leadership that was coded into each non-destructive leadership behavior category.

^aThe 20 behaviors presented in this table were not considered by the SMEs to be abusive supervisory leadership behaviors or destructive leadership behaviors.

Table 10

Final Standardized Mean and HCs for Abusive Supervisory Behavior Cluster Profiles

Cluster	<i>n</i>	HC	Abusive supervisory behavior category							
			Criticizing others	Holding a grudge	Incivility	Lack of professionalism	Losing composure	Taking credit ^a	Talking behind backs ^b	Withholding information
1	49	0.21	-0.54	-0.20	0.42	-0.45	-0.39	-0.20	-0.44	-0.38
2	12	0.92	-0.15	0.00	0.54	2.18	-0.04	-0.20	-0.22	-0.38
3	12	0.76	-0.31	0.00	-0.33	-0.09	-0.26	-0.20	1.44	-0.25
4	12	0.67	1.23	-0.20	-0.25	-0.09	-0.30	-0.20	-0.33	-0.38
5	9	1.19	0.23	-0.20	-0.08	0.09	0.00	-0.20	-0.33	2.50
6	7	1.79	1.00	0.00	2.29	-0.45	0.87	-0.20	0.78	-0.38
7	4	0.97	0.46	-0.20	-0.17	-0.64	3.09	-0.20	-0.44	-0.38
8	4	1.97	-0.31	3.40	0.67	0.73	1.00	-0.20	0.00	-0.38
9	2	1.84	-0.54	-0.20	-0.42	-0.09	0.22	2.00	0.78	-0.38

Note. HC = homogeneity coefficient (cluster similarity index), where lower values (less than 1) indicate better similarity among members.

^aTaking credit for others' work. ^bTalking behind people's backs.

Table 11

Final Unstandardized Mean (SD) and HCs for Abusive Supervisory Behavior Cluster Profiles

Cluster	<i>n</i>	HC	Abusive supervisory behavior category							Talking behind backs ^b	Withholding information
			Criticizing others	Holding a grudge	Incivility	Lack of professionalism	Losing composure	Taking credit ^a			
1	49	0.21	—	—	0.11 (0.14)	0.02 (0.04)	0.08 (0.11)	—	—	0.00 (0.01)	
2	12	0.92	0.05 (0.08)	0.01 (0.02)	0.34 (0.28)	0.31 (0.07)	0.16 (0.14)	—	0.02 (0.05)	—	
3	12	0.76	0.03 (0.06)	0.01 (0.03)	0.13 (0.18)	0.06 (0.08)	0.11 (0.10)	—	0.17 (0.05)	0.01 (0.03)	
4	12	0.67	0.23 (0.11)	—	0.15 (0.16)	0.06 (0.08)	0.10 (0.15)	—	0.01 (0.04)	—	
5	9	1.19	0.10 (0.14)	—	0.19 (0.16)	0.08 (0.09)	0.17 (0.17)	—	0.01 (0.02)	0.23 (0.09)	
6	7	1.79	0.20 (0.19)	0.01 (0.03)	0.76 (0.14)	0.02 (0.06)	0.37 (0.15)	—	0.11 (0.11)	—	
7	4	0.97	0.13 (0.16)	—	0.17 (0.19)	—	0.88 (0.25)	—	—	—	
8	4	1.97	0.03 (0.06)	0.18 (0.05)	0.37 (0.21)	0.15 (0.11)	0.40 (0.37)	—	0.04 (0.08)	—	
9	2	1.84	—	—	0.11 (0.00)	0.06 (0.08)	0.22 (0.31)	0.11 (0.00)	0.11 (0.16)	—	

Note. Standard deviations are presented in parentheses below each mean. HC = homogeneity coefficient (cluster similarity index), where lower values (less than 1) indicate better similarity among members.

^aTaking credit for others' work. ^bTalking behind people's backs.

Table 12

Intercorrelations between MBTI Personality Dimensions and Abusive Supervisory Behavior Categories

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. EXT ^a	11.44	6.75	(.93)										
2. INT ^a	14.20	7.45	-.02	(.93)									
3. FEE ^a	10.31	6.20	-.03	.18	(.90)								
4. JUD ^b	14.32	5.82	.03	-.27**	-.24**	(.90)							
5. CRI ^c	1.58	1.02	.17	.02	-.06	.18	—						
6. HOL ^d	1.18	0.40	-.37	-.31	-.49	-.50	-.57	—					
7. INC ^e	2.20	1.63	.00	.19	.16	.00	.49**	-.04	—				
8. PRO ^f	1.45	0.77	.10	.13	-.10	-.17	.47	-.15	.23	—			
9. COM ^g	2.19	1.49	-.06	-.13	-.22	.14	.39	.21	.21	.37	—		
10. CRE ^h	1.50	1.22	.58	.49	.66	-.12	—	—	.20	—	—	—	
11. TAL ⁱ	1.48	0.92	.05	.22	-.04	-.10	.67	—	.51*	.39	0.74**	—	—
12. INF ^j	1.57	0.85	-.40	.11	-.26	-.33	.19	—	-.32	-.33	-.15	—	-.69

Note. The observed reliabilities for the four MBTI scales are presented on the diagonal in parentheses. EXT = Extraversion. INT = Intuition. FEE = Feeling. JUD = Judging. CRI = Criticizing others. HOL = Holding a grudge. INC = Incivility. PRO = Lack of professionalism. COM = Losing composure. CRE = Taking credit for others' work. TAL = Talking behind people's backs. INF = Withholding information.

^a*N* = 121. ^b*N* = 120. ^c*N* = 36. ^d*N* = 11. ^e*N* = 75. ^f*N* = 42. ^g*N* = 59. ^h*N* = 6. ⁱ*N* = 25. ^j*N* = 14.

p* < .05. *p* < .01.

Table 13

Percentages of Reactions within Each Abusive Supervisory Behavior

Reaction category	Abusive supervisory behavior category							
	Criticizing others	Holding grudge ^a	Incivility	Lack of professionalism	Losing composure	Taking credit ^b	Talking behind backs ^c	Withholding information
Anger	0.86	—	0.32	1.05	1.20	—	1.49	—
Apathy	6.90	5.00	6.33	4.21	8.00	6.25	1.49	—
Avoidance of or decreased communication with manager	4.31	—	4.43	3.16	4.40	—	2.99	—
Avoidance of or decreased communication with others	—	—	0.32	—	—	—	—	—
Concern—unspecified	—	—	—	1.05	—	—	—	2.94
Concern for manager	—	—	—	—	0.80	—	—	—
Confronting the manager	6.03	—	2.85	1.05	3.60	—	1.49	—
Confusion	1.72	5.00	1.27	2.11	1.20	—	4.48	14.71
Damage to client relationships	—	—	0.95	2.11	—	—	—	2.94
Damage to manager's reputation or credibility	11.21	15.00	12.34	20.00	12.00	18.75	11.94	2.94
Damage to manager—employee work relationships	9.48	5.00	6.96	8.42	8.80	18.75	4.48	2.94
Damage to organization's reputation	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.49	—
Damage to reputations—unspecified	1.72	—	0.63	1.05	—	—	2.99	—
Damage to work relationships	0.86	10.00	1.27	1.05	1.20	—	1.49	5.88
Decreased efficiency	—	—	0.95	—	0.40	—	—	—
Decreased employee morale	3.45	—	3.48	—	3.60	6.25	1.49	2.94
Decreased employee motivation	1.72	5.00	0.32	—	0.80	6.25	1.49	—
Decreased employee performance or results	—	—	0.63	—	2.00	—	—	5.88
Decreased personal well-being—unspecified	0.86	—	0.32	—	—	—	—	—
Decreased professional development or advancement	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5.88
Decreased profitability	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.94
Decreased trust—unspecified	—	—	0.32	—	—	—	2.99	5.88
Decreased trust in manager	6.03	5.00	1.90	1.05	0.80	—	2.99	5.88

Table 13 Continued

Reaction category	Abusive supervisory behavior category							
	Criticizing others	Holding grudge ^a	Incivility	Lack of professionalism	Losing composure	Taking credit ^b	Talking behind backs ^c	Withholding information
Discomfort	7.76	—	5.70	7.37	6.80	—	11.94	—
Embarrassment	7.76	—	7.59	6.32	4.00	—	—	—
Fear	2.59	5.00	2.53	2.11	6.40	—	4.48	2.94
Feeling unappreciated, not valued, unworthy	12.07	—	16.14	12.63	11.20	12.50	8.96	14.71
Feelings of inequity or unfairness	0.86	5.00	1.90	4.21	—	12.50	—	2.94
Frustration	2.59	10.00	3.16	—	5.20	—	2.99	2.94
Gossip	—	—	0.95	—	2.00	—	4.48	—
Guilt	—	—	—	1.05	1.20	—	—	—
Increased stress	—	5.00	0.95	—	1.60	—	2.99	—
Increased turnover intentions	0.86	—	0.32	—	0.40	6.25	—	—
Issue was resolved	—	5.00	0.32	—	0.40	—	—	—
Issue was unresolved	0.86	5.00	0.32	—	0.80	—	—	—
Limited options or stifled creativity	—	—	0.32	—	—	—	—	—
Loss of power for manager	0.86	—	—	2.11	—	—	—	—
Negative impact on organization	—	5.00	—	1.05	—	—	—	—
Reduced confidence	0.86	—	0.32	—	—	—	—	—
Resentment—unspecified	—	—	0.32	—	—	—	—	2.94
Resentment toward manager	0.86	—	1.58	—	0.40	6.25	—	—
Surprise	2.59	—	4.75	6.32	6.80	—	2.99	2.94
Sympathy for subordinate	2.59	—	3.16	2.11	0.80	—	—	—
Unwillingness to cooperate	0.86	—	0.32	—	0.80	—	—	—
No reaction reported	—	—	0.95	2.11	0.40	—	4.48	2.94
No reaction to code	0.86	10.00	2.85	6.32	2.00	6.25	1.49	2.94

Note. The percentages that are presented in this table represent the proportion of each reaction category that was coded within each abusive supervisory behavior. The percentages in each abusive supervisory behavior column sum to 100%.

^aHolding a grudge. ^bTaking credit for others' work. ^cTalking behind people's backs.

Table 14

Percentages of Impacts within Each Abusive Supervisory Behavior

Impact category	Abusive supervisory behavior							
	Criticizing others	Holding grudge ^a	Incivility	Lack of professionalism	Losing composure	Taking credit ^b	Talking behind backs ^c	Withholding information
Anger	1.94	—	1.11	1.25	1.00	—	—	—
Apathy	0.97	—	1.48	1.25	2.00	8.33	1.45	—
Avoidance of or decreased communication with manager	1.94	5.56	6.27	8.75	6.00	16.67	—	—
Avoidance of or decreased communication with others	3.88	—	0.74	—	1.00	—	—	—
Concern—unspecified	—	—	—	5.00	—	—	1.45	—
Confronting the manager	0.97	—	0.37	—	—	—	1.45	3.45
Confusion	0.97	5.56	1.48	1.25	1.00	—	—	6.90
Damage to client relationships	—	5.56	1.85	1.25	2.00	—	—	—
Damage to manager's reputation or credibility	16.50	11.11	14.76	11.25	12.50	—	10.14	3.45
Damage to manager—employee work relationships	6.80	—	6.64	6.25	7.00	—	10.14	—
Damage to organization's reputation	0.97	—	1.85	1.25	0.50	—	2.90	—
Damage to reputations—unspecified	2.91	11.11	1.11	1.25	1.00	—	—	10.34
Damage to work relationships	9.71	16.67	5.90	5.00	5.50	—	8.70	13.79
Decreased efficiency	4.85	—	5.17	1.25	3.00	—	—	6.90
Decreased employee morale	8.74	5.56	7.75	3.75	6.50	16.67	7.25	3.45
Decreased employee motivation	2.91	—	1.85	—	4.00	—	1.45	—
Decreased employee performance or results	1.94	5.56	2.21	5.00	3.00	16.67	8.70	6.90
Decreased professional development or advancement	0.97	—	1.48	—	2.50	8.33	—	—
Decreased profitability	—	—	1.11	—	1.00	—	—	—
Decreased trust—unspecified	—	5.56	—	2.50	—	—	1.45	—
Decreased trust in manager	3.88	—	2.21	5.00	1.50	8.33	8.70	6.90
Decreased quality	0.97	—	1.11	—	1.00	—	—	—
Discomfort	1.94	—	1.11	2.50	1.00	—	—	—

Table 14 Continued

Impact category	Abusive supervisory behavior							
	Criticizing others	Holding grudge ^a	Incivility	Lack of professionalism	Losing composure	Taking credit ^b	Talking behind backs ^c	Withholding information
Embarrassment	—	—	0.74	1.25	—	—	1.45	—
Fear	2.91	5.56	4.06	1.25	2.50	—	2.90	—
Feeling unappreciated, not valued, unworthy	0.97	—	2.58	3.75	3.00	—	2.90	—
Feelings of inequity or unfairness	—	—	0.74	1.25	—	—	—	3.45
Gossip	0.97	—	0.74	—	1.00	—	2.90	3.45
Guilt	—	—	—	1.05	0.50	—	—	—
Increased self-reliance	—	—	0.37	—	0.50	—	—	—
Increased stress	0.97	5.56	1.11	—	1.50	—	1.45	—
Increased turnover intentions	1.94	—	0.37	1.25	1.50	—	2.90	3.45
Increased workload for manager	0.97	—	0.37	—	—	—	—	—
Issue was resolved	1.94	—	2.58	1.25	3.50	—	1.45	3.45
Issue was unresolved	0.97	5.56	0.37	—	1.00	—	—	—
Lack of team growth and development	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.45	—
Limited options or stifled creativity	0.97	—	0.74	—	1.50	—	1.45	—
Loss of power for manager	—	—	1.11	3.75	1.50	8.33	—	—
Negative impact on organization	2.91	—	2.21	1.25	2.00	—	1.45	3.45
Reduced confidence	0.97	—	0.74	—	1.50	—	1.45	—
Resentment—unspecified	—	—	0.37	—	—	—	—	—
Resentment toward manager	—	—	1.11	—	—	—	—	—
Termination; involuntary turnover	—	—	—	—	0.50	—	—	—
Unwillingness to cooperate	0.86	—	0.37	—	1.00	—	—	—
No impact reported	2.91	—	1.85	5.00	2.00	—	4.35	—
No impact to code	5.83	5.56	9.59	16.25	10.50	16.67	10.14	17.24

Note. The percentages that are presented in this table represent the proportion of each impact category that was coded within each abusive supervisory behavior. The percentages in each abusive supervisory behavior column sum to 100%.

^aHolding a grudge. ^bTaking credit for others' work. ^cTalking behind people's backs.

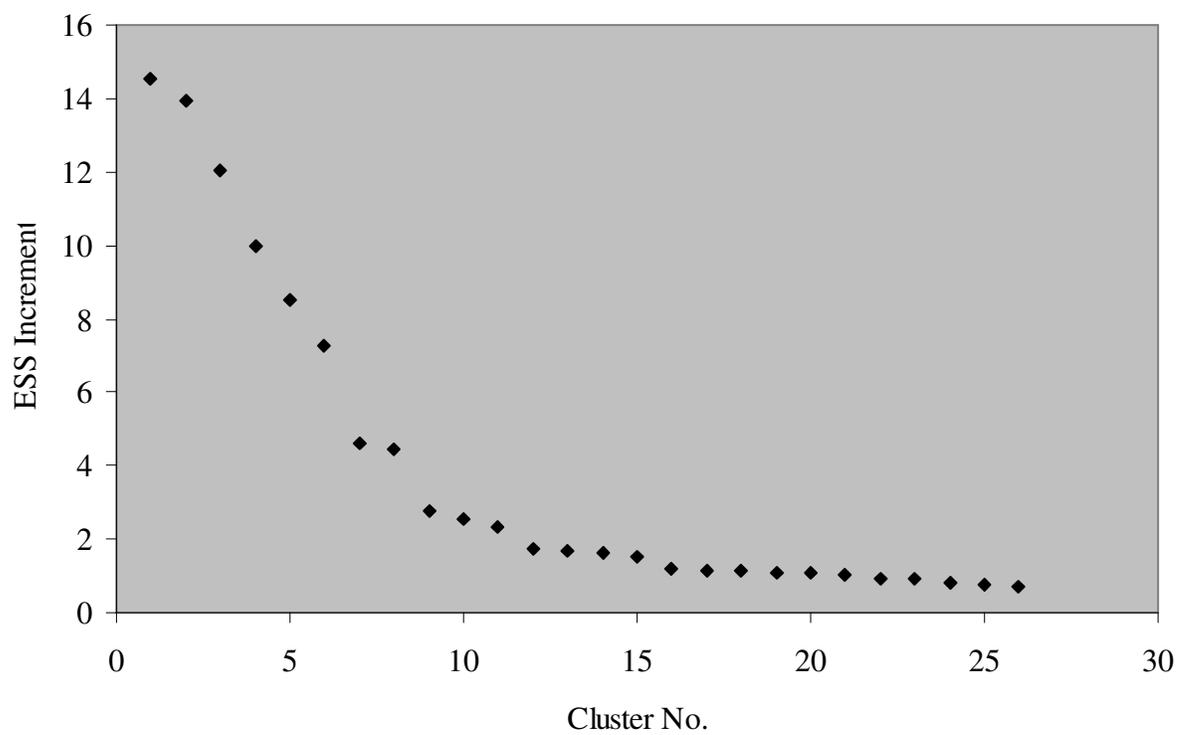


Figure 1. Error Sum of Squares. The initial cluster analysis suggests a nine-cluster solution.

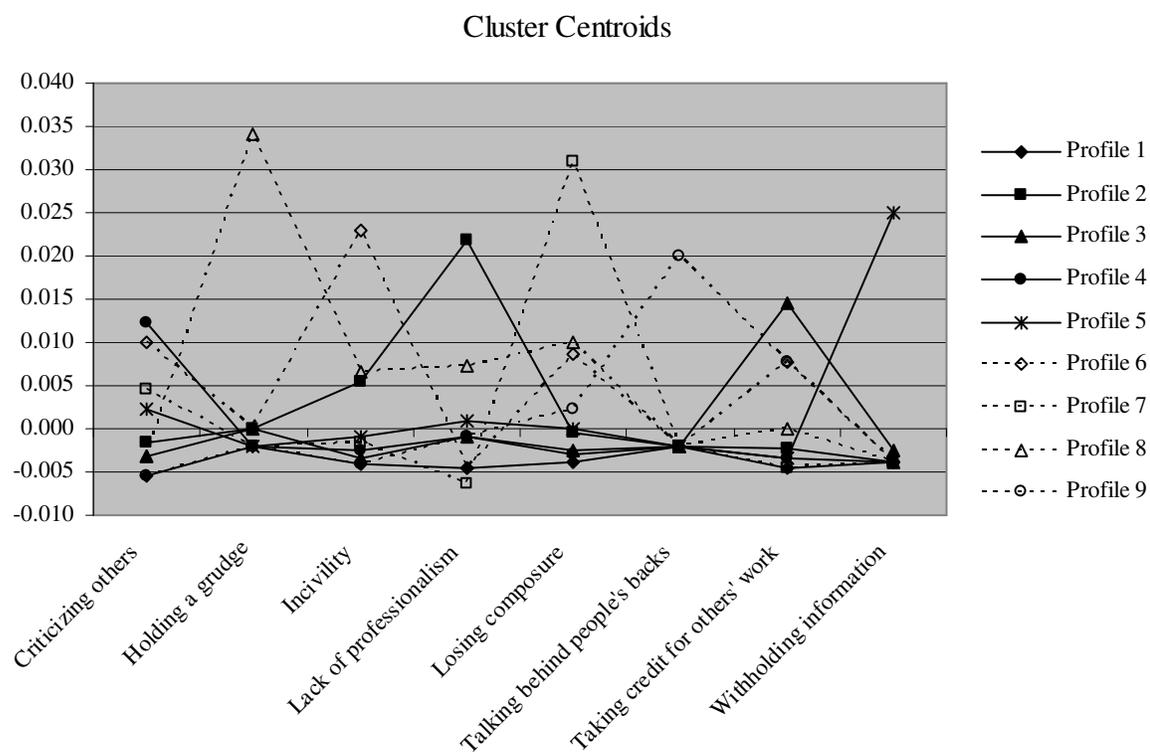


Figure 2. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors, by cluster profile.

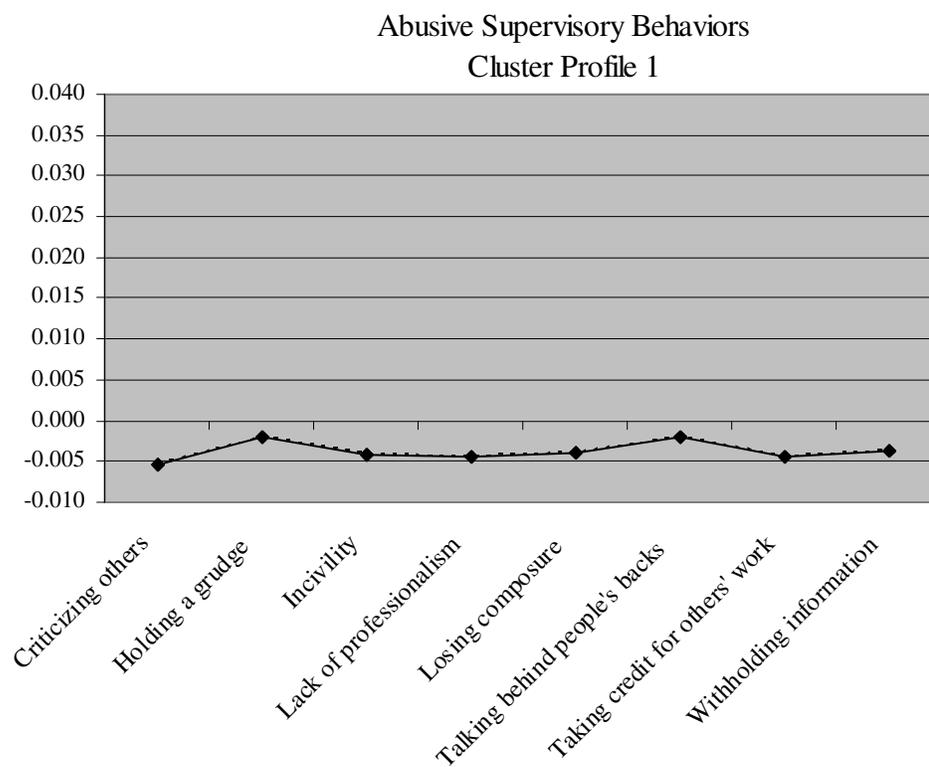


Figure 3. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors for Cluster Profile 1 ($n = 49$, $HC = 0.21$).

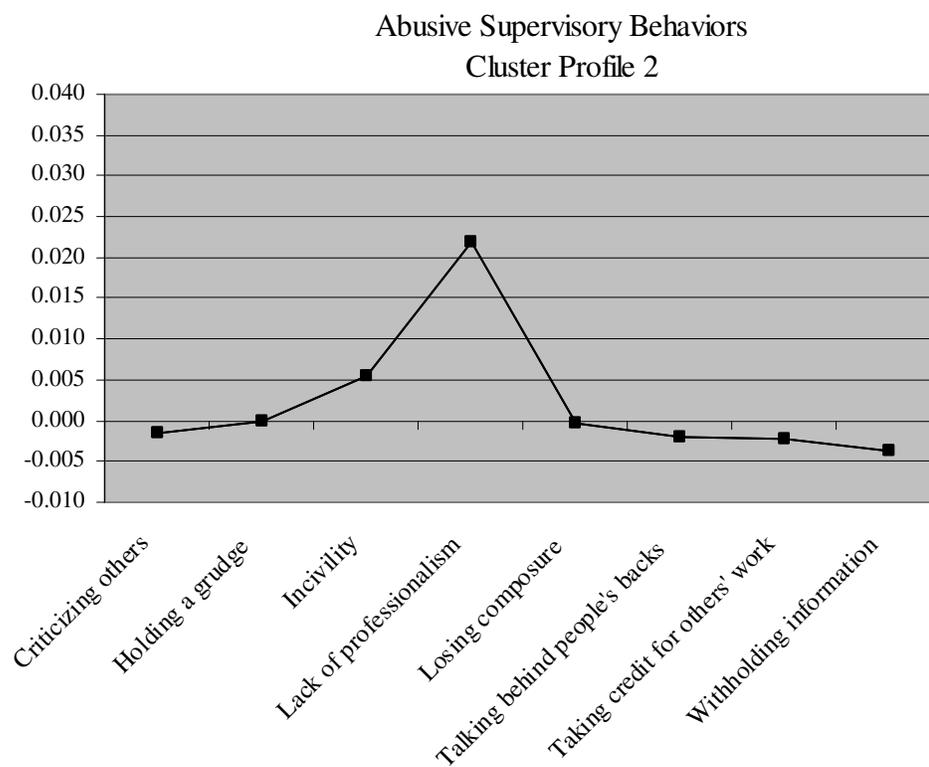


Figure 4. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors for Cluster Profile 2 ($n = 12$, $HC = 0.92$).

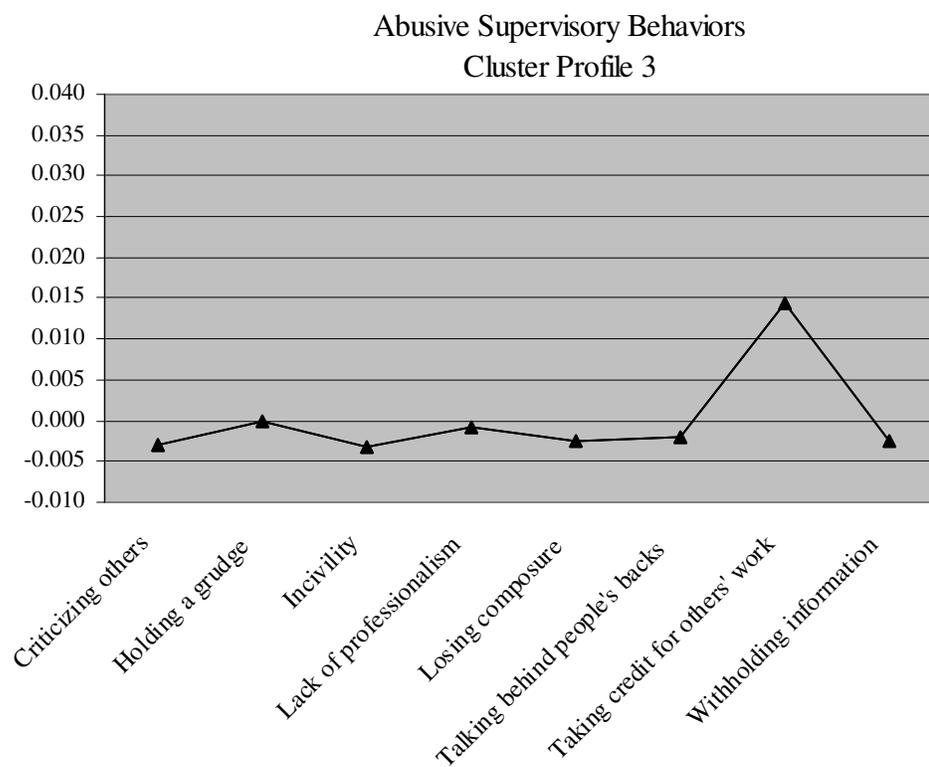


Figure 5. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors for Cluster Profile 3 ($n = 12$, $HC = 0.76$).

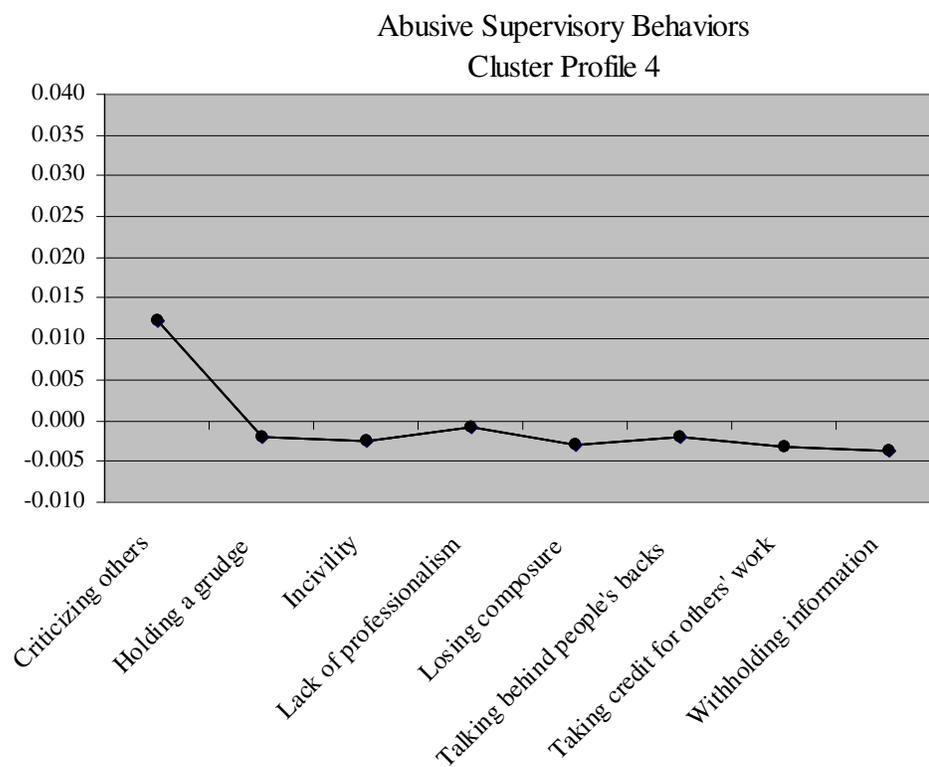


Figure 6. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors for Cluster Profile 4 ($n = 12$, $HC = 0.67$).

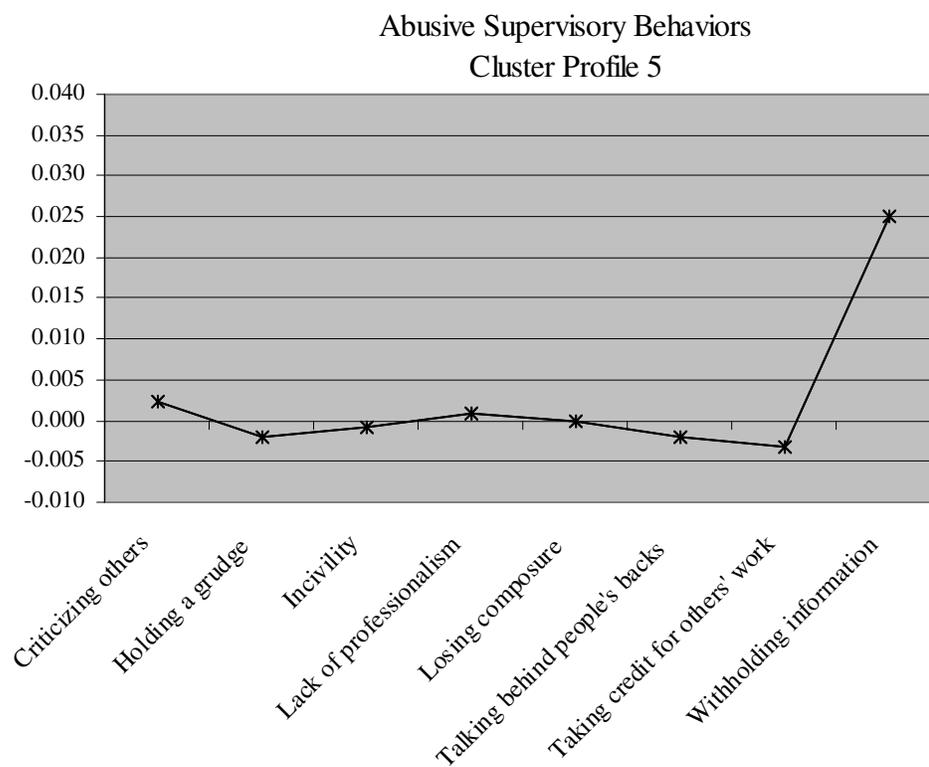


Figure 7. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors for Cluster Profile 5 ($n = 9$, $HC = 1.19$).

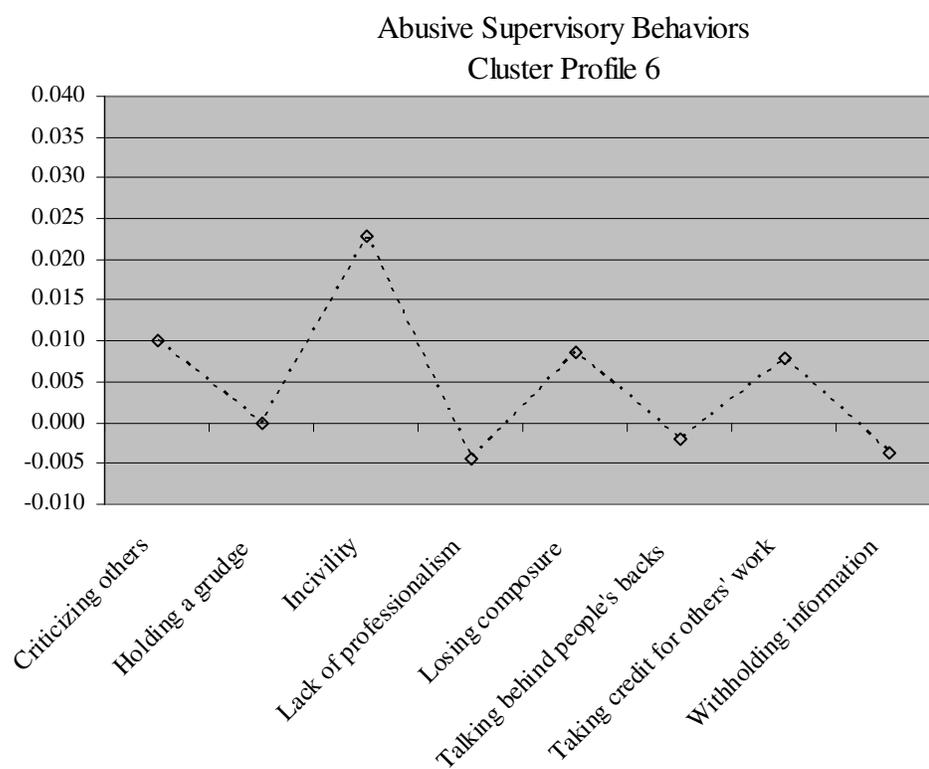


Figure 8. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors for Cluster Profile 6 ($n = 7$, $HC = 1.79$).

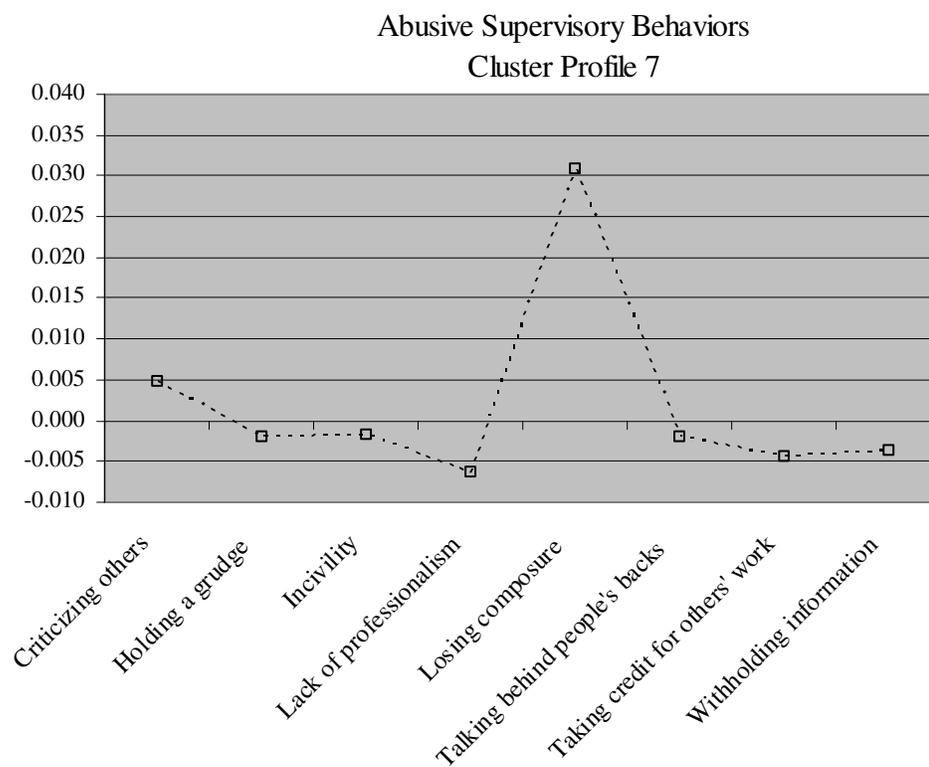


Figure 9. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors for Cluster Profile 7 ($n = 4$, $HC = 0.97$).

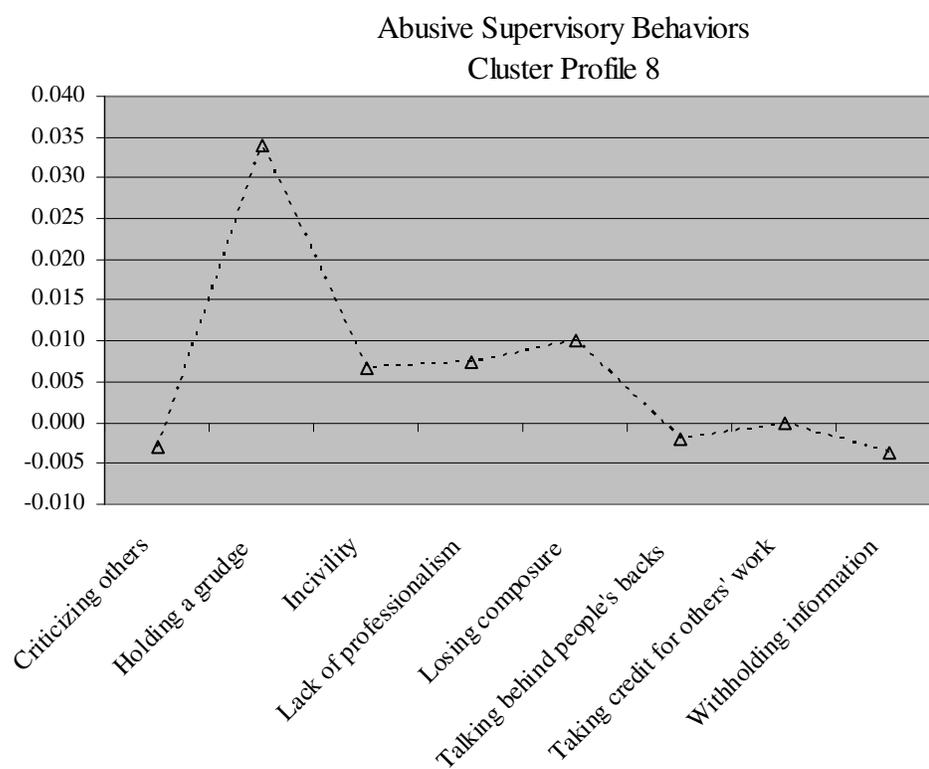


Figure 10. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors for Cluster Profile 8 ($n = 4$, $HC = 1.98$).

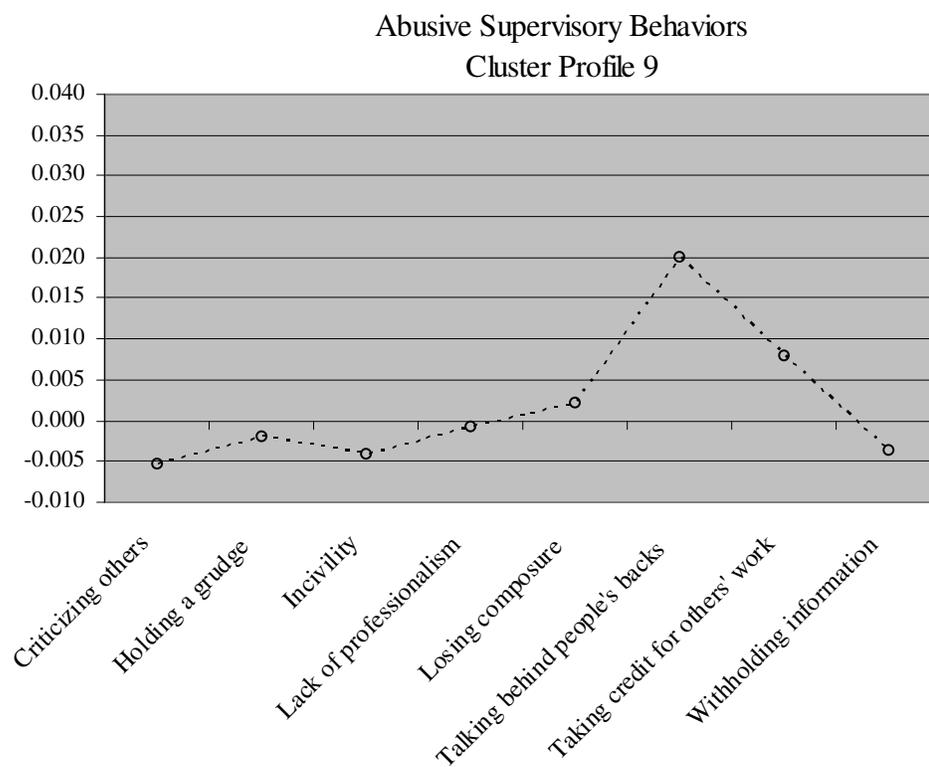


Figure 11. Standardized scores for abusive supervisory behaviors for Cluster Profile 9 ($n = 2$, $HC = 1.84$).

APPENDIX

Appendix

360-Degree Assessment Instrument

1. Please give an example that demonstrated bad leadership. What did NAME do?
2. What was your reaction or others' reactions? How did this make you or them feel?
3. What was the impact on you or the person(s) affected by your example, as well as the impact on the organization? (Note: If you are considering saying, "None," it will negate the very feedback you wanted this person to hear.)