

ABSTRACT

FOSTER, DOMINIQUE MARQUIS. Leading Under Pressure: A Test of Mediating and Moderating Mechanisms that Link Performance Pressure with Leader Bottom-Line Mentality. (Under the direction of Dr. S. Bartholomew Craig).

Current knowledge of destructive leadership is primarily derived from research on constructs which have no clear work-related purpose, like abusive supervision. The present study aimed to extend destructive leadership research by examining the contextual antecedents of leader bottom-line mentality, an antecedent of destructive influence that disregards outcomes like follower well-being in favor of meeting job performance goals. Using Conservation of Resources Theory as its theoretical framework, this study built on prior research to test whether leaders' experience of performance pressure, representing a resource threat, had an indirect effect on their bottom-line mentality through job-related negative affect. Further, this study examined the moderating effects of job context constraints (a resource loss) and leader resilience (a personal resource).

A series of hierarchical and moderated regression analyses combined with bootstrapping procedures were conducted using online panel data collected from 430 managers in the United States. Results supported the hypothesis that leaders' perceived performance pressure would predict their negative affect about their jobs, which in turn would predict their bottom-line mentality. Job context constraints and leader resilience had no moderating effects on the indirect effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality. These findings indicate the need for top management personnel in organizations to closely monitor how much pressure is placed on leaders throughout their organizations while creating a culture of balance between achieving ambitious performance goals and leading in a way that preserves follower well-being and long-term organizational health.

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Leading Under Pressure: A Test of Mediating and Moderating Mechanisms that Link
Performance Pressure with Leader Bottom-Line Mentality

by
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to the four most important women in my life: Valerie Foster Boyd, Brenda Sampson, Ruth Foster, and Sonia Harrison. The decisions and sacrifices these women made for me throughout my life are what made all of this possible. To them I am forever grateful and thankful.

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Leading Under Pressure: A Test of Mediating and Moderating Mechanisms that Link Performance Pressure with Leader Bottom-Line Mentality

In 2016, the United States Consumer Financial Protection Bureau determined that Wells Fargo Bank was engaged in unfair, deceptive, abusive, and illegal sales practices including opening over 2 million unauthorized deposit and credit card accounts using existing customers' information without their knowledge or consent (Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2016). Consequently, Wells Fargo fired over 5,000 employees and was required to pay \$185 million in fines. This scandal resulted in harm done to employees, customers, and the organization. Former Wells Fargo employees attributed the unlawful practices to a high-pressure, sales-focused performance culture that was reinforced at multiple levels of leadership (Glazer, 2016). The leader strategies that ultimately facilitated these events and led to such devastating outcomes fall under what scholars describe as destructive leadership.

Destructive leadership is defined as “systematic or repeated behavior by a leader, supervisor, or manager that knowingly violates, or inappropriately risks violating, the legitimate interest of the organization, its members, or other legitimate stakeholders by undermining or sabotaging the goals, tasks, resources, motivation, well-being, job satisfaction, or effectiveness of such stakeholders” (p. 439, Craig & Kaiser, 2012). It is commonly used as an overarching term that contains many facets such as abusive supervision, unethical leadership, pseudo-transformational leadership, narcissistic leadership, and toxic leadership (Mackey et al., 2021). While these facets represent distinct leadership styles or patterns of behaviors, they coalesce around the harm that the behaviors have the potential to inflict on followers, other stakeholders, or the organization.

Key to the definition of destructive leadership is the underlying intent of the leader. This definitional feature is subject to literary debate, as it serves to distinguish a destructive leader from a well-intending ineffective or incompetent leader. In some extreme cases, a leader may perform a destructive behavior with the explicit intent to cause harm. In cases where a leader does not harbor an explicitly harmful intent, the behavior may still be categorized as destructive so long as the leader is aware of the potential risks of harm and proceeds to act on their own volition (Craig & Kaiser, 2012; Krasikova et al., 2013). This deliberate intent, whether harm is the primary objective or not, places destructive leadership at the intersection of leadership and counterproductive work behavior (Sackett & DeVore, 2002).

The negative effects that destructive leadership has on follower attitudes, well-being, and behavior have been extensively explored and well-documented (Mackey et al., 2021; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). The overwhelming majority of destructive leadership studies have approached the topic through the lens of abusive supervision, the most frequently researched facet of destructive leadership (Mackey et al., 2021; Tepper, 2000). Thus, our knowledge of destructive leadership's nomological network is limited to leadership styles or behaviors that are people-oriented, extreme in nature, and have no clear work-related purpose such as public shaming, displaced anger, and negative comments on followers' competence, thoughts, or feelings. While this approach is certainly destructive to followers, scholars have called for the investigation of a wider range of destructive or harmful leader behaviors beyond abusive supervision (Mackey et al., 2021; Sharma, 2018).

Critical examinations of harmful work-related leadership styles are lacking in the destructive leadership literature. This gap in the literature is surprising considering destructive influence (i.e., motivating followers' actions through harmful means; Craig & Kaiser, 2012) is

more common than overt displays of abuse with no clear work-related purpose (Almeida et al., 2022). Leaders might use methods of influence that meet work goals in the short-term, but cause harm to followers (e.g., burnout) in the proximal and distal future (Krasikova et al., 2013). Therefore, it is necessary to develop a sound understanding of the antecedents of work-related destructive leadership.

The purpose of this study is to understand the mechanisms through which contextual antecedents motivate leaders to solely focus on accomplishing work goals at the expense of other priorities like follower wellbeing. Using Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfoll, 1989) as a guide, I seek to understand how leaders' own perceptions of performance pressure (i.e., resource threat) and leaders' experienced job constraints (i.e., resource loss) influence leaders to narrow their attention toward performance outcomes above other considerations. Further, I draw upon the resilience literature to investigate how the investment of constructive personal resources can mitigate the negative downstream effects of resource threat and loss.

The results of this study have the potential to make meaningful contributions to theory and practice. First, this study identifies and tests the relationships between two commonly experienced stressors for leaders and an understudied yet important facet of destructive leadership. Second, the concepts of resource threat and resource loss have been examined separately, in comparison to one another, and in transition from one to the other (Halbesleben et al., 2013; Luria & Torjman, 2009; Somaraju et al., 2022; Youngmann & Kushnirovich, 2021). This study contributes to Conservation of Resource Theory by testing the extent to which resource threat and resource loss have a multiplicative effect on leader behavior. Finally, understanding the contextual factors that motivate the sole focus on achieving performance goals at the expense of all other considerations under a leader's purview will give practitioners insight

into how to design the work environment and leadership roles in a way that will reduce the likelihood of this mentality.

Bottom-line Mentality

Bottom-line mentality is defined as “1-dimensional thinking that revolves around securing bottom-line outcomes to the neglect of competing priorities” (Greenbaum et al., 2012, p. 343). The “bottom-line” is usually conceptualized as “outcomes that are tied to the financial health of the organization or employee” (Greenbaum et al., 2023, 2118) such as performance metrics. Influencing followers’ efforts toward the achievement of organizational goals is a hallmark of effective leadership (Craig & Kaiser, 2012). Accordingly, bottom-line mentality represents a case in which an otherwise reasonable focus on achieving desired performance results becomes destructive when it becomes exceedingly narrow and single-minded (Greenbaum et al., 2023). This single-mindedness implies a disregard for the potential harm caused as a result of achieving desired performance.

Bottom-line mentality is appropriately situated within the destructive leadership domain as it is a direct hinderance to integrity within organizations (Wolfe, 1988). Wolfe (1988) explained that organizational members with a bottom-line mentality disregard the consideration of the multiple values organizations hold in favor of one dominant outcome, relegating ethical concerns to others or ignoring them altogether. Research has demonstrated that while leaders’ bottom-line mentality may have positive effects on employees’ work effort, helping behaviors, thriving at work, and performance, it also bolsters employees’ knowledge hiding, moral disengagement, unethical pro-organizational behavior, insomnia, work-family conflict, emotional exhaustion, and experienced meaninglessness in their jobs (see Greenbaum et al., 2023, for a full review of extant bottom-line mentality research). Moreover, Rice and Day (2022)

found leaders' bottom-line mentality was positively associated with leaders' abusive supervision and negatively associated with leaders' ethical leadership.

The contextual antecedents of destructive leadership in its various forms remain understudied in comparison to the study of its outcomes. This scarcity of antecedent research is reflected in the bottom-line mentality literature as well. The study of context from an antecedent perspective is important because it identifies key precipitating factors of organizational phenomena "which are within an organization's control, such as its culture, structure, human resource practices, and reward systems" (Sharma, 2018, p. 213). Only two studies have examined the contextual antecedents of bottom-line mentality. Rice and Luse (2023) found that leaders' perceived organizational justice had a negative indirect effect on leaders' bottom-line mentality via perceived institutionalization of ethics.

Brown et al. (2022) found that leaders' experience of performance pressure predicted their bottom-line mentality, establishing an initial linkage between the two constructs. Their finding illuminates an important contextual factor that drives leaders to adopt this mentality. In order to advance theory and practice, research examining the mechanisms that explain this phenomenon is critical (Aguinis et al., 2017). This study builds on the work of Brown and colleagues (2022) by examining the mediating and moderating mechanisms through which performance pressure leads to bottom-line mentality.

Conservation of Resources Theory

I employ Conservation of Resources Theory (COR Theory) as the theoretical framework underpinning this study. COR Theory is a stress and motivation theory that was originally proposed by psychologist and stress scholar Stevan Hobfoll (1989). COR Theory aims to explain individuals' evolutionary motivation to acquire, retain, foster, protect, and conserve resources

necessary for survival (Hobfoll et al., 2018). COR Theory offers an extension to established theories such as Reinforcement Theory (Skinner, 1938) and Prospect Theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979), which make predictions about decision-making and behavior from the perspective of outcome valence (i.e., potential for rewards and gains or punishments and losses). COR Theory makes similar predictions on similar grounds; however, it emphasizes the role of stress and coping in the decision-making process and the management of resource loss. Accordingly, this theory has been applied broadly in the organizational sciences to examine psychological mechanisms that may explain relationships between stimuli and resulting behavior.

COR Theory defines resources as things individuals centrally value that are supportive of goal attainment (Halbesleben et al., 2014). These resources might be objects like work equipment, conditions like employment or status, personal like skills or self-efficacy, or nonmaterial like information. COR Theory suggests that stress occurs when key resources are lost or are threatened with loss. Individuals respond to stress by investing resources that either cope directly with stress or change the array of stressors. However, as individuals' resources become increasingly overstretched or exhausted, the resource investment strategies chosen might become defensive, aggressive, or even irrational (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

A recent development in the COR Theory literature is the concept of resource caravans. Hobfoll (2011) recognized that resources are not independent of one another. Resources are situated within an organization's ecological network. These ecological or contextual conditions can create circumstances that either facilitate, limit, or block resource creation and maintenance (Hobfoll et al., 2018). COR Theory suggests an organization's failure to provide resource-enriching ecologies (or the successful provision of resource-demanding ecologies) may produce

less productive or even counterproductive behavior in employees (Hobfoll, 2011). It is this resource-demanding ecological context that I seek to investigate as an antecedent to bottom-line mentality. What follows is a development of study hypotheses explained through a resource lens.

Negative Affect as the Link between Performance Pressure and Bottom-line Mentality

Felt pressure to perform at or above expectations represents a salient form of resource threat for leaders (Mitchell et al., 2018). The pressure to perform well comes with an implicit or explicit contingency such that leaders can expect to be rewarded for meeting performance expectations or punished for not meeting expectations. Punishment might include loss of positive reputation, reduced scope of responsibility, demotion from a leadership position, or termination from the organization. Any of these punishments would threaten a leader's ability to accomplish work goals, meet self-fulfillment needs, or maintain their current standard of living via appropriate compensation. Hence, felt performance pressure represents a threat to leaders' valuable condition resources.

According to COR Theory, the threat of losing a valuable resource produces stress (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Negative emotion is a common reaction to job and role stressors (Spector & Fox, 2002). Working in a role in which high performance is a constant expectation constitutes a role stressor that is associated with negative emotion. For example, researchers have found performance pressure to be positively related to specific emotions like anger or to general emotional exhaustion (Mitchell et al., 2018; Rice & Reed, 2022). Therefore, leaders who experience consistently high pressure to perform well in their roles (i.e., condition resource threat) are likely to also experience negative emotions such as anger, frustration, and anxiety in response.

The desperation principle of COR Theory suggests that when faced with outstretched or exhausted resources, individuals will behave in self-preserving ways by deploying resources that will either aid in coping with stress or change the array of stressors (Hobfoll, 2018). These defensive resource investment strategies may be aggressive or even irrational as the severity of resource loss or threat increases. Leadership roles afford the unique ability to deploy human resources (i.e., followers) toward the attainment of results that meet leaders' performance needs. This form of resource deployment reflects the interpersonal influence dimension of leadership, which is one of the two ways that leaders affect performance and achieve organizational goals (Craig & Kaiser, 2012). Interpersonal influence is a broad description of any behavioral strategy that affects performance through its effect on followers' attitudes and behavior (Craig & Kaiser, 2012; Kaiser et al., 2008). Thus, in an effort to protect themselves from the threat of status loss, job insecurity, and sustained experience of negative affect, leaders will seek to meet external performance demands by exerting interpersonal influence on their followers such that they perform job tasks at the level necessary to achieve set goals.

As COR Theory would predict, the human resource investment strategy would only be effective if the deployed resources successfully respond to the stressor (i.e., alleviate the leader's felt performance pressure) and reduce stress (i.e., reduce negative affect). When performance expectations are reasonable, this resource investment strategy may manifest as normal leadership interpersonal influence. However, as performance pressure and the resulting stress mounts, leaders may respond by taking "direct action that might eliminate the immediate cause of a negative emotion, but in a destructive way. ... [that] might harm another individual or a larger social unit" (Spector & Fox, 2002, p. 273). Thus, under conditions of high performance pressure, leaders may narrow their focus to achieving bottom-line outcomes in an effort to reduce their

negative emotional experiences and to cope with their own pressure to perform. This narrowing scope of focus would bring with it a disregard for other outcomes like follower wellbeing or ethics.

Hypothesis 1: Leader negative affect will mediate the positive relationship between leaders' experience of performance pressure and leader bottom-line mentality.

The Amplifying Role of Job Context Constraints

Job context constraints are described as “constraints related to physical obstacles in one’s work environment, such as poor equipment or lack of information” (Liu et al., 2010, p. 454). I conceptualize these constraints as object and nonmaterial resource losses under COR Theory. Whether a leader’s job context resources were taken away or if they never had them at all, the experience of having inadequate resources necessary to optimally perform a job is frustrating and can lead to negative job attitudes and turnover intentions (Best et al., 2005; Spector & Jex, 1998). Further, the lack of these resources can hinder personal growth and wellbeing, which research has found to influence bottom-line mentality (Rice & Day, 2022).

As the resource caravans concept of COR Theory would suggest, resources (or the lack of resources) “travel in packs” (Hobfoll et al., 2018, p. 107) for individuals and organizations. The resources within these caravans interact with one another to produce desired or undesired employee behavior through the fostering, limiting, or blocking of further resource attainment or sustainment. COR Theory would suggest that individuals who already lack resources are more vulnerable to further resource loss. This heightened vulnerability would lead to heightened stress response when resource loss and the threat of loss are both high. Thus, I propose that leaders who experience high job context constraints will have a stronger emotional reaction to performance pressure because of their awareness of their limited ability to meet performance

demands with the object and nonmaterial resources made available to them. Further, the experience of high job context constraints will strengthen the effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality through negative affect.

Hypothesis 2a: Job context constraints will moderate the positive relationship between leaders' perceived performance pressure and leader negative affect such that the relationship is stronger when leaders experience high job context constraints compared to low constraints.

Hypothesis 2b: Job context constraints will moderate the indirect effect of leaders' perceived performance pressure on leader bottom-line mentality via leader negative affect such that the effect is stronger when leaders experience high job context constraints compared to low constraints.

The Buffering Role of Leader Resilience

The resource investment principle of COR Theory suggests “people must invest resources in order to protect against resource loss, recover from losses, and gain resources” (Hobfoll et al., 2018, p. 106). The likelihood that leaders will attempt to cope with their performance pressure-induced negative emotions by taking on a bottom-line mentality is in part influenced by the availability of personal resources that may offer an alternative coping strategy. One such personal resource that individuals can draw upon to cope with stressful events is resilience (Raetze et al., 2021).

Resilient people are typically able to “cope by using several protective resources either within themselves or in their environment” (Friborg et al., 2003, p. 65). These resources include personal competence (e.g., self-esteem and self-efficacy), social competence (e.g., extraversion and communication skills), personal structure (i.e., planning and organization skills), family

coherence (e.g., family support and stability), and social support (e.g., external support from friends, supervisors, and coworkers; Friborg et al., 2003). The resources available to and leveraged by resilient individuals offer alternative avenues for coping with the emotional toll that job and role stressors can take.

Researchers who have examined resilience in organizations have found that resilience acts as a buffer between certain job stressors and negative outcomes such as emotional exhaustion and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors (Shoss et al., 2018). In accordance with the resource investment principle of COR Theory, leaders who have demonstrated a pattern of behaviors reflective of resilience are likely to draw on their protective resources when faced with negative emotions due to high performance pressure. This personal resource investment will help leaders cope with stress in healthy ways, thus lessening the likelihood that they will resort to bottom-line mentalities. Further, high leader resilience will weaken the effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality through negative affect.

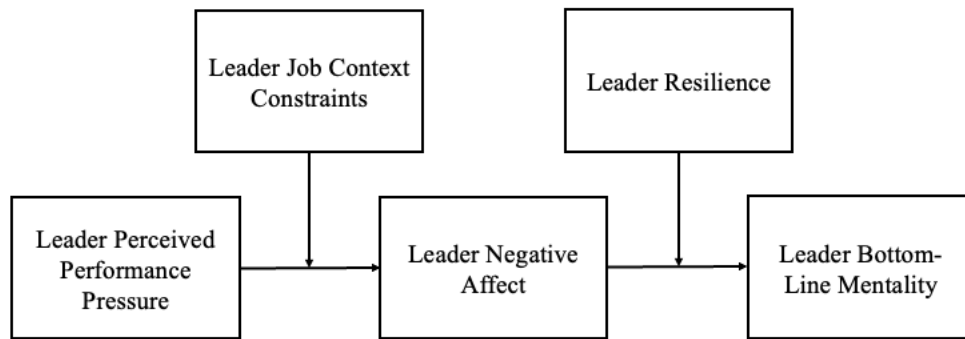
Hypothesis 3a: Leader resilience will moderate the positive relationship between leaders' negative affect and leader bottom-line mentality such that the relationship is weaker when leaders have high resilience levels compared to low resilience levels.

Hypothesis 3b: Leader resilience will moderate the indirect effect of leaders' perceived performance pressure on leader bottom-line mentality via leader negative affect such that

the relationship is weaker when leaders have high resilience levels compared to low resilience levels.

Figure 1

Model of Hypothesized Relationships



Method

Sample and Procedure

Participants were recruited from Prolific (www.prolific.com), an online website that allows researchers to obtain online panel data from research volunteers (Palan & Schitter, 2018; Peer et al., 2017). Online panel data was chosen for this data collection because of its accessibility and applicant pool diversity while generally producing similar estimates of criterion validity and measurement internal consistency compared to conventional data collected within a single organization (Walter et al., 2019). To be included in the study, participants must have indicated residing in the United States, being between 18-64 years of age, working full- or part-time in an organization, and having supervisory responsibilities over at least one subordinate at the time of the data collection. Data were collected over two timepoints to reduce potential effects of common method variance on the study results (Podsakoff et al., 2003). At time 1 (T1), a pool of 8,783 Prolific users were invited to participate in a survey that captured their experience with performance pressure as well as job context constraints, negative affect,

resilience, and demographic information. Users who provided electronic consent to participate in the study completed a Qualtrics survey at T1 and were compensated \$1.00 if their responses were accepted based on a careless responding criterion. A sample size of 500 was the target for participation. Ultimately, 503 Prolific users participated in the T1 survey.

Meade and Craig (2012) recommended using instructed response items to detect participants who are not paying sufficient attention to the survey as they are taking it. T1 participants were presented with two instructed response items randomly placed throughout the survey. The items were “Please select Strongly disagree” and “Please select Agree.” To be excluded from the final T1 sample, participants must incorrectly respond to both instructed response items. Only one participant incorrectly responded to both items and was thus removed from the sample. Eleven participants only missed the first instructed response item, and three participants only missed the second instructed response item. The final T1 sample size was 502.

All 502 T1 participants were invited to participate in the time 2 survey (T2), which assessed their bottom-line mentality. Of those 502, 438 provided consent and participated in the survey. The T2 survey was administered two days after the T1 administration to provide temporal separation between the dependent variable (i.e., bottom-line mentality) and all other study variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The same careless responding criterion from T1 was applied to T2. No T2 participants reported incorrect responses to both instructed response items in the survey, 14 participants missed the first item, and two participants missed the second item. All 438 T2 participants were retained, yielding an 87% retention rate relative to the original 502 at T1.

The final sample ($N = 438$) had an average age of 39.9 ($SD = 10.6$) and an average organizational tenure of 7.2 years ($SD = 7.6$). The sample was requested to be balanced on

gender through Prolific, and the final sample included 51% males, 48% females, and 1% self-identified genderqueer. Participants were 70% White, 9% African American or Black, 9% Asian, 7% Hispanic/Latinx, 3% Two or more races, and 2% Alaska Native or American Indian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Middle Eastern or North African, other, or non-response. Most participants (70%) held at least a bachelor's degree, and 47% were from the IT, Healthcare, Education, and Finance industries.

I conducted tests (e.g., *t*-test, Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, and Fisher's Exact test) on study variables to assess differences between participants who responded to both surveys (finishers; $N = 438$) and those who only responded to the T1 survey (T2 non-responders; $N = 64$). Finishers displayed slightly higher resilience scores ($M = 3.54$, $SD = 0.84$) than T2 non-responders ($M = 3.30$, $SD = 0.91$; $t(79.46) = -2.04$, $p = .045$, $d = 0.29$). Finishers were also older on average ($M = 39.9$, $SD = 10.6$) than T2 non-responders ($M = 34.4$, $SD = 9.4$; $t(86.29) = -4.22$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.52$). There were no differences between groups on any other study variable.

Measures

See the appendices A-E for a full list of scale items for each measure used in this study. In line with prior research on destructive leadership in general and bottom-line mentality specifically (Brown et al., 2022; Rice & Luse, 2023; Rice & Reed, 2022), leader age, gender, and organizational tenure (in months) were measured as control variables in this study. Mackey et al.'s (2021) meta-analysis of destructive leadership research suggested these control variables are either weakly or unrelated to various destructive leadership constructs. Thus, study results without control variables are also reported in the appendices F-H.

Performance Pressure

Leaders' perceived performance pressure was measured with a four-item measure (Mitchell et al., 2018). Leaders reported the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 5-point scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). An example item is "If I don't produce at high levels, my job will be at risk." The internal consistency reliability (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) of this scale was .83.

Negative Affect

Negative affect was measured using the Negative Affect Subscale of the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Leaders rated the frequency with which they have felt a series of emotions in the past 30 days on a 5-point scale from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Extremely often or always*). Example emotions include angry, frustrated, and anxious. The reliability of this scale was .95.

Bottom-line Mentality

Leaders' bottom-line mentality was measured with a four-item measure (Greenbaum et al., 2012). Following the work of several scholars (Eissa et al., 2019; Graham & Smith, 2023; Tai et al., 2022), leaders reported their bottom-line mentality by rating the extent to which they agree with four statements about themselves on a 5-point scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). An example item is "I treat the bottom line as more important than anything else." The reliability of this scale was .89.

Job Context Constraints

Leaders' job context constraints were measured with a five-item measure (Liu et al., 2010). Leaders reported how often they found it difficult or impossible to do their jobs because of various constraints including "Poor or lack of equipment or supplies" and "Lack of necessary

information about what to do or how to do it” on a 5-point scale from 1 (*less than once per month or never*) to 5 (*several times per day*). The reliability of this scale was .83.

Resilience

Resilience was measured with the Brief Resilience Scale (Smith et al., 2008). Leaders rated the extent to which they agreed with six statements on a 5-point scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Example items are “I have a hard time making it through stressful events” and “I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times.” The reliability of this scale was .90.

Results

I conducted data screening and quality checks prior to hypothesis testing. The electronic data collection forms were configured to require participants to respond to all study variables except for demographics. Eight participants did not respond to at least one of the demographic questions used as control variables. These participants were removed from analyses with control variables included. They were included in the analyses without control variables, which are located in appendices F-H.

The age and tenure variables were assessed for outliers using standard deviation analysis and percentage analysis, respectively (Aguinis et al., 2013). The type of analysis chosen aligned with the distribution of the data. There were no age values that fell above or below ± 2.24 standard deviations from the mean (lower bound = 16, upper bound = 64). For tenure, there were 11 values that were in the top 2.5% and nine values that were in the bottom 2.5% of the tenure data (lower bound = 4 months, upper bound = 310 months). There was no theoretically justifiable reason to delete these values based on this analysis. However, three of the 11 tenure values that exceeded the upper bound limit were determined to be error outliers due to their

impossible relationship with participants' reported ages (i.e., the participants would have had to be hired in their current organization at the age of 7 or younger). These three error values were recoded as missing values.

Next, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test whether the study scales (i.e., performance pressure, negative affect, bottom-line mentality, job context constraints, and resilience) captured distinct constructs. In the measurement model, all scale items were modeled to load onto their respective latent factors with uncorrelated residuals. CFA results suggested that the 5-factor measurement model fell slightly below generally accepted model fit thresholds ($\chi^2(517, N = 438) = 1604.445, p < .001, CFI = .889, TLI = .880, RMSEA = 0.069, SRMR = .057$; Kline, 2011). Modification indices were evaluated to understand which model specifications, if modified, might improve overall model fit.

Three of the top four suggested modifications involved correlating the residuals of three pairs of negative affect items (frightened and intimidated; depressed and discouraged; and annoyed and frustrated). The remaining top suggested modification was to allow a negative affect item, "My job made me feel bored," to load onto the performance pressure factor. Results of a 5-factor exploratory factor analysis using the principal axis factoring method with an oblimin rotation showed that the negative affect item cross loaded onto the performance pressure factor. The item's loading on the negative affect factor was 0.59 and its loading on the performance pressure factor was -0.31, both of which appropriately fall above and below the generally accepted threshold of .4 (Hinkin, 1988). Given that none of the top suggested modifications were theoretically or empirically justified, I made use of the scales as intended by their authors and treated them as distinct constructs. Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and bivariate correlations of all study variables.

Table 1

Study variable means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Performance Pressure	3.57	0.86	.83						
2. Negative Affect	1.97	0.76	.21**	.95					
3. Job Context Constraints	1.99	0.86	.23**	.67**	.83				
4. Resilience	3.54	0.84	.02	-.38**	-.21**	.90			
5. Bottom-line Mentality	2.14	0.87	.18**	.17**	.11*	-.03	.89		
6. Age	39.88	10.62	.04	-.15**	-.03	.12**	-.11*	-	
7. Tenure (in months)	82.39	75.46	.04	-.21**	-.13**	.21**	-.14**	.40**	-
8. Gender (F = 0, M = 1)	-	-	.08	-.02	.01	.09	.15**	.05	.07

Note. $N = 428-435$.

Gender includes female- and male-identified participants.

Cronbach's alpha on the diagonal.

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

Hypothesis 1 (H1) predicted leader negative affect will mediate the relationship between leader perceived performance pressure and leader bottom-line mentality. Employing hierarchical linear regression, I followed the causal steps approach to establishing mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986) as an initial test of this hypothesis. While this method has traditionally been used to establish mediation, it has been criticized because it does not offer a formal test, quantification, and degree of uncertainty of the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediator (Hayes, 2018a). Further, a key feature of Baron and Kenny's method is that a conclusion of no mediation is reached if the total effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is nonsignificant. There have been numerous occasions in the academic literature where an indirect effect was identified even when the total effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable was not statistically significant (see Hayes, 2018a, p. 117, for a list of examples). Accordingly, "strict adherence to this rule may preclude tests for mediation when a full mediation model is the true model in the population" (LeBreton et al., 2009, p. 116).

After testing with the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach, I used Hayes' (2018a) PROCESS macro (model 4) to offer an alternative test of H1. The Hayes PROCESS macro uses Preacher and Hayes' (2008) bootstrapping technique to estimate the indirect effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable through a mediator and test the indirect effect for significance. The bootstrapping procedure produces an accompanying standard error and 95% confidence interval around the estimated indirect effect. All models were tested for multicollinearity and heteroscedasticity prior to execution. Multicollinearity was determined not to be an issue in any model based on variance inflation factors. Heteroscedasticity was assessed using the Breusch-Pagan test. All models yielded statistically significant results ($p < .05$) on the

test, suggesting the presence of heteroscedasticity. To account for this violation, I used a heteroscedasticity-consistent covariance estimator (HCO) that produces robust standard errors (Zeileis, 2004).

A post-hoc power analysis in the software G*Power version 3.1 (Faul et al., 2009) suggested a sample of 438 participants is sufficient to detect relatively small multiple regression effect sizes (i.e., Cohen's $f^2 = .04$, $R^2 = .04$) with six predictors at 89% power ($\alpha = .05$). Further, Fritz and MacKinnon (2007) recommended sample sizes of at least 162 to detect small-to-moderate percentile bootstrapped mediation path estimates with 80% power. Thus, sample size was sufficient for testing H1.

Results of the hierarchical regression analysis controlling for age, tenure, and gender are presented in Table 2. Performance pressure was a statistically significant predictor of negative affect in Model 1 ($\beta = .225$, $p < .001$), which satisfied one requirement of the causal steps approach (i.e., the independent variable predicts the mediator). In step 1 of Model 2, performance pressure was a statistically significant predictor of bottom-line mentality ($\beta = .181$, $p < .001$). This result satisfied the second requirement (i.e., the independent variable predicts the dependent variable). In step 2 of Model 2, negative affect was entered into the model with performance pressure and control variables. Negative affect was a statistically significant predictor of bottom-line mentality ($\beta = .123$, $p = .029$). When negative affect was added to the model, the standardized coefficient for performance pressure decreased from .181 to .153. Further, entering negative affect into the model significantly improved model prediction ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p = .012$). These results together satisfied the final requirement for the causal steps approach, suggesting that negative affect partially mediated the relationship between performance pressure and bottom-line mentality. The mediation analysis executed with PROCESS model four using

5,000 bootstrap samples also supported the causal steps result with an indirect effect estimate of .028 [.002,.062]. The percentile bootstrap confidence interval excluded zero, supporting the establishment of mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Thus, H1 was supported.

Table 2

Hierarchical regression analysis

Variables	Model 1		Model 2	
	DV = Negative Affect		DV = Bottom-line Mentality	
	β	SE (HC0)	β	SE (HC0)
Step 1				
Performance Pressure	.225**	.043	.181**	.050
Gender (Male)	-.029	.070	.152**	.082
Gender (Genderqueer)	.034	.601	.116**	.505
Age	-.074	.004	-.068	.004
Tenure	-.183**	.000	-.133**	.001
	$R^2 = .10$		$R^2 = .10$	
Step 2				
Performance Pressure			.153**	.050
Negative Affect			.123*	.065
Gender (Male)			.155**	.081
Gender (Genderqueer)			.112**	.422
Age			-.059	.004
Tenure			-.110*	.001
			$R^2 = .11$	
			$\Delta R^2 = .01^*$	

Note. $N = 430$.

Female is the baseline for gender.

Standardized coefficients are accompanied by robust standard errors.

HC0 = Heteroscedasticity-consistent standard error.

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

Hypothesis 2a (H2a) predicted job context constraints will moderate the relationship between leader perceived performance pressure and leader negative affect such that the relationship will be stronger for leaders who experience high job context constraints compared to

low. I conducted a moderated regression analysis to test this hypothesis. The performance pressure and job context constraints variables were mean centered prior to the analysis. In Model 1 of Table 3, the interaction term for performance pressure and job context constraints was nonsignificant ($b = -.007, p = .874$). This result indicates that job context constraints did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between performance pressure and negative affect. Therefore, H2a was not supported.

Hypothesis 2b (H2b) predicted job context constraints will moderate the indirect effect of leaders' perceived performance pressure on leader bottom-line mentality via leader negative affect such that the effect is stronger when leaders experience high job context constraints compared to low constraints. I used PROCESS model seven to test this hypothesis. Model seven is a test of moderated mediation where the moderator is placed between the independent variable and the mediator (i.e., first stage moderated mediation; Hayes, 2018b). I followed established recommendations for detecting small-to-medium moderated mediation effects at 80% power using percentile bootstrapping analytic techniques (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007; Preacher et al., 2007). The ideal sample size for this study is 400 based on these recommendations, which the study sample exceeds. As presented in Table 3, the index (i.e., estimate) of moderated mediation is -0.001 with a bootstrap confidence interval between -.017 and .015. The confidence interval included zero, which suggests no moderated mediation effect was present and H2b was not supported.

Table 3
PROCESS results for job context constraints moderated mediation

Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i> (HC0)	<i>p</i>
Model 1: DV = Negative Affect			
Intercept	2.339	.112	.000
Performance Pressure	.062	.036	.081
Job Context Constraints (JCC)	.580	.039	.000
Performance Pressure x JCC	-.007	.047	.874
Age	-.007	.003	.012
Tenure	-.001	.000	.023
Gender (Male)	-.039	.053	.470
Gender (Genderqueer)	-.030	.303	.922
$R^2 = .49$			
Model 2: DV = Bottom-line Mentality			
Intercept	2.024	.223	.000
Performance Pressure	.158	.050	.002
Negative Affect	.141	.065	.029
Age	-.005	.004	.217
Tenure	-.001	.001	.015
Gender (Male)	.274	.081	.001
Gender (Genderqueer)	1.454	.422	.001
$R^2 = .11$			
Index of moderated mediation			
Index	<i>SE</i>	LLCI	ULCI
-0.001	.007	-.017	.015

Note. $N = 430$.

HC0 = Heteroscedasticity-consistent standard error.

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. LLCI = lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = upper limit confidence interval. 95% level of confidence for all confidence intervals.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b followed similar procedures as 2a and 2b. Hypothesis 3a (H3a) predicted leader resilience will moderate the positive relationship between leaders' negative affect and leader bottom-line mentality such that the relationship is weaker when leaders have high resilience levels compared to low resilience levels. Model 2 in Table 4 presents results of a moderated regression with mean centered product terms. The interaction term for negative affect and resilience was nonsignificant ($b = .015, p = .827$).¹ Thus, H3a was not supported.

Hypothesis 3b predicted leader resilience will moderate the indirect effect of leaders' perceived performance pressure on leader bottom-line mentality via leader negative affect such that the relationship is weaker when leaders have high resilience levels compared to low resilience levels. I used PROCESS model 14 to test this hypothesis. Model 14 is a test of moderated mediation where the moderator is placed between the mediator and the dependent variable (i.e., second stage moderated mediation; Hayes, 2018b). The index of moderated mediation presented in Table 4 was .003 [-.027,.031], which is nonsignificant. This result suggested no moderated mediation was present and H3b was not supported. The results of all hypothesis tests held with and without the presence of control variables (see the appendices F-H for results without controls).

¹ A similar moderated regression model with performance pressure excluded as a predictor resulted in an interaction term coefficient of .005 ($p = .943$).

Table 4
PROCESS results for resilience moderated mediation

Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i> (HC0)	<i>p</i>
Model 1: DV = Negative Affect			
Intercept	-.329	.207	.112
Performance Pressure	.201	.043	.000
Age	-.005	.004	.124
Tenure	-.002	.000	.000
Gender (Male)	-.044	.070	.530
Gender (Genderqueer)	.377	.601	.531
$R^2 = .10$			
Model 2: DV = Bottom-line Mentality			
Intercept	1.759	.211	.000
Performance Pressure	.155	.049	.002
Negative Affect	.160	.072	.026
Resilience	.033	.052	.529
Negative Affect x Resilience	.015	.068	.827
Age	-.005	.004	.210
Tenure	-.001	.001	.015
Gender (Male)	.272	.083	.001
Gender (Genderqueer)	1.419	.409	.001
$R^2 = .11$			
Index of moderated mediation			
Index	<i>SE</i>	LLCI	ULCI
.003	.015	-.027	.031

Note. $N = 430$.

HC0 = Heteroscedasticity-consistent standard error.

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. LLCI = lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = upper limit confidence interval. 95% level of confidence for all confidence intervals.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to understand the mechanisms through which contextual antecedents like performance pressure and job context constraints influence leaders' bottom-line mentality. Further, the study assessed the moderating effect of leader resilience as a potential buffering mechanism. To test the study hypotheses, I conducted a series of multiple regression analyses and bootstrapping procedures using a sample of 430 geographically and occupationally diverse supervisors. The results of this study supported one of three hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 was supported, suggesting leaders' experience of performance pressure has an indirect effect on their bottom-line mentality through increased negative affect. This study did not support hypotheses 2a and 2b, which predicted job context constraints would moderate a) the relationship between leader perceived performance pressure and leader negative affect and b) the full indirect effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality via negative affect.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b predicted leader resilience would moderate a) the positive relationship between leaders' negative affect and leader bottom-line mentality and b) the full indirect effect.

The study did not support these hypotheses either.

Theoretical Implications

Extant knowledge of destructive leadership is generally limited to people-oriented leadership styles or behaviors that serve no clear work-related purpose (e.g., abusive supervision; Tepper, 2000). Moreover, there is a dearth of research examining the antecedent motivators of leadership styles and behaviors that fall under the destructive leadership umbrella. Scholars have responded to this narrow focus by calling for the investigation of a broader scope of destructive leadership constructs (Mackey et al., 2021) and the contextual antecedents that motivate them (Sharma, 2018). This study extends destructive leadership theory by deepening our

understanding of the contextual antecedents of destructive leadership from a work-oriented perspective that is tied directly to job and organizational performance.

Brown et al. (2022) found that performance pressure predicted bottom-line mentality, establishing an initial linkage between the two constructs. The present study builds upon their work by testing a theoretical explanation of this phenomenon using a Conservation of Resources Theory approach (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Empirical support for hypothesis 1 suggests that when leaders experience performance pressure, a potential threat to key resources, leaders will experience stress in the form of negative affect. Consistent with the desperation principal of COR Theory, this threat to key resources and resulting stress influences leaders to attempt to protect their resources and cope with their stress by narrowing their focus to meeting or exceeding bottom-line outcomes with disregard for follower well-being or other potentially negative outcomes.

The indirect effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality through negative affect was not moderated by job context constraints as a first-stage moderator nor resilience as a second-stage moderator. This finding suggests leaders who perceive high pressure to perform will likely also experience negative affect that will in turn influence their bottom-line mentality regardless of how constrained their job-related resources are or how dispositionally resilient they are. Corollary 1 of COR Theory posits that people who lack resources are more vulnerable to resource loss (Hobfoll et al., 2018). This heightened vulnerability would intuitively produce an increased level of stress when valuable resources are threatened in high performance pressure environments compared to low pressure environments. However, results of this study suggest this heightened vulnerability does not always translate into heightened stress response in the face

of resource-threatening stressors. This result is also inconsistent with the notion that resources “travel in packs,” interacting with one another to produce behavior (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

Practical Implications

This study has several implications for practice. The finding that leaders’ experience with performance pressure indirectly affects their bottom-line mentality highlights the importance of closely monitoring how much pressure is applied to organizational leaders to achieve high performance. Expecting sustained, unreasonably high expectations for performance could inspire the prioritization of short-term outcomes at the expense of long-term employee and organizational health. Some jobs like sales roles may come with high performance pressure by nature. In such cases, decision makers are encouraged to use validated criteria for selecting leaders that can cope with and manage high performance pressure work environments while balancing multiple priorities.

Top management and human resources practitioners can reduce the likelihood of middle managers and supervisors adopting a bottom-line mentality by creating a culture of balance between meeting reasonable work goals and prioritizing the well-being of their subordinates. This can be accomplished through ambitious yet realistic goal setting, the review and implementation of policies that support work-life balance, the consistent communication and practice of these values from top management, and the integration these practices into reward structures. While resilience training has been shown to significantly decrease stress in some studies (see Scheuch et al., 2021, for a review), the results of the present study suggest that being resilient is not enough to buffer the positive indirect effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality. Though leaders’ levels of job context constraints did not influence their bottom-line mentality as a result of performance pressure, resource constraints did have a strong, positive

relationship with job-related negative affect. Thus, equipping leaders with the resources necessary to successfully achieve expected performance goals is encouraged.

Limitations and Future Directions

Some features of the study design and sample may limit the internal and external validity of study results. Findings should be viewed in context of these limitations. The study design was correlational, meaning all constructs in this study were measured without manipulation. As a result of this design feature, the findings of this study do not provide evidence of a causal chain from performance pressure to negative affect and from negative affect to bottom-line mentality (Schwab, 2013). To enhance confidence in causal inferences, future research should test the causal direction of these constructs using an experimental or quasi-experimental design. For example, researchers might consider conducting experimental vignette studies to test mediating and moderating effects in a way that produces high internal validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014).

Managers in the study sample reported their own bottom-line mentality. While other scholars have used this data collection method to measure bottom-line mentality (Eissa et al., 2019; Graham & Smith, 2023; Tai et al., 2022), leaders may consider this mentality to be viewed in a negative light and therefore underreport their alignment with it to maintain a positive or socially desirable image of themselves (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This design feature may have had attenuating effects on the observed relationship found between leaders' negative affect and bottom-line mentality. Future research should reexamine study hypotheses using a multisource data collection method whereby data are collected from dyads of leaders and their followers. In this process, followers would report their respective leader's bottom-line mentality; leaders would report all other variables; and responses from leaders and their respective followers are linked prior to analysis. This procedure eliminates the effects of "consistency motifs, implicit

theories, social desirability tendencies, dispositional and transient mood states, and any tendencies on the part of the rater to acquiesce or respond in a lenient manner” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 887).

The study sample is predominately White, highly educated, and Western. Underrepresented or unrepresented racial groups, people without undergraduate or graduate degrees, and people who live outside of the United States may have cultural norms and experiences that have the potential to influence a) their mental models of study constructs or b) the relationships between study constructs. Therefore, it is unclear if the findings of this study generalize beyond White individuals in WEIRD societies (i.e., Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic; Henrich et al., 2010). Preliminary replication analyses using the non-White subgroup sample and the sample without a bachelor’s degree or higher suggested race and education level may be relevant demographics to consider when attempting to understand these phenomena. Thus, researchers are encouraged to test these relationships with samples that represent a broader array of cultures, racial groups, and levels of educational attainment.

The finding that resilience did not moderate the relationship between negative affect and bottom-line mentality, nor did it moderate the indirect effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality through negative affect, was particularly surprising. Scholars have used many different conceptualizations of resilience including resilience as a personality trait, as the presence of a set of attributes or resources, as a state-like ability or capability, as a process, and even as an outcome (Raetze et al., 2021). This study used the Brief Resilience Scale (Smith et al., 2008) to measure resilience. The creators of this widely used scale conceptualized resilience as the ability to bounce back from stress. One explanation for the null resilience moderation

findings is that this conceptualization is suboptimal in the context of this study, and future research might consider investigating alternative conceptualizations.

Aguinis et al. (2017) stated that “even a relatively mild degree of range restriction (i.e., just the bottom 20% of the distribution is truncated) can markedly decrease statistical power and threaten the validity of conclusions regarding moderating effect hypotheses” (p. 669). In this study, 13% of the T1 sample did not complete the T2 survey and were excluded from analyses. The final sample had a higher average resilience score than did the 13% nonresponders, which suggests the presence of range restriction on the resilience measure. This range restriction could be a viable explanation for the null resilience moderation findings in the study.

Yet another potential explanation for the null resilience moderation findings is model misspecification. A post-hoc moderated regression analysis identified a marginally significant moderation effect of resilience on the direct effect of performance pressure on negative affect ($p = .05$). This result suggested that, although resilience did not moderate the indirect effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality via the b path (i.e., second stage moderated mediation), it may have moderating effects earlier in the causal sequence. Given this preliminary finding and the other potential explanations mentioned prior, future research should explore the role of resilience more fully.

An opportunity for future research is to examine other moderators that may amplify or buffer the indirect effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality through negative affect. Krasikova et al. (2013) proposed that “leaders’ dispositional tendencies to emphasize self-interest over interests of others and at the expense of others (e.g., Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy) are positively related to leaders’ choice to engage in DL [destructive leadership]” (p. 1324). For example, Eissa et al. (2019) found that employee Machiavellianism

was a statistically significant predictor of employee bottom-line mentality. Thus, leaders high on the abovementioned personality traits may be more likely to take on a bottom-line mentality when faced with performance pressure and resulting stress.

Padilla et al. (2007) proposed the toxic triangle, “the characteristics of leaders, followers, and environmental contexts connected with destructive leadership” (p. 176). They suggested one of the most important features of the environment that can prevent destructive leadership is appropriate checks and balances. Leaders have a greater opportunity to abuse their power when given a large degree of discretion over their approaches to leading (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1990; Kaiser & Hogan, 2007). On the other hand, leaders who are held accountable for their approach to leading may find alternative methods of influencing their followers toward goal achievement that do not disregard their well-being. For example, experimental studies conducted by Rus et al. (2012) showed that for leaders with disciplinary authority over their followers, those who were in the accountable condition exhibited less self-serving behavior than those who were in the condition where they were not held accountable. Thus, future research could test the moderating effects of accountability and discretion on the indirect effect of performance pressure on bottom-line mentality.

Interested researchers might want to consider the effects of the broader organizational context on relationships tested in this study. For example, an organization’s norms and climate around performance pressure may influence how leaders perceive and react to performance pressure (Sharma, 2018). On one hand, leaders may view the pressure as normal and routine if it is a longstanding norm that is integrated within policies, procedures, reward structures, values, and other organizational artifacts. This routinization may lead to habituation whereby leaders develop a baseline tolerance for performance pressure and thereby experience diminished stress

responses over time. Alternatively, a climate of performance pressure may lead to a chronic stress response, which could reinforce the need to adopt a bottom-line mentality to cope with and meet the expected level of high performance. Thus, examining a climate of performance pressure as a moderator or control variable may yield interesting results that add nuance to the present study.

Lastly, future research could test alternative explanations for the relationship between performance pressure and bottom-line mentality. For example, the relationship might be explained using theories involving environmental and social influence such as Social Cognitive Theory (Wood & Bandura, 1989), Social Information Processing Theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991). These theories converge around the idea that individuals' cognitive processes and behaviors are shaped in part by the environmental cues, norms, and social contexts within which they operate. It seems reasonable to assume that leaders who work in high performance pressure environments receive cues from their leaders and peers that having a bottom-line mentality is acceptable, preferred, and potentially rewarded. Leaders may respond to these cues by adopting the mentality themselves and rationalizing away the potential harm this mentality could have on followers' well-being and long-term organizational health.

Conclusion

Research has revealed the harmful effects of leaders having a bottom-line mentality. A deeper understanding of how and why leaders adopt this mentality is needed in order to reduce its prevalence in organizations. This study sought to build upon the initial link found between performance pressure and bottom-line mentality (Brown et al., 2022) by testing a resource-based theoretical explanation for the relationship. Results of this study supported the hypothesis that

leaders who experience performance pressure in their jobs have increased job-related negative affect, which in turn relates to increased bottom-line mentality. This indirect effect occurs regardless of the degree of job constraints leaders experience and how resilient leaders are. These findings illuminate the importance of monitoring the degree of pressure placed on leaders to achieve unreasonably high goals without consideration for other outcomes like follower well-being and long-term organizational performance. While this research was informative, there are numerous avenues for future research that seek to either validate the results of this study or provide alternative explanations for the phenomenon.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Performance Pressure Scale (Mitchell et al., 2018)

Rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

(1 = *Strongly disagree*, 5 = *Strongly agree*)

1. The pressures for performance in my workplace are high.
2. I feel tremendous pressure to produce results.
3. If I don't produce at high levels, my job will be at risk.
4. I would characterize my workplace as a results-driven environment.

Appendix B

Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (Van Katwyk et al., 2000)

Negative Affect Subscale

Below are a number of statements that describe different emotions that a job can make a person feel. Please indicate the amount to which your job has made you feel that emotion in the past 30 days.

(1 = *never*; 5 = *extremely often or always*).

1. My job made me feel annoyed.
2. My job made me feel bored.
3. My job made me feel disgusted.
4. My job made me feel frustrated.
5. My job made me feel gloomy.
6. My job made me feel angry.
7. My job made me feel anxious.
8. My job made me feel confused.
9. My job made me feel depressed.
10. My job made me feel discouraged.
11. My job made me feel frightened.
12. My job made me feel furious.
13. My job made me feel fatigued.
14. My job made me feel intimidated.
15. My job made me feel miserable.

Appendix C

Bottom-Line Mentality Scale (Greenbaum et al., 2012)

Please reflect on your own experiences as a manager. Rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. Please be as honest as possible in your responses.

(1 = *Strongly disagree*, 5 = *Strongly agree*)

1. I am solely concerned with meeting the bottom line.
2. I only care about the business.
3. I treat the bottom line as more important than anything else.
4. I care more about profits than employee well-being.

Appendix D

Job Context Constraints Scale (Liu et al., 2010)

How often do you find it difficult or impossible to do your job because of...

(1 = *less than once per month or never*; 5 = *several times per day*)

1. Poor or lack of equipment or supplies?
2. Organizational rules and procedures?
3. Inadequate training?
4. Lack of necessary information about what to do or how to do it?
5. Conflicting job demands?

Appendix E

The Brief Resilience Scale (Smith et al., 2008)

Rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

(1 = *Strongly disagree*, 5 = *Strongly agree*)

1. I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times.
2. I have a hard time making it through stressful events. (R)
3. It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event.
4. It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens. (R)
5. I usually come through difficult times with little trouble.
6. I tend to take a long time to get over set-backs in my life. (R)

Appendix F

Hierarchical regression analysis without control variables

Variables	Model 1		Model 2	
	DV = Negative Affect		DV = Bottom-line Mentality	
	β	SE (HC0)	β	SE (HC0)
Step 1				
Performance Pressure	.211**	.045	.185**	.052
	$R^2 = .04$		$R^2 = .03$	
Step 2				
Performance Pressure			.153**	.051
Negative Affect			.152**	.064
			$R^2 = .06$	
			$\Delta R^2 = .03^*$	
Standardized Indirect Effect				
Estimate	SE	Lower CI	Upper CI	
0.032	.014	.008	.063	

Note. $N = 438$.

Standardized coefficients are accompanied by robust standard errors.

HC0 = Heteroscedasticity-consistent standard error.

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

Appendix G

PROCESS results for job context constraints moderated mediation without control variables

Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i> (HC0)	<i>p</i>
Model 1: DV = Negative Affect			
Intercept	1.975	.028	.000
Performance Pressure	.046	.037	.213
Job Context Constraints (JCC)	.595	.039	.000
Performance Pressure x JCC	-.016	.047	.734
<i>R</i> ² = .46			
Model 2: DV = Bottom-line Mentality			
Intercept	1.801	.127	.000
Performance Pressure	.157	.051	.002
Negative Affect	.174	.064	.006
<i>R</i> ² = .06			
Index of moderated mediation			
Index	<i>SE</i>	LLCI	ULCI
-0.003	.009	-.020	.015

Note. *N* = 438.

HC0 = Heteroscedasticity-consistent standard error.

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. LLCI = lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = upper limit confidence interval. 95% level of confidence for all confidence intervals.

Appendix H

PROCESS results for resilience moderated mediation without control variables

Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i> (HC0)	<i>p</i>
Model 1: DV = Negative Affect			
Intercept	-.671	.160	.000
Performance Pressure	.188	.045	.000
<i>R</i> ² = .05			
Model 2: DV = Bottom-line Mentality			
Intercept	1.602	.178	.000
Performance Pressure	.155	.050	.002
Negative Affect	.194	.071	.007
Resilience	.030	.053	.576
Negative Affect x Resilience	.022	.070	.753
<i>R</i> ² = .06			
Index of moderated mediation			
Index	<i>SE</i>	LLCI	ULCI
.004	.014	-.024	.033

Note. *N* = 438.

HC0 = Heteroscedasticity-consistent standard error.

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. LLCI = lower limit confidence interval. ULCI = upper limit confidence interval. 95% level of confidence for all confidence intervals.